



1983

An Analysis of the Profile, Roles, Functions, and Behavior of Women on Boards of Education in DuPage County, Illinois

Stephanie Anne Pace Marshall
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AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROFILE, ROLES, FUNCTIONS,
AND BEHAVIOR OF WOMEN ON BOARDS OF
EDUCATION IN DUPAGE COUNTY
ILLINOIS

by

Stephanie Anne Pace Marshall

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

January

1983

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The completion of a major research project is undoubtedly the results of many minds and hearts working together.

I am indebted to the members of my committee. I am especially grateful to my advisor, Dr. Melvin P. Heller, for his generous contribution of time, assistance, counsel, and friendship. His forthright, insightful, and yet gentle critique of my writing were crucial. Dr. Max Bailey and Dr. Philip Carlin were always willing to discuss my research and to offer excellent guidance, direction and support which brought added depth to the study.

I wish to thank the Batavia Public School District #101 Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools, Dr. James A. Clark for their support and encouragement. I also wish to thank Merre Lynn Adams and Kathy Happel for their assistance in the preparation of this dissertation. Special gratitude is extended to Valerie Popeck for her dedication and personal commitment to this project; her loyalty and friendship will always be treasured. Gratitude is extended to Dr. Diane Musial and to Eve and Judy Simonson for their critical assistance in data preparation and analysis. Sincere appreciation is also extended to the school board

members who gave of their time to participate in this study and to Diane Kruszynski for her personal concern and expertise in preparing the manuscript. Her helpfulness in coordinating the many details involved is greatly appreciated.

I wish to acknowledge the unconditional love and support of my family. My mother, Anne Price Pace instilled in me at a very early age the freedom and drive to become all that I am capable of becoming. My brother, Charles John Pace embodied the pursuit of scholarship and achievement, and my father, Dominick Martin Pace left behind a legacy of tenacity and vision.

Finally, I want to profoundly thank my husband, colleague, and best friend, Robert Dean Marshall for his unwavering patience, understanding, and constant encouragement. Without his professional insight, emotional support and love, this document would not have been possible.

VITA

Stephanie Anne Pace Marshall, the daughter of Anne (Price) Pace, and Dominick Martin Pace (deceased), was born in New York, New York on July 19, 1945.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The fundamental character of public education in the United States is in the last analysis, determined by the board that controls the schools."¹ Through their vested decision-making authority, school boards establish the direction of education in every school district throughout the nation.

With the exception of dame schools, early education in the United States was in Chester Nolte's words, "an all-boy review."² This was true not only in the classroom, but in the ranks of school board membership as well.

In Illinois, eligibility for school board membership is defined by the School Code as follows:

Any person, who on the date of his election, is a citizen of the U.S., of the age of 18 years or over, a resident of the state and the territory of the district for at least one year immediately preceding his election, a

¹George S. Counts, The Social Composition of Boards of Education: A Study of the Social Control of Public Education (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1927), p. 1.

²Chester M. Nolte, "Women in Education: A Long, Long Way to Go," The American School Board Journal 160 (October 1973):38.

registered voter as provided in the general election law and is not a school trustee or a school treasurer, shall be eligible to the office of school director.³

Despite the openness of these qualifications, women comprise approximately 24.6 percent of the school board population in Illinois."⁴

With the emergence of recent women's equity issues, attention has become focused on the positions women occupy in educational governance. Hence, women on school boards became an important area for study. Before one can understand the parameters of the study, it is necessary to place the role of women on school boards in developmental and historical perspective.

In May of 1891, The American School Board Journal reprinted an article from the Philadelphia Times of that year. Excerpts from the article clearly portrayed the status of women school board members at that time.

The Committee of Fifty has performed a valuable service to the public schools by making local party leaders come face to face with intelligent and public spirited women who are ready to serve as school directors.... It is a reproach to the civilization of this evening of the nineteenth century that women are excluded from our school boards, as a rule in both city and state ... our

³The School Code of Illinois (St. Paul: West Publishing Co., 1981), p. 46.

⁴Interview with Diane Cape, Reference Department, Illinois Association of School Boards, Springfield, Illinois, 20 July 1982. There are 4881 male school board members and 1590 female school board members from districts that are members of Illinois Association of School Boards. (This represents over 91% of all the School Boards in Illinois.)

local political masters have treated the suggestion of women school directors with contempt.... If the Republican leaders are wise they will today cordially accept every woman named by the Committee of Fifty as proper candidates for school directors.... The time has come when it is simply brutal ignorance that excludes women from the school boards and, if political parties won't accept women as candidates, the good people of all parties should unite to elect women to every ward board of the city.⁵

This enlightened perspective was not reflected in subsequent journal articles.

In the May 1892 publication of The American School Board Journal, A. B. Carroll, Superintendent of Schools in Shenandoah, Iowa stated his prerequisites for the ideal school board member.

... It is very essential to have the best men in the community upon the school board ... he should be a business man, a man of affairs, of good, hard practical common sense ... he should be a man of some property... He should be a liberal man but not a spendthrift... He should usually be a man of family. He should be a good judge of human nature... The man for the school board should not be a hobbyist... He should be sufficiently progressive to keep abreast of the improvements of the time, and at the same time sufficiently conservative to prevent hurtful experiments and crazes from taking possession of the schools. In short, the ideal director should be an all-around, well-balanced, practical man of affairs...⁶

This portrait of the ideal school board member negated the possibility of women serving on school boards since women did not hold positions within the business community

⁵"Women School Directors," The American School Board Journal 2 (May 1891): 1.

⁶"The best board man -- of 1892," The American School Board Journal 169 (March 1892): 24.

and they were not permitted to be independent property owners.

Subsequent issues of The American School Board Journal dramatically emphasized the lack of respect for women as school board members. Comments recorded in The American School Board Journal in June of 1894, clearly illustrates this perspective:

... that they [women] did not possess the same ability, that in board and community meetings they can not cope in cool and deliberate debate with their male colleagues, that it requires a bold woman to maintain her position and that a bold woman is not womanly ... the usual harassing and annoying petitions and complaints make a woman fretful and irritable, that the average woman is more easily influenced than a man ... that in arguments women cannot bear opposition, will readily become vindictive and screechy, that her heart rather than her head guides her, that impulse rather than calm deliberation prompts her, that the usual deference paid her sex must be extended to other plans, be they wise or otherwise.⁷

A year later, in July of 1885, The American School Board Journal reported the following:

The argument, however, so commonly used by champions of the women suffragist, that an intelligent woman is more desirable than an ignorant man, is a fallacy... There are those who believe that nature designed women for other than a public career. The power of a woman's influence can be expected nowhere better than in the sacred precincts of the home, as the companion of her husband and the mother of her children. When she fills that grand office faithfully and well, she will have little time or inclination for school board or other public duties.⁸

⁷"Here's Looking at You (and You at Us) for Eighty-Five Years," The American School Board Journal 163 (August 1976): 22.

⁸Ibid.

Writing in 1904, William Chancellor issued a pronouncement on the personal qualifications of board members. According to Chancellor the following categories of individuals would make good school board members:

1. Manufacturers accustomed to dealing with bodies of men and with important business interests
2. Merchants, contractors, bankers, and other men of large affairs
3. Physicians, if in successful practice
4. College graduates in any walk of life who are succesful in their own affairs⁹

Chancellor also enumerated the categories from which unreliable board members would likely come. These included:

1. Inexperienced young men, whatever their calling
2. Unsuccessful men
3. Old men retired from business
4. Politicians
5. Newspapermen
6. Uneducated and unlearned men
7. Men in subordinate business positions
8. Women¹⁰

⁹William Chancellor, Our Schools: Their Administration and Supervision (Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1915), quoted in George S. Counts, The Social Composition of Boards of Education: A Study of the Social Control of Public Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927), pp. 83-84.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 84.

By the turn of the century, however, Chicago was paving the way for women on boards of education. In December 1905, Chicago Mayor Dunn had appointed three women to the board of education, thereby balancing the membership evenly between males and females.¹¹

Dunn rationalized his decision by creating an analogy between the school and the home. Likening the school to a "department"¹² of the home, it was his contention that "all pious talk about home as a women's place is twaddle if the school is not included in the home idea."¹³

Dunn's radical perspective was not shared by his contemporaries. In 1911 Superintendent Hines of Crawfordsville, Illinois argued that

... the movement of women board members is part of the more or less hysterical movement over the country, looking to thrusting women into every conceivable position from heaving coal to the Presidency of the United States. The truth of the matter is that women as a rule are far better fitted by nature for positions in the schools as supervisors, principals, and superintendents.¹⁴

One finds this last statement amusing in light of the contemporary tug of war and underrepresentation of women in administrative positions. Hines' position on women as school board members nevertheless remains clear.

¹¹"Here's Looking at You (And You at Us) for Eighty-Five Years," p. 22.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Ibid.

This perspective was dramatically endorsed by Elwood P. Cubberley in his widely read and highly influential book on school administration, Public School Administration.

Writing in 1916, Cubberley stated his views as follows:

To render such intelligent service to the school system of a city as has been indicated requires the selection of a particular type of citizen for school board member ... we can deduce the type of man most likely to prove useful as a member of a city board for school control.

Men who are successful in the handling of large business undertakings - manufacturers, merchants, bankers, contractors, and professional men of large practices ... College graduates who are successful in their business or professional affairs ... also usually make good board members... On the other hand, the list of those who usually do not make good school board members is much larger. Inexperienced young men, unsuccessful men, old men, who have retired from business, politicians, saloon-keepers, uneducated or relatively ignorant men, men in minor business positions, and women, are usually considered as undesirable for board membership.¹⁵

As the suffrage movement gathered national momentum, a slight shift was seen in the writings accepted for publication within The American School Board Journal. The February 1918 Journal included the following comments of a superintendent's wife: "women think and reason, or come to a conclusion, intuitively, which is a very different way from men, that is one good plea for having a few women trustees."¹⁶

¹⁵Elwood P. Cubberley, Public School Administration (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Inc., 1929), quoted in George S. Counts, The Social Composition of Boards of Education: A Study of the Social Control of Public Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927), pp. 84-85.

¹⁶"Here's Looking at You (And You at Us) for Eighty-Five Years," p. 22.

The fact that a woman (although she remained anonymous) was permitted space within the Journal, indicated the progress the feminists were making.¹⁷

Two years later, in 1920, women became enfranchised voters when the Nineteenth Amendment was ratified.

How far women have come since this Amendment is much cause for discussion.

This much is certain, however: From the 1890's until the twenties of this century, the attitude toward women as school board members, teachers, and supervisors in the schools swung from total negative to partial positive. Indeed, that time span may represent the greatest advancement for women in education to date.¹⁸

Purpose of the Study

Traditional patterns of male dominance have historically characterized boards of education.

The percentage of women school board members has fluctuated between seven and fifteen percent from 1916 until the beginning of the 1970's.¹⁹ In 1927, George Counts found that there was an increase in the percentage of women serving on school boards after the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment.²⁰ Following this increase, however, the numerous studies that reported the gender ratio composition

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "School Boards and Sex Bias in American Education," Contemporary Education 2 (Winter 1974): 85.

²⁰Ibid.

of school boards indicated that the percentage of women school board members has remained fairly constant until the early 1970's. Table 1 provides an overview of the percentage of women who have served as school board members from 1916 until the present day.

Table 1

Percentage of School Board Members in the United States

Who Have Been Women

(Percentage Amounts to the Nearest Whole Number)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Percent Women</u>
1916	7
1920	8
1922	9
1927	15
1946	10
1953	14
1958	18
1960	10
1969	13
1972	12
1975	21
1976	22
1978	26
1979	28
1980	28
1981	33

SOURCES: Scott Nearing, "Who's Who on Our Boards of Education," School and Society (January 1971): 90; George Struble, "A Study of School Board Personnel," American School Board Journal 65 (October 1922): 49; Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "School Boards and Sex Bias in American Education," Contemporary Education 2 (Winter 1974): 85; Paul D. Blanchard, "Women in Public Education: The Impact of Female School Board Members," East Tennessee State Journal of Humanics 4 (May 1977): 65; National School Boards Association, The Fifty State School Boards (Evanston: National School Boards Association, 1976); Kenneth E. Underwood, Lawrence McCluskey, and George Umberger, "A Profile of the School Board Member," The American School Board Journal 165 (October 1978); Kenneth E. Underwood, "Portrait of the American School Board Member," The American School Board Journal 167 (January 1980); Kenneth E. Underwood, "Your Portrait: Who You Are Region by Region," The American School Board Journal 168 (January 1981); Kenneth E. Underwood, James Fortune and Harold Dodge, "Your Portrait: School Boards Have a Brand New Look," The American School Board Journal 169 (January 1982).

Although the reason for this increase is not totally understood, the following assumptions have been posited by Shirley McCune, Director of the Title IX Workshop Project, to explain why women have recently been prompted to seek school board memberships:

1. The general influence of the woman's movement has established a conscience raising atmosphere that addressed the achievement need of the educated women to do something satisfying and meaningful with her life.

2. Women as a group are becoming more politically attuned and for many the school board is seen as a stepping stone to other political offices.

3. Title IX has encouraged women to explore avenues of interest and fulfillment that were traditionally open largely to men.

4. Women have often spent more time and had more experience in governance. The school board represents a logical extension of both their experience and expertise.²¹

Because the number of women on School boards has been increasing, this researcher along with Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, was led to ask two critical questions: "Who are the women who serve on school boards?" (Do they bring to school board membership special backgrounds, skills, or perspectives that may influence the functioning and decision-making of school boards?), and "Does it matter whether school board members are male or female?"²² (Do boards with many women school board members differ from

²¹Bernadette Doran, "The Feminist Surge Has Hit School Boards and They May Never Be The Same Again," The American School Board 164 (April 1977): 25.

²²Fishel and Pottker, "School Boards and Sex Bias in American Education," p. 87.

boards with few or no women on their priorities, operational style, relations with various elements of the school system or community, or in the nature of the decisions made?).

These questions, coupled with the lack of data on the behavior of men and women on school boards, prompted this study.

The purpose of this study is to describe and analyze the profiles and roles of women on boards of education and to explore several dimensions of their behavior within specific school district management functions; the intent is to uncover variables and relationships that may impact upon historical and traditional patterns of educational governance. Because it was felt that substantive conclusions could not be made about female board members without concurrent and parallel analyses of men on school boards, and in order to lend greater credibility to the conclusions of the research, the study included men in the research sample and sought to comparatively analyze the profiles, functions, and behaviors of men and women serving on school boards.

The basic research objective was to determine if the gender of a board member influenced role performance, conception of tasks, and orientation to educational governance.

While the development of causal and/or correlative inferences may be the prime objective of a research effort, one must begin with a clear description of what exists

before causative relationships, influences, or implications can be explored.

For this reason, this study seeks to answer three fundamental questions:

1. Are there significant differences between men and women school board members in their characteristics of school board service?

2. Are there significant differences in the operational role behavior of men and women serving on school boards with respect to several key school district functions?

3. If significant differences in the role behavior and functions of men and women school board members seem to exist, what implications may these differences have for directions in educational policy-making and educational governance?

In seeking to explore responses to these questions, the operational role behavior construct of the Getzels-Guba Model -- a model of behavior within a social system, was selected to serve as the framework upon which to explore any differences in behaviors between men and women as they function on boards of education.

After reviewing the current research and professional literature, several areas of investigation were identified. The following questions served to direct the procedures for this study:

1. What are the personal situational characteristics of men and women serving on boards of education with respect to age, level of education, marital, and occupational status and economic level?

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female board members in their personal situational characteristics?

3. How do male and female school board members describe their characteristics of school board service with respect to:

- a. organizational memberships and chairmanships held
- b. motivations for seeking school board membership
- c. board offices and/or board committee memberships held
- d. meetings attended, reading accomplished and visitations conducted
- e. expectations of actual involvement in specific areas of school board responsibility
- f. sources of socialization for school board responsibility
- g. groups that influence decision-making
- h. the role of the school board

4. Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female school board members in their characteristics of school board service?

5. How do male and female school board members describe their own role behaviors with respect to the following school district functions:

- a. School Board Operations
- b. Educational Program
- c. Support Operations
- d. Communications and Public Relations
- e. Budget and Finance
- f. Personnel Management
- g. Pupil Services²³

6. Is there a statistically significant difference in their operational role behavior within specific school district functions?

²³ Ronald R. Booth and Gerald R. Glaub, A Superintendent Appraisal System (Springfield: Illinois Association of School Boards, 1978), p. 21.

Major Research Hypotheses

The major research hypotheses to be investigated were formulated from the research questions that served to direct the procedures of this study. The variables to be addressed within each major hypothesis are explicated in chapter III, methodology and procedures.

The major research hypotheses investigated in this study were:

1. There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their characteristics of school board service.

2. There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their role behavior (Initiated or Reviewed in committee) within specific school district functions.

Sub-hypotheses were generated for each major hypothesis. They are also enumerated in chapter III.

Background and Significance

Despite the axiomatic belief held by boards of education and school administrators that "as individuals school board members have no rights,"²⁴ Peter Cistone in Understanding School Boards, raises the question, "How can we go about our business of making statements about group behavior without ... talking about the individuals in the group?"²⁵

²⁴Peter Cistone, ed., Understanding School Boards: Problems and Prospects (Lexington: D.C. Heath and Company, 1975), p. 14.

²⁵Ibid.

George Counts, in his much cited work on the social composition of school boards reaffirmed Cistone's position.

To a degree and in a fashion seldom grasped, the content, spirit, and purpose of public education must reflect the bias, the limitations, and the experience of the membership of this board. The possibilities which the school possesses as a creative and leavening social agency are set by the good will, the courage, and the intelligence of that membership. The qualitative advance of public education must depend as much on the decisions of the board of education as on the development of the science and philosophy of education.²⁶

Almost fifty years later, Marilyn Johnson underscored the importance of studying school board members in her work on men and women on school boards.

School board members voluntarily give a great deal of their spare time to serve on their local boards of education. Their decisions not only have direct consequences for the education of youth, or the level of taxation; they also have numerous indirect effects, ranging from local property values to the civil rights of the individuals. Yet the membership and activities of school boards remains among the most unexamined aspects of local government.²⁷

Given the critical personal and interpersonal dynamics that exist within boards of education and between school board members and school administrators, the individual board member becomes an important and necessary focus of study.

Although a review of the literature reveals a substantial amount of material on the demographic

²⁶Counts, p. 1.

²⁷Marilyn Johnson and John Crowley, Women and Men on School Boards: A Summary Report to Participants on a Study of Thirty-Seven New Jersey Boards (Rutgers: The Eagleton Institute of Politics, [1978]), p. 1.

characteristics of school board members and the functions of school boards, studies of the roles and behaviors of school board members are relatively limited. Further, studies of women school board members as a distinct group are extremely limited. The available studies of women school board members are highly perceptual in nature and often reflect the reaction of specific referent groups to the role of women on school boards. To date, little has been written that provides educational administrators, the public, or board members, with insight into the characteristics, functions, and behavior of female board members.

Since the number of women on school boards is increasing, it becomes critical to expand the field of knowledge about a population growing in numbers and perhaps inferentially growing in impact on educational decisions and policy-making. If we can determine that there are systematic and predictable variations in the behavior of board members due to gender, we may then be able to address the more important issues of the relationship between variance in governance or influence structure, and the output of policy.

This study is significant for another reason. By exploring the roles, functions, and most importantly the actual behavior of school board members, a clearer picture of how board members define their role in relationship to the administration will result.

In the Administration of Public Education, Stephen J. Knezevich states the following:

The manner in which the local Board of Education exercises the legal authority granted it is the key to its role in the administration of public education. The board is confronted with the problem of determining which functions should be delegated to the professional chief executive ... and which would be retained by the board.²⁸

He elaborates on this concept further by stating that "many difficulties in school administration can be traced to the inability to ascertain the dimensions of the role of the Board in the administration of education."²⁹

Despite the fact that there is common verbal agreement that the "school board is a creature of the legislature,"³⁰ acting solely as an agency of the State and deriving its power primarily from statutory law, the distinction between strictly legislative and strictly executive (administrative) functions is not always clear.

The critical need for board member role clarification built on the clarification of institutional functions and expectations, is underscored in a monograph jointly published by the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Board Association. The publication emphasizes the increasing importance of role

²⁸Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education, 3d ed., (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1975), p. 318.

²⁹Ibid.

³⁰Keith Goldhammer, The School Board (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1964), p. 4.

delineation for boards and superintendents.

Today effective public education requires strong school boards and strong superintendents who willingly assume leadership roles. To an important degree, educational success is dependent upon a good working relationship between the school board and the chief administrative officer it employs. Basic to the relationship is a clear understanding that the board and the superintendent constitute a team. Neither can operate effectively without a thorough knowledge of and support for the other's role.³¹

Since the traditional composition of school boards is changing due to the increasing number of woman being elected, it seems imperative to study the roles, functions, and behavior of this new population. Such an inquiry will greatly expand the limited resources currently available on women school board members, and will contribute to an increased awareness and understanding of the relationships that exist when board members interact.

The implications for administrators are also crucial. Without a clear understanding of how board members function and why they function as they do, school administrators face many arduous tasks as they attempt to work with boards in an effective manner.

Perhaps the most far reaching dimension of this study, however, is documented in Counts' highly acclaimed work on the social composition of school boards. In 1927, the increase in the percentage of women on school boards after

³¹American Association of School Administrators and the National School Board Association, Roles and Relationships: School Boards and Superintendents (Arlington: The American Association of School Administrators, 1980), p. 1.

the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment led Counts to speculate that if a proportional increase continued annually, women would eventually outnumber men on school boards and, conceivably gain control over school policy.³²

This issue of school board member control over educational policy was addressed by Griffith, thirty years earlier. After reviewing a number of studies of the relationship of education to community influence, Griffith contended that:

1. The ultimate direction of the schools will be influenced to a great extent by the community power-holders.

2. Members of the board of education are generally either power-holders or representatives of power-holders.

3. The school administrator will be unable to exercise community leadership without the aid of power-holders.

4. Since decisions affecting the community as a whole will be made by a small group of power holders, the school administrator needs to know who they are and how they operate in order to assess public opinion.³³

The critical and underlying issues that are woven throughout this study are, therefore, the issues of power and control of American public education. If the fundamental service which the board renders society is the formulation of general educational policy ... and if policies of the school are formulated by the dominant

³²Fishel and Pottker, "School Board's and Sex Bias in American Education," p. 85.

³³Human Relations in School Administration (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1956), quoted in Keith Goldhammer, The School Board (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), pp. 21-22.

elements in the community, it naturally follows that the composition of the board of education is of great social significance.³⁴

Definitions of Terms

The terms in this study are defined as follows:

1. School Board

The school district agency created by the state but popularly elected, on which the statutes of the state place the responsibility for conducting the local public education systems; usually composed of laymen who select or approve the selection of the professional staff, pass on policies, and take the ultimate responsibility for financing the work of the district.³⁵

Of the forty-five school boards in DuPage County, one board has three (3) members and the remaining boards had seven (7) members each.

2. School Board Member

An elected or appointed individual serving on a local school board.

3. Governance

"The formal organizational setting where the processes of decision-making occur."³⁶

³⁴Counts, p. 90.

³⁵Carter V. Good (ed.), The Dictionary of Education, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), p. 198.

³⁶William N. Knisely, "School Board Conflict Behavior and Superintendent Survival: A Field Study of a School Board" (Ed.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1980), p. 5.

4. Educational Governance

The role, function, and responsibility exercised by individuals generally other than educators, who had been elected or appointed as members of governing boards for the control and operation of the institution entrusted to them.³⁷

5. Socialization

The process by which individuals selectively acquire the values and attitudes, interests and dispositions, skills and knowledge ... current in the group of which they are members; the process by which novice members become role incumbents.³⁸

6. Functions

"The appropriate or assigned duties, responsibilities or tasks of an individual which come from within one's range or jurisdiction, or powers."³⁹

7. School District Functions

The major management responsibility areas of school boards. These include: school board operations, educational programs, support operations, public relations, budget and finance, personnel, and pupil services.⁴⁰

³⁷Mabel Louisa Hall Pittman, "Woman in Lay Governance: A Determination of Their Characteristics and Role Perceptions" (Ph.D. dissertation, Southern Illinois University, 1977), p. 19.

³⁸Peter J. Cistone, "The Socialization of School Board Members," Educational Administration Quarterly 13 (Spring 1977): 19.

³⁹Good, p. 89.

⁴⁰Booth and Glaub, p. 21.

8. Social System

A conceptual rather than a descriptive term used to explain a construct that involves two major classes of phenomena: (1) the institution, with certain roles and expectations and (2) the individual with certain personalities and need-dispositions.⁴¹ The simultaneous interaction of these two classes of phenomena results in observed social or operational role behavior.⁴²

9. Institution

Agencies established to carry out (the) institutionalized functions for a social system."⁴³ (Institutions) are purposive, peopled, structural, and sanction-bearing.⁴⁴

10. Role

The dynamic and prescriptive aspect of the positions, offices, or statutes within the institution that define what the behavior of a position member should be.⁴⁵ "What the individual has to do in order to validate the occupation of the status."⁴⁶

⁴¹Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," The School Review (Winter 1957): 424.

⁴²Ibid.

⁴³Ibid., p. 425.

⁴⁴Ibid., pp. 425-426.

⁴⁵Bruce J. Biddle and Edwin J. Thomas, Role Theory: Concepts and Research (New York: Robert E. Krieger Publishing Co., 1979), p. 29.

⁴⁶Ralph Linton, The Cultural Background of Personality (New York: Appleton-Century Co., 1945), p. 77.

11. Role Expectation

The normative rights and duties that define the role of the role incumbent.⁴⁷

12. Personality

"The dynamic organization within the individual of those need-dispositions that govern his unique reactions to the environment."⁴⁸

13. Need-Dispositions

The central component of personality that represents the individual's "tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners and to expect certain consequences from these actions."⁴⁹

14. Operational Role Behavior or Role Enactment

"The overt performance of individuals; how the individual actually performs in a given position as distinct from how is is supposed to perform."⁵⁰

A function of the institutional role defined by the expectations attached to it, and the personality of the particular role incumbent defined by its need-dispositions.⁵¹

⁴⁷Getzels and Guba, p. 427.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 428.

⁴⁹Ibid.

⁵⁰Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superendency Role (New York: John Willey and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 14.

⁵¹Getzels and Guba, p. 429.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

1. It is not the purpose of this study to prove that men or women are more effective as school board members. Rather, this study examined the relationships and correlations between the gender of a school board member and his/her characteristics and role behavior with respect to specific school district functions.

2. The population of this study was limited to men and women serving on boards of education in DuPage County, Illinois during the 1981-82 school year. Although DuPage County was judged to be representative of suburban communities, the selection of one population over another necessitates caution in the interpretation and extrapolation of the data for other populations.

3. Application of one model of social behavior, the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior, was utilized in the analysis of the data. Limiting the analysis of the data to one theoretical model restricted the utilization of other theories which might be relevant to the data. In order to avoid the confusion that may result from the use of several theories, one was selected to provide the theoretical framework for this study.

4. Honesty of response by the school board members to the questionnaires and interview items was assumed.

5. Because the individual respondents were actively involved in the functions studied in this dissertation, the

degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction they experienced in working with the tasks may have affected responses to the instrumentation.

6. Responses reflect the self-reported views of school board members at this point in time; there is no assurance that school board members would give the same responses at a later time.

7. The precise operational role behavior of school board members within specific categories of school board functions will depend upon the institutions they serve.

8. Since the data were gathered through the use of a questionnaire and an interview, the study is subject to those limitations of reliability and validity inherent in the design and administration of such instruments. Further, since the interview sample was a stratified random sample of school board members who returned the questionnaire, it was assumed to be representative of the population from which it was chosen.

9. Although this study sought to gain data on the characteristics and operational role behavior of school board members with respect to specific school district functions, it is difficult to gather behavioral data that is totally devoid of perceptual influences. Since school board members were reporting on their own behavior, their perceptions of their own behavior must necessarily be a part of their responses. Despite attempts to isolate actual

behavior from perception, (what the school board member does as opposed to what they think they do,) the reader must be aware of the perceptual influence throughout this study.

10. Although board members were generally quite interested in the study, they were occasionally guarded in their comments during the interview. This reticence on the part of some board members may have distorted the researcher's interpretation of their responses.

Due to the limitations described, the findings of this study are not necessarily applicable to male and female school board members in other communities.

Summary and Overview

The purpose of this study is to describe and analyze the profiles, functions, and behaviors of women on boards of education in DuPage County, Illinois. Although the focus of the study is on female school board members, a parallel study was made of male school board members so that comparisons could be made.

In chapter I, the purpose and the rationale upon which the study was based were stated. Chapter I also included the major research hypotheses, the background and significance of the study, and the limitations and delimitations which were imposed upon the study.

Chapter II provided information appropriate to the purpose of the study. The review of the related literature and research was conducted in the following areas: (1)

Historical Overview of school board governance, (2) the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior, (3) the functions and roles of school boards and school board members, (4) studies of the Social Composition of school boards and the characteristics of school board members, and (5) studies of women on school boards.

Chapter III, the Design of the Study presented descriptions of the following: population and sample of the study, instrumentation used in the study, procedures utilized in the study, the major hypotheses and sub-hypotheses of the study and the methodology used for data treatment and analysis.

Chapter IV presented and analyzed the data gathered from the questionnaire - "The Profiles, Functions, and Roles of School Board Members in DuPage County, Illinois", and the interview guide. The questionnaire responses and interview tapes from randomly selected school board members in DuPage County were presented and analyzed according to the basic underlying questions posed in this study.

Finally, chapter V presented the conclusions and recommendations of the study resulting from the review of the literature and the analysis of the questionnaire responses and interview data.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

The purposes of this study are twofold: to describe and analyze the characteristics, roles, functions and behavior of women on boards of education and to compare their profiles with those of male board members. The intent of the study is to investigate whether there are significant differences between men and women school board members in their operational behavior on school boards and to discern whether or not the differences may have an impact on educational governance.

In order to develop both historical and sociological research frameworks for this study, this chapter has been divided into five sections. These include an historical overview of the development of school board governance, the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior, the function and roles of school boards and school board members, the social composition of school boards and the characteristics of school board members, and women on school boards.

The literature review has been organized in this fashion so that the functions and role behaviors of individual board members can be analyzed within the context

of the school board as a socio-cultural institution. Each section of this chapter addresses only the literature that is germane to the understanding of women on school boards.

Historical Overview of School Board Governance

Origins of lay control of education in America are embedded in the early history of the colonies.

In 1647 the government of the Massachusetts Bay Colony passed a law requiring all towns of a certain size to create and maintain schools. It placed the responsibility for educational decision-making with the local officials who used the town meeting as the forum to discuss school business.¹

As the population increased, school management was delegated to a committee of the local government.

In 1789, Massachusetts passed legislation which historian Stanley Schultz has described as "the first comprehensive state school law in the new nation."² The new statute required every town to support an elementary school and the larger ones to establish a grammar school; it further required the town to certify its teachers and to employ a special committee to oversee the schools. In 1826,

¹National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards? (Evanston: National School Boards Association, 1975), p. 3.

²Raymond E. Callahan, "The American Board of Education, 1789-1960," in Understanding School Boards: Problems and Prospects, ed. Peter J. Cistone (Lexington: D.C. Heath and Company, 1975), p. 19.

the discretionary aspect of the law was amended and employment of a school committee was made obligatory.³ Boston was the first city to enact this legislation into practice and in 1789 passed its own legislation which "laid the foundation of the first comprehensive system of public schools in any American City."⁴

The new law enabled the establishment of a separate school committee composed of twelve popularly elected individuals (one from each ward). The designer of this arrangement was Samuel Adams who believed strongly that the school committee selection process must provide for a more democratic control of the schools.⁵

Although this practice was not readily embraced, eventually all states, cities, and towns adopted the pattern of school governance established in Massachusetts and Boston.⁶ This practice of school board member selection from district or ward representation was the customary mode in the United States until approximately the 1900's.⁷

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Susan T. Rose, "The Relationship Between The Patterns of Recruitment of School Board Members in Northern Cook County, Illinois, and Their Perceptions of Their Representational Styles" (Ed.D. dissertation, Northern Illinois University 1980), p. 12.

⁷National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards?, p. 3.

Although the evidence seems to indicate that from the founding of this country to 1960, public schools have been mainly controlled by lay governing boards, in the history of school boards in the United States, there were three periods that significantly influenced the governance of public education. The first was in the 1840's, the second in the 1890's, and the third was in the 1960's.⁸

In 1837, Massachusetts created a state board of education and appointed Horace Mann as its full-time secretary. Mann was in effect the state superintendent of schools from 1837 until 1848, when he resigned. Although Mann had criticized the management of the Boston schools and had recommended the appointment of a superintendent in 1837, it was not until the publication of this Annual Report in 1843 that real tensions developed. Following a tour of Europe in which he observed numerous schools, Mann wrote a lengthy account extolling the merits of the Prussian educational system. He ascertained that one of the reasons for Prussia's excellence was their system of "school commissioners or inspectors"⁹ for each school district. He reported that these men had "evidently been selected from among the most talented and educated men in the

⁸Callahan, p. 20

⁹National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards?, p. 3.

community."¹⁰ and could consequently create an excellent school system. His inference for Massachusetts was unmistakably clear -- "if Massachusetts would follow Prussian policy ... the results would be the same."¹¹

Believing this would be desirable in America, Mann encouraged his advocates to run for seats on the Boston School Committee. Several of the "reform candidates"¹² were elected, and in 1845 three of them developed and administered a district-wide competency test which revealed very poor student achievement. Mann and this committee blamed the management system of the public schools. The committee did not propose to eliminate the school board¹³ because they believed it was necessary to "represent all the wants and interests ... and all the opinions and feelings"¹⁴ of the population. However, they did recommend that a superintendent be appointed "to watch over the schools ... to know the exact condition of everyone... This should be his business, his whole business."¹⁵ Initially, this strategy failed, however, in 1851 the Boston School

¹⁰Callahan, p. 21.

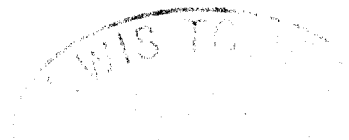
¹¹Ibid., p. 22.

¹²National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards?, p. 3.

¹³Callahan, p. 23.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Ibid.



Committee hired a permanent, full-time superintendent of schools.

By 1859, twenty-four cities had appointed superintendents. Mann's initial campaign was formulated by the rapid increase in city populations and their commensurate educational problems which were impossible for part-time board members to administer. Although some boards tried to cope by increasing the size of the board or by establishing standing committees, the superintendency gained in popularity.¹⁶ However, despite the popularity of the position, evidence indicates that school boards were unwilling to delegate much power to the superintendent which resulted in superintendents becoming disinterested with their position and more militant in their desire to acquire power, money, and security.¹⁷

Believing they were the experts who could improve the quality of public education and eliminate the corrupt school board members who were "gutter politicians,"¹⁸ the superintendents mobilized a reform "crusade".

In 1885, at the request of John Eaton, U.S. Commissioner of Education, John Philbrick, Superintendent of Schools in Boston and an educator of international

¹⁶National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards?, p.4.

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Callahan, p. 25.

reputation, authored a report on city school systems in the United States. Although Philbrick emphasized the importance of the local school board in the American educational system, he strongly criticized most existing school board members as "unscrupulous politicians" who were using the school board as a "stepping stone to coveted political places."¹⁹ Wilbur Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools in Brooklyn, New York echoed Philbrick's sentiments when he charged that because lay officials were managing the schools, public education was "in a stage of semi-barbarism."²⁰

These ideas continued to appear in numerous speeches and articles. The debate climaxed at the 1892 meeting of the superintendents when Nicholas Murray Butler, co-author with Maxwell of the Educational Review, introduced a resolution to "divorce school administration from party politics."²¹

This was the most vehement attack ever made by superintendents against school boards. It was expanded by the writings of Joseph Mayer Rice, a physician who had spent six months visiting more than 1200 teachers in schools in thirty-six cities in the United States.²² His findings and

¹⁹Ibid., p. 26.

²⁰Ibid., p. 27.

²¹Ibid.

²²Ibid., p. 28.

recommendations were published in the Forum magazine between October 1892 and June 1893.²³

Rice's basic conclusion was that the schools were "in miserable shape."²⁴ He believed there were many reasons for this, but the one most germane to this study was the operation of schools by school boards.

He urged that the management of the schools be turned over to professional educators. Three months later, in February 1893, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association appointed a committee of fifteen prominent school administrators to analyze educational problems including the organization of city school systems. Andrew Draper, Superintendent of Schools in Cleveland, chaired the sub-committee on city school organization. Although the committee did not recommend the abolition of school boards, it strongly criticized the incompetent management of school boards and unequivocally favored administrative control of schools.²⁵

Although on the basis of available research the conclusions of the Draper Report appeared justified, strategically it was an error.²⁶

²³Ibid.

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards?, p. 4.

²⁶Callahan, p. 30.

The "reform" superintendents antagonized school board members and acquired a "vociferous opponent,"²⁷ William George Bruce, a Milwaukee newspaperman, a school board member, and the founder and editor of The American School Board Journal.

Bruce used the editorial page of the Journal to debate the issue with superintendents. His reaction to the Draper report was an editorial entitled "The Czar Movement", in which he accused superintendents of wanting to eliminate school boards.

Although others joined in the confrontation, Bruce succeeded in "muddying the waters"²⁸ in the debate between the proper role of school boards and superintendents. He agreed that all superintendents "should be recognized as the educational experts, but he was not willing to concede that the boards function was simply to legislate, it was also to 'administer'."²⁹

Although Bruce was nebulous in enumerating the precise duties board members should have, it is clear he intended for them to have educational duties.³⁰ The result was that the distinction between the "legislative function" and the

²⁷National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards?, p. 4.

²⁸Callahan, p. 32.

²⁹Ibid.

³⁰Ibid.

"executive function" was blurred.³¹

Although after 1895, most of the recommendations in the Draper report were implemented in city school systems, two critical recommendations were not: to separate the business and instructional aspects of the superintendency and to make the superintendent independent.³² With the rejection of these two recommendations, the American tradition of local control of public education was maintained.

The issues raised in the Draper Report were not extinguished, however. In 1916, Elwood P. Cubberley Dean of the School of Education at Stanford University, published a highly influential text on school administration entitled, Public Education in the United States. Although Cubberley did not question the right or desirability of local control over public education, he made several recommendations as to how school boards should be selected, organized, and how they should function. He said school boards should be small (5-7 members); should be elected from the city at large and not from wards; should serve without pay and for terms of three to five years; should be without standing committees, (which he believed only confused their functions); and should be composed of a class of people who would turn over

³¹Ibid.

³²Ibid., p. 34.

the management of the schools to the professional experts.³³ Thus, twenty years later, Cubberley echoed the basic recommendation of the Draper Committee. Ziegler, Tucker, and Wilson describe this reform movement as an elite response to lay control -- a class-based movement designed to shift the control of education from laymen to experts.³⁴

For more than a decade after 1916, Cubberley's recommendations were slowly implemented on school boards. Then, in 1927, George Counts began to question and criticize school boards. In his book, The Social Composition of Boards of Education, Counts argued that the composition of school boards was not representative of the community at large. He stated that public schools were controlled by the "employing classes" and that labor was "without representation."³⁵ He did not recommend that school boards

³³Elwood P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919) quoted in Understanding School Boards: Problems and Prospects, ed. Peter J. Cistone (Lexington: D.C. Heath and Co., 1975), p. 35.

³⁴H. L. Ziegler, H. J. Tucker, and L. A. Wilson, "School Boards and Community Power: The Irony of Professionalism," Intellect (1976), quoted in Susan Rose, "The Relationship Between the Patterns of Recruitment of School Board Members in Northern Cook County, Illinois, and Their Perceptions of Their Representational Styles" (Ed.D. dissertation, Northern Illinois University, 1980), p. 16.

³⁵George S. Counts, The Social Composition of Boards of Education: A Study of the Social Control of Public Education (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1927) quoted in Understanding School Boards: Problems and Prospects, ed. Peter J. Cistone (Lexington: D.C. Heath and Company, 1975), p. 38.

be abolished as did Charles Judd, Dean of the School of Education at the University of Chicago, but he argued that a system of proportional representation should be introduced. Jesse Newlon, and erudite and respected scholar at Teachers' College, Columbia University, supported Counts' views. He saw the basic problem of the operation of the public school as both technical and democratic. He endorsed the notion that school boards should have legislative and not executive functions and supported Counts' idea that school boards should be "representative of all classes and interests" and that they be "composed of men and women of liberal social outlook and highest character."³⁶

In 1938, the question of whether or not local boards of education should be abolished or reduced in power was addressed by George Strayer, Professor of Education and Chairman of the Department of Educational Administration at Teachers' College, Columbia University. In his published statement, The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy, Strayer simply stated "The Board of Education should have full responsibility for all necessary services of a school system."³⁷ He continued that although the board should be governed in its actions by the administrators who are the experts, "the final authority must rest with the lay board. The schools belong to the

³⁶Callahan, p. 40.

³⁷Ibid., p. 41.

people."³⁸ Through the years these ideas have become axiomatic in school administration. Interestingly, Strayer repeated the previous recommendations of Cubberley, relative to school board size, terms, etc., however, two of Cubberley's recommendations were not heeded -- that teachers be included in the development of educational policy "as a right and an obligation"³⁹ and that school boards be sensitive to and concerned with all segments of the community.

These two recommendations have particular significance for the present status of school board governance, since historians mark 1960 as another critical time in the debate over local control. On November 7, 1960, the New York City teachers went on strike and gained the right to bargain collectively with the board of education. Since that time, the power of teachers' unions have been growing, and more and more boards are relinquishing their powers. Further, community groups are beginning to challenge the power of local school boards. Despite these developments, school boards still have substantial power to hire and fire superintendents and teachers, and to decide the school budget and the curriculum. Although they have delegated much of their power to superintendents and other

³⁸Ibid.

³⁹Ibid., p. 42.

professionals, boards have retained the ultimate power.⁴⁰

This stance is not shared by Norman Kerr, who maintains that recently school boards have taken on the passive role of legitimizing the actions of the school system and the administrators to the community rather than representing the needs of the community to the school system.⁴¹ He believes that boards are no longer proactive, but are reactive in relation to the administration. Kerr further believes that the function of legitimation may arise from the organizational need for environmental security.⁴²

Clearly, the issues of school board governance have not been resolved. The question Neal Gross posed in 1958 which was reflected in the title of his book Who Runs Our Schools,? is still unanswered.

Governance remains a critical issue in American education. Perhaps the changing composition of school board membership may have some impact upon it.

This section was included to lend an important historical perspective to the present research study. Without an understanding of how the concept of local control developed and how the balance of power shifted between superintendents and boards, one cannot fully grasp the

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 20.

⁴¹Norman Kerr, "The School Board As An Agency of Legitimation," Sociology of Education 38 (1964): 53.

⁴²Kerr, p. 58.

implications the changing composition of school boards (due to the increase in the number of women being elected) may have on school board governance and administrative roles and functions.

The Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior

In addition to an historical perspective, socio-cultural and psychological dimensions are also seen to be important in comprehending school board member role behavior. However, before one can understand the behavior of school board members, it is necessary to explore the conceptual model of behavior that will be employed in the present study. Although the complete model will be explained and utilized in the analysis of female school board member behavior, only the operational role behavior construct of the model will be examined in this dissertation.

The model that was selected for this study was the Getzels-Guba Model--a socio-psychological theory of social behavior within a social system.

It is generally acknowledged that the Getzels-Guba Model offers a "functional, adaptive model"⁴³ for the study of role behavior.

Briefly, this theory postulates two dimensions of social or role behavior:

⁴³Philip M. Carlin, "Dimensional Aspects of Role Perceptions in Team Teaching" (Ed.D. dissertation, Loyola University of Chicago, 1966), p. 36.

1. The nomothetic or normative dimension represented by the institution as the structure, the role as the mode, and the expectation as the goal director.
2. The idiographic or personal dimension represented by the individual as the structure, the personality as the mode and the personal needs expectation as the goal director.⁴⁴

These two dimensions interact simultaneously to produce social or operational role behavior within the context of a social system.

Any understanding of the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior requires an acquaintance with some of the key postulates and constructs of role theory. Therefore, before this model is explained, a brief review of systems and role theory will be presented.

According to Parsons, a social system consists of a "plurality of individual actors"⁴⁵ who interact with one another within the context of a situation or environment; both the environment and the interaction are "defined and mediated in terms of a system of culturally structured and shared symbols."⁴⁶

This definition of a social system as a set of "blue

⁴⁴Ibid.

⁴⁵Talcott Parsons, The Social System (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1951), p. 56.

⁴⁶Ibid.

prints for behavior"⁴⁷ emphasizes the process of reciprocal interaction between actors and suggests a conceptual scheme for analyzing group and individual behavior.

Role theory has assumed a critical position in the social sciences because of its utility in the analysis of the structure and functioning of social systems and for its use in the explanation and often prediction of individual behavior.⁴⁸

Broadly conceived, role theory holds that individuals within a social system occupy positions, and their behavior or role performance in these positions is determined by six variables that have personal and sociological dimensions:

1. Social norms, demands, and rules
2. The role performance and expectations of others in their respective positions
3. Those who observe and react to the performance
4. The individual's own perceptions of his role
5. The individuals's perception of how others perceive his role
6. The individual's particular capabilities, values, personality and needs⁴⁹

⁴⁷Neal Gross, Ward Mason, and Alexander McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 12.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 3.

⁴⁹Bruce J. Biddle, ed., and Edwin J. Thomas, Role Theory: Concepts and Research (New York: Robert Krieger Publishing Company, 1979), p. 4.

Within the framework of the role theory, the behavior of the individual is studied in terms of how it is molded by the demands and rules of others, by their sanctions for conforming and non-conforming behavior, and by the individual's own comprehension and conception of what his behavior should be.⁵⁰

Role theory premises do not deny that there are unique differences between individuals, but they do emphasize the interactive social determinants that may have created, shaped, and influenced those differences.⁵¹

Reflective of a doctrine of limited social determinism, role theory not only provides a framework for the explanation of behavior but for its predictability as well.

Pivotal to Parson's theoretical framework for the analysis of social systems and individual behavior, is the concept of role. Although role is a central construct in role theory, it has been the focus of considerable disagreement. Review of role definitions have indicated a striking diversity. According to Biddle:

The idea of role has been used to denote prescription, description, evaluation and action; it has referred to covert and overt processes, to the behavior of the self and others, to the behavior an individual initiates versus that which is directed to him.⁵²

⁵⁰Ibid.

⁵¹Ibid.

⁵²Ibid., p. 29.

Some theorists have placed role in a normative and cultural framework. In this category, role has reference not to the actual behavior of a position incumbent, but to behavioral standards -- what the individual should do in a position.⁵³

The idiographic or personal framework is exemplified in Davis' definition: "How an individual actually performs in a given position, as distinct from how he is supposed to perform...."⁵⁴

Despite these disparities, the most common definition and the one used in this study, is that role is a set of prescriptions defining what the behavior of a position member should be, whereas role behavior or role enactment is the actual behavior performed by the position incumbent.

Although role is the central construct in the vocabulary of most role analysts, the concepts of position and differentiated aggregate are also important.

Attributes such as age, sex, skin color, behavioral similarities, or similarities of reactions by others to a group of individuals, may form the basis for the categorical differentiation of role incumbents within a social system. This is the concept of position, which Biddle defines as the "collectively recognized category of persons for whom the basis for such differentiation is their common attribute,

⁵³Gross, Mason, and McEachern, Explorations, p. 13.

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 14.

their common behavior, or the common reactions of others toward them."⁵⁵ In the present study, position refers to the female (or male) school board member.

The concept of the differentiated aggregate is a variable for ordering positions.⁵⁶ All positions may be compared in terms of the degree to which the aggregate of individuals in a specific position evidences a similar behavior.⁵⁷ An aggregate is, therefore, differentiated to the degree that its members show common behavior that differ from behaviors of members of other aggregates.⁵⁸

These concepts have particular relevance and importance to the present study since the focus of the role behavior analysis of male and female board members is to determine whether or not the aggregate behavior of women on school boards is differentiated from that of men on school boards.

It is critical to note that in using role theory to analyze a specific individual's or a specific differentiated aggregate's behavior, consensus may not always exist in regard to the societal expectations of a role incumbent's behavior. For this reason, Jacobsen, Charters and Lieberman believe that the definition of role in terms of mutually

⁵⁵Biddle and Thomas, Role Theory, p. 29.

⁵⁶Ibid., pp. 59-60.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 59

⁵⁸Ibid.

shared expectations "must take account of ... whose expectations are relevant."⁵⁹ Further, they suggest that within a complex organization where all individuals will not have the same expectations about a given position, it is necessary to conceive of role as the range of behaviors which all or nearly all of the critical population can agree upon as determining the expected behavior.⁶⁰

This notion will be critical to our analysis of school board member behavior. With the problems caused by lack of consensus in role definition, role ambiguity, and role conflict, school board members will be faced with having to make decisions about the critical populations that will be allowed to influence them, and the type of compromises that will be permissible to the majority of role definers. How the role incumbent responds to these decisions will influence his/her behavior.

The Getzels-Guba Model was developed through an analysis of Talcott Parsons's suggestion that the structure of an organization may be analyzed from the perspective of the sub-organizations or roles which participate in the

⁵⁹Eugene Jacobsen, W. W. Charters, Jr., and Seymour Liberman, "The Use of the Role Concept in the Study of Complex Organizations," Journal of Social Issues 7 (1950): 20.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 21.

functioning of the total organization.⁶¹ Because the model deals with the construct of social behavior within a hierarchical setting, it has broad application to the study of school board member roles and behavior.

According to Getzels and Guba, a social system involves "two major classes of phenomena, which are at once conceptually independent and pheonomenally interactive."⁶²

The first class of phenomena which they describe as nomothetic, contains the institution with certain roles and expectations that fulfill the goals and direction of the system. The second classification which was termed idiographic, consists of the individuals with certain personalities, and need-dispositions that inhabit the system. It was the concurrent interaction of the constructs within these two phenomenological categories that resulted in social behavior.⁶³ According to Getzels and Guba:

Social behavior may be apprehended as a function of ... institution, role, and expectation, which together constitute the nomothetic, or normative dimension of activity in a social system; and individual, personality, and need-disposition, which together constitute the idiographic, or personal dimension of activity in a social system.⁶⁴

⁶¹Robert Sweitzer, "An Assessment of Two Theoretical Frameworks," in Organization and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1969), p. 168.

⁶²Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," The School Review (November 1957): 424.

⁶³Ibid.

⁶⁴Ibid.

Thus, the first class of phenomena reflects a sociological orientation which seeks to analyze and understand behavior in terms of the normative dimension of the activity, while the second class of phenomena reflects a psychological orientation focused on comprehending behavior in terms of the personal dimension of the activity.⁶⁵

Since both the institutional and individual dimensions of the model interpenetrate one another, the model advances the assumption that the "process within a social system may be seen as a dynamic transaction between roles and personality and that the phenomenon of behavior includes both the socialization of personality and the personalization of role."⁶⁶

The Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior is presented in Figure 1.⁶⁷

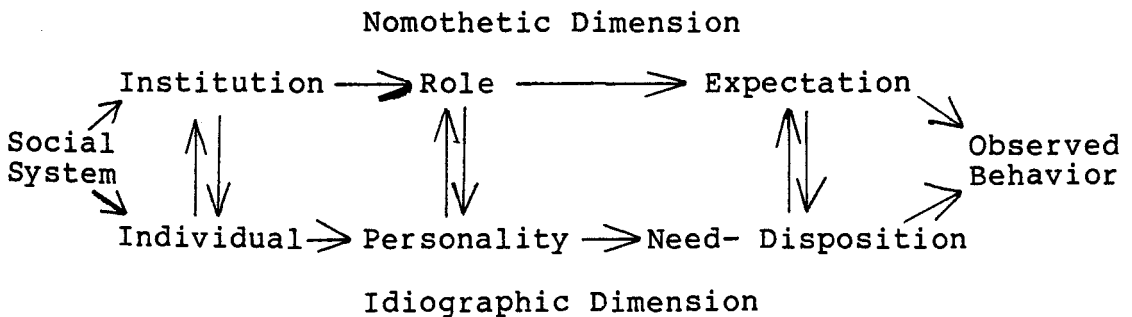


Figure 1 -- The Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior

⁶⁵Sweitzer, p. 168.

⁶⁶Ibid.

⁶⁷Getzels and Guba, p. 429.

In understanding this Model, it is important to note that each component within a dimension functions as the analytic unit for the element preceding it.⁶⁸ The social system is, therefore, defined by its institutions, each institution by its roles, and each role by the individual and collective expectations attached to it. One must view the graphic representation of the components of the Model sequentially and developmentally; the "primary direction of effects between the elements of each dimension is from left to right."⁶⁹

In order to understand the specific nature of observed behavior within a social system, the elements and interactive relationships within the paradigm must be explicated.

According to Getzels and Guba all social systems have required functions that eventually come to have routinized and predictable patterns of transaction.

Those functions -- governing, educating, policing ... may be said to have become 'institutionalized'; and the agencies established to carry out these institutionalized functions for the social system as a whole may be termed 'institutions'.⁷⁰

Within this context, institutions have several dimensions:

⁶⁸Sweitzer, p. 168.

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 169.

⁷⁰Getzels and Guba, p. 425.

1. Institutions are purposive and peopled. They are designed to complete specific prescribed functions and goals and are ultimately evaluated according to their task accomplishment.

2. Institutions are structured and normative. They require an organization, a hierarchy of position, and a prescribed structure for interacting within the hierarchy.

3. Institutions are sanction bearing. Mechanisms must exist that insure norm compliance at least within broad limits.⁷¹

Within the institutional dimension of the model, the formal organization represents the "stability and legitimacy of the system of structured positions."⁷² It represents a set of expectations which the group has previously defined, and it acknowledges the interrelational obligations among the positions and position incumbents regarding the nature of interaction and response to the initiation of behavior.⁷³

Structured by norms which induce conformity in belief and performance, the formal organization maintains itself through a system of mutually reinforced sets of expectations.⁷⁴

⁷¹Ibid., pp. 425-426.

⁷²Sweitzer, p. 173.

⁷³Ibid.

⁷⁴Ibid.

Another component of the model's nomothetic dimension is role -- the most important analytic sub-unit of the institution. Roles represent the structural elements that define the behavior of the individual role incumbent. The following generalizations may be made about the nature of roles:

1. Roles present "positions, offices or statuses within institutions."⁷⁵ Along with Linton, Getzels and Guba share the belief that roles not only represent the "dynamic aspect"⁷⁶ of the position office or status, but are viewed as the definition of the behavior of the role incumbent as well.

2. Roles are defined in terms of expectations which are the rights and duties ascribed to that role. The expectations define for the incumbent what should be done within the parameters of the role. When an actor effectuates the obligations, responsibilities, and powers of the role, he is said to be performing his role.⁷⁷

3. Roles are institutional givens. Institutional tasks are organized into roles which function as norms for the behavior of the role incumbent. Roles are behavioral prescriptions. Although expectations may be perceived by individuals, roles serve a critical purpose as the schemata

⁷⁵Getzels and Guba p. 426.

⁷⁶Ibid.

⁷⁷Sweitzer, p. 174.

for what should be done.

4. Behaviors associated with a role can be viewed as being on a continuum from "required" to "prohibited." Certain behavioral expectations are held to be essential to a role while others are prohibited. This flexibility allows the individual to use his own characteristic patterns of behavior within a role.

5. Roles are complimentary and interdependent; each role derives its significance from related roles within the institution. A role is not only a prescription for a given role incumbent, but it also implies what is expected of incumbents in other positions within the institution. "This quality of complimentariness fuses two (2) or more roles into a coherent interactive unit and makes it possible ... to conceive of an institution as having a characteristic structure."⁷⁸

It is not enough to understand only the institutional or nomothetic dimensions of social behavior, the idiographic or individual dimension must also be understood. Included within this dimension are the components of personality and need-disposition.

For the purpose of this model, personality is defined as the "dynamic organization within the individual of those need-dispositions that govern his unique reactions to the

⁷⁸Getzels and Guba, pp. 427.

environment."⁷⁹ The critical analytic sub-units of personality are the need-dispositions which Getzel and Guba define as individual "tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners and to expect certain consequences from these actions."⁸⁰ Need-dispositions refer to both an inclination and a tendency to accomplish some pre-determined condition or end state and to a disposition to do something with an object designed to accomplish an end state.⁸¹

Within this paradigm, the institution and the individual interpenetrate. It is, therefore, essential to understand both role expectations and need-dispositions in order to fully comprehend the behavior of specific incumbents within an institution or social system.

In the Getzels-Guba theory, a given act is thought of as deriving simultaneously from both the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. Social behavior is the result of the individual trying to cope in an environment consisting of patterns of expectations for his behavior, and in ways that are consistent and congruent with his own independent need-patterns.

Social behavior is defined by the equation $B=f(RxP)$, where B is observed behavior, R is a specific institutional

⁷⁹Ibid., p. 428.

⁸⁰Ibid.

⁸¹Ibid.

role defined by expectations, and P is the personality of the role incumbent defined by his need-dispositions.⁸² The relative proportion of role and personality variables that effect behavior, vary with the specific act, role, and personality involved.

This concept is graphically portrayed in Figure 2.⁸³

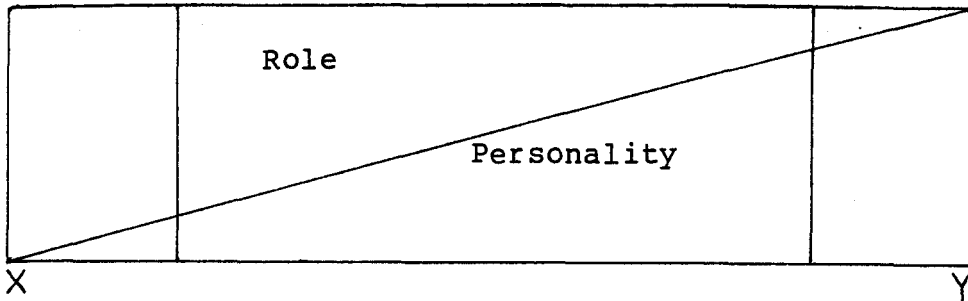


Figure 2 - The Interaction of Role and Personality In A Behavioral Act

According to the diagram, a role incumbent's behavior may be ascribed along a continuum located on the axis X to Y ranging from primary emphasis on role - relevant performance (nomothetic dimension) to primary emphasis on personality - relevant performance (idiographic dimension).⁸⁴

Regardless of the emphasis, behavior remains a function of the interaction between role and personality. When the role dimension of social behavior is maximized, behavior continues to retain a personal dimension albeit limited,

⁸²Ibid., p. 429.

⁸³Ibid., p. 430.

⁸⁴Sweitzer, pp. 171-172

because no role is ever so meticulously structured or defined as to eliminate individual latitude. Conversely, when the personality dimension is maximized, the resulting behavior cannot be totally divorced from some role prescription.

It is interesting to note that Getzels identifies a troublesome part of the model as the dynamics of the interaction between externally defined expectation and internally determined needs.⁸⁵ He posits the following question: "Why do some complimentary role incumbents understand and agree on their mutual obligations and responsibilities while others take a long time or never come to terms at all?"⁸⁶

According to Getzels, the answer to this question lies in the critical concept of selective interpersonal perception. A specific relationship can be normatively defined and its accompanying behaviors can be normatively prescribed, however, within this dynamic are individuals who are perceiving needs differently.⁸⁷

When role incumbents in a hierarchical relationship understand each other, their perception and complimentary

⁸⁵Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," in Administrative Theory in Education, ed. Andrew Halpin (Midwest Administration Center: University of Chicago, 1958), p. 155.

⁸⁶Ibid.

⁸⁷Ibid.

expectations are congruent; when there is misunderstanding, however, their perceptions and individual organization of the prescribed complimentary expectations, are incongruent.⁸⁸

Research seems to indicate that congruence in the perception of expectations has a greater impact on whether or not a participant views an interaction favorably or unfavorably than does the actual observed behavior or the accomplishment.⁸⁹ It supports the hypothesis that

when perceptions of the expectation of participants in an administrative interaction overlap, the participants feel satisfied with the work accomplished no matter what the behavior or work accomplished; when perceptions of the expectation do not overlap, the participants feel dissatisfied.⁹⁰

In emphasizing both the institutional and individual dimensions of behavior and in enabling role analysts to account for the direction and continuity of behavior as well as its prediction, the Getzels-Guba Model becomes a highly relevant one to use in the analysis of role behavior.

Getzels and Guba utilize the framework of their model to discuss three additional concepts that are critical to understanding the interaction of people within institutions. These concepts include individual and institutional conflict, organizational effectiveness and efficiency and

⁸⁸Ibid., p. 156.

⁸⁹Ibid., p. 155.

⁹⁰Ibid., p. 160.

individual satisfaction, and leadership-followership styles. Each one of these concepts will be briefly discussed.

According to Getzels and Guba there is total normative and idiographic congruity within a social system when the individual is both adapted to and integrated within his role. This means the individual's personal needs are being met and he is performing commensurate with role expectations. Conflict occurs within the individual and institution when there is "mutual interference of adjustive and integrative reactions."⁹¹ The model illustrates three sources of conflict:

1. Role-personality conflict occurs as a result of disparities between the patterns of expectations assigned to a specific role and the role incumbents need-disposition.
2. Role conflict (independent of the role incumbent's personality) results from the institutional requirement to simultaneously conform to several role expectations that are either mutually exclusive, inconsistent, or contradictory.
3. Personality conflict result from the conflict caused by opposing needs and dispositons within the individual. The individual has removed the role from the context of the institution and has used it to resolve personal needs and dispositions.⁹²

Within the context of the model, these conflicts represent incongruity between the normative and idiographic dimensions of the social system and result in losses in

⁹¹Getzels and Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," p. 431.

⁹²Ibid., pp. 431-432.

personal and institutional productivity.⁹³

The second concept to be discussed relates to institutional effectiveness and efficiency and individual satisfaction.

Getzels and Guba maintain the following:

A primary concern of any organization is the effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction of the staff (role incumbents)... The model ... makes possible clear cut and heuristic distinctions between the terms so that a given role incumbent may ... be seen as effective without being efficient, and efficient without being effective, and satisfied without being either effective or efficient.⁹⁴

The relationship between these factors is illustrated in Figure 3.⁹⁵

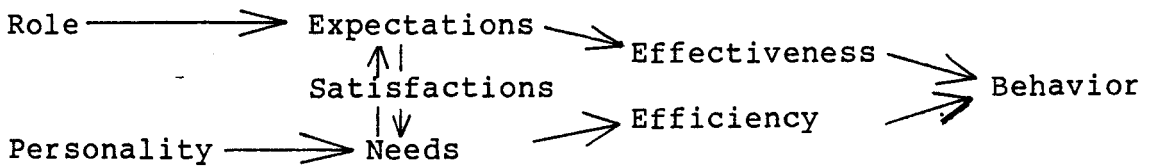


Figure 3 -- Relation of Role Expectations and Personality Needs to Efficient, Effective, and Satisfying Behavior

⁹³Ibid., p. 433.

⁹⁴Ibid.

⁹⁵Ibid.

Getzels and Guba define these three constructs as follows:

1. Effectiveness is a function of the congruency of the role incumbent's behavior with the expectations of the evaluator of the behavior. The criterion of effectiveness is not the behavior itself, but the behavior within the context of institutional and normative expectations.
2. Efficiency is a function of the congruency of the role incumbents behavior with his need-dispositions. When behavior conforms to the needs dimension it is considered efficient, when it conforms to the expectation dimension at the expense of the needs dimension, it is inefficient.
3. Satisfaction is a function of the congruency of individual needs and institutional expectations. It results when the role incumbents behavior simultaneously conforms to situational expectations and personal needs.⁹⁶

The last concept to be explained is leadership and followership styles. Getzels and Guba define leadership as the engagement in an act which initiates a structure in interaction with others; and followership as the engagement in an act which maintains a structure initiated by another.⁹⁷

This distinction will be particularly useful in the analysis of school board member role behavior in terms of its initiating or maintaining behavioral components.

According to the model, there are three distinct types of leadership-followership styles represented by the nomothitic, idiographic and transactional dimensions.

⁹⁶Ibid., pp. 433-435.

⁹⁷Ibid., p. 435.

These styles are represented in Figure 4.⁹⁸

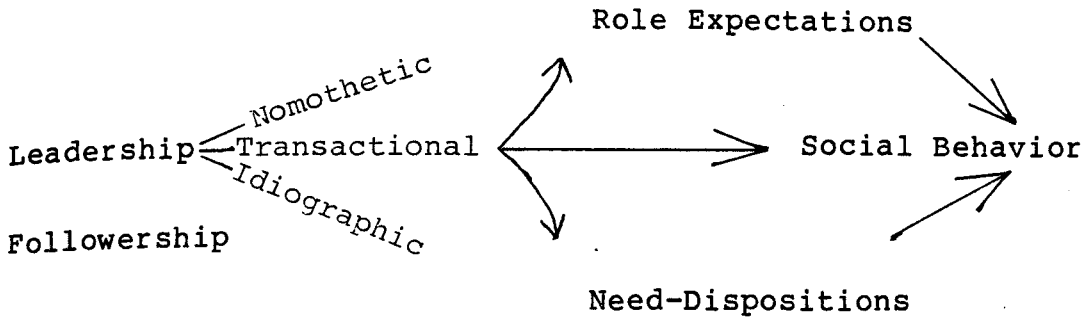


Figure 4 -- Three Leadership-Followership Styles

It is important to note that in this conception of leadership and followership styles, it is assumed that the behavior of the leader and the follower is goal-oriented toward the institution.⁹⁹ The three styles, therefore, are three "modes of achieving the same goal; they are not different images of the goal."¹⁰⁰

The nomothetic style emphasizes the needs of the institution rather than the individual. It is believed that procedures can be developed to enhance the achievement of institutional goals, and that goals will be attained because of clearly defined expectations that are incorporated into the incumbent's role. Within this leadership-followership typology, the most expeditious avenue to the institutional

⁹⁸Ibid., p. 436.

⁹⁹Ibid., p. 435.

¹⁰⁰Ibid.

goal resides within the framework of the institutional structure. "The obligation of the follower is to do things by the book; the obligation of the leader is to 'write the book.'"¹⁰¹

The idiographic style is diametric to the nomothetic style because it emphasizes the requirements of the individual not the institution. Institutional goal-orientation is still present, but the most expeditious route to the goal is seen to reside in people rather than the institutional structure. The fundamental principle in this style is that institutional goal accomplishment will be maximized by enabling the individual to maximize his need-dispositions rather than through strict adherence to rigidly defined roles. The individual role incumbent and not the role expectations is the most critical factor in the institution.¹⁰²

The third leadership-followership style integrates the nomothetic and idiographic styles into a transactional style. Within this framework, the institutional roles and expectations are made explicit, but the individual role incumbent's needs are also considered. The extent of this style which is structurally oriented, is to "acquire a thorough awareness of the limits and resources of both

¹⁰¹Ibid., p. 436.

¹⁰²Ibid., p. 437.

individual and institution."¹⁰³ Although institutional roles are developed apart from the individual, they are adapted and adjusted to the individual incumbent.¹⁰⁴

It is believed that the application of these systematic concepts to the analysis of school board member behavior will result in a greater understanding of not only the impact of an individual or a differentiated aggregate on the school board, but will help to place the school board in perspective as a social system with nomothetic and idiographic dimensions.

The usefulness of the Getzels-Guba Model for behavioral analysis of women on school boards, is clearly illustrated in a timely article by Jacqueline Peters who uses the Model to explain the emergence of the "new woman" in education. Although the focus is on the woman administrator, recent studies of women on school boards indicate that Peters' conclusions are applicable to women school board members as well.

Applying the Getzels-Guba Model to public schools requires one to recall the patriarchal orientation of American public education described in chapter I. The nomothetic expectations of a patriarchal public school system have traditionally maintained that women are more suited to maternal, nurturing, and teaching roles, while men

¹⁰³Ibid., p. 348.

¹⁰⁴Ibid.

are better suited to more dominant, authoritative and administrative roles.¹⁰⁵

As a result of societal conditioning, women tended to assume their "assigned position" within the school system. At the time, this both fulfilled the nomothetic expectations of the school system and the idiographic need-dispositions of the individuals (both male and female) within the organization; this resulted in satisfaction and was reflected in congruent institutional adjustment and individually integrated behavior.

However, during the 1960's and 1970's, numerous factors such as the civil rights movement and the women's movement contributed to a gradual but nevertheless dramatic shift in the thinking of women regarding their "place" in society; the "femine legacy" was being questioned.

In addition to being somebody's daughter, somebody's wife, somebody's mother, somebody's employee, women today are becoming somebody ... there is a new climate which encourages more variety in life styles, job choices, and role expectations for women than ever before in our nation's history."¹⁰⁶

In light of this new orientation, the Getzels-Guba Model is useful in examining the goals of the "new women" in education. In order for her to experience satisfaction in educational employment, she must obtain positions (i.e.,

¹⁰⁵ Jacqueline Peters, "The Quest of the New Women in Public School Education," NASSP Bulletin (December 1980): 16.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

administrator or school board member) that are congruent with her new and reorganized self-concept (need-disposition). However, when this is done, she finds that the system itself has not altered its role expectations for women. This lack of congruity between institutional expectations and individual needs, clearly causes conflict within both the institution and the individual.

As the model suggests, the new women in education must become

concerned with the process of examining and improving existing (institutional) goals; facilitate the alternating of goals so the purpose of the institution may come to take on a new meaning; be present -- future oriented and concerned more with processes of change for redefining present directions as well as improving operations.¹⁰⁷

Assuming that institutional goals can change or be redirected, this approach will lead to congruence within both dimensions and will result in behavior that is both institutionally effective and efficient and individually satisfying.

Functions and Roles of School Boards and School Board Members

This section presents a brief overview of the powers, duties, functions, and roles of school boards and inferentially school board members. Although the focus of the present research study is on the functions and roles of school board members, it is critical to examine the role

¹⁰⁷Ibid., p. 17.

behavior of individual board members within the framework of the school board as a socio-cultural system. Further, since the available literature on school board functions and roles is largely derived from the responses of individual board members, studies of boards are seen to be reflective of the perceptions and behaviors of individual board members.

Although education is not specifically referred to in the United States Constitution, it is provided for in the Tenth Amendment which reads, "The powers not delegated to the United States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people."¹⁰⁸ Under this amendment, education is reserved to the states and to the people. Constitutions in each state provide for the establishment and maintenance of systems of public schools. In Illinois it is provided for in Article X, Section 1 of the Illinois Constitution.

Although the legislature is the source of virtually all educational decision-making authority, it has delegated much of that authority to local boards of education.

The local school board, then, is a creature of the legislature.... As a duly elected or appointed body, the school board operates solely as an agency of the state and derives its power primarily from statutory law.¹⁰⁹

In Illinois, provisions for a board of education are found in The School Code of Illinois, a body of laws enacted

¹⁰⁸Illinois Association of School Boards, Guidelines for Effective School Board Membership (Springfield: Illinois Association of School Boards, 1979), p. 5.

¹⁰⁹Keith Goldhammer, The School Board (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 4.

by the Illinois General Assembly to "describe and prescribe how public school education shall operate in Illinois."¹¹⁰

Section 10-10 of The School Code of Illinois states that

All districts having a population of not fewer than 1,000 and not more than 500,000 inhabitants ... shall be governed by a board of education consisting of seven (7) members, serving without compensation...¹¹¹

School boards for district of under 1,000 inhabitants are addressed in Section 10-1 of The School Code of Illinois and boards for districts with 500,000 inhabitants are dealt with in Section 34-1 of The School Code of Illinois.¹¹²

As a creature of statute, the school board is in reality a corporate being with legislative enactments that prescribe both mandatory and discretionary powers and duties. Remmlein states:

the school board, by legislative enactment is a quasi-legislative or rule-making body, a quasi-judicial or discretionary body, and an administrative or ministerial body, as the result of the mandatory managerial affairs which it must conduct.¹¹³

Scholars of the legal relationship of school boards generally maintain that there are two distinct types of

¹¹⁰ Illinois Association of School Boards, Guidelines, p. 5.

¹¹¹ The School Code of Illinois (St. Paul: West Publishing Company, 1981), pp. 47-78.

¹¹² *Ibid.*, p. 204.

¹¹³ M. K. Remmlein, "Legal Status of Local School Boards," The American School Board Journal 125 (May-June 1952) quoted in Keith Goldhammer, The School Board (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 6.

authority which the school board exercises over the educational enterprise. The school board exercises certain discretionary authority and it has certain ministerial functions.

A ministerial function (DUTY) is a function established by law which must be performed regardless of the boards perception of its desirability or undesirability. A discretionary function (POWER) is one which gives the board the power or right to act if it chooses to do so; there is no legal necessity to act.¹¹⁴

In order to exercise these constitutional mandates, the Illinois General Assembly has delegated an impressive number of duties and power to local school boards.

Article 10 of The School Code of Illinois, Sections 10-20 and 10-21, list such duties as: maintain records, provide revenue, appoint teachers and fix their salaries, direct what studies shall be taught, adopt a school calendar, employ a superintendent and numerous others.¹¹⁵

Article 10, Sections 10-22 and 10-23 of The School Code lists the powers of school boards which include such decisions as whether or not to borrow money, repair buildings, suspend a student, lease property, declare special holidays, etc.¹¹⁶

¹¹⁴Goldhammer, pp. 58-59.

¹¹⁵School Code, pp. 51-55.

¹¹⁶Ibid., pp. 55-67.

Probably the most important duty of the local board in Illinois is defined in Section 10-20.5, "to adopt and enforce all necessary rules for the management and government of the public schools of their district."¹¹⁷ Although the Illinois legislature has reduced the school boards discretion over the years by "restricting powers and expanding duties,"¹¹⁸ this duty alone gives Illinois school boards the authority necessary to oversee the management of their schools through policy enactment that carries the impact and force of law. This duty also imposes on boards the responsibility for what goes on in the schools.¹¹⁹

This extremely encompassing dimension, "responsibility for what goes on in the schools" has lead to considerable confusion between the specific function and role of boards vis-a-vis their appointed official, the superintendent.

As the historical overview illustrated, early boards were not limited to the legislative function, but had administrative and supervisory responsibilities as well. Gradually, however, they relinquished the administrative function to the superintendent.

In Illinois, the position of superintendent is directly provided for in The School Code. According to Section 10-

¹¹⁷Ibid., p. 51.

¹¹⁸Ronald R. Booth and Gerald R. Glaub, "Evaluation-- The Key to a Healthy Board Superintendent Relationship," The American School Board Journal 166 (March-April 1979): 21.

¹¹⁹Ibid.

21.4, "except in districts in which there is only one school with less than four teachers (school boards must) employ a superintendent who shall have charge of the administration of the schools under the direction of the board of education."¹²⁰

Clearly, the superintendent is hired by the board and is subordinate to it. In Illinois, The Code enumerates certain specific duties of the superintendent but completes the list with the words "and perform such other duties as the board may delegate to him."¹²¹

Although this statute identifies the minimal responsibilities of the superintendent, it does not convey authority. Authority is delegated by the school board.¹²²

The superintendent does have the capacity to make recommendations; however, his function is one of policy-execution or administration rather than policy development.¹²³ "Once policies have been set, the superintendent is given responsibility for the interpretation and administration of these policies."¹²⁴

¹²⁰School Code, p. 54.

¹²¹Ibid.

¹²²Booth and Glaub, "Evaluation--The Key," p. 22.

¹²³Goldhammer, p. 99.

¹²⁴Daniel Griffiths, The School Superintendent (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1966), p. 94.

Under the Hamiltonian concept of division of responsibilities between the executive and legislative branches, the school board is the legislative or general policy-making authority.

The professional literature is replete with admonitions for boards to limit their duties to policy-making and reserve all managerial functions to the professional administrative staff.

According to the Illinois Association of School Boards, "much of the unhappiness observed when the Board and Administration are not communicating, comes from the fact that either the board has assumed administrative authority, or the administrators have undercut the board by making policy."¹²⁵

A survey of the literature indicates considerable agreement concerning the functions of school boards and school board members. According to Neal Gross, noted authority on school board governance,

The board's function is that of studying possibilities and alternatives, of weighing, evaluating, and deciding. If it is to do these things well, it must not waste its time by getting involved in the actual operation of the schools. Trying to perform functions that belong to a professionally trained staff dissipates the board's energies and endangers the educational program by substituting lay opinion for technical knowlege and competence.¹²⁶

¹²⁵ Illinois Association for School Boards, Guidelines, p. 10.

¹²⁶ Neal Gross, Who Runs Our Schools? (New York: John Willy and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 127.

This division between policy-development and school-management was endorsed by the National School Board Association in the following statement:

Primarily, the board's job is governance and oversight. It determines policies; it does not implement them. It determines plans and budgets for the operation of school programs. It requires the supervision and evaluation of staff performance; but it does not do the supervising or evaluation on a person-to-person basis. Board members are not staff members. Their job is to not to roll up their sleeves and do. Their job is to deliberate together at board meetings and to make decisions that will insure that the work of the schools gets done.¹²⁷

In addition to agreement on broad functions, the literature indicates considerable consensus concerning the more specific functions and responsibilities of school boards and school board members.

Ashby has divided the task of the board into four basic functions. These include:

1. The articulation of the goals of the school system
2. The selection of the superintendent as its administrative officer
3. The adoption of operating policies growing out of recommendations of the superintendent
4. General evaluation of the superintendent and the school system as a whole¹²⁸

¹²⁷National School Boards Association, School Board Handbook (Evanston: National School Boards Association, 1966), p. 8.

¹²⁸Lloyd W. Ashby, The Effective School Board Member (Danville: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1968), pp. 26-27.

Goldhammer concurred with Ashby's enumeration and included five major areas of responsibility for school boards. These are:

1. The determination of major goals
2. General formulation of operating policies
3. The selection of key personnel
4. Resource procurement and allocation
5. Evaluation of curriculum and all other phases of school district operation¹²⁹

Genck and Klingenberg listed the four major functions of school boards as:

1. Monitoring district educational performance and learning results
2. Developing staff talent
3. Establishing district purpose and goals
4. Balancing educational costs and benefits¹³⁰

Knezevich expanded the list to summarize the significant responsibilities of school boards as:

1. To satisfy the spirit as well as the word of state laws dealing with education and of the regulations of the state education authority
2. To ascertain goals or objectives of public education and to prepare general policies in tune with them
3. To select a superintendent of schools ... and work harmoniously with him

¹²⁹Goldhammer, pp. 100-103.

¹³⁰Frederic H. Genck and Allen G. Klingenberg, The School Board's Responsibility: Effective Schools Through Effective Management (Springfield: Illinois Association for School Boards, 1978), p. 36.

4. To strive continuously to develop further and improve the scope and quality of educational opportunities for all children and youth in the district
5. To create policies that will attract and retain professional and other personnel needed to realize educational objectives
6. To provide educationally efficient and safe school plant facilities
7. To plan for and obtain financial resources necessary to achieve educational goals
8. To keep the people of the district informed and aware of the status, progress, and problems of new schools
9. To appraise activities of the school district in light of its objectives
10. To discharge its responsibilities as a state agency by participating in state-wide boards to promote and improve public education¹³¹

If one were to categorize these responsibilities, it is clear that the literature indicates consensus on the functional categories of school board involvement.

In a chapter on the functions, powers and responsibilities of school boards, Reeves enumerated 102 specific tasks of school boards and then categorized these specific tasks into ten key functions. These functional categories were:

1. School Board activities and procedures
2. Superintendent of schools
3. Staff employment and organization

¹³¹ Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education, 3d ed. (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1975), p. 321.

4. Curriculum and instruction
5. Evaluation, appraisal, and judicial functions
6. Policies concerning attendance of pupils
7. Pupil service activities
8. School physical plant
9. Business policies and practices
10. Public relations¹³²

In a recent and highly consulted monograph on superintendent appraisal, Ronald Booth and Gerald Glaub, synthesized the aforementioned research data and developed a grid of school board functions and management responsibilities. It was this framework that was used in the present study as the structure for assessing school board member role behavior with respect to specific school district responsibilities and functions.

The major functions and their respective responsibilities are indicated on Figure 5.¹³³

¹³²Charles E. Reeves, School Boards: Their Status, Functions, and Activities (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), pp. 156-161.

¹³³Ronald Booth and Gerald R. Glaub, Planned Appraisal of the Superintendent: A Handbook (Springfield: The Illinois Association of School Boards, 1978), pp. 48-49.

SCHOOL BOARD OPERATIONS

- 1) District goal development
- 2) Policy development
- 3) Procedures for organization, decision making, and meetings
- 4) Employment and evaluation of superintendent
- 5) Monitoring school district performance

DISTRICT MANAGEMENT

- 1) Assessment of district needs and development of goals and objectives
- 2) Development of management and leadership skills
- 3) Organization of staff and assignment of responsibilities
- 4) Appraisal of staff performance
- 5) Evaluation of programs
- 6) Communication with school board

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

- 1) Compliance with legal requirements
- 2) Community needs and aspirations
- 3) Research and development
- 4) Curriculum planning
- 5) Program standards and evaluation
- 6) Grade-level articulation and departmental coordination
- 7) Basic skills development
- 8) Special programs for vocational, handicapped, gifted, enrichment, etc.
- 9) Extra-curricular programs
- 10) Grading and reporting
- 11) Alternative programs

BUDGET/FINANCE

- 1) Development of revenue sources
- 2) Budget development based on program priorities
- 3) Accounting and control procedures
- 4) Purchasing
- 5) Auditing
- 6) Long-range forecasting

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

- 1) Written employment policies and procedures
- 2) Job descriptions
- 3) Recruitment and selection of employees
- 4) Training and development of staff
- 5) Compensation
- 6) Evaluation
- 7) Collective bargaining
- 8) Contract administration

PUPIL SERVICES

- 1) Guidance and counseling
- 2) Psychological, social, and health services
- 3) Records
- 4) Discipline

SUPPORT OPERATIONS

- 1) Facilities planning and development
- 2) Plant operations
- 3) Buildings and grounds maintenance
- 4) Transportation
- 5) Food services
- 6) Office management

COMMUNICATIONS/PUBLIC RELATIONS

- 1) Community attitudes and opinions
- 2) Management information
- 3) Staff communications
- 4) Public information
- 5) Citizen involvement in decisions
- 6) Community services
- 7) Staff training
- 8) Special projects
- 9) Program evaluation

Figure 5 -- School District Functions and Management Responsibilities

It is evident from this numeration that considerable agreement exists in the general functions in which board members are engaged. However, despite agreement on the general principles of governance and the broad areas of school board functioning, there is much need for clarification between boards and superintendents on the specific task areas and the roles each assume within given tasks.

Although the literature reinforces the general axiom that the board establishes policy and the superintendent implements it, Claubaugh indicates that this is an oversimplification.¹³⁴

Responsibilities overlap, roles change, imbalances of power exist and societal pressures impinge on school boards, often making lines of accountability nebulous. Further, the absolute delineation of these responsibilities may not always be possible because of the confusion that seems to exist about where the policy-making dimension ends and usurpation of administrative authority begins.¹³⁵

Griffiths stated that in actuality the superintendent initiates policy-making and provides the board with the information necessary to formulate policy decisions. In

¹³⁴Ralph E. Claubaugh, School Superintendents' Guide: Principles and Practices for Effective Administration (West Nyach: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1966), p. 3.

¹³⁵Charles J. Kinn, "Superintendent and Board Member Role Perceptions in Selected Minnesota School Districts" (Ed.D. dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1980), p. 49.

turn, the board is concerned with the administration of policy and evaluates its effect on the organization. This results in the board exercising administrative control.¹³⁶

The necessity to distinguish between policy-making and execution was summarized by Wilson when he said

admittedly, it becomes difficult to determine at times whether a given task is more executive than legislative. The best way to minimize the confusion of the deliberate trespassing is to spell out in as much detail as possible the exclusive duties of each party.¹³⁷

Although the current literature indicates general agreement on what the responsibilities of boards and superintendents should be, studies do show that in actual practice, superintendents and boards often find themselves in disagreement over specific role responsibilities.

Davidson asserted that "the real problem is to determine as completely as possible that an understanding exists between the superintendent and board of education as to the roles and functions of each."¹³⁸ Mullins noted that a survey of superintendents revealed that superintendents believe board members are unable to separate their own policy-making function from the policy-administering

¹³⁶Griffiths, The School Superintendent, pp. 93-94.

¹³⁷Robert E. Wilson, The Modern School Superintendent (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960), p. 50.

¹³⁸Jack L. Davidson, Effective School Board Meetings (West Nyach: Parker Publishing Compay, 1970), p. 60.

function of a superintendent.¹³⁹ In support of these observations, Campbell et al, cited a study of one school board's decision-making that indicated that only sixteen of the board's 187 decisions were really policy decisions, the remainder were, in actuality, administrative decisions.¹⁴⁰

Goldhammer echoed these observations. His research indicated that superintendents believe that school boards should determine major policies while superintendents administer the district in accordance with those policies. However, the superintendents in his research felt that there were two functions in which school boards should act exclusively upon the superintendent's recommendation. These functional areas were responsibilities that relate to instructional methods (textbook selection, development of course guides, selection of teaching strategies) and personnel (initiation and recommendation of staff for dismissal or retention).¹⁴¹

In a widely read work on the school superintendency, Gross, Mason and McEachern studied 105 superintendents and 508 of their board members in Massachusetts. They found

¹³⁹Carolyn Mullins, "The Ways That School Boards Drive Their Superintendents Up the Wall," The American School Board Journal 161 (August 1974): 18.

¹⁴⁰Roald F. Campbell, Luvern L. Cunningham, and Roderick F. McPhee, The Organization and Control of American Schools (Columbia: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1970), p. 189.

¹⁴¹Goldhammer, pp. 65-66.

that although school board members tended to assign more responsibility to the superintendent in areas requiring greater technical competence, both board members and superintendents each assigned greater responsibility to his or her own position.¹⁴²

Gross elaborated on this notion more specifically in his book, Who Runs Our Schools? In revealing the nature of disagreement between superintendents and school boards with respect to specific responsibilities, Gross found the following: almost 90 percent of the superintendents felt that the school board should always accept their recommendations when purchasing textbooks, however, less than one-half of the board members concurred. With respect to personnel hiring, 70 percent of the superintendents believed that the school board should employ only individuals recommended by them, however, only 20 percent of the board members agreed. In the area of teacher grievances, nearly 90 percent of the superintendents believed that teachers should bring their grievances to the superintendent prior to presenting them to the board, but only 56 percent of the board members agreed with this procedure. Ninety percent of the superintendents felt decisions regarding the use of school property should be made by them; while almost 50 percent of the board members

¹⁴²Gross, Mason, and McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis, pp. 141-42.

felt it was their decision. Finally, over two-thirds of the superintendents believed they should make all recommendations relating to salary, but only one-third of the school board members agreed. Clearly, these responses indicate that in actual practice, a lack of role consensus exists between boards and superintendents.¹⁴³

Bart's and Kinn's recent studies support these findings. In a study of Arizona school districts, Bart found that there was widespread disagreement within school board members and superintendents in five of seven task areas studied: curriculum development, teaching materials, personnel administration, finance and budget, and public relations. This disparity seems to indicate that boards and superintendents perceive their respective roles and functions quite differently.¹⁴⁴

Kinn's study reached similar conclusions. Kinn presented both board members and superintendents with forty-eight role statements relating to the role of the board. Statements included such items as: "accept the recommendation of the superintendent in selecting textbooks"; "adopt a program of special instructional classes"; "adopt the school budget recommended by the superintendent." The

¹⁴³Gross, Who Runs Our Schools?, pp. 124-125.

¹⁴⁴Mary J. Bart, "The Role and Function of Boards of Education and School Superintendents as Reflected in the Perception of Members of Both Groups in Selected School Districts in Arizona" (Ph.D. dissertation, the University of Arizona, 1980), p. 88.

results of the study indicated that there was disagreement between superintendents and school board members on 55 percent of the role statements.¹⁴⁵

Why are some boards and some board members content to leave administration to the superintendent while others struggle with the lines of demarcation between board and superintendent responsibilities? Hagen's study of the pattern of school board member roles over a twelve year period in a single community sheds some light on this question. Hagen developed two ratios as the basis upon which he could interpret his data: a confidence ratio which was the degree to which board members felt considerable confidence in the superintendent's ability to adequately interpret board policy, and an intervention ratio, which was the degree to which board members felt compelled to intervene in the staff and community relations of the school district so that their intentions were adequately represented. Hagen discovered that the two ratios varied inversely; as board members felt greater confidence in the superintendents, they were less likely to intervene in administrative matters and more likely to feel that their primary role as school board members was to support the

¹⁴⁵Kinn, p. 211.

superintendent and the status quo of the school district.¹⁴⁶

Research studies have clearly indicated the need to clarify the respective roles of school boards and superintendents. In a recently published handbook, Booth and Glaub advocated that boards list their responsibilities within each of the major school district functions and then analyze their respective roles within each responsibility. According to Booth and Glaub, if board members see the board as a policy-making body, they will select roles such as "monitor ... provide ... recommend ... approve," etc. On the other hand, if school board members describe their roles as "initiating ... implimenting ... analyzing ... designing," etc., then they are doing rather than giving directions.¹⁴⁷

The focus of the present study is to describe and analyze the role involvement of female and male school board members with respect to specific tasks included within the seven key school district functions. Role involvement is measured interms of three specific behaviors: initiation

¹⁴⁶Arnold J. Hagen, "An Exploratory Study of the Patterning and Structuring of the Roles Played by School Board Members Through a Particular Time Sequence" (Ed.D. dissertaton, University of Oregon, 1955) quoted in Mary J. Bart, "The Role and Function of Boards of Education and School Superintendents as Reflected in the Perceptions of Members of Both Groups in Selected School Districts in Arizona" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Arizona, 1980), p. 25.

¹⁴⁷Booth and Glaub, Planned Appraisal, p. 25.

and origination; committee discussion and review, and voting at the board meeting. These behaviors are seen to be part of a behavioral continuum from emphasis on administration to emphasis on policy-making.

Thusfar the literature review has focused on the broad principles of school board governance, and the specific functions and responsibilities of school boards and school board members. In comprehensively reviewing the functions and roles of school boards, however, one additional dimension needs explanation and that is the role orientation of school boards and school board members. Knezevich defines the role orientation of the board as "the manner in which the local board of education exercises the legal authority granted it."¹⁴⁸ The literature is replete with the data on the decision-making role(s) of school boards, however, only selected research was reviewed as it pertains to this present study.

Davidson divides school board role orientation into our categories: the power structure reflected board; the factionated board; the status congruent board and the sanctionary board.¹⁴⁹

¹⁴⁸Knezevich, p. 318.

¹⁴⁹Jack L. Davidson, "Superintendent-Board Division of Responsibility," paper presented at the American Association of School Boards Annual Convention, Las Vegas, Nevada, February 1977, pp. 1-2.

In the power structure reflected board, the school board responds and adheres to the community power structure; the superintendent is a servant and cannot oppose the power structure. The factionated board is mercurial in its behavior and alters its approach on each issue. The status congruent board operates within the recognized constructs of the accepted status image; and the sanctionary board acts solely to sanction and approve the action of the superintendent. Davidson indicates that while the latter board has not totally disappeared, there is evidence to suggest that it is "well on its way toward classification as a relic of the past."¹⁵⁰

Banton defined two "ideal" types of school board roles as elite councils and arena councils. "Elite councils are those which are ... a ruling oligarchy. The dominant cleavage in such a group is between the elite council ... and the public."¹⁵¹

These councils are: 1) small in membership, 2) think of themselves as guardians of the public, 3) think of themselves as separate from the people, 4) make decisions in non-public sessions, 5) strive for consensus and act unanimously in public sessions, 6) tend to act in limited rather than broad decision-making arenas, 7) tend to be

¹⁵⁰Ibid., p. 2.

¹⁵¹Michael Banton, ed., Political Systems and the Distribution of Power (London: The University Press, 1977), p. 10.

administrative as well as legislative and judicial in nature.¹⁵²

The second "ideal" category is the arena council. "The council is not so much a corporate body with interests against its public, but an arena in which the representatives of segments of the public come into conflict with one another."¹⁵³

Arena councils are: 1) larger in membership, 2) act as community in council, 3) members represent factional constituencies, 4) debate issues in public, 5) decide by majority vote, 6) act in broad areas, 7) tend to be legislative and/or judicial with the administrative functions belonging to an independent system.¹⁵⁴ Lutz has demonstrated that school boards can be classified along a continuum from elite to arena in nature.¹⁵⁵

Another categorization of school board role orientation is found in Wilbur Boyd's work. Boyd characterized school boards as having either a trustee or delegate role orientation

Trustee boards believe their role is to oversee the schools on the basis of their understanding of the public

¹⁵²Ibid.

¹⁵³Ibid.

¹⁵⁴Ibid.

¹⁵⁵Frank W. Lutz, "Methods and Conceptualization of Political Power in Education," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook (Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1977): 25.

interests or general welfare.... Delegate boards believe their role is to express the public view rather than their own.¹⁵⁶

According to the National School Boards Association's research report on school boards, the trustee attitude dominated school board governance during most of this century, but the delegate role orientation is becoming much more commonplace as school board membership becomes more diverse in its representation.¹⁵⁷

Kerr also sees school boards as performing one of two roles: either representing the various segments of the community to the school, or legitimizing the policies of the school system and school administration to the community.¹⁵⁸ Although he acknowledges two distinct roles, he believes that school boards have largely become legitimizing agents. This he sees as a crisis in public school governance at the local level since the original design of lay control has been subverted.

A similar dichotomy of role is reported by Boss, Ziegler, Tucker and Wilson, under the names traditional democratic model and technological model.

Traditional democratic theory holds that political influence follows ... lines of legal authority. The

¹⁵⁶National School Boards Association, Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards? (Evanston: National School Boards Association, 1975), p. 7.

¹⁵⁷Ibid.

¹⁵⁸Norman Kerr, "The School Board As An Agency of Legitimation," Sociology of Education 38 (1964): 35.

public elects a representative body ... to make policy. Administrators follow the instructions of legislators, who follow the instructions of their constituents... The major source of power is popular electoral and organizational support and the norm of policy decision-making is responsiveness to public desires and preference.

[In] the newer model ... the technological model ... problems and policy alternatives are now too complex for the public and its representatives to evaluate. Legislatures solicit and follow the recommendations of professional administrators. The major source of power is information; the new norm of policy decision-making is deference to expertise.¹⁵⁹

In an excellent summary on the issue of public or professional control of educational policy-making, Cistone suggests the following:

The most fundamental conflict today relates to two competing values: popular participation and professional autonomy... While democratic theory stresses the desirability of widespread political participation, the complexities of school administration require the application of professional expertise... The viability of the existing governance structure of education depends in large measure on resolving the competing implications of popular participation and professional autonomy.¹⁶⁰

As far as the future is concerned, Ruys issues a caveat to school administrators that school boards and school board members are tending to become more and more involved in school district management. They are seeing their legitimate responsibility as a combination of both making

¹⁵⁹M. O. Boss, H. Ziegler, H. Tucker and L. A. Wilson, "Professionalism, Community Structure in Decision-Making: School Superintendents and Interest Groups," in S.K. Grove and F. M. Wirt eds., Political Science and School Politics (Lexington: D.C. Heath Co., 1976), p. 39.

¹⁶⁰Peter J. Cistone, "The Politics of Education: Some Main Themes and Issues," in Peter J. Cistone ed., School Boards Once the Political Fact (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1972), p. 4.

and administering policy and are moving toward the role orientations of arena council, delegate and democratic, rather than elite council, trustee, technological and legitimizing.

Finally, for those superintendents who fear the lines between administration and policy-making are fading fast, be advised that such fears are not without foundation. The new breed of board member, with a sensitive ear tuned to the public, wants things another way ... no more of the arbitrary, let's not overlap syndrome between board and superintendent. With increasing support from the public, board members of either the elected or appointed variety are educating themselves to be as well-qualified to judge what's right or wrong with local education.¹⁶¹

In a monograph published by Phi Delta Kappan, Brodinsky stipulates the behaviors board members need to exhibit to be effective in "asserting their responsibility on educational topics."¹⁶² These include:

1. Ask questions
2. Request reports
3. Initiate an audit of your district's educational and instructional policies
4. Make budgetary decision which help develop educational programs
5. See to it that teaching and learning are the principle ingredients in the district's public information program

¹⁶¹Marie S. Ruys, "Could You Be a Better Board Member Than You Are? Read This Veteran's Advice," The American School Board Journal 160 (August 1973): 39.

¹⁶²Ben Brodinsky, "How a School Board Operates," Phi Delta Kappan Fastback Series (Bloomington: The Phi Delta Kappan Educational Foundation, 1977), p. 22.

6. Don't leave the educational arena entirely to the expert and specialist¹⁶³

Louise Dyer, President of the San Diego Board of Education, dramatically supports this changing role orientation of school boards. In an article documenting her research of a nation-wide sample of school board members regarding their role, she noted the following results.

1. School boards have decided to "junk the rubber stamp image"
2. They listen to the public
3. They are "trumpeting about change in every section of the educational scene"
4. They are demanding that their questions be answered promptly with no nonsense language and logic. "Board members now want a product that can be evaluated and audited for its financial and educational worth. The shift is clearly from rhetoric to results."
5. Boards are shortening the tenure of superintendents. Board members "blame middle-management for resisting change in any form."¹⁶⁴

Dyer summarized the results of her study in the following manner:

My contention is that schools have been the toy of educators for entirely too long ... board members now seem to be serving notice on the education establishment saying 'open up and let us in. We are the ones who honestly reflect the attitudes and beliefs of the people who elected us. Don't treat us as outsiders; don't talk to us in patronizing tones; don't withhold vital information. We do not come as threatening marauders but

¹⁶³Ibid., pp. 22-23.

¹⁶⁴Louise Dyer, "The American School Board Member and His--and Her--Era of Fierce New Independence, "The American School Board Journal 160 (July 1973): 17-19.

as co-workers in the business of educating children.¹⁶⁵

As noted earlier, we have been viewing the functions, roles and role orientation of school boards and school board members within the context of the school board as a social system and have, therefore, been focusing largely on the nomothetic dimension of the social system -- the institutional parameters, the norms and the role expectations for school board service. There is, however, another component and that is the idiographic or personal dimension. As Goldhammer points out:

The research on school board role expectations clearly reveals that the human factor must be considered in the evaluation of any position. The perspectives which school board members have of their jobs are varied by the perspectives, the goals, and the beliefs of the individual members. Because this is true, it is difficult to generalize about how a board functions; for the function of the board is a variable of the perceptions that the individual members have of their roles.¹⁶⁶

With this in mind, we now turn to a review of women and men on school boards.

In 1982, research on women who serve on local boards of education in the United States appeared to be in the developmental stages. The limited literature available generally emphasized the need for definitive studies on women school board members, however, the subject itself was more often reviewed within the context of a larger work on

¹⁶⁵Ibid., p. 19.

¹⁶⁶Goldhammer, p. 41.

school boards, school board members, or educational governance in general.

Despite the limited research, sufficient studies do exist to be able to see some common research trends and generalizations about the role and function of women on school boards.

In an effort to organize this study for the reader, it has been divided into two sections: studies relating to the social composition of school boards and the profiles and characteristics of school board members, and studies of women on school boards.

All of these studies will be reviewed chronologically. Emphases will be placed on studies conducted over the last ten years, however significant historical studies will also be cited. Within the framework of the school board as a social system, this segment of the research review focuses on the idiographic or individual dimension.

Social Composition of School Boards and Characteristics of School Board Members

In 1920, George Counts made the following inquiry:

Who are the men and women composing boards that control public education in the United States? From what social classes do they come? What training do they bring to the task of determining educational policies? ...What particular prejudices or special points of view may they be expected to exhibit? ...What is their intellectual and moral equipment? ...How much time do they devote to those duties? These and many other questions of a similar character ought to receive the earnest attention

students of education.¹⁶⁷

Despite the lapse of time between Counts inquiry and the present day, the timeliness of his concerns still remains. A survey of the educational literature indicates that these questions have not been carefully studied in light of their implications for educational governance.

In order to begin to formulate tentative answers to these questions, researchers began to focus on the social composition of school boards and the profile of school board members.

The first intensive study of the social composition of school boards was published in 1927 by George Counts. Prior to Counts, however, four studies were made that reflected similar findings.

The Nearing study in 1916,¹⁶⁸ the New York Teachers' Union study in 1919,¹⁶⁹ the Holimon study in 1920,¹⁷⁰ and the Strubble study in 1922¹⁷¹ showed several common findings. These were: the occupation of board members was largely concentrated in seven occupational groups: merchants, manufacturers, bankers, brokers, real estate men,

¹⁶⁷Counts, p. 1.

¹⁶⁸Ibid., p. 3.

¹⁶⁹Ibid., p. 4.

¹⁷⁰William Morrissey, "The Status and Perceptions of Women School Board Members in Indiana" (Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1972), p. 22.

¹⁷¹Counts, p. 4.

lawyers and physicians; teachers composed a very small percentage of school board membership (less than 2 percent) and women were vastly underrepresented, (the percent of women on school boards ranged from 2 percent in 1916 to 9.3 percent in 1922.) Clearly, the social composition of school boards was not representative of the community at large.

Between 1920 and 1926 George Counts conducted his massive inquiry into the questions he initially posed about the social composition of school boards. In reviewing the findings of the previous studies, he was compelled to investigate the claim held by labor leaders that public education was controlled by the employing classes, that labor and their interests were not represented on the boards of education in the formulation of educational policy, and that school programs indicated bias in favor of the economically more well-established groups.¹⁷² Only the most pertinent results of Count's massive national study of 1654 school boards are enumerated:

1. Slightly more than half of the boards secured their membership through election.
2. The median tenure of office for board membes was 4.1 years.
3. The median number of hours annually devoted to school board duties was 50.

¹⁷²Ibid.

4. The age span of board members was from 22-85 years of age, however, the greatest majority were middle-aged.

5. Sixty-one percent of the board members had gone beyond secondary school.

6. More than one-half of the board members had children attending the public schools.

7. Eighty percent of the male school board membership was found in three occupations: agricultural (30 percent); professional service (29 percent), and proprietorship (21 percent). Furthermore, not only was board membership drawn from a few occupational divisions, it was also drawn from a limited number of occupations. The representation in descending order was merchants, lawyers, physicians, manufacturers, and bankers. Clearly the labor class was underrepresented.

8. Women represented 14.3 percent of the city boards; 11.5 percent of the county boards, 7.6 percent of the college and university boards, 7.4 percent of the state boards, and 6.2 percent of the district boards. In total, they represented 10.2 percent of all the governing boards.

In reviewing this data, Counts noted the following:

To an observer unfamiliar with the patriarchal tradition of society ... the most striking fact reported ... is the severe discrimination against woman [sic]. While her representation is greater on certain types of boards than others, in the city boards where her position is strongest she may be outvoted six to one.¹⁷³

¹⁷³Ibid., pp. 41-42.

Similar trends were seen in the office of the president. For the men, the ratio of presidents to members on the city boards was one to six, for the women, the corresponding ratio was one to twenty-nine.

Counts again notes:

Apparently, while women had been successful in forcing their way into the board of education in small numbers, they had not been able to secure representation equal to that of men in the positions of executive responsibility. They were expected to follow the leadership of the other sex.¹⁷⁴

Housekeeping was listed as the occupation of 75 percent of the women school board members, while a small minority of women also listed teaching and social work.

Counts also found that the percentage of women on boards of education varied by geographical region. In 1926 women represented 18.1 percent of the New England school board members and 12.1 percent of the South Atlantic states.¹⁷⁵

At this point, it is important to review Counts' tentative conclusions about women on school boards. Although Counts reported substantial increases in the representation of women on school boards from 1920-1926, he believed that there appeared to be "certain checking influences"¹⁷⁶ that inhibited additional women from being

¹⁷⁴Ibid., p. 42.

¹⁷⁵Ibid., pp. 15-42.

¹⁷⁶Ibid., p. 45.

elected to the school board once one woman was a member.

According to Counts:

Probably the country is already approaching a condition of equilibrium with respect to this matter. The ordinary board will possibly have one woman member, and the ordinary community may come to regard it as desirable for the feminine point of view in the population to be guaranteed a hearing on the board, but that we are moving in the direction of a strictly feminine board is hardly sustained by a critical examination of the data here presented.¹⁷⁷

Following the enumeration of findings, Counts presented a composite profile of the typical city board of education in 1916:

The typical city board of education in the United States is composed of six members ... elected at large for a term of three years. One of the six members is a woman, who follows the occupation of housewife. Of the five men, one is a merchant; one a lawyer; one, a physician; one, a banker, manufacturer, or business executive; and one, a salesman, clerk, or laborer. Three have children attending the public schools... From the standpoint of formal education, they constitute... a highly selected group ... three have enjoyed college or university privileges... In age, they exhibit a range from thirty-seven to sixty-three years... In length of service... they likewise show considerable diversity... On the average, these members devote approximately fifty-one hours a year to board duties.¹⁷⁸

This profile was included because it is the most complete of the early profiles of board members and will be used frequently in the analysis of the changing composition of school boards.

It is critical to note the significance of and implications for educational governance and control that

¹⁷⁷Ibid.

¹⁷⁸Ibid., p. 79.

Counts attributes to the findings of his study; according to him, "with respect to sex, education, and occupation, the board shows a tendency to be narrowly selective... The dominant classes in our society dominate the board of education."¹⁷⁹

Counts continued with the following statement:

Our boards of education are composed of business men. What this is likely to mean for American education is obvious. There is a grave danger that the curriculum, methods of instruction, administrative organization, and criteria for successful achievement in the school will be derived from the procedures, needs, and ideals of commerce and industry. Evidence is already accumulated to indicate that this is taking place.¹⁸⁰

Counts was concerned that the elitist composition of the school board would distort and perhaps ultimately destroy the basic function of the board of education which was the development of educational policy. He disagreed with Chancellor and Cubberley that "a good board is one that facilitates the task of the school administration and makes easy the way of the administrator."¹⁸¹ To him, this represented an emphasis "not on the character of the educational policies formulated, but on the efficiency with which they are executed."¹⁸² In reviewing subsequent literature and the data generated from this study, Counts'

¹⁷⁹Ibid., p. 81.

¹⁸⁰Ibid., p. 94.

¹⁸¹Ibid., p. 89.

¹⁸²Ibid.

observation remains a contemporary and critically important issue for educational governance. Counts underscored his concern in the following statement:

If efficiency is accepted as the standard of judgement, then the major question ... regarding a member should refer to his personal competence ... the merchants, bankers, lawyers, physicians, manufacturers and executives are competent people. They may ... be expected to handle the business of the board with dispatch ... Since such persons and school administrators have probably attended the same schools and colleges, since they are likely to belong to the same social groups ... they will possess the same social philosophy and ... will speak the same language. On fundamental social and educational questions they will exhibit the same prejudices and attitudes. Such a combination of circumstances should certainly insure the efficient transaction of business... There is another point of view, however,... The basic service which the board renders society is the formulation of general educational policy... If this major contention is granted.... The question is ... raised: To what ... elements of the population should society intrust [sic] its destiny? The criterion of personal competence is not enough.¹⁸³

For Count's the issue of the social composition of school boards was in reality an issue of educational control. The review of the literature and subsequent data analysis will illustrate the re-emergence of this theme.

Considerable attention was paid to Counts' study because of the magnitude of the study and the framework that it provides for contemporary analysis. Additional studies of the social composition of school boards support many of Counts' findings.

In his study of the social benefits and attitudes of American school board members in 1932, Arnett compared the

¹⁸³Ibid., pp. 89-90.

responses of male board members in an attempt to determine whether one sex was more open-minded, or "progressive" than the other. Women board members were found to be more progressive than male board members in such areas as modern teaching methods, government ownership, socialism, capital and labor, and respect for national symbols, and were less progressive than men on issues of concerning the tariff, nationalism, and teaching absolute facts in the constitution.¹⁸⁴

Studies done by Hines in 1944, Hunter in 1949, and Brown in 1953,¹⁸⁵ all came to similar conclusions: board membership was largely representative of the business and professional classes with little representation from labor, farm workers, or women.

Goldhammer's 1955 study supported these findings. Board members were known as "men of economic substance"¹⁸⁶

¹⁸⁴Claude Arnett, Social Beliefs and Attitudes of American School Board Members (Emporia: Emporia Gazette Press, 1932), quoted in William Morrisey, "The States and Perceptions of Women School Board Members in Indiana" (Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1972), p. 21.

¹⁸⁵Clarence Hines, "A Study of School Board Administrative Relationships: The Development of the Eugene, Oregon Superintendency 1891-1944," The American School Board Journal (February 1951): 14-21; (March 1951): 28-29; (April 1951): 17-19; J. A. Hunter, "Social Composition of Louisiana Parish School Boards," The American School Board Journal 119 (October and November 1949): 17-19; R. A. Brown, "Composition of School Boards," The American School Board Journal 129 (August 1954): 23-24, quoted in Keith Goldhammer The School Board (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 90.

¹⁸⁶Goldhammer, p. 91.

in the community and they represented the interests of the proprietary group.

Subsequent studies by Teal (1956), Albert (1958), Reber (1959), Tiedt and Garmire (1961), and Proudfoot (1962)¹⁸⁷ reported similar findings: The percentage of board members engaged in professional, technical or management positions ranged from 44 - 66 percent; the mean income varied from \$6,900. to \$12,000; the median age varied from 42.5 years to 48.6 years; women represented between six and eighteen percent of the board members.¹⁸⁸ The evidence clearly reinforced the concern Counts voiced in 1927 that school board members tended to come from the sociologically higher occupational categories and did not represent the labor component of society. Consequently, they represented a conservative perspective which promoted a system of values representative of only one segment of society.

¹⁸⁷Hal C. Teal, "Attitudes of Selected School Board Members Concerning Problems Facing Public Education" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1956); Frank Albert, "Selected Characteristics of School Board Members and Their Attitudes Towards Certain Criterion of Public School Education" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Mississippi, 1959); Donald Reber, "A Study of the Social Composition and Attitudes of California School Board Members" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, 1958); Sidney Tiedt, "Oregon School Board Members in the Willamette Valley," Oregon School Study Council Bulletin 6 (1962); Alexander Proudfoot, "A Study of the Socio-Economic States of Influential School Board Members in Alberta as Related to the Attitude Toward Certain Common Problems Confronting School Boards" (Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1962), quoted in Keith Goldhammer, The School Board, p. 93.

¹⁸⁸Goldhammer, p. 93.

In addition to studies on the social composition of school boards, research began to focus on the effects (if any) of school board composition on school board and school board member behavior. To date, very little data is available on this topic.

Beginning in 1952 and continuing throughout the 1960's, school board research concentrated on the "effectiveness" of school board member behavior.¹⁸⁹

Barnhart (1952), Stapley (1957), and Gross (1958) conducted research to determine effective school board member behavior. In all three studies, characteristics of "effective" or professional school board behavior were based upon the corporate model of efficiency. Behavior was judged effective if the majority of the superintendents in the study assessed it as such.¹⁹⁰

In Stapley's and Barnhart's study, approximately 75 percent of the ineffective behaviors reported were in the category of acceptance of board unity or understanding and supporting the executive function. The majority of the effective behaviors were in categories that represented demonstrating informed leadership and effective staff and group relations. Furthermore, there seemed to be no relationship between sex and the effectiveness of a school board member's performance. Seven percent of the board

¹⁸⁹Cistone, p. 113.

¹⁹⁰Ibid., pp. 113-114.

members in the study were women. Of the behaviors examined, 7 percent of the effective and ineffective behaviors were attributed to women.¹⁹¹

Gross defined effectiveness as "school board adherence to professional standards."¹⁹² Essentially, his study sought to answer several questions relating to school board member effectiveness and board/superintendent relations.

Some of Gross' general findings are enumerated below:

1. Approximately one-fifth of the superintendents felt that school boards constituted a major obstacle to superintendents in carrying out their job. This was particularly true of board members who interpreted their posts politically, were unconcerned about education and interfered with the administration of the schools.

2. Two groups, the P.T.A., and housewives were listed by superintendents as educational promoters.

3. The vast majority of superintendents indicated that parents, the P.T.A., individual school board members and teachers pressured the school board for programs in basic skills.

¹⁹¹M.E. Stapley, "Attitudes and Opinions of School Board Members," Indiana University School of Education Bulletin 27 (March 1951): 17; R. E. Barnhart, "The Critical Requirements for School Board Membership Based Upon an Analysis of Critical Incidents (Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1952); quoted in William Morrissey, "The Status and Perception of Women School Board Members in Indiana," p. 22.

¹⁹²Cistone, p. 113.

4. The majority of school board members were motivated by civic duty, a desire to represent a specific community group, or dissatisfaction with the way in which the schools were being managed.

5. Gender and marital status made little difference in the motivation board members had for seeking election to the school board.

6. When questioned about sources of dissatisfaction, more school board members mentioned "school board functioning" than any other single source of dissatisfaction. This was followed by community relations.

7. The occupation of school board members was not related to their adherence to professional standards. Income was also unrelated to "professional" board member behavior, however, level of education was related -- board members with higher educational attainment were more likely to adhere to professional standards of conduct.

8. School boards that agreed with the superintendent on their respective roles were more likely to adhere to professional standards than boards who did not.

9. Superintendents were more satisfied with their job when the board adhered to professional standards.¹⁹³

Gross concluded his study with the comment that "one of the most serious problems of the public schools in many communities may be the irresponsibility or ineffective

¹⁹³Gross, Who Runs Our Schools?, pp. 12-101.

behavior of their school boards."¹⁹⁴ His pro-administration perspective was summarized in the statement: "Even if the only changes brought about by improving school board behavior were for the benefit of the superintendent, they would probably have positive consequences for public education in general."¹⁹⁵

Since the 1960's, many research studies of school board members have focused on their recruitment and socialization patterns, and on conceptualizations of political power for school boards.¹⁹⁶

More recently, however, the National School Board Association conducted a number of significant studies of school board members that focused specifically on profiles of board members and their characteristics of board service. Again, little data, is available on school board member role behavior in decision-making.

In 1971, Joanne Zazzaro reported on a National School Board Association study on school board members. The following results were noted:

1. The typical board member was a male; women

¹⁹⁴ Ibid., p. 136.

¹⁹⁵ Ibid., p. 101.

¹⁹⁶ William Knisley, "School Board Conflict Behavior and Superintendent Survival: A Field Study of a School Board" (Ed.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1980), pp. 13-14.

represented only 11.9 percent of the school board population.

2. The typical boardsman was motivated to seek office to improve the quality of education. Motivation is a combination of concern for children, interest in education, and service to community. Only occasionally did board members run to rectify a specific problem unless it was to balance a highly partisan board. The only exception was women who "perceive an all male board to be both partisan and a problem."¹⁹⁷

3. Many boardsmen have been teachers or they are the husband or son of a teacher.

4. Board members were easily talked into seeking office by friends, business associates, retiring board members or politicians.

5. Board members common complaints about stumbling blocks to boardsmanship included constituent abuse, public arguing, parental criticism, and/or "administration entrenched in traditional thinking."¹⁹⁸ Further, they believe that too much time was utilized in trivia required by law rather than working on the improvement of curricular programs.¹⁹⁹

¹⁹⁷ Joanne Zazzaro, "What Makes Boardmen Run?" The American School Board Journal 158 (September 1971): 18.

¹⁹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid., pp. 17-19.

In 1978 Kenneth Underwood, the National School Board Association and the Virginia Polytechnical Institute conducted a national study of school board members seeking data in three areas: (1) demographic information about school board members; (2) school boards most pressing management concerns; and (3) comparing opinions of board members on specific issues. These opinions were compared on the basis of sex and geographic location. According to the study

Perhaps the biggest surprise of the survey: The number of female school board members has increased dramatically... Once again school board members accurately can be labeled as suburban, white, middle or upper middle class and middle-aged. One stereotype has fallen, however; school board membership no longer can be considered almost exclusively male territory. In other words, females in greater numbers are having an increasingly strong impact on public education in the United States.²⁰⁰

Women made up 26 percent of the respondents in this survey as contrasted to the 11.9 percent of the earlier National School Boards Association survey. The highest concentration of female school board members was in the central part of the nation (36.6 percent) and the lowest percentage served in the South (11.8 percent) and West (11.3 percent). In the Northeast and Pacific regions, women comprised 25.7 percent and 14.7 percent of the school board

²⁰⁰Kenneth Underwood, Lawrence McCluskey, and George Umberger, "A Profile of the School Board Member," The American School Board Journal 165 (October 1978): 23.

membership respectively.²⁰¹

The study also enumerated the following findings:

1. Ninety-two percent of school board members were elected to office.

2. School board members were generally between forty and fifty-nine years of age (66.6 percent).

3. Relative affluence and school board membership were closely linked. Over half of the respondents indicated that family income was at least twice the median family income in the United States at the time of the survey. (This trend was also indicated by Counts almost sixty years earlier.)

4. The majority of school board members had (56 percent) earned at least one college degree.

5. In the attitudinal portion of the survey, men and women school board members disagreed on statements relating to the primary cause of discipline problems in schools, and on the curricular related issues; however, on "most other topics, school board members regardless of sex show little divergence of opinion."²⁰²

In a 1978 dissertation study, Bell surveyed a sample of Illinois school board members excluding private and parochial schools and the Chicago Public Schools. His demographic findings indicated that 83.1 percent of the school board membership was male; 49.8 percent listed their

²⁰¹Ibid.

²⁰²Ibid., p. 27.

occupation as professional, technical, sales or farm worker; 72.3 percent were between thirty and forty-nine years of age, 57.8 percent had graduated from high school and 38.2 percent lived in a rural community. Bell stated,

If one were to describe the typical Illinois school board member, the description might read: the typical Illinois school board member is a thirty-eight year-old farmer who is a high school graduate and is nearing the end of his first three year term. He grew to adulthood in a rural community and is now serving in a rural unit district which enrolls less than 1000 students in grades kindergarten through high school.²⁰³

By far the most extensive and comprehensive national study of school board members was published in 1979 by Paul Blanchard and the National School Board Association. The findings of the research are reported in a monograph entitled New School Board Members; A Portrait. Since the study involved new school board members, only the findings pertinent to this researcher's study will be reviewed.

1. Although women board members (60 percent of whom were housewives) represented 28 percent of the school board membership, the characteristic profile of board members had not changed considerably since Counts' profile in 1927. The 1979 study indicated that the typical board member was male, upper or middle class, middle-aged, married, a professional or businessman, a parent of children in public school and active in the organizational life of the community.

²⁰³K. Bell, "Due Process and the Board of Education -- School Administration Relationships" (Ed.D. dissertation, Illinois State University, 1978), p. 39.

2. Female board members were more active campaigners than male school board members. They were more likely to have been employed by a school system; to have attended at least five board meetings prior to board service; to have served on a school board or school advisory committee; and to have been active in the P.T.A., either as a member or an officer. Male board members on the other hand, were more likely than females to have been candidates for other elective positions; to have held a governmental position; and to have served on a corporate board.²⁰⁴

One of the explanations given by Blanchard for the greater campaign activity of women was that despite the fact that female board candidates are becoming more numerous each year, it is still more difficult for a female to be elected due to the existence of informal quota systems on boards, and the negative attitudes towards women which are allegedly held by many superintendents.²⁰⁵

Carolyn Mullins reinforced this latter perception in her report of a 1974 National School Board Association survey of Superintendents. Her conclusion was that "an astonishing degree of sex bias was displayed by superintendents, virtually all of them male, who

²⁰⁴Paul Blanchard, National School Boards Association Research Report: New School Board Members: A Portrait (Washington, D.C.: National School Boards Association, [1979]), p. 3.

²⁰⁵Ibid., p. 11.

participated in the journal study."²⁰⁶

3. A discrepancy existed in the areas school board members wanted and expected to deal with prior to board service and the areas they actually dealt with once on the board. Expectations were to work on curricular decisions, school expenditures, hiring teachers and school taxes. What was actually dealt with was collective bargaining, school expenditures and new buildings.²⁰⁷ Further, the superintendent clearly was responsible for orienting board members in all of the following decision-making areas: the hiring process, the budget process, school district policy and the issues currently before the board.²⁰⁸

Interestingly, this data provides some support to the assertion made by Norman Kerr in 1964²⁰⁹ and Ziegler and Jennings in 1974,²¹⁰ that school board members are socialized by the school administration to become less involved in decisions relating to the curriculum and the educational programs and more involved in decisions relating

²⁰⁶Carolyn Mulins, "To Put It Mildly, Many Superintendents Do Not Like or Want Female School Board Members," The American School Board Journal 161 (September 1974): 29.

²⁰⁷Blanchard, New School Board Members, p. 5.

²⁰⁸Ibid., p. 28.

²⁰⁹Norman Kerr, "The School Boards As An Agency of Legitimation," Sociology of Education 38 (1964): 34-59.

²¹⁰Harmon Ziegler and M. Kent Jennings, Governing American Schools: Political Interaction in Local School Districts (North Scituate, Massachusetts: Drexburg Press, 1974).

to finance and buildings. This results in school board members legitimizing or defending the policies of the school system to the community rather than representing the ideas of the community to the school system.²¹¹

The findings also reflect the notion that despite previous experiences in governance, school board members do not know what to expect as a board member. According to Blanchard's study, this is indicative of "the public's woeful ignorance of the role and function of the school board."²¹²

4. Incumbent board members played a more significant role in encouraging new board members to seek office than did religious or social groups or nominating caucuses.²¹³

This finding reflects an earlier assertion by Keith Goldhammer that school boards are "self-perpetuating institutions."²¹⁴

5. Women school board members saw school board service as a more explicitly political activity. Research based on a 1975 National School Board Convention survey found that in defining the role of the schoolboard member, women tended to mention activities like "hearing complaints and grievances of parents" and "maintaining contact with state and federal

²¹¹Cistone, Understanding School Boards, pp. 56-58.

²¹²Blanchard, New School Board Members, p. 6.

²¹³Ibid., p. 7.

²¹⁴Goldhammer, The School Board, pp. 28-30.

legislators" much more than their male counterparts.²¹⁵ Women seemed to emphasize both the representation of constituents and communication with political officials, activities which have a clear political component; and they identified more with a delegate rather than a trustee role. Furthermore, women were found to be contacted by the representatives of interest groups more frequently than were men.²¹⁶

Current school board research supports the notion that "although the use of the term political is often shunned by school board members ... the recognition of the political nature of school boards is a "given" of school board research."²¹⁷

6. Although the superintendent had the most responsibility for orienting board members in key responsibility areas, the responses were fairly evenly distributed as to who assumed majority responsibility for orienting new board members to his/her role -- the state school board association, the board president, the superintendent, and the new board were listed in that order.

²¹⁵Paul D. Blanchard, "Women in Public Education: The Impact of Female School Board Members," East Tennessee State University of Journal of Humanics 4 (May 1977): 66-67.

²¹⁶Blanchard, New School Board Members, p. 11.

²¹⁷National School Boards Association Research Report: What Do We Know About School Boards? (Evanston: National School Boards Association, 1975), p. 1.

According to the study, "this suggests ... uncertainty concerning what board members should be told about their role and who it is that should tell them."²¹⁸

7. When asked to select the role they most identified with as a board member, the "overwhelming majority" of new board members selected the trustee role (uses own judgment) rather than the delegate role (does what the public wants). According to Blanchard, this indicated a reliance on personal judgment rather than constituent wishes.²¹⁹ It should be noted, however, that in the previously cited 1975 National School Board Convention survey, women board members more frequently selected the delegate role.

The data supports the findings of an earlier study conducted by Blanchard in 1974 with school board members in Kentucky. In this study, 86.8 percent of the school board members checked the trustee response and 13.2 percent checked the delegate response. In trying to find variables that correlated with this stance, Blanchard found that only education, not age, experience, occupation, or political leaning, correlated with role orientation.

According to Blanchard, "Those who did not finish high school were more likely than their college educated counter-

²¹⁸Blanchard, New School Board Members, p. 14.

²¹⁹Ibid., p. 18.

parts to trust their own judgments over public opinion."²²⁰

8. When asked about their perspective of the proper role of the board of education, 56 percent favored the corporate board of trustee alternative and 44 percent chose the legislative alternative. There was less consensus on this issue than the delegate-trustee choice.

Blanchard concludes that this may suggest that board members are increasingly willing to consider the political dimension of their role and its representational obligations than the typical responses to a delegate-trustee question would seem to indicate.²²¹

9. The study also attempted to discern norms that appeared to govern school board behavior. Several findings were significant. Board members believed that (1) they must try to represent all constituents rather than a specific group; (2) "important school board work should be done in regular board meetings as opposed to board committees"; (3) it was "unwise" for board members to devote their major efforts to decisions regarding new buildings or school finance; (4) boards should not leave curriculum issues to the superintendent; and (5) it was unwise to rely exclusively on information from the superintendent and not find

²²⁰Paul Blanchard, "Most School Board Members Are Their Own Men (and Women)--Not Conduits of the Public Will", The American School Board Journal 161 (May 1974): 48.

²²¹Blanchard, New School Board Members, p. 18.

out information on one's own.²²²

The last four findings seem to indicate that board members are no longer willing to leave educational matters to the educators. There is a greater involvement in policy-making in all areas including curriculum and a decreased willingness to rely on the superintendent as the sole source of information. These findings seem to suggest that school board members are no longer willing to permit the policy-making-administering dichotomy to be used as a ploy to decrease their power. "Increasingly, they are exercising their right to be involved in curriculum policy."²²³

This study addressed several important issues and served as a data baseline for further studies of school board members. The board member socialization process, the political nature of boardmanship, the need for role definition and clarification of the board member's role, and the increase involvement of board members in the decision-making process, are all highly significant issues that will resurface as the research data for this study is analyzed. Clearly, the way in which the individual board member (idiographic component of a social system) processes these issues has an enormous effect on board member role behavior and ultimately on the operation of the social system. When one group of role incumbents within a social system begins

²²²Ibid., pp. 19-20.

²²³Ibid., p. 21.

to re-examine and redefine the systems traditional cultural norms to the degree that it results in behavior change, the impact is felt in the entire system. Disequilibrium results and system-wide homeostasis is restored only when congruency is re-established between the normative and idiographic dimensions.

Since the Blanchard study in 1978, the American School Board Journal and Virginia Tech have collaborated on three studies of school board members. The studies were made in 1979,²²⁴ 1980,²²⁵ and 1981,²²⁶ and represent the most recent national studies on school board members to date.

Each of these studies sought to gain demographic profile data on school board members as well as attitudinal information on specific issues. The results of these three surveys are reported collectively.

Although the school board remains male-dominated, the number of women school board members has been steadily increasing from 12 percent in 1972 to 32.8 percent in 1982. This increase is especially true in the Western, Central, and Northeastern states. This shift in school board

²²⁴Kenneth Underwood et al., "Portrait of the American School Board Member," The American School Board Journal 167 (January 1980): 23-25.

²²⁵Kenneth Underwood, Wayne Thomas, and Mark Pace, "Your Portrait: Who You Are By Region," The American School Board Journal 168 (January 1981): 21-25.

²²⁶Kenneth Underwood, James Fortune, and James Dodge, "Your Portrait: School Boards Have a Brand New Look," The American School Board Journal 169 (January 1982): 17-20.

membership remains the only discernable national trend. The composite summary results indicate that the typical board member has remained relatively affluent, is more highly educated than the general public, and continues to be in professional or managerial occupations.

Women on School Boards

The final section of this literature review discusses the findings of studies that deal specifically with women board members, or studies that compare male and female board members. Of all the topics reviewed in this chapter, the research in this area is the most limited. Due to the paucity of the research and the importance of the data, the major studies conducted to date will be reviewed in detail.

In 1972 William Morrisey conducted a study of women school board members to determine "whether or not the inequities which characterize the roles and relationships of many professional women have any application to women who give service to their communities by serving as school board members."²²⁷

The study sought to examine the status of women on Indiana school boards and the perception women board members had about their role.

The results of this study indicated the following: In

²²⁷William Morrisey, "The Status and Perceptions of Women School Board Members in Indiana" (Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1972), p. 2.

1972, the "typical" Indiana school board woman had served on the board slightly more than four years, was married, between forty and fifty-eight years of age, had some college and university experience, had attended one to four school board association meetings, had served as the board secretary and characterized herself as a housewife; although women with one to five years of experience on the board were likely to suspect the superintendent of showing bias against women, (women with six or more years rejected this notion) only a minority of Indiana board women (27.7 percent) had witnessed sex-prejudice in school board thinking and policy-making.²²⁸ Other findings indicated that women under thirty-nine years of age and over forty-nine years of age believed that professional business women were likely to have a better understanding of school board offices than women who were housewives, while women between the ages of forty and forty-nine years of age rejected this concept. Women board members with the least education tended to discount the value of professional experience on the part of women board members as a means of gaining proficiency that would exceed the non-professional male board members, and women with the most education indicated that instruction rather than finance was the most important task of education.²²⁹

²²⁸Ibid., p. 76.

²²⁹Ibid., p. 77.

In 1974, Barbara D. Reimers, President of the National School Board Association, and the National School Board Associations' Board of Directors, established an ad hoc commission on the Roles of Women in Education Governance. At the Commission's request, the National School Board Association's research department conducted a national survey entitled Women on School Boards. The study surveyed 750 men and 705 women school board members representing 532 school districts across the nation and was (and still is) the first major examination of women on school boards ever undertaken in this country. The study sought to gather data on the background, characteristics, and access to school board candidacy of female and male school board members. The most critical findings of this study which also compared male and female board members, indicated that although women were grossly underrepresented in school governance (in 1974 they represented 11.9 percent of the school board population), male and female board members shared many characteristics, both in terms of their personal background (age, educational level, marital and homeownership status, years of residing in the community, number of children in public schools) and school board service.²³⁰

A critical conclusion made by the Commission was that the talent and abilities of women school board members were

²³⁰ National School Board Association Research Report: Women on School Boards (Evanston: National School Boards Association, 1974), p. 1.

comparable and sometimes superior to those of male board members. The Commission made this conclusion on the basis of the areas in which women excelled; women devoted more time to school board service, had more leadership experience prior to board service, and had served on at least one organizational governing board prior to school board service.²³¹

Despite the apparent talent of women school board members, the Commission concluded that negative "attitudes about women appear to be a major impediment to women seeking board office."²³²

Although most handicaps to seeking office (time, cost of campaigning, etc.) were shared by men and women, an "informal quota system" appeared to exist on school boards which greatly inhibited a woman's chances for election or appointment if another woman was already on the board. Of the women respondents 45.6 percent were the only woman on their board and 91.2 percent of the boards had a majority of male board members (2.8 percent reported a female majority).²³³ Interestingly, this is the same conclusion Counts had come to almost fifty years earlier when he spoke about "certain checking influences,"²³⁴ existing on the

²³¹Ibid.

²³²Ibid.

²³³Ibid.

²³⁴Counts, p. 45.

school board relative to female membership quotas.

Due to the importance of the National School Board study to the present research, its additional findings are also reported in detail. Although the study doesn't negate the "typical" and historic board board member profile, it does challenge the assumption that male board members are more capable than women board members.

Table 2 indicates the comparative profiles of male and female board members found in the Commission's study.

Table 2
Male and Female Board Member Profiles

Characteristics	Men	Women
Age	39.7 years	42.2 years
Years formal Education	15.7 years	15.4 years
Occupation	Professional	Homemaker or Professional
Organizational Affiliations	Served on board of at least 1 organization (69.8 percent)	Served on board of at least 1 organization (84.7 percent)
Homeownership Status	Homeowner (96.2 percent)	Homeowner (96.9 percent)
Residence in Community	19.5 years	17.1 years
Marital Status	Married (100 percent)	Married (96.8 percent)
Spouses' Occupation	Homemaker	Professional
Number of Children	3.2	3.1

SOURCE: National School Board Association Research Report: Women on School Boards (Evanston: National School Boards Association, 1974), p. 8.

As is evident from this table, profiles of male and female board members are fairly equivalent. Differences, however, were noted in several areas:

1. Of all the women school board members 61.6 percent were unemployed housewives and 14.4 percent were employed part-time.

2. Of the male board members 17.7 percent were business owners or proprietors, while 15.4 percent of the employed women were business owners or proprietors. In addition, 15.8 percent of the men and 17.2 percent of the employed women were technical managers or skilled workers.

3. Employed women tended to be educators (18.1 percent compared to 8.6 percent of the men) and clerks and secretaries (15.4 percent compared to none of the men).

4. Although the majority of boardmen and boardwomen had served on at least one organizational board prior to school board service, women had markedly different experiences in governance; 84.7 percent of the women compared to 69.8 percent of the men had organizational board experiences; 41.3 percent of the women and 16.0 percent of the men had been employed by a public school system. Of that group, 28.1 percent of the women and 11.3 percent of the men had been teachers; 38.4 percent of the women and 27.8 percent of the men had served on a school board appointed committee; 13.4 percent of the women and 21.2 Percent of the men had served in a governmental position;

9.4 percent of the women and 11.3 percent of the men had been a political appointee.

5. In addition to the greater frequency of service by women, the nature of their organizational affiliations also differed. Men dominated the board experience in the business and professional category (29.3 percent compared to 5.9 percent for women) while women dominated in the school-related (38.1 percent compared to 11.3 percent for men) and political categories (17.8 percent compared to .99 percent for men).

6. Women, especially housewives indicated that they spent more hours per week on school board duties than did men in comparable size districts. Women spent an average of 11.6 hours per week, while men averaged 7.4 hours. Full-time housewives spent more time (12.6 hours) than did women who were employed full-time (9.7 hours).

7. In terms of board offices held, more men had served as president and as vice-president of the board (32.6 percent compared to 25.9 percent for women). While women vastly outnumbered men in the board secretary position, however, 30.6 percent compared to 18.3 percent for men.²³⁵

In addition to profile information, Women on School Boards sought information on characteristics of board service. Within this category, data was secured on the decision to seek office, the candidate and board selection

²³⁵Women on School Boards, pp. 12-33.

process, major rewards and special difficulties of school board service and impediments to women serving on school boards. The following findings were noted:

1. In terms of the decision to seek office, both male and female board members indicated that a personal interest in school offices and a sense of duty to the community were the most important factors.

Men were more likely urged to seek school board office by school board members, friends and neighbors or a particular issue. Women were more likely urged by school administrators, spouses and family, a political party, or a non-school related group. Further, the Commission concluded that men seek office for a variety of reasons, but a woman's desire to seek office was largely influenced by her belief that a woman was more responsive to a constituency, would balance the financial one-sidedness of the board with an interest in curriculum and instruction, would improve the board's operation because women ask questions that men will not ask, and would give her an opportunity to engage in a challenging activity that utilized her talents.

2. Of the female board members 86.2 percent were elected to their position as compared to 81.6 percent of the men; 13.8 percent of the women and 18.4 percent of the men were appointed.

This substantiates Counts earlier contention that women are less likely to be appointed to board office unless they

are replacing another women as part of the "woman's position."

3. In addition, of those elected board members, women were more often screened and approved (15.4 percent compared to 10.9 percent) by a caucus or nominating committee.

4. Men and women school board members were fairly consistent in indicating the rewards of school board service. Most indicated a sense of contribution, personal satisfaction, a learning-growth experience, and working with people. Although both males and females agreed with these rewards, the percentage of women selecting each of these categories was greater.

5. In the area of citing the specific difficulties of school board service, men and women were almost equal in their responses of time, community, administration, other personnel, teachers and bargaining, finance and other board members. Men, however, were more prone to list administrators, other personnel and other board members.

6. Men and women board members differed slightly in whether or not they experienced handicaps in seeking school board office; 39.2 percent of the men and 33.8 percent of the women indicated they experienced no handicaps in seeking school board office. However, of those members that did experience a handicap, women listed time, not enough speech making experience, and discouragement by school board members as the top three handicaps, while men listed time,

not enough relevant experience, and not enough speech making as the top three handicaps.

These findings reinforce an earlier conclusion of this study, that women have had more experience in governance prior to school board service.

7. A majority of men (64.9 percent) believed that being a female made no difference in a candidate's chances for election or appointment. Women, however, were evenly divided over whether or not it made a difference (42.6 percent) or hampered one's chances (40.1 percent). A large majority of men believed that being a man made no difference in a candidate's chances for election or appointment. Women, however, were again divided over whether being a man made a difference (50.7 percent) or if it helped (44.7 percent).

It is interesting to note, that despite the fact that most school board members believed that the gender of a school board candidate made no difference in his or her chances for election or appointment, inconsistency was evident when 20.9 percent of the men and 40.1 percent of the women believed it could hurt a woman's chances, "if there were already a woman serving on that board."²³⁶ The Commission termed this the "informal quota system" and indicated that it was representative of "some deeply-held

²³⁶Ibid., p. 41.

attitudes about women serving on school boards."²³⁷

8. Men and women board members differed in whether or not they perceived differences between men or women as board members; 54.6 percent of the men and 75.7 percent of the women indicated that they perceived differences between male and female board members in their interests, attitudes, capabilities or behaviors.

Men said women tended to be better in community relations, have more time to devote to school board duties, be more involved with day to day school operations and be more curriculum oriented.

Women said women tended to be more interested in children, have more time to devote to the school board, be more accessible to the community and be better informed because they asked more clarifying question.

Men said men tended to be better in business and finance, physical plant matters and policy-making.

Women said men tended to be less education-oriented, have less time to devote to their school board duties, have more rigid attitudes and do not want to rock the boat.²³⁸

In light of the findings of this study, it appears that "the population of men and women on school boards is grossly out of balance."²³⁹ School boards are not served by the

²³⁷Ibid.

²³⁸Ibid., pp. 27-48.

²³⁹Ibid., p. ii.

imbalance due to the interests, perceptions and capabilities women can bring to school board governance; women are not well-served because of the rich opportunities for growth that school board membership provides; and students are not well-served because they fail to see women in leadership roles.²⁴⁰

This national study has served as the model for subsequent studies and was used extensively in this study as a point of comparison. Despite the fact that Women on School Boards was conducted eight years ago and the proportion of women school board members has dramatically increased from 11.9 percent to 32.8 percent, it appears to this researcher that much of the quantifiable data and most of the attitudinal data remain true today.

Unlike the previous study, Paul Blanchard's 1975 study of school board members focused on the comparison between men and women school board members in their representational roles and on the ways in which they make decisions. The study was related to the presence and impact of women on school boards.

Blanchard found that in 1975 women represented 21 percent of the board population and that school boards in the East were much more likely than the South, West, or Midwest to have at least two female board members. Furthermore, the distribution of women on boards permitted

²⁴⁰ Ibid.

him to confirm the previous studies' assumptions that there was an informal quota system "which designates one school board seat as 'The Female Seat', but which also limits the number of women members to no more than one."²⁴¹

He found this quota system to be operational in approximately two-thirds of all school districts studied. In addition to this data, Blanchard was able to identify areas of difference between men and women school board members. The differences are enumerated below:

1. When asked about the most important responsibilities of a school board member, women respondents emphasized hearing parental complaints and grievances and maintaining federal and state legislative contact. Blanchard concluded that this seemed to indicate a greater sensitivity to the community and a recognition of the political nature of forced contact and communication with legislators.

2. This same perception on the part of women board members was evident in their responses to whether a board of education was more like a corporation board of trustees or a legislature. Responses indicated that women were "slightly more likely" than men, to select the legislative role for school boards.²⁴²

²⁴¹Paul Blanchard, "Women in Public Education: The Impact of Female School Board Members," East Tennessee State University Journal of Humanics 4 (May 1977): 65.

²⁴²Ibid., p. 66.

3. In terms of their relationship with interest groups within the community, women were more likely to be contacted by representatives of interest groups and were less likely than men to initiate group contact.

4. Boards with at least two women members were less likely to mask or conceal the decision-making process from the public and were more likely to have internal conflict. Boards with less than two women were more likely to report uniformity in voting despite the existence of disagreement.

These findings are extremely important. Openness in the decision-making process and the presence of conflict promote more public engagement and a wider range of involvement in decision-making; whereas, secrecy and voting unanimity "conceals from the public any of the arguments which might have been made against the decision."²⁴³

According to Blanchard,

... Many observers believe that school board conflict is inevitable and that boards without conflict are probably not doing a conscientious job in responding to the diverse opinions of the people... Thus my research suggests that the presence of women on local boards of education contributes in a meaningful way to a healthier more realistic and open atmosphere of decision-making ... that increasing number of women on school boards can only be interpreted as an encouraging trend in the governance of American education;... that their presence can only improve the effectiveness of boards of education and help to reverse some of the earlier criticisms which have been leveled against this institution ... the presence of women on school boards does ... move school boards in the

²⁴³Norman Kerr, "The School Board as an Agency Legitimation," Sociology of Education 38 (Fall 1964): 34-59 quoted in Paul Blanchard, "School Boards and Sex Discrimination: Problems and Prospects," Tempo 2 (May 1977): 8.

direction of being more involved, more deliberative, and more responsive.²⁴⁴

This finding is also critical because it may indicate the reverse of a trend cited in earlier research. In Gross' study, he and his colleagues hypothesized that women were more likely to be submissive to men on the school board and from this they predicted that as the number of women on school boards increased, concensus among board members would increase as well.²⁴⁵ Minar's findings supported Gross' hypothesis. He found that districts with low conflict (as judged by the low incidence of dissent and participation on school board elections) had a higher proportion of housewives on the board.²⁴⁶ Both these findings lent credence to the prevailing assumption that women who became involved in politics were those who conformed to the dominant view.²⁴⁷ Blanchard's study clearly casts doubt on this assumption.

²⁴⁴Blanchard, "Women in Public Education," p. 68.

²⁴⁵Neal Gross, Who Runs our Schools? (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), quoted in Trudy Haffron Bers, "Women in Nonpartisan Politics: The Case of Suburban School Boards," Oakton Community College, July 1976 (mimeographed.)

²⁴⁶David Minar, "Community Basis of Conflict in School System Politics," American Sociological Review 31 (December 1966), quoted in Trudy Haffron Bers, "Women in Nonpartisan Politics: The Case of Suburban School Boards," Oakton Community College, July 1976, p. 5 (mimeographed.)

²⁴⁷Trudy Haffron Bers, "Women in Nonpartisan Politics: The Case of Suburban School Boards," Oakton Community College July 1976, p. 5 (mimeographed.)

Like the 1974 National School Boards Association study, Blanchard found that attitude appeared to be the one major obstacle to women seeking school board membership.

There is some evidence to suggest that the electorate is prejudiced against women serving as school board members. But there is much more evidence indicating that school administrators, especially superintendents, are prejudiced against women school board members.²⁴⁸

The prevalence of prejudice on the part of school superintendents toward women board members is underscored repeatedly by Carolyn Mullins in numerous articles presented in The American School Board Journal.²⁴⁹

In questioning over 500 superintendents on their view regarding the ideal board member, superintendents overwhelmingly rejected educators and housewives,²⁵⁰ although one-third felt gender should not be a consideration, and that if anything "women are more involved and interested in curriculum matters than are men", and

²⁴⁸Blanchard, "School Boards and Sex Discrimination," p. 9.

²⁴⁹See, for example, Carolyn Mullins, "The Plight of the Boardwomen," The American School Board Journal 159 (February 1972): 27-32; Idem, "Why Do You Call Us That Word That Rhymes With Witch?," The American School Board Journal 159 (February 1972): 30-31; Idem, "All About the Nation's Big League Boardmen and How They Run," The American School Board Journal 159 (September 1972): 21-24; Idem, "To Put It Mildly, Many Superintendents Do Not Like or Want Female School Board Members," The American School Board Journal 161 (September 1974): 29; Idem, "If Superintendents Could Pick Their Own School Board Members, Here's the Kind They Say They'd Choose," The American School Board Journal 161 (September 1974): 25-29.

²⁵⁰Mullins, "If Superintendents Could Pick," p. 29.

"seem to focus on the real reasons for the existence of schools more often than men do."²⁵¹

A majority of the superintendents, however, clearly held negative stereotypes of women board members. These stereotypes are reflected in the following generalizations attributed to women board members by superintendents:

1. Females tend to get upset over trivial details; they need to treat board business in a more business-like way.
2. Males seem not to have dialogue over minor issues; they tend to see the overall picture better.
3. Men understand finance and maintenance problems better than women do.
4. Female board members have more time and seem to want to help administer the schools rather than see that they are administered.
5. Women tend to listen to every "crackpot" idea from all contents in the district.
6. Females are more emotional. Unlike men, they tend to make decisions based on feelings rather than facts.²⁵²

This apparently negative attitude toward women school board members is closely related to the concept of role-prejudice.

In a paper entitled "The Impact of Sex Discrimination on the Recruitment of Educational Policy-Makers", Blanchard quotes Professor Stewart:

Role prejudice develops when there are genetic differences in the human population which are visible,

²⁵¹Ibid., p. 28.

²⁵²Mullins, "To Put It Midly," p. 29.

but not significant for role performance. The political implication is that such role prejudice translates into discrimination against individuals who strive to achieve outside of their socially defined role set. It is this "role prejudice",... that accounts for the political reality of few top spots for women.²⁵³

Trudy Haffron Bers in her 1976 study of men and women on school boards supports Blanchard's hypothesis of attitudinal role-prejudice as one of the obstacles against women fully participating in the political arena. According to Bers:

Whether through biological inheritance (nature) or cultural socialization (nurture), women are thought to have particular personal characteristics and proper societal roles which impede if not deny altogether the abilities of women to be empathetic, warm, passive, dependent, nurturant human beings... Politics is perceived as an area of power and this is a masculine attribute.²⁵⁴

Bers study was a comparative study of men and women serving on elementary and secondary school boards in suburban Cook County, Illinois during the 1974-75 school year. The study sought to explore similarities and differences among male and female school board members and to extend the knowledge about the nature and extent of school board participation. Women represented 22.3 percent of the total school board members at that time: 79 percent

²⁵³Paul Blanchard, "The Impact of Sex-Discrimination in the Recruitment of Educational-Policy Makers," paper presented at the Southeastern Conference of the American Society for Public Administration, Miami Beach, Florida, 19-21 October 1976, p. 4.

²⁵⁴Trudy H. Bers, "Women in Nonpartisan Politics," p. 2.

of the boards had at least one (1) woman member and 9.1 percent of the boards had a female president. The profile extracted from this study finds the "typical" suburban boardwoman as a middle-aged, affluent, well-educated, married mother who is involved in a number of locally oriented civic and service organizations, whose employment whether full or part-time is clustered in traditionally female occupations, and whose career aspirations are minimal.²⁵⁵ Involvement in the board of education came initially through their children or civic involvement and membership is seen as temporary participation in another local organization.²⁵⁶ The school board position was not seen as a political position nor as a training ground for future political activities.²⁵⁷ Essentially, there were few distinctions among male and female board members in age, number and ages of children, length of community residence, education or socio-economic status.²⁵⁸ Women, however, served nearly a whole term less than men, spent on the average more time than men on school-related matters (although women employed full-time spent approximately the same amount as men), and were involved in a significantly

²⁵⁵Ibid., p. 6.

²⁵⁶Ibid., p. 7.

²⁵⁷Ibid., p. 6.

²⁵⁸Trudy Haffron Bers, "Local Political Elites: Men and Women on Boards of Education," The Western Political Quarterly 31 (September 1978): 383.

greater number of organizations than men.²⁵⁹

This large degree of organizational involvement implies a more extensive peer network which might both encourage school board membership and serve as the socializing mechanism for boardmanship. Interestingly, the type of organization in which significant differences emerged was the P.T.A. Nearly half of the women, but less than one-tenth of the men claimed P.T.A. membership or were P.T.A. presidents. The P.T.A. is clearly a salient source of involvement for women, but it does not appear to be a dominant activity for men.²⁶⁰

In terms of sources of school board interest, men and women were generally comparable. Both mentioned civic organizations and a general interest in education, although more women cited involvement with children as a stimulus, and more men cited a specific issue as a stimulus for initial school board interest.²⁶¹ Differences were also noted in the sources for encouragement for school board candidacy. Men were more likely than women to indicate they had received encouragement from others to run for the board. This may be explained by the fact that, generally, individuals with greater contacts within the social network out of which the organization grows and those with

²⁵⁹Ibid., p. 384.

²⁶⁰Ibid.

²⁶¹Ibid.

specialized skills needed by the organization, are more likely to be recruited through the personal influence of the organizations incumbents.²⁶²

In addition to demographic data, the Bers study attempted to explain board member attitudes toward their roles as school board members. This is particularly important for the present study. Although, as the Getzels-Guba Model illustrates, an individual's self-perception may be at variance with the perceptions of others, and prescriptive norms of behavior may not be congruent with nor predictive of actual behavior, the individual's self-assessment of roles and responsibilities provides valuable insight into role behavior within a social system, since norms often serve as a "filter through which stimuli determining behavior must pass."²⁶³

Within this dimension of school board service, the following findings were noted:

1. When asked about the major responsibilities of a school board member, approximately one-third of both men and women chose providing a quality education. On all other role perceptions, however, statistically significant differences existed; women were more inclined than men to view developing educational policies and philosophies and keeping informed as critical roles. The most divergence was

²⁶²Ibid., p. 385.

²⁶³Ibid.

seen in the roles "representing the public" and "providing administrative oversight," 45.8 percent of the women as compared to 19.2 percent of the men and 31.3 percent of the women as compared to 49 percent of the men, selected representing the public and exercising administrative oversight respectively. Clearly women were less conscious of a supervisory function than were men,²⁶⁴ and viewed their roles as extensions of the community. In terms of the delegate and trustee dichotomy, women in this study assumed the delegate orientation.

2. In terms of service on board committees, the findings of previous studies seem to be confirmed. Men were more prevalent on committees dealing with finance, the physical plant, and negotiations; and women were more likely to serve on policy or community-oriented committees. As noted earlier this committee structure conforms to traditional role expectations. Women seem to cluster around policy/community concerns and men seem to cluster around administrative/financial concerns.²⁶⁵

3. In terms of perceived contributions and perceived obstacles or frustrations to board goal achievement, there was a relatively low degree of agreement among all board members in defining their board contributions. Women, however, achieved the highest levels of agreement in stating

²⁶⁴Ibid., p. 386.

²⁶⁵Ibid.

their major contributions to the board were their individual characteristics of "openmindedness, objectivity, and precision."²⁶⁶

Further investigation into this group indicated that almost 66 percent of the women who cited this contribution had been active in the P.T.A. and/or the League of Women Voters. Bers suggests that these groups may be good training and socializing grounds for women who adopt this perception.²⁶⁷

Women were also more likely than men to cite general commitment or caring for education and public relations work as contributions, whereas, men showed a tendency to claim the maintenance of harmony.

4. Significant differences were noted in the area of professional skills brought to the board. Twenty-four percent of the men and no women cited business or professional background as a contribution.

5. As with perceived contributions, there was little consistency with perceived frustrations, however, several interesting tendencies emerged: men cited finances, external control (federal and state mandates) and relations with the public (apathy, parental communication), as their greatest frustrations; women on the other hand cited the personal characteristics of other board members and

²⁶⁶Ibid., p. 387.

²⁶⁷Bers, "Women in Non-Partisan Politics," p. 10.

relations with the public as the greatest obstacles; women also perceived relations with administrators as an obstacle more than men did (11.5 percent as compared to 7.7 percent). Although Bers indicates there is no clear explanation for the findings, they do appear consistent with the conclusions of earlier studies.

In summary, the women in this study were more likely than men to seek board membership on their own rather than rely on a network of associates, were more likely to define board responsibilities as representing the public, and were more likely to perceive their contributions to the board in the areas of public relations and community representation. Men, on the other hand, were more likely to evidence awareness and perceived contributions in the area of supervision and finance, and were more likely to perceive community apathy as a school board impediment. Bers issues a caveat at the conclusion of the study. Although the data indicated a number of statistically significant differences in the proportions of men and women falling into perceived categories of role responsibility, contributions and frustrations, the total proportions within a general category were fairly small. Bers concluded:

As a group, women serving on suburban school boards are unlikely to strive for change either in the substance of their districts' educational offerings or in the internal functioning of the school systems as organizations. While individual women may ascribe to these goals, the data reported here do not support the assumption that women as a whole are in any way united either in their objectives as board members or in their perceptions about

the current status of education.²⁶⁸

The Gorgone dissertation study conducted in 1976 with all districts in Indiana who had women school board members (136 districts), attempted to determine the perceptions held by school board members, superintendents and teacher representatives, regarding selected areas of school board decision-making and selected background and performance statements about men and women school board members. Comparisons were made among the perceptions of referent groups, in order to assess any differences in the way men and women school board members were perceived.

The findings that indicate differences between male and female board members are enumerated below:

1. Women school board members were perceived as demonstrating greater interest than men in regulations involving supervisory personnel, in the employment retention or dismissal of personnel, in the expulsion of students and in instructional policy-making and policy-making in school/community relations.

2. Women school board members were perceived as demonstrating less interest than men in budgetary approval and maintenance, capital outlay, construction, investments, equipment and supply purchase, financial decision-making, and policy-making in buildings and grounds, transportation,

²⁶⁸Ibid., p. 25.

and school operations.²⁶⁹

Demographic data indicated no differences in the ages of men and women school board members or in their educational level. Furthermore, no differences were perceived in their involvement in educational activities (employment by a public school system, P.T.A. participation, etc.) prior to school board membership.

Due to the exclusively perceptual nature of this study, it is difficult to draw substantive conclusions. However, many of the findings (i.e., women's policy-making and community relations interest and men's financial and business interests) supported the findings of earlier studies.

Also, in 1976 May Ellen Lowe conducted a dissertation study to determine the status of women school board members in Texas, their perceptions concerning their role, functions, and relationships, and the existence of sex prejudice on school boards. Again, the profile of the typical board woman in Texas mirrored the profile of women school board members described in previous studies. She was married, had children currently in public school, was between 40-49 years of age, was not professionally employed outside the home, was elected, was the only woman on her

²⁶⁹Kathleen Gorgone, "A Comparison of Perceptions Held by Superintendents, School Board Members, and Teachers' Representatives Regarding the Role of Women School Board Members in the State of Indiana" (Ph.D. dissertation, Southern Illinois University, 1976), pp. 180-183.

board, was "quite typically the secretary of her board, not the president, and had never been asked to chair a board committee";²⁷⁰ had completed four years of college, and regularly attended state school board association meetings.²⁷¹

Additional findings indicated that:

1. Women school board members did not perceive they were discriminated against or that their professional relationship with the superintendent or male board members were any different than the relationship the superintendent may have had with male board members.

2. Women perceived they were as capable as men in working with maintenance, construction and financial issues,²⁷² and believed they were more knowledgeable, hardworking, conscientious and spent more time researching and pursuing information than their male counterparts.

3. Women seldom served as school board presidents and were not usually appointed to board service.

This validated Mullins' earlier assertion that women do not usually get appointed to school boards. When a woman is appointed it is "generally in a seat traditionally allocated

²⁷⁰Mary Ellen Lowe, "The Roles, Positions, and Perceptions of Women School Board Members in Texas" (Ed.D. dissertation, North Texas State University, 1976), pp. 84-85.

²⁷¹Ibid., p. 85.

²⁷²Ibid., pp 85-86.

to a female"²⁷³ whose term of office has ended, rather than to replace a male board member.

In 1977, Susan Saiter and the Ohio School Board Association completed a survey of 536 women school board members in Ohio. The intent of the study was to "evoke responses about particular problems that women board members might encounter because they are women."²⁷⁴

The results of the study indicated that the majority of respondents felt they experienced many problems because they were women, that they went into school board office with slightly different preparation for membership and that they executed their office with a somewhat different perspective than their male counterparts.²⁷⁵

However, again the profile of the woman school board member extracted from this data was consistent with profiles found in previous studies: The Ohio school board member was married, middle aged, relatively affluent, had two or more children, has attended college, was not employed outside the home, was active in the P.T.A. or other civic organizations, was elected to her position, was the only woman on the board, was not the board president (although 15 percent indicated they were), and ran for the board because of an

²⁷³Mullins, "The Plight of the Boardwomen," p. 28.

²⁷⁴Susan Saiter, "Journal Survey of Women Board Members in Ohio, Part I," Ohio School Board Journal 21 (September 1977): 12.

²⁷⁵Ibid., p. 13.

interest in education or because of specific issue or problem.²⁷⁶ Other findings of interest are that 79 percent indicated they spent fifteen or more hours a month on school board duties; that although they perceive little difference between the abilities of male and female board members, 45 percent of the women credited men with a better understanding of finances and credited women with greater insight into children's needs and maintaining better parental contact;²⁷⁷ and that 12 percent of the employed women were teachers while 26 percent of the previously employed women were teachers.²⁷⁸

Unlike the previous studies that explored feelings of prejudice, this study indicated that a greater percentage of the respondents said they felt prejudice from the men on the board; 24 percent said they felt prejudice from the superintendent and 33 percent indicated prejudice was felt from male community members.²⁷⁹

According to Saiter:

Until both sexes are permitted to explore their capabilities, and to be what they really want to be, regardless of their sex, we (women) will experience

²⁷⁶Susan Saiter, "Journal Survey of Women Board Members in Ohio, Part II," Ohio School Board Journal 21 (October 1977): 6.

²⁷⁷Ibid., p. 8.

²⁷⁸Saiter, "Journal Survey Part I," p. 16.

²⁷⁹Saiter, "Journal Survey Part II," p. 9.

difficulty being accepted as objective or analytic thinkers.²⁸⁰

Ferguson's 1977 dissertation study of 600 California school board women was undertaken to determine the demographic profile of women school members, their involvement in public service, their educational concerns, their priorities in finance, educational programs, and legislation, and their self-perceived effectiveness. The findings of this study are fairly consistent with the data secured from previous studies. A majority of the respondents were married (89.9 percent) reported more than one year of college (84 percent), listed housewife as their occupation (56.6 percent) and had been active in civic groups (67.4 percent) and/or the P.T.A. (72 percent).²⁸¹

Their motivation for seeking school board office was their interest in school affairs followed by a sense of duty. They perceived themselves to be highly effective in curriculum design, curriculum evaluation, personnel selection and evaluation, school maintenance, student discipline, and choosing curriculum and instruction, (50.3 percent). In addition, prejudice and a lack of self-confidence were reported as the reasons for a

²⁸⁰ Susan Saiter, "Women's Lib Among Women School Board Members: Not Very Militant," Phi Delta Kappan 60 (November 1978): 251.

²⁸¹ H. Regina Ferguson, "California Women School Board Members: Concerns, Priorities and Self-Perceived Effectiveness" (Ed.D. dissertation, University of Southern California 1977), abstract.

disproportionately low number of women on school boards.²⁸² The only noticeable difference in data between this study and previous studies is that only 9.7 percent of the women indicated they were teachers (the percentage is lower than in previous studies).²⁸³

In 1978, Johnson and Crowley conducted a study of 331 male and female school board members from thirty-seven school districts in New Jersey in cooperation with The Eagleton Institute of Politics, Center for the American Women and Politics. The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed between male and female school board members and to determine if the difference in background, skills, and perspectives would have an effect on the functioning and decision-making of school boards. Again, the board member profile that emerged from this study was characteristic of the profiles that have been reported earlier, although in 1978 women represented 35 percent of the New Jersey school board population and nationally they represented only 28 percent. Although board members in this study represented diverse backgrounds, as a group "board members are highly educated and have prestigious

²⁸²Ibid.

²⁸³Ibid.

occupations."²⁸⁴ Educational and occupational differences were noted between men and women board members and these may serve as sources for role differentiation as a school board member. Although women were almost as likely as men to have completed college (55 percent of the women compared to 64 percent of the men), women were less involved in the paid labor force (96 percent of the men and 41 percent of the women were employed full-time). Of the employed women 21 percent were in education (men represented 14 percent), but only 15 percent were managers or administrators as compared to 43 percent of the men. No differences were reported in either the median age of male and female board members or their residency in the community.²⁸⁵

The study supported the National School Board Association's 1972 study Women on School Boards in their findings on organizational affiliation. Although men and women differed only slightly in the number of organizations to which they belonged, there were noteworthy differences in the nature of those reported. Women were more likely than men to be members of political, (League of Women Voters) youth and school (P.T.A.), general service and church-related groups; while men had primary representation in

²⁸⁴Marilyn Johnson and John Crowley, "Women and Men on School Boards: A Summary Report to Participants in a Study of Thirty-Seven New Jersey Boards," (New Brunswick: The Eagleton Institute of Politics, Rutgers State University, [1978]), p. 3.

²⁸⁵Ibid., pp. 3-4.

professional and business groups and ethnic and fraternal organizations.²⁸⁶ Furthermore, women were far more likely than men to mention one or more specific organizations as being especially supportive and helpful toward their school board candidacy or board activities.²⁸⁷ The findings led Johnson and Crowley to the conclusion that

Perhaps women rely more upon their credentials in community service as background for their candidacies because they more often lack the professional degrees and managerial occupations that men may use as qualifications... Organizations such as the League of Women Voters or the P.T.A., which have a predominately female membership, are often more embedded in the broad concerns of the local community than are labor unions, veterans' organizations, business and professional groups or fraternal societies.²⁸⁸

In terms of interest in public office holding other than the school board, men were more interested than women in holding a future office of some kind.

Men and women also differed in the kinds of motivation they expressed for school board membership. Women were primarily motivated because of a general dissatisfaction with education, a dissatisfaction with the internal dissension on the board or a desire for community service; men were primarily motivated because of a desire for community service; dissatisfaction with the board's dissension or problems in financing local education. The

²⁸⁶Ibid., p. 22.

²⁸⁷Ibid., p. 5.

²⁸⁸Ibid.

difference in motivational emphasis seems to reflect the experience women have of direct involvement in the school system and its activities.²⁸⁹

Despite background and motivational differences, men and women were recruited in very similar ways. Approximately 30 percent of each group reported being self-recruited, approximately 25 percent were approached by other board members and approximately 80 percent achieved first membership by election rather than appointment. The percentage of men and women reporting appointment was also relatively equal (22 percent for women and 20 percent for men); this may indicate a reversal of the trend that women were generally not appointed to school board positions.²⁹⁰

The second phase of this study focused on the activities of being a board member. In this area, Johnson and Crowley noted "although many areas of concern are shared, there are definite signs of 'sexual division of labor' in the level of board activity, in attitudes on some educational issues, and in areas of specialization and reputed expertise."²⁹¹

Although unemployed women reported working more hours per week on school board activities (10.4 hours) than did

²⁸⁹Ibid., p. 7.

²⁹⁰Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "School Boards and Sex Bias In American Education," Contemporary Education 2 (Winter 1974): 87.

²⁹¹Johnson and Crowley, p. 8.

men (8.3 hours), women and men who worked full-time were equal in the time they devoted to school board matters. In other areas, however, such as attendance at school related meetings and events and discussions with the public and with teachers and administrators, women were more active than men.²⁹² This activity and, hence, subsequent increased informational base, may account for the reason that women were significantly more likely to be named by other board members as "knowledgeable about educational matters."²⁹³ This finding reinforces the National School Board Association's study which found that women board members tended to concentrate on the educational program and the teaching staff, while men were more oriented to financial matters and the physical plant.²⁹⁴

Important differences were also noted in personal priorities for board activities. Men ranked (in descending order) the district budget, teacher negotiations, school curriculum, hiring and evaluating administrative staff and board-superintendent relations as their top priorities, while women ranked curriculum, evaluating and hiring administrative staff, teacher negotiations, budget, and board-superintendent relations as their priorities. In

²⁹²Ibid., p. 25.

²⁹³Ibid., P. 9.

²⁹⁴Women on School Boards, p 49.

addition, when examined collectively, large percentages of women saw policy-development, curriculum, special education, education of the academically-talented, hiring and evaluating administrators and teachers, and public relations, as "one of the most important areas for school board activity"; while men were more likely to assign importance to capital improvements and buildings and grounds maintenance.²⁹⁵

An interesting finding was that in terms of relationships with the public, with the district superintendent, and with the state, Johnson found that "there is only marginal evidence that women give a different slant to their roles in these areas."²⁹⁶ Although women are credited by other board members as relating well to the public, approximately 75 percent of both male and female board members agreed that the primary job of a school board is to ensure that the school system reflects the expectations and values of the community.²⁹⁷

Although previous researchers such as Mullins, ²⁹⁸

²⁹⁵Johnson and Crowley, p. 9.

²⁹⁶Ibid., p. 10.

²⁹⁷Ibid.

²⁹⁸Mullins, "To Put It Mildly, Many Superintendents Do Not Like or Want Female School Board Members," p. 29.

Fishel,²⁹⁹ and Morrissey³⁰⁰ indicated the existence of prejudice on the part of superintendents toward women board members, in this study, Johnson found only "slim" evidence that women's interest in school activities may be accompanied by heightened tension and conflict with the superintendent and other administrators.³⁰¹ Fifty-four percent of the women and 44 percent of the men disagreed strongly with the statement "a school system is better off if the board leaves educational decision-making to the expertise of the school administrators and concentrates on finance and physical facilities."³⁰²

In terms of board leadership, women did not hold an equal share of leadership positions. Eighty-four percent of the men and 65 percent of the women chaired one or more of the committees. Furthermore, women were less likely than men to be named by other board members as a person "who exercises leadership and authority."³⁰³ Clearly this raises a problematic inquiry as to the influence and impact of women school board members if they do not exercise leadership on the board.

²⁹⁹Fishel and Pottker, "School Boards and Sex Bias In American Education," pp. 85-89.

³⁰⁰Michael Morrissey, "Sexism and the School Board Member," Phi Delta Kappan 2 (October 1973): 142.

³⁰¹Johnson and Corwley, p. 11.

³⁰²Ibid., p. 31.

³⁰³Ibid., p. 13.

Another interesting and potentially conflicting finding is that although women were consistently more likely to be named by other board members as "cooperative, hardworking, and as having ability to get things done,"³⁰⁴ as the percentage of women on boards of education increased, the degree of perceived conflict increased. This supports Blanchard's hypothesis that boards with more women members will achieve less unanimity in decision-making.³⁰⁵ On the other hand, Johnson indicated that there is some indirect evidence to suggest that the special roles that women perform on boards may operate to curtail intense goal-directed activity. Since women do have special reputations as cooperators and conciliators rather than leaders, this may limit their decision-making influence and may indicate an unwillingness to engage in open controversy.³⁰⁶ Obviously, this issue needs to be further studied. Johnson's study appears to indicate that there is a women's perspective to school board membership, but that "care must be taken not to aggravate the separateness."³⁰⁷

Following the Johnson study, two studies conducted in 1978 and 1980 by Konick and Rose respectively, dealt with

³⁰⁴Ibid.

³⁰⁵Blanchard, "School Boards and Sex Discrimination: Problems and Prospects," p. 6.

³⁰⁶Johnson and Crowley, p. 19.

³⁰⁷Ibid.

the politics and the recruitment patterns of women school board members.

The Konick study conducted in New Jersey, confirmed the demographic school board member profile reiterated in previous studies, as well as the pattern of school board "leadership" (20.2 percent of the males served as board presidents while only 9.9 percent of the females had been board presidents). Other findings indicated that women were more inclined to seek school board election as a member of a slate, were less inclined to future political careers, and considered women's groups, service clubs, and teacher unions as very important in the recruitment and election process.³⁰⁸

The Rose study sought to investigate the relationship between the recruitment patterns of board members and their representational styles. This relationship was analyzed by using seven variables: District size, type of school district, length of board member service, evidence of incumbent defeat, age, sex, and occupation. The result of the study indicated that only in the variable of gender was there a significant relationship between recruitment pattern and representational style. Men tended to be incumbent-recruited and to rely on personal judgment in decision

³⁰⁸Emery Konick, "Politics, Recruitment Patterns and Women: An Analysis of School Board Membership in Selected New Jersey School Districts" (Ed.D. dissertation, Rutgers University, 1978), p. 165.

making, while women tended to be other-recruited and to rely more on expressed or assumed public attitudes in the decision-making process.³⁰⁹

This supports Blanchard's findings that men tend to select the trustee role which relies more heavily on personal judgment, while women tend to select the delegate role which focuses on community representation.³¹⁰

Summary

In 1955 Maurice Duverger commented that "women ... have the mentality of minors in many fields, and particularly in politics, they will accept paternalism on the part of men. The man ... is the mediator between them and the political world."³¹¹ Reflecting on Duverger's words, Constantini and Craik, noted political sociologists, made the following observation in 1972:

Stripped of its male chauvinism, Duverger's statement highlights what has become a virtual truism regarding women and politics. The political behavior literature is replete with evidence that at all levels of political action ... women participate less than men. They appear

³⁰⁹ Susan Rose, "The Relationship Between the Patterns of Recruitment of School Board Members in Northern Cook County, Illinois, and Their Perceptions of Their Representational Styles" (Ed.D. dissertation, Northern Illinois University, 1980), p. 95.

³¹⁰ Blanchard, "Women in Public Education: The Impact of Female School Board Members," p. 66.

³¹¹ Maurice Duverger, Political Role of Women (Pans. UNESCO, 1955), quoted in Edmond Constantini and Kenneth Craik, "Women as Politicians: The Social Background, Personality, and Political Careers of Female Party Leaders," Journal of Social Issues 28 (1972): 218.

to be less interested in politics, to belong to fewer organizations, to be less informed politically, and to display a lower sense of political involvement and political efficacy. To one degree or another, women have tended to defer to the political judgment of men, in this country and elsewhere; sex roles have been so defined that politics is primarily the business of men.³¹²

If Constantini's statement is applied to the recent research on women school board members, numerous questions can be raised. Although the percentage of women on school boards has increased from 12 percent to 32.8 percent in the last ten years, it is apparent that women remain under-represented on boards of education. However, the research evidence since 1972, seems to strongly suggest that women are becoming increasingly politically active and aware, and that increased school board membership is only one indication of this trend.

Mullins points out that

[Women board members today are] different from her long-suffering sisters of yesteryear. To a remarkable and increasing degree, she is determined to change things ... that provides Womens' Liberation with a determination that will not be diminished. Real liberation for women will not come when so called "chauvinistic" males are willing to give it to them, but when women themselves decide to take it. The evidence grows that they've decided.³¹³

According to Wayne Blanton, Assistant Executive Director of the Florida School Board Association, "if you

³¹²Edmond Constantini and Kenneth Craik, "Women as Politicians: The Social Background, Personality, and Political Careers of Female Party Leaders," Journal of Social Issues 28 (1972): 218.

³¹³Mullins, "Why Do You Call Us That Word that Rhymes With Witch?," pp. 30-31.

look around the nation, you see women getting elected everywhere. There's more emphasis on women getting involved in what used to be the male domain."³¹⁴ Shirley McCune, Director of the Title IX Equity Leadership Project, agrees with Blanton. According to McCune, women are becoming more politically active and they "recognize that the school board is a good place to start up the ladder."³¹⁵ Furthermore, they are assisted by the organizations of which they are a part which have developed "conscious strategies to enable women to run for board positions."³¹⁶

In addition to a growing political awareness on the part of women, the electorate is becoming more aware of the untapped potential of the women school board member. According to Carolyn Mullins, underlying many of the responses to the 1972 American School Board Journal survey of school board members, "was an assumption of a growing awareness on the part of voters ... that women not only can but do serve as effective policy makers, bringing to their boards, insights and abilities often beyond the scope of their male colleagues."³¹⁷

³¹⁴Bernadette Doran, "The Feminist Surge Has Hit School Boards and They May Never Be The Same Again," The American School Board Journal 164 (April 1977): 26.

³¹⁵Ibid.

³¹⁶Ibid.

³¹⁷Mullins, "The Plight of the Boardwoman," The American School Board Journal 159 (February 1972): 28.

Several trends were noted in the various studies. They are summarized below:

1. The personal profile of male and female board members appears quite similar. By and large, male and female board members are married, middle-aged, college graduates, have children currently attending public schools, own homes, and are reasonably affluent. Except for the increased presence of women, this profile has remained consistent since Counts' study in 1927. Johnson reinforces Count's original findings in the following statement:

Even in a democracy, the proportion of the citizenry willing and able to take an active part in community affairs is typically small. Public office especially tends to attract a select group, the better educated and more prosperous, those whose occupations permit flexibility and the investment of relatively large blocks of time in public service, those who are conscious of a stake in the governance of their community, those who have developed,... a sense of obligation and commitment to participation in public affairs.³¹⁸

2. Important differences between men and women were noted, however, in their occupational status and the amount and nature of leadership experience prior to school board membership. Over 50 percent of the women were housewives whereas the majority of the males were in professional and managerial occupations; twice as many employed or previously employed women were or had been in education than had men; women held more organizational memberships and offices than their male counterparts and, had more experience in

³¹⁸Johnson and Crowley, p. 3.

governance prior to school board service. The nature of organizational membership also differed; women were more youth, school and community (most notably P.T.A.) or politically (League of Women Voters) oriented than men; men were most often in fraternal or general service organizations.

3. Differences also existed between men and women in characteristics of board service. Men were more likely to be urged to seek school board membership by incumbent board members, friends and neighbors while women were more often urged by school-related groups and their families. Women were more likely to be screened and endorsed by a caucus and were less likely to be appointed. Women devoted more time to school board activities, were more likely to serve on curriculum and personnel committees (men were more likely to serve on finance, building and grounds and negotiations), were more likely to be the board secretary and were less likely to be board president or vice-president.

4. Women generally viewed their role and the role of the board more politically than men. They were more likely to select the representative delegate rather than the trustee role. They viewed their role more as an extension of the community and felt their greatest contributions were in the areas of public relations and community awareness. Men, on the other hand, selected the trustee role more frequently and believed they contributed expertise in

supervision and finance.

5. Women were more likely to want to become involved in policy-making, curriculum and instructional programs and personnel; while men were more likely to be involved in business related functions. Their involvement on the board was related to their personal priorities.

6. Although the primary motivation for school board membership was general interest in education, more women than men became involved on the board for reasons relating to their own children or because of specific areas of dissatisfaction with education or the board of education.

7. As the number of women on boards increased, there appeared to be an increase in conflict or less unanimity in school board decision-making.

8. An important thread throughout much of the research relates to attitudinal prejudice. Although many of the studies indicated that the majority of women did not directly experience discrimination, indirect and subtle forms of discrimination were evident in the data. Subtle informal quota systems and negative stereotypes of women board members held by many superintendents contributed to a sense that women board members are perceived as "necessary evils." Far more research needs to be conducted in this elusive area. This research review also appears to indicate that there is a "women's angle to school board

membership."³¹⁹ Although much of the research reported and described statistical uniformities among women, it is important to note that many individuals do not conform to these general tendencies.

If, however, differences appear to exist between male and female board members in numerous dimensions of their personal and school board profiles, what implications may there be for school board functioning?

The following have been advanced by numerous researchers:

1. Board procedures probably will not change, but improvement in governance may result due to the fact that women have had more experience in group leadership.³²⁰

2. Although the sex imbalance in the composition of school boards may make it difficult for women who are aware of sex-biased educational practices to modify the situation, one of the outgrowths of increased female representation may be the continuous monitoring of policies that may discriminate against women teachers and female students.³²¹ According to Fishel and Pottker, "policies which are less sex-biased will stem from these school boards, and a superior educational system will be the result."³²²

³¹⁹Ibid., p. 19.

³²⁰Doran, p. 27.

³²¹Fishel and Pottker, p. 88.

³²²Ibid., p. 89.

3. The apparently intense interest of women school board members in curricular and instructional issues may cause the administration to devote more time to curriculum and improve the instructional program.³²³

4. Since women more often run for office to change or preserve some aspect of the educational system, they may take a far more active role in policy-making than ever before. According to Mullins, women school board members have expressed that their greatest frustration is "wheels often turn slowly."³²⁴

5. The fact that the majority of women school board members are housewives and consequently have the flexibility and time to devote to school board activities may cause them to become more involved in and knowledgeable about school district activities. This increased involvement could conceivably result in a diminishing of the fine line between policy-making and policy-administering.

Further, the lack of full-time employment facilitates the development of the educational specialist (gadfly role) among women and allows them to "specialize" in community relations.³²⁵ This may also result in the administration becoming more aware of and responsive to community needs or

³²³Johnson and Crowley, p. 17.

³²⁴Mullins, "The Plight of the Boardwoman," p. 32.

³²⁵Johnson and Crowley, p. 18.

may cause the administration to react negatively to the "meddling" of the women school board member.

6. The delegate (rather than trustee) role orientation of the female board member may result in greater citizen and community awareness of and participation in school board activities and school district affairs. The women school board member often becomes the "unofficial ombudsman"³²⁶ a "one woman public relations department."³²⁷

Additionally, if in fact, school boards have traditionally played a legitimizing role, the increase of women on school boards may shift the focus away from legitimations of administrative policies to representation of community values and interests; and if Blanchard is correct, will increase internal board conflict and will decrease the unanimity that has typically characterized trustee school boards in the past.

Another possible impact of this potential shift in board function is that the relationship (that is some cases is already strained) between superintendents and female board members may worsen. If the superintendent's relatively stable domain and modus operandi is challenged, tensions are likely to result. The fact that many school board women are or have been educators who are aware of educational issues and, hence, can question or challenge

³²⁶Mullins, "The Plight of the Boardwoman," p. 32.

³²⁷Johnson and Crowley, p. 29.

administrative decisions may also serve to strain relationships with superintendents.

In interviewing over 500 superintendents on their views about the ideal board member, Mullins indicated that "if superintendents are firm in the preference they give to well-educated board members, they balk when it comes to board members who are educators."³²⁸

7. The generally supportive attitudes women board members have toward teachers³²⁹ may result in greater teacher endorsement and sponsorship of female candidates.

8. Since women are more reluctant to reduce educational spending,³³⁰ we may see a shift in the priorities, direction or degree of school district budget reduction.

Finally, an interesting and perhaps critical impact of increased numbers of women school board members may be that the "cult of efficiency"³³¹ that Counts described almost sixty years ago will be diminished. Counts was very disturbed that the social imbalance of school board representation had caused school boards to adopt a mode of behavior that mirrored the model of business efficiency, since the vast majority of board members (and superintendents) held professional or managerial

³²⁸Mullins, "If Superintendents Could Pick," p. 27.

³²⁹Ibid., p. 18.

³³⁰Ibid.

³³¹Counts, p. 89.

occupations. Greater diversity on the school board may result in greater representation of the constituency and conceivably a change in emphasis from the efficiency model which emphasized buildings, bonds and buses to one that primarily focuses on the quality of the educational enterprise. Mullins agrees that typically "men try to compare the running of a school system to the (efficient) operation of a factory or business."³³² As women increase in membership on boards of education, the emphasis may indeed shift from a corporate business framework to one that emphasizes instruction.

Again, it must be underscored that although the differences between men and women school board members seem to imply "subtle but discernible alterations in the functioning of school boards as women come to comprise half their membership,"³³³ substantially more research needs to be done to verify these tentative conclusions over a sustained period of time. It is possible that as the entrance of women into the labor market continues to escalate, there may be a reduction in the nature and level of women's school board activity.

³³²Mullins, "The Plight of Boardwomen," p. 29.

³³³Johnson and Crowley, p. 19.

CHAPTER III

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Despite the publications of scholarly research on the roles and functions of school boards, limited research is available on the role behavior of school board members, and a paucity of data is available on the subject of women who serve on boards of education. An extensive search of the literature emphasized the need for a study that analyzed the roles, functions, and behavior of women serving on school boards. The ideas, existing attitudes, and trends noted in the literature review were used to formulate the hypotheses for this study.

Given the purposes of this study which were to describe and analyze the roles, functions, and role behavior of women on school boards and then to compare their responses with those of male board members, both a descriptive survey approach and a statistical approach were utilized in the data collection and analysis phases.

According to Kerlinger, survey research is considered a segment of social science research because of the nature of its sociological and psychological variables. Sociological variables can be classified as sociological facts, opinions, and attitudes. Sociological facts are the attributes of an

individual that are the results of his membership in social groups; sex, income, socio-economic status, education, age, occupation, etc. Psychological variables encompass the individual's opinions, attitudes, and behavior.¹

Hyman supports the utilization of the descriptive survey because it facilitates the conceptualization of phenomenon and often forms the basis for the formulation of hypotheses about phenomenon.²

Warwick's endorsement of Hyman is evident in the following statement:

Description ... can lay the groundwork for the pursuit of other objectives, including explanation, and hypothesis testing, evaluation, prediction, and the development of indicators.³

The components of the research design described in this chapter include the following: population, instrumentation, procedures, treatment of the data, and hypotheses of the study.

Population

In order to delimit this study, the geographical location from which the population was drawn was DuPage

¹Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavior Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1973), p. 411.

²Survey Design and Analysis: Principles, Cases, and Procedures (Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1955) quoted in Donald P. Warwick, The Sample Survey: Theory and Practice (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1975), p. 49.

³Donald P. Warwick and Charles A. Lininger, The Sample Survey: Theory and Practice (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company 1975), p. 49.

County, Illinois. DuPage County is located in northeastern Illinois, directly west of Chicago and Cook County, east of Kane County, north of Will County, and south of McHenry and Lake Counties. Together with the counties named above, it is part of the Chicago standard metropolitan statistical area, a census bureau designated for urban counties that are socially and economically associated to a main city with a population of 50,000 or more.⁴

Although DuPage is the smallest of the six Chicago metropolitan counties in square miles, it has maintained its position as the fastest growing of the six county areas. Further, it is surpassed only by Cook County in housing density.⁵

The County occupies an area of 332.1 square miles and has a total population (1980 census) of 648,835 persons, 5.2 percent of whom are minority.⁶

The most recent statistical data available indicate that the per capita income (1977 estimate) was \$8,011;⁷ the

⁴DuPage County Regional Planning Commission, Profile '79: Statistical Handbook (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1979), p. 3.

⁵Ibid., p. 23.

⁶DuPage County Development Department, DuPage County Labor Market Information '82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981), p. 4.

⁷Ernest Liang, Systems Analyst DuPage County Development Department to Stephanie Marshall, Wheaton, 6 April 1982.

median family income (1969 estimate) was \$14,457;⁸ and the County's median home value was \$78,000 in 1980.⁹

DuPage County was selected for this study for two reasons:

1. The sample size is adequate for statistical analysis; there are forty-five school districts in DuPage County and 311 school board members.¹⁰

2. The County's gradual change in school board membership reflects the increase in the number of women on boards and generally parallels the national change in the social composition of school boards. In 1972 the percent of women on school boards in the United States was 12 percent,¹¹ in 1981, the national percentage was 32.8 percent.¹² In 1972, the percent of women on school boards

⁸DuPage County Development Department, DuPage County Labor Market Information '82 Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981), p. 51.

⁹Ernest Liang, Systems Analyst DuPage County Development Department to Stephanie Marshall, 6 April 1982.

¹⁰DuPage County Educational Service Region, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981).

¹¹Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "School Boards and Sex Bias in American Education," Contemporary Education 45 (Winter 1974): 85.

¹²Kenneth E. Underwood, James Fortune, and Harold W. Dodge, "Your Portrait: School Boards Have a Brand-New Look," The American School Board Journal 169 (January 1982): 17.

in DuPage County was 18.1 percent,¹³ and in 1981 it was 34.7 percent.¹⁴ Detailed tables indicating the numbers and percent of women school board members and school board presidents in DuPage County from 1970 to the present are found in appendices J, K, L, M.

One of the aims of a researcher is to select a sample that is representative of a larger population so that inferences to other populations can be made. In order to provide the reader with information about the sociological aspects of the DuPage resident, data from the 1982 census are presented:

1. The residents of DuPage County are 49.8 percent male and 50.1 percent female.

2. The labor force (residents sixteen years of age or older) is 58 percent male and 42 percent female.

3. The educational attainment distribution of the County indicates that 20 percent of the residents are college graduates; 52 percent are high school graduates and 28 percent did not graduate from high school.

4. The occupational distribution of the County's residents indicates that 20.5 percent are in professional or technical fields; 12.7 percent are managers or

¹³DuPage County Educational Service Region, DuPage County School Directory, 1971-72 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1971).

¹⁴DuPage County Educational Service Region, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981).

administrators; 10.4 percent are sales workers; 20.2 percent are in clerical positions; 14.0 percent are craftsmen or foremen; 5.8 percent are operators, laborers or factory workers; .04 percent are farm workers and 8.7 percent are service workers. These percentages represent the composite percentage of both sexes.

A summary was also made of the occupational distribution of employed women. Women represent 17 percent of the professional or technical workers; 3.2 percent of the managers or administrators; 10.8 percent of the sales and 43.5 percent of the clerical positions; 1.5 percent of the craftsmen or foremen; 1.6 percent of the operators, laborers or factory workers; .2 percent of the farm workers and 12.2 percent of the service workers.¹⁵

It was the intent of this researcher to provide the reader with a comprehensive profile of the County and its population in order to enable subsequent researchers to generalize the findings of this study to other suburban communities and to provide a framework upon which to analyze the profiles of DuPage County school board members.

The forty-five school districts in DuPage County fall into three school district classifications: elementary school districts, high school districts, and unit school districts. There are thirty-two (71.1 percent) elementary

¹⁵DuPage County Development Department, DuPage County Labor Market Information '82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1982), pp. 5-13.

school districts serving grades K-8; seven (15.6 percent) high school districts serving grades 9-12 and six (13.3 percent) unit school districts encompassing grades K-12.¹⁶

Several tables have been provided to describe the enrollment, teaching staff, and assessed value of the districts and to describe the school board member population in DuPage County.

Table 3 indicates the numerical composition of student enrollment for each of the three district categories.

Table 3
1981-82 School District Pupil Enrollment
in DuPage County, Illinois

Type of District	Total Number of Districts	Total Enrollment	Mean Enrollment per District	Median Enrollment per District
Elementary	32	51,652	1,614.1	1,203.5
High School	7	27,674	3,953.4	4,143.0
Unit	6	35,850	5,975.0	4,810.5
TOTAL	45	115,176	2,559.5	1,982.0

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981), pp. 77-78.

¹⁶DuPage County Educational Service Region, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981), pp. 77-78.

Table 4 reflects the numerical composition of the school districts' certified staffs.

Table 4
1981-82 School District Certified Staff in DuPage County, IL

Type of District	Total Number of Districts	Total Staff	Mean Number of Staff/per District	Median Number of Staff/per District
Elementary	32	3,359.84	105.0	81
High School	7	1,769.70	252.8	300
Unit	6	2,328.00	388.0	388
TOTAL	45	7,457.54	165.7	126.8

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Director, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981), pp. 77-78.

Table 5 illustrates the school districts' assessed valuation.

Table 5
1981 Assessed Valuation of School District
in DuPage County, IL

Type of District	Total Number of Districts	Total Assessed Valuation	Mean Assessed Valuation	Median Assessed District
Elementary	32	3,776,730,064	117,710,314.5	96,906.921.5
High School	7	3,749,233,643	535,604,809.1	644,222,007.0
Unit	6	1,724,156,148	287,359,358.0	284,730,743.5
TOTAL	45	9,240,119,855	205,335,999.0	125,505,374.0

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Director, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981), pp. 79-80.

It is interesting to note the generally large differences between the mean and median responses in each of the three areas illustrated: enrollment, staff, and assessed valuation. This variance in mean and median responses is due to the wide range of responses in each category. For example, the range of the elementary enrollment is between 12 and 4,141 students; the high school enrollment range is between 1,505 and 7,807; and the unit enrollment range is between 1,825 and 12,472.¹⁷

The same differences occur in the area of teaching staff. The elementary staff range is between 4 and 238; the high school staff range is between 100 and 492; and the unit

¹⁷Ibid.

staff range is between 124 and 781.¹⁸

Assessed valuation follows the same pattern. At the elementary level, the range is \$10,115,001 - \$386,324,623; the high school assessed valuation range is \$193,658,050 - \$895,502,623; and the unit assessed valuation range is \$91,312,503 - \$514,996,702.¹⁹

The population of this study consisted of all the school board members in DuPage County who were on boards of education following the November 1982 school board election. There are a total of 311 school board members in DuPage County -- 191 are males and 120 are females.

Table 6 illustrates the numerical and percentage composition of school board members in DuPage County.

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 79-80.

Table 6

School Board Membership in DuPage County, IL

Gender	Number of Schools Board Members	Percentage of School Board Members
Male	191	61.4
Female	120	38.6
TOTAL	311	100.0

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981).

Table 7 illustrates the numerical and percentage composition of school board members by district type.

Table 7

School Board Membership by District Type
in DuPage County, IL

Type of School District	Number of School Board Members	Percent of School Board Members
Elementary	220	70.7
High School	49	15.8
Unit	42	13.5
TOTAL	311	100.0

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981).

Table 8 illustrates the numerical and percentage distribution of school board members by gender and district type.

Table 8
School Board Members Gender by District Type
in DuPage County, IL

Type of District	Male Board Members	Male Percent	Female Board/ Members	Female Percent
Elementary	128	58.2	92	41.8
High School	34	69.4	15	30.6
Unit	29	69.1	13	31.0
TOTAL	191	61.4	120	38.6

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981).

It is interesting to note that although women represent 38.6 percent of the total school board membership in DuPage, they represent 41.8 percent of the elementary boards, 30.6 percent of the high school boards, and 31 percent of the unit district boards.

The distribution of school board presidents is illustrated in Table 9.

Table 9

School Board Presidents in DuPage County, IL

Gender	Total Number School Board Presidents	Percentage of School Board Presidents
Male	30	66.7
Female	15	33.3
TOTAL	45	100.0

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981).

The numerical and percentage distribution of school board presidents by gender and district type is illustrated in Table 10.

Table 10

School Board Presidents by Gender and District Type in DuPage County, IL

Type of District	Number of Male Board Presidents	Percentage of Male Board Presidents	Number of Female Board Presidents	Percentage of Female Board Presidents
Elementary	22	68.8	10	31.3
High School	4	57.1	3	42.9
Unit	4	66.7	2	33.3

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981).

Instrumentation

The data necessary to investigate the questions posed by the study were obtained through the use of the following instruments: (1) the questionnaire entitled "The Profiles, Functions, and Roles of School Board Members in DuPage County, Illinois" (appendix H) and (2) the interview instrument "Assessing School Board Member Activities, Functions and Roles" (appendix I). Each of these instruments is described below:

1. The questionnaire was largely adapted from instruments developed by Marilyn Johnson,²⁰ The National School Board Association,²¹ Paul Blanchard,²² Mona Generett,²³ and Mabel Pittman²⁴. The questionnaire was divided into three major sections.

²⁰Marilyn Johnson and John Crowley, Women and Men on School Boards: A Summary Report to Participants in a Study of Thirty-Seven New Jersey Boards (New Jersey: Rutgers University The Eagleton Institute of Politics, [1978]). .

²¹Women on School Boards: Report of the NSBA Council on The Role of Women in Educational Governance, by Marion Thompson, Chairman (Evanston, Illinois: NSBA, 1974).

²²Paul D. Blanchard, "Women in Public Education: The Impact of Female School Board Members," East Tennessee State University Journal of Humanics 4 (May 1977).

²³Mona Generett, "The Role of Women Trustees in Private Independent Colleges and Universities of Pennsylvania as Defined by their Characteristics, Functions, and Perceptions" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1978).

²⁴Mabel Pittman, "Women in Lay Governance: A Dissertation of their Characteristics and Role Perception" (Ph.D. dissertation, Southern Illinois University, 1977).

a. Part I was designed to provide data concerning the activities of school board members prior to and during board service. Information was sought in the following categories: organizational memberships and offices held; motivations for seeking school board membership; groups that encouraged and/or endorsed board candidacy; board offices previously and presently held; board committee memberships or chairmanships previously and presently held; the frequency of engagement in meetings, discussions, and phone calls with school personnel, reading board and education related materials, and attending or visiting schools; board responsibilities that members wanted to work with and were actually working with; membership in an informal school board member network; sources from whom board members secured information; groups that most influenced board member decision-making; and how school board members viewed the role of the school board. (Questions one to twenty-one on the questionnaire addressed these areas.)

b. Part II was designed to provide data on the degree of role involvement or operational role behavior school board members exhibited in seven critical areas of school district functions.

The seven categories of board functions included: school board operations, educational program, support operations, communication/public relations, budget/finance,

personnel management, and pupil services.²⁵ These seven areas were then sub-divided into thirty-nine management tasks.

Three degrees of role involvement were indicated:

initiated or originated, reviewed in committee, and voted at board meeting. For each of the thirty-nine management tasks, board members checked the behaviors they exhibited. While there have been numerous studies on school board member role expectations, little research has been done to date on the specific behaviors board members exhibit relative to the management functions of the school district. Consequently this part of the questionnaire was seen to be the most critical in providing data on actual school board member behavior. Although three (3) degrees of role involvement were indicated in the questionnaire, only two (2) areas initiated and reviewed in committee were reported and analyzed. It was felt that the third (3rd) area, voted at board-meeting was not discriminating enough since it was a product of the board's and not the individual's behavior. (Questions twenty-two to twenty-eight on the questionnaire assessed these areas.)

c. Part III was designed to provide demographic data on school district type and pupil enrollment, gender, age, educational level, marital and employment status, and

²⁵ Ronald R. Booth and Gerald R. Glaub, A Superintendent Appraisal System: A Workbook (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Association of School Boards, 1978), p. 21.

income level of school board members, as well as their number of children, and the length of their residency in the community. (Questions twenty-nine to forty-one in the questionnaire assessed these areas.)

2. The interview instrument "Assessing School Board Members' Activities, Functions and Roles" was used to further assess and provide additional and elaborative information on the activities, functions and behavior of school board members. Although the interview questions paralleled the questionnaire and were designed to clarify and extend the information provided in the questionnaire, the instrument also encouraged the exploration of beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of board members. The interview was the open-form or unrestrictive type of research tool.

According to John Best, "The open - form probably provides for greater depth of response. The respondent reveals his frame of reference and possibly the reasons for his responses."²⁶

In reviewing interview techniques, Best believed that people display a greater willingness to verbalize responses as opposed to making a commitment in writing. Further, it is also possible to seek the same information in a variety of ways at several different stages throughout the interview. This serves to provide a check on the accuracy and

²⁶John W. Best, Research in Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970), p. 163.

reliability of the responses. Best further noted,

Through the interview technique, the research may stimulate the subject to greater insight into his own experiences, and thereby explore significant areas not anticipated in the original plan of investigation.²⁷

In this study, the interview clearly allowed randomly selected board members a greater opportunity to clarify and expand upon their experiences as a board member, their perceived and actual behavior on the board of education, and their personal reaction to school board membership. Further, it permitted them to expound on board relationships and how they potentially impact on educational governance. This clearly enhanced the researcher's understanding of the respondent's role as a school board member.

Procedures

In order to secure the data on women school board member's behaviors, it was determined that a questionnaire and interview instrument were the most appropriate means of data gathering for the study. The questionnaire and interview guide were developed through extensive research of school board member roles and functions and studies of women on boards of education. Hypotheses were developed from the literature review and questions were then formulated.

1. The first draft of the questionnaire and interview instrument were submitted to the author's dissertation committee for consideration. Valuable comments and

²⁷Ibid., pp. 186-187.

suggestions were incorporated into second drafts of the instruments. The questionnaire and interview instruments were then submitted to several randomly selected school board members in Kane County, Illinois. Further changes were incorporated into the second drafts as a result of their suggestions.

2. A jury panel was selected for the purpose of validating the final survey questionnaire and interview instruments. It was decided to have a sixteen member panel representative of the population to be studied and knowledgeable in the areas of school board member roles. Five women board members, five male board members, two central office administrators, two male superintendents, and two university professors from universities other than Loyola, were selected. None of the evaluators was involved in the sample of respondents who completed the questionnaire or participated in the interviews.

3. During the first week of December, 1981, phone calls were made to each member of the panel explaining the project and requesting their participation in the field testing. All individuals responded affirmatively.

4. Letters of introduction (appendix B) and copies of the instruments were mailed to members of the participating panel on December 16, 1981. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were enclosed. All of the jury panel responded. Minor changes were suggested by the validators and

modifications in wording and construction were incorporated where the purpose of the item was not affected.

5. The target population consisted of all the current school board members in DuPage County. On February 19, 1982, a copy of the questionnaire (appendix H) and a letter of inquiry (appendix C) requesting participation, emphasizing the importance of the research and the confidentiality of responses, were mailed to each of the 311 school board members in DuPage County, Illinois.

6. Also on February 19, 1982, a letter was mailed to each of the forty-five superintendents in DuPage County (appendix D) informing them of the study and requesting their endorsement. Several calls were received from superintendents indicating interest in the study and the encouragement of their board members to complete the questionnaire.

7. On February 26, 1982, a follow-up post card (appendix E) was mailed to all 311 board members; on March 11, 1982, a follow-up letter (appendix F) and a second questionnaire were mailed to the non-respondents. Of the 311 questionnaires mailed, 210 or 67.5 percent were returned; this was accepted as an adequate and representative sample size. A code number was then assigned to each questionnaire to insure anonymity.

It is critical to note that in determining the reliability of the sample size, the absolute size of the

sample is of much greater relevance than its proportionate size.²⁸ Hence, although the common sense hypothesis would seem to indicate that sampling error depends primarily on proportion of the sample to the total population, Warwick definitely states that "the absolute (sample) size clearly carries more weight than does the relative sample size."²⁹ An absolute sample size of 210 would tend to reduce the standard error to less than 10 percent of the sample variances.³⁰

Table 11 indicates the numerical and percentage composition of the respondents by gender.

Table 11

Questionnaire Respondents According to Gender

Gender	Number Respondents	Percent Responses
Male	120	57.1
Female	90	42.9
TOTAL	210	100.0

As was indicated earlier, men comprised 61.4 percent of the total school board population in DuPage County and women comprised 38.6 percent of the total school board population.

²⁸Warwick and Liniger, p. 93.

²⁹Ibid., p. 94.

³⁰Ibid.

Although Table 11 seems to reflect the representation of the sample in relation to the entire population, it must be remembered that due to the fact that women represent a lower overall percentage in the County, their proportional representation in the sample of respondents is greater. Although the 90 women who responded to the questionnaire represent 42.9 percent of the respondents, they also represent 75 percent of the total population of women board members. Similarly, although the 120 male respondents represented 57.1 percent of the respondents, they represented 62.8 percent of the total population of male board members.

Table 12 illustrates the numerical and percentage distribution of the sample respondents by school district type.

Table 12

Sample Respondents According to Gender
and School District Type

Gender	Elementary District		High School District		Unit District	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Male	79	34.5	19	59.4	22	66.7
Female	66	45.5	13	40.6	11	33.3
TOTAL	145	100.0	32	100.0	33	100.0

8. Following the acceptance of the sample questionnaire, it was necessary to define the interview sample. The interview sample was drawn from one-third of the school districts in the County, or fifteen school districts. In order to secure data from each of the two referent groups (male and female board members) in each of the selected school districts, fifteen sets of "matched dyads" were interviewed.

In his discussion of the sampling process, Warwick argued that a good proportional sample should represent the differences and disparities that exist within the population from which the sample is drawn.³¹ The sampling procedure requires the investigator to select the number of subjects at random in proportion to the actual size of the group in the total population. He elaborated further by saying that stratification of the sample can often improve the representativeness of the variables within a given population.³²

In order to obtain a reliably representative sample for the interview, a proportional stratified random sampling procedure was utilized. This procedure is outlined below.

1. The County distribution of school districts is the following: thirty-two or 71.1 percent of the districts are

³¹Ibid., p. 96

³²Ibid.

elementary; seven or 15.6 percent of the districts are high school districts, and six or 13.3 percent of the districts are unit districts. In order to approximate this distribution, the same percentages were applied to the interview sample. Therefore, of the fifteen school districts in the interview sample, eleven were elementary (approximately 71 percent), two were high school districts and two were unit districts.

2. Additional stratification occurred in order to insure greater reliability and representativeness of the sample. School districts in each of the three categories (elementary, high school and unit) were ranked according to student enrollment. The number and percent of school districts in each enrollment strata was calculated for each type of school district. These percentages were then applied to the sample in each school district category. For example, the County distribution of elementary schools in each of six enrollment strata is illustrated in Table 13.

Table 13

Enrollment Distribution of Elementary School Districts
in DuPage County by Strata

Total Student Enrollment	Number of Elementary School Districts	Percentage of Elementary School Districts
Less than 500	6	18.8
500 - 999	9	28.1
1,000 - 1,999	4	12.5
2,000 - 2,999	8	25.0
3,000 - 3,999	4	12.5
4,000 - 4,999	1	3.1
TOTAL	32	100.00

SOURCE: Educational Service Region DuPage County, DuPage County School Directory, 1981-82 (Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Center, 1981) pp. 77-78.

Table 14 represents the distribution of the actual elementary sample when the percentages found in Table 13 are applied to the sample.

Table 14

Enrollment Distribution of Sample Elementary School
Districts in DuPage County

Total Student Enrollment	Number of Elementary School Districts in Selected Sample	Percentage of Elementary Schools in Selected Sample
Less than 500	2	18.1
500 - 999	3	27.3
1,000 - 1,999	1	9.1
2,000 - 2,999	3	27.3
3,000 - 3,999	1	9.1
4,000 - 4,999	1	9.1
TOTAL	11	100.0

This same procedure was used to calculate the high school and unit district sample.

3. In order to select the actual districts to participate in the study, an additional criteria of assessed-valuation was utilized. Within each enrollment category, districts were ranked in assessed-valuation. Where only one district was to be selected from each enrollment stratum, it was done randomly according to the process of probability sampling - a "process of sample selection in which the elements are chosen by chance methods such as flipping coins, drawing numbered balls from an urn

or through tables of random numbers."³³

In this case, the names of all districts within one enrollment stratum were placed together and a name was randomly drawn. Where two districts were to be selected, the lowest and highest in assessed value were chosen, and where three districts were to be selected, the lowest and highest in assessed valuation were chosen and the third was randomly drawn from the school districts remaining in that category.

Table 15 illustrates the actual district selection for the interview sample. Districts have all been assigned letters to insure anonymity.

³³Ibid., p. 72.

Table 15

Districts Selected For The Interview Sample

District Type	Enrollment Stratum	Assessed Valuation
Elementary	<u>Less than 500 (2)</u>	
	District A	13,485,627
	District B	127,054,231
	<u>500 - 999 (3)</u>	
	District C	32,195,812
	District D	74,375,344
	District E	134,804,074
	<u>1000 - 1999 (1)</u>	
	District F	74,469,593
	<u>2000 - 2999 (3)</u>	
	District G	106,805,034
	District H	158,535,616
	District I	246,333,216
<u>3000 - 3999 (1)</u>		
District J	241,342,754	
<u>4000 - 4999 (1)</u>		
District K	386,324,623	
Unit	<u>1000 - 1999 (1)</u>	
	District L	91,312,503
	<u>8000 - 9999 (1)</u>	
	District M	455,195,913
High School	<u>1000 - 1999 (1)</u>	
	District N	193,658,050
	<u>5000 - 5999 (1)</u>	
	District O	718,095,435

4. Once the districts were determined, the specific board members to be interviewed could be selected. For each district, one male board member was randomly selected from the male board members in that district and one female board

member was randomly selected from the female board members in that district. Hence, this process occurred thirty times.

5. Phone calls were made to each of the thirty board members. The purpose of the phone call was to refresh their memory about the study, explain the process of random selection for the interview, and elicit their participation in the interview process. Since the research design specified a "matched dyad" from each district, it was imperative that both a male and female from each district respond affirmatively. Of the thirty calls made, one individual declined to be interviewed; this necessitated the selection of another district within that enrollment and assessed-valuation stratum, and the selection of two other board members.

6. Appointments were made for each of the thirty respondents participating in the interviews. Interviews began on April 27, 1982 and concluded on June 5, 1982. The interviews took between 45 minutes and one and one-half hours each. Due to the open-ended nature of the interview instrument and the number of interviews conducted, the actual taped transcriptions of the interview are not presented. The texts of the interviews were reviewed and only the contents of the interviews that were germane to the study were included in the data presentation and analysis.

7. On April 29, letters were sent to superintendents of each of the fifteen participating school districts informing them of their board member's participation in the interview. (appendix G) The purpose of the letter was not to solicit their support, but rather to inform the superintendent out of a sense of professional courtesy.

Hypotheses

The review of the related literature provided the basis for the statement of the formal hypotheses. The formulation of null hypotheses involves a judgment that any apparent difference found between an experimental and a control group as a result of an investigation result from sampling error.³⁴ In terms of this study, the major and sub-hypotheses were formulated on the assumption that any differences found between men and women on boards of education were due to differences resulting from sampling error.

Within each of the two major research hypotheses were a number of sub-hypotheses; further, many sub-hypotheses had several components. Due to the number of variables within each major hypothesis, the evaluation (rejection or non-rejection) of the major hypothesis was not done as a summation, but rather as a general judgment. Detailed

³⁴Best, p. 270.

statistical analyses were provided for each sub-hypothesis. Because of the variances presented by the sub-hypotheses, the rejection or non-rejection of the major hypothesis is indicated but cannot be taken as definitive. The following major and sub-hypotheses constitute the framework for this study.

Major Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their characteristics of school board service.

Sub-hypotheses

1.1 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their membership in organizations prior to school board election.

1.2 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their involvement in organizational governance prior to school board election.

1.3 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary motivations that most influenced them to seek school board membership.

1.4 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary groups that most encouraged them to seek school board office.

1.5 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the public endorsement they received from specific groups or organizations.

1.6 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their present membership in organizations.

1.7 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their present involvement in organizational governance.

1.8 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the board offices presently held.

1.9 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board committees on which they are presently serving.

1.10 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board chairmanships presently held.

1.11 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the frequency with which they engaged in several specific school board-related activities.

1.12 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in relation to several specific school board responsibilities they most wanted to work with during school board service.

1.13 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in relation to several specific school board responsibilities they actually worked with the most during school service.

1.14 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their membership in an informal network of board members from other districts.

1.15 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the categories of individuals from whom they received the most helpful information in several specific areas of school board responsibility.

1.16 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the groups that have the most influence on their decision-making as school board members.

1.17 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in how they view the function of the Board of Education.

1.18 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in how they view the voting behavior of their Board on issues of importance.

Major Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their role behavior (Initiated or Reviewed in committee) within specific school district functions.

Sub-hypotheses

2.1 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the school board operations function.

2.2 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within

the educational program function.

2.3 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the support operations function.

2.4 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the communications/public relations function.

2.5 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the budget/finance function.

2.6 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the personnel management function.

2.7 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the pupil services function.

2.8 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the school board operations function.

2.9 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the educational program function.

2.10 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the support operations function.

2.11 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the communications/public relations function.

2.12 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the budget/finance function.

2.13 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the personnel management function.

2.14 There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the pupil services function.

Data Treatment

Due to the complexity of the data, the Statistical Analysis System was utilized to generate the data tables.

The data provided by the questionnaire were statistically analyzed through reporting percentages and/or mean responses for each item of the questionnaire and through the use of a chi-square analysis, ($P < .05$ Alpha).

Several sub-hypotheses were generated for each major hypothesis. For the purpose of detailed analysis, each sub-hypothesis was analyzed separately in the following manner:

1. The mean responses for each item of the questionnaire for men and women board members were calculated and compared.

2. A chi-square analysis was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the gender of board members and each item of their personal characteristics, their characteristics of board service, and their role behavior within specific functions. To avoid Type I errors, a $P < .05$ Alpha level was used to determine significance. The null hypothesis was rejected when significant differences were found at the .05 level or lower. Using a chi-square analysis enabled the investigator to generalize the results of the study more broadly.³⁵

As previously indicated the evaluation (rejection or non-rejection) of the major hypothesis was not done as a summation, but as a general judgment due to the number of sub-hypotheses under each of the two major hypotheses.

In analyzing the data obtained from the board member interviews, the constant comparative method of qualitative analysis was utilized.³⁶ Each response incident derived from the interview was coded according to its appropriate hypothesis. While coding an incident for an hypothesis, the incident was compared with the previous incidents coded for the same hypothesis. The constant comparison of the responses generated properties, trends, and characteristics

³⁵Edward W. Minimum, Statistical Reasoning in Psychology and Education (New York: John Willey and Sons, 1978), p. 390.

³⁶Barney G. Glaser, "The Constant Comparative Method of Qualitative Analysis," Social Forces (1965), pp. 440-441.

of male and female board members. Modifications of incidents were made largely for the purpose of clarity, pairing off non-relevant properties, and integrating details of properties into a narrative.

Both the quantitative and the qualitative analysis were made from the perspective of the operational role behavior construct of the Getzels and Guba Model and the current research on the roles, functions, and behaviors of women school board members.

Summary

Chapter III described the design which was developed to study the questions posed in the investigation. The participants in this study consisted of 210 (120 males and 90 females) school board members in DuPage County, Illinois.

Each participant completed the questionnaire, "The Profiles, Functions and Roles of School Board Members in DuPage County, Illinois." Thirty (fifteen males and fifteen females) randomly selected school board members were selected to participate in the interview. The interviews were conducted in order to confirm and extend information gathered through the written instrument.

The data were analyzed through the use of various statistical methods, primarily chi-square analysis. Chapter IV presents and analyzes the data and provides answers to the basic questions and hypotheses posed in this study.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purposes of this study were twofold: to describe and analyze the characteristics, roles, functions, and behavior of women on boards of education, and to compare their profile with those of male board members. The intent of the study was to investigate whether there are significant differences between men and women school board members and to discern whether or not the differences may have an impact on educational governance.

Chapter IV sets forth an analysis of data gathered as a result of the two basic questions addressed in this study: (1) Who are the women who serve on Boards of Education? and (2) Does it matter whether school board members are male or female? Two major hypotheses and a series of sub-hypotheses relating to these basic questions were developed to assist in the analysis of the data, as well as to provide a means of drawing relationships between the variables utilized in the study.

Chapter IV is divided into sections corresponding to each of the sub-hypotheses. This chapter presents and analyzes the compiled data of the sample group within the context of the limited literature on the roles, functions,

and behavior of male and female school board members and the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior.

The quantitative and qualitative data that relate to a specific sub-hypothesis are presented in the section containing the sub-hypothesis. Data analysis then follows the presentation of the data. The analysis of the quantitative data consists of the analysis of the questionnaire, "The Profiles, Functions, and Roles of School Board Members in DuPage County, Illinois." Quantitative analysis is followed by a qualitative analysis of each sub-hypothesis. The qualitative analysis reviews the responses to the interview instrument, "Assessing School Board Members' Activities, Functions, and Roles." Pertinent interview data which applied to a particular hypothesis were analyzed and integrated into the narrative analysis. Natural language statements from the interviews were also integrated into the narrative. Appropriate tables and figures referenced to the various hypotheses are presented throughout this phase of the study.

The quantitative and qualitative analysis of data for all the sub-hypotheses is followed by a composite analysis of data according to the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior. Due to the fact that this Model is a comprehensive Model for social behavior analysis, it was not applied to each sub-hypothesis, but rather to an interpretation of the data as a whole.

Prior to the data presentation and analysis, a brief developmental history of female school board membership in DuPage County is presented, along with a demographic profile of male and female school board members in DuPage County.

School Board Membership in DuPage County, 1970-1982

Male and female school board membership in DuPage County from 1970 to the present has greatly paralleled the national representation of men and women on school boards.

In 1970, (see appendix K) thirty percent, or nearly one-third of the school boards in DuPage County were without any female representation. By 1980, all of the Boards in DuPage County had at least one female member.

A similar pattern emerges on boards with two or more female members. In 1970, (see appendix L) thirty-two percent of the Boards in DuPage County had two or more women school board members; in 1982, eighty percent of the boards had two or more female board members.

Another most interesting pattern emerged when the percentage of boards in DuPage County that had a majority (four or more) of women board members was examined (see appendix M). From 1970 until 1974, there were no boards that had a female majority. From 1974 - 1978, the Percentage of boards with a female majority doubled every year from 2.2 percent in 1974 to 15.6 percent in 1978. Although increases continued almost every year since 1978 (there was a drop in 1980), they were not as drastic as the

preceeding eight years. In 1982, 26.7 percent, or more than one-fourth of all school boards in DuPage County had a majority of women on the board.

If the composite board representation in DuPage County is examined, the same composition pattern is seen (see appendix J). In 1970, there were fifty-three women on boards of education in DuPage County. This represented 15.7 percent of the school board memberships. This number increased steadily from 1970 to the present day. In 1982, there were 120 women who represented 38.6 percent of the school board population.

The percentage of women board presidents has shown a far more significant growth pattern over the last twelve years. In 1970, women held two percent of the board presidencies. In 1982, fifteen of the forty-five boards in DuPage County, or 33.3 percent had female presidents. This percentage is especially noteworthy when compared to the fact that only 26.7 percent of the boards have a majority of women. Approximately seven percent of the boards without a female majority had elected female board presidents.

As noted earlier, this pattern of female board representation has generally mirrored the national trend. Although DuPage County has consistently been above the national percentage figures for female representation on boards of education, the proportional growth in DuPage County and the nation have been similar.

In 1972, the national percentage of women on school boards was twelve percent. In 1982, the national percentage was 32.8 percent,¹ which represented an increase of approximately twenty percent over ten years. In 1972 in DuPage County, women represented 19.8 percent of the board members, and in 1982 they represented 38.6 percent, also an increase of approximately twenty percent in ten years.

Thus, although the proportion of female representation is higher in DuPage County than nationally, the proportion of female gains in DuPage have not exceeded the proportion of female gains nationally.

Demographic Profile of Male and Female School Board Members
in DuPage County, Illinois

Since the 1920's, a fairly consistent profile of school board members has permeated the literature on the social composition of school boards. Traditionally, school board members have tended to be middle-aged, male professionals, who were married, had children in the public schools, and were active within their community.²

This study does not seriously challenge the profile of the "typical" school board member; however, it does focus on one segment of the school board population which is excluded

¹Kenneth E. Underwood, James C. Fortune, and Harold W. Dodge, "Your Portrait: School Boards Have a Brand-New Look," The American School Board Journal 169 (January 1982): 17.

²Women on School Boards, p. 8.

from the "typical" school board member profile -- and that is female board members.

Table 16 provides data on the personal characteristics of the male and female respondents in this study.

Table 16

Personal Characteristics of Male and Female School Board
Member Respondents
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Personal Characteristics	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
<u>Age Range*</u>		
20-29	1.1	0
30-39	45.6	30.8
40-49	45.6	45.0
50 and Over	7.8	23.3
<u>Level of Formal Education</u>		
High School Diploma	13.3	4.2
Attended College - No Degree	23.3	19.2
Bachelor's	27.8	27.5
Graduate Work/Graduate Degree	35.6	48.3
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Single	3.3	1.7
Married	88.9	95.8
Widowed	2.2	.8
Divorced	4.4	.8
<u>Total Gross Family Income</u>		
Less than 20,000	10.0	8.3
20,000 - 29,999	8.9	8.3
30,000 - 39,999	21.1	15.8
40,000 - 49,999	25.6	27.5
50,000 and Over	34.4	40.0
<u>Present Employment Status*</u>		
Not Employed	44.4	.8
Employed Part-Time	28.9	4.2
Employed Full-Time	26.7	92.5
Retired	0	2.5
<u>Present Occupation</u>		
Professional (Eng/Tech/Med)	18.6	40.0
Professional Educators	27.1	4.4
Managers	25.0	39.1
Sales Workers	2.1	12.2
Clerical	20.8	0
Craftsmen, Opp., Agr. Service	6.3	4.4
<u>Years Lived in School District*</u>	12.2	14.6
<u>Years Served as Board Member*</u>	3.8	5.1
<u>Parent</u>	96.7	95.0
<u>Process of Becoming a School Board Member</u>		
Election	75.4	67.5
Appointment	24.6	32.5

*Significant at or beyond the .05 level of significance

In this study the "average" (as denoted by more than 50 percent) female board member was middle-aged, with the majority between 30 and 49 years of age, had a relatively high level of formal education, (63.3 percent had a bachelor's degree or higher), was married (88.9 percent), was relatively affluent (60 percent had a total gross family income of \$40,000 or higher), was unemployed or employed part-time (73.3 percent), was a parent (96.7 percent), had lived in the district a mean number of 12.2 years, was elected rather than appointed to the board (75.4 percent), and had served on the board approximately 3.8 years at the time of the survey.

The profile of the "average" male board member was similar to that of the female board member, reinforcing the notion Counts had advanced in 1927 that the social composition of school boards has remained relatively unchanged even when women are considered as part of the membership. The average male board member was middle-aged, with a majority between 40 and 49 years of age, had a high degree of formal education (75.8 percent had a bachelor's degree or higher), was married (95.5 percent), was relatively affluent (67.5 percent had a total gross family income of \$40,000 or higher), was employed (96.7 percent were employed either part-time or full time), was a parent (95.0 percent), had lived in the district a mean number of 14.6 years, was elected to the board (67.5 percent), and had

served on the board approximately 5.1 years at the time of the survey.

Although the composite profile of male and female board members appeared almost identical, interesting differences should be noted:

1. Although the majority of both men and women school board members were middle-aged, women members tended to be younger than male board members. This was supported by the Johnson and Crowley study,³ but ran counter to the National School Board Associations study, Women on School Boards,⁴ and the Bers study which indicated that male board members tended to be younger than female board members due to the "home-oriented responsibilities" that are traditional for women.⁵ In this present study, 46.7 percent of the women were between 20 and 39 years of age, while only 30.8 percent of the men were between 20 and 39 years of age. Further, 7.8 percent of the women were 50 years of age or older, while 23.3 of the men were 50 years of age or older.

2. Men and women also differed in their level of formal education, although the majority of both sexes had relatively high levels of formal education. Of the female respondents, 13.3 percent had a high school diploma and 23.3 percent had attended college but had not received a degree.

³Johnson and Crowley, p. 4.

⁴Women on School Boards, p. 8.

⁵Bers, "Local Political Elites," p. 384.

Of the male respondents, 4.2 percent had a high school diploma and 19.2 percent attended college but did not receive a degree. Men and women were almost equal in their receipt of a bachelor's degree but more men than women (48.3 percent as compared to 35.6 percent) had done graduate work or received a graduate degree.

This finding was reflected both in the National School Board's Association Study, Women on School Boards,⁶ and the Johnson and Crowley study. Johnson and Crowley found that women are "nearly as likely as men to have completed college ... a larger proportion of men ... than of the women ... hold post graduate degrees."⁷

3. Although the vast majority of men and women indicated they were married, 11.1 percent of the women and only 4.2 percent of men indicated they were either single, widowed, or divorced.

4. Despite the relative affluence of the families of both men and women school board members, a larger proportion of male board members (67.5 percent as compared to 60 percent for women) had total gross family incomes that were \$40,000 or higher. Kenneth Underwood's most recent American School Board Journal survey indicated that nationally 43.2 percent of the school board members had

⁶Women on School Boards, p. 8.

⁷Johnson and Crowley, p. 4.

annual family incomes of \$40,000 or higher.⁸

The income level of board members in DuPage County was clearly higher than board members nationally.

5. It is interesting to note that although the majority of both men and women board members were first elected rather than appointed to office, a greater percentage of men (32.5 percent) than women (25.7 percent) first became board members through the appointment process.

6. Although the majority of both men and women were employed, the employment status and occupational range of male and female employment was decidedly different. While less than one percent of the male board members were not employed, 44.4 percent or almost one-half of the female board members were unemployed. Further, of the employed women (55.6 percent), 28.9 percent were employed part-time while 26.7 were employed full-time. Of the employed men (96.7 percent), 92.5 percent were employed full-time and 4.2 percent were employed part-time. Although these statistics paralleled the findings of the Johnson and Crowley study,⁹ and the Women on School Boards study,¹⁰ which indicated that a greater percentage of male school board members were employed than were women school board members, they differed from each study in the percentages of employed women. In

⁸Underwood, Fortune, and Dodge, "Your Portrait," p. 20.

⁹Johnson and Crowley, p. 4.

¹⁰Women on School Boards, 12.

the National School Board's Association Study, 39.4 percent of the women were employed full or part-time,¹¹ while in the Johnson and Crowley study, 61 percent of the women were employed full or part-time.¹² The present study which indicates that 55.6 percent of the women were employed falls between these two studies.

7. An examination of the occupational distribution indicated statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in their present categories of employment. Occupations were classified according to the system developed by the United States Census Bureau.

Table 17 indicates the occupational distribution and employment of male and female board members. Statistical significance beyond the .05 level of significance was found.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Johnson and Crowley, p. 4.

Table 17

Distribution of Present Employment of School Board Members
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents
Who Are Employed)

Employment	Female Respondents N=48	Male Respondents N=115
Professional (Engineers, Medical, Technical)	18.8	40.0
Professional (Educators)	27.1	4.4
Managers	25.0	39.1
Sales	2.1	12.2
Clerical	20.8	0
Craftsmen (Operatives, Agricultural, Service)	6.3	4.4

$\chi^2 = 50.272$; $df=5$; probability = .0001; significant as the $P < .05$ level of significance

Of the employed women, 27.1 percent were educators (teachers or administrators), 25 percent were managers, 20.8 percent were in clerical positions, 18.8 percent were in engineering, medical or other professional and technical fields, 6.3 percent were craftsmen, operatives, agricultural or service workers, and 2.1 percent were sales workers. Of the employed men, 40 percent were in engineering, medical or other professional or technical fields, 39.1 percent were managers, 12.2 percent were in sales, 4.4 percent were professional educators, 4.4 percent were craftsmen,

operatives, agricultural or service workers, and none held clerical positions.

An analysis of the data indicates distinct differences between men and women in five of the six categories: Professional and technical, education, managerial, sales and clerical. Men were more prevalent in the professional and technical fields, in managerial occupations and in sales, while women were more prevalent in education and clerical occupations. These findings mirror the findings of the National School Board Study. In the national study, men tended to be professionals or in technical occupations (33.2 percent compared to 5.2 percent for women) or managers (33.5 percent compared to 6.9 percent for women), while women tended to be educators (18 percent compared to 8.6 percent for men), and clerk/secretaries (15.4 percent compared to none of the men).¹³

Table 18 presents additional data on the total occupational profile of male and female board members in DuPage County who either are or have been employed.

¹³Women on School Boards, p. 13.

Table 18

Distribution of Present and Former Employment of School Board Members

(Reported in percentages of gender respondents)

Employment	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Professional (Engineers, Medical, Technical)	20.0	38.3
Professional (Educators)	31.1	5.8
Managers	14.4	38.3
Sales Worker	4.4	11.7
Clerical	16.7	0
Craftsmen (Operatives, Agricultural, Service)	4.4	4.2
Never Employed	8.9	1.7

$\chi^2 = 64.607$; $df=6$; probability = .0001; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

This table illustrates the full spectrum of present or previous employment. Again statistical significance beyond the .05 level of significance was found.

As the table indicates, 31.3 percent of all women school board members are or were professional educators, while only 5.8 percent of the male board members were in this category. Men continued to exceed women in professional and technical occupations (38.3 percent compared to 20 percent), managerial occupations (38.3

percent compared to 14.4 percent), and sales occupations (11.7 percent compared to 4.4 percent). In addition to education, women exceeded men in clerical positions (16.7 percent compared to none).

The concept of board member socialization is also an important one to consider in understanding the impact of occupation on the values, attributes and ultimately the behavior of an individual. As with organizational memberships, occupations can have a strong influence on a school board member's orientation toward his/her role on the board of education. The fact that men occupied primarily business and managerial occupations and women occupied primarily educational and clerical positions may have a direct impact on educational governance and whether or not a board is seen from a corporate efficiency perspective or from an educational quality perspective.

The influence of occupation was reinforced by the interview sample when respondents were asked what effect their employment status and occupation had on their school board membership. Six, or 40 percent, of the women interviewed were or had been teachers. Although two felt being a teacher had no effect on their school board behavior, the remainder felt it provided a valuable background for the discussion of school board issues, increased their insight into what was happening on the board (because "I know the inner workings of a school") caused

them to ask "crucial questions" that others might not ask, and in their judgement provided the board with a "resident" expert on curriculum and evaluation. Of the remainder of the women interviewed, one was a secretary, one a researcher, one an attorney, one a restaurant owner, and five were currently unemployed (this does not include two former teachers). The attorney indicated that her training as an attorney enhanced her ability to look ahead, analyze issues, and raise critical questions, the remainder of the women felt their occupations helped them to meet and interact with a variety of people and perspectives which enhanced their understanding of the different constituencies they would encounter as a board member.

Of the males interviewed, two, or 13.3 percent were or had been teachers, one was retired, one was an attorney, and eleven or 73.3 percent were in management, business, or sales. The male attorney cited the same effects as the female attorney regarding the training an attorney receives facilitating careful analysis. The two teachers felt their educational perspective gave them a "much better idea of how things work in a school setting," and the businessmen felt their business-financial expertise contributed to a better understanding of the school system as a business and financial institution. Clearly, the occupational orientation of the school board members interviewed influenced their orientation to the school board.

Major Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their characteristics of school board service.

Major Hypothesis One is divided into fourteen (14) Sub-hypotheses. A separate statistical analysis was conducted on the data generated from each sub-hypothesis. A summation and evaluation of the major hypothesis was made at the conclusion of the data presentation and analysis of the sub-hypotheses.

Sub-hypothesis 1.1

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their membership in organizations prior to board election.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed the organizational memberships of school board members prior to election. Eight (8) categories of organizations were presented and respondents circled the categories of all the organizations in which they held memberships and recorded the name(s) of the specific organizations within each category.

A chi-square analysis of multiple responses indicated that this item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 19 indicates the percentages of total gender responses for each category of organizational memberships.

Table 19

Membership in Organizations Prior to Board Election
(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Organizational Categories	Female Responses N=244	Male Responses N=326
Youth or School	32.8	25.2
General Service	11.9	14.1
Church-Related	18.4	17.5
Alumni or University	11.1	5.2
Political	2.5	4.9
Professional, Business, or Occupational	8.2	18.7
School District Advisory Committee	13.5	9.2
Governmental Position	1.6	5.2

$\chi^2 = 29.873$; $df=7$; probability = .0001; significant at the $P<.05$ level of significance

Although both women and men averaged 2.7 organizational memberships, it is interesting to note the differences between male and female board members within specific organizational categories.

Differences were noted in all eight (8) categories. Of the female responses, 32.8 percent were in youth or school organizations, 18.4 percent were in church-related organizations, 13.5 percent were in school district advisory groups or committees, 11.1 percent were in alumni

organizations, 8.2 percent were in professional or business organizations, 2.5 percent indicated political membership, and 1.6 percent held a government position. (It should be noted that League members generally categorized the League as a general service rather than a political organization.)

Male responses within these categories indicated that 25.2 percent were in youth or school organizations, 17.5 percent were in church-related organizations, 9.2 percent were in school district advisory committees, 14.1 percent were in school general service organizations, 5.2 percent were in alumni organizations, 18.7 percent were in professional or business organizations, 4.9 percent indicated political membership, and 5.2 percent had held a government position.

Table 20 indicates a further breakdown of organizational membership.

Table 20

Membership in Key Organizations Prior to Board Election
(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Organization	Female Responses N=244	Male Responses N=326
Youth or School	4.9	10.7
P.T.A.	27.9	14.4
General Service	7.4	14.1
League of Women Voters	4.5	0
Church-Related	18.4	17.5
Alumni or University	3.3	5.2
American Association of University Women	7.8	0
Political	2.5	4.9
Professional, Business, or Occupational	8.2	18.7
School District Advisory Committee	13.5	9.2
Governmental Position	1.6	5.2

$\chi^2 = 85.453$; $df=10$; probability = .0001; significant at the $P<.05$ level of significance

Within this table, the P.T.A., the American Association of University Women (A.A.U.W.), and the League of Women Voters (L.W.V.) were analyzed. Since these organizations appeal predominantly to women, one would expect a greater female membership in these organizations. An analysis of

the membership patterns in this study showed this expectation to be accurate. A chi-square analysis indicates that this delineation is statistically significant beyond the .05 level of significance. Of the female responses, 27.9 percent indicated membership in the P.T.A., 4.5 percent indicated membership in the League of Women Voters (although 7.4 percent indicated general service membership as well), and 7.8 percent indicated membership in the A.A.U.W. Of the male responses, 14.4 percent were in the P.T.A. and none were in the League of Women Voters or the A.A.U.W. When analyzed further, these figures indicate that of those women who were members of youth or school organizations, 85 percent were P.T.A. members; of those women who were members of general service organizations, 37.9 percent were League members; and of those women who were members of alumni organizations, 70.3 percent were A.A.U.W. members. Conversely, of the males who were members of youth organizations, only 57.3 percent were members of the P.T.A. Males were not members of the League or the A.A.U.W.

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed, there is a significant difference between male and female school board members in their membership in organizations prior to school board service. Sub-hypothesis 1.1 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were gathered through the interview instrument, "Assessing School Board Members' Activities, Functions, and Roles." The interview confirmed the findings of the written questionnaire and provided explanations for and insights into the results obtained in the quantitative data. Of the fifteen women interviewed, nine or 60 percent, indicated prior involvement in the P.T.A., five or 33 percent indicated involvement in the League of Women Voters, and two or 13.3 percent indicated involvement in the A.A.U.W. Forty percent of the men interviewed indicated P.T.A. involvement and 40 percent indicated church board involvement. When the respondents were asked about the organization(s) that most prepared them for board service, male and female responses again showed interesting differences. In addition to the P.T.A. serving as an important source of preparation for the majority of women (because "you really get to know the teachers, the school, and some of its problems when you get involved in the P.T.A."), several respondents indicated the importance the P.T.A. Council in school board preparation. At the local district level, the P.T.A. Council is a district rather than a building organization, composed of the officers of all the individual building P.T.A.'s within the district. The president of each P.T.A. Council becomes a part of the DuPage County Division of the National Parent Teacher

Association. While the individual building P.T.A. works within each building primarily from an activity and fund raising perspective, it is the P.T.A. Council rather than the P.T.A. that plays a very activist role within the school district. Many female respondents indicated that the P.T.A. Council is the organization that often "takes a stand" on school district issues, and "follows school district activities very closely." Further, this problem-solving orientation of the council often resulted in several council members, especially the council president, attending school board meetings. One woman indicated that because of her regular attendance at school board meetings, she was considered the "eighth member on the board."

The League of Women Voters was also seen by women as preparatory for school board service. Although fewer women were members of the League than the P.T.A., those that were members of both organizations clearly believed the League to be more important in school board preparation. The League was seen to be preparatory in terms of "learning about the governmental process and how a governmental body functions," and learning "what levels of government do and how to get something accomplished within various levels of government." The following comments by one woman board member were representative of several other women.

The League is a tremendous training ground; it makes you examine a problem before you jump to a conclusion because the League only takes a position after careful study... One of the problems with League is that they lose their

membership to public office because they are such a good training ground.

An important position within the League and one shared by many of the women board members prior to board service was that of the League Observer. The League Observer is appointed by the League to attend all school board meetings within a particular school district. According to one female board member, "League Observers are key positions -- anyone who is a League Observer could easily move into a school board position."

Although cited by two interviewees, the A.A.U.W. seemed to play a less significant role in school board preparation among women. Clearly, a substantial number of women school board members seem to have served both in the P.T.A. and the League.

The male board members responded differently to this interview question. Although 40 percent of those interviewed were members of the P.T.A., as a group they did not feel it was preparatory for school board membership, since its emphasis was largely on individual buildings and not the total district. This response was given for other organizations as well, including the Jaycees, the Scouts, the Lions, and church boards. However, men who were members of Village Boards and professional societies or organizations, such as C.P.A. and engineering organizations, felt these boards contributed to school board preparation

Interestingly, two men mentioned their wives' involvement in the League as being "a major factor in board preparation." Their wives' involvement on the League's Education Committee was seen to be important in helping them to "become more aware of current issues."

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument appear to indicate a greater involvement of women school board members prior to school board service in organizations affiliated with youth and/or the school district. Of the total number of female responses across all eight organizational categories, 46.3 percent, or almost one-half, indicated membership in youth or school organizations or school district advisory committees. Men, on the other hand, represented 34.4 percent, or approximately one-third, of the responses within these two categories. Furthermore, although membership in the P.T.A. was the primary membership of both women (85 percent) and men (57.3 percent) who were in youth organizations, women clearly held a dominant position within this organization. This was also true for the A.A.U.W. (which is an organization for women) and the League of Women Voters (which is open to both sexes).

Interesting differences between male and female board members were noted in other areas as well. Men held a greater percentage of memberships than women in professional

or business organizations, political organizations, general service organizations, and governmental positions. Women, on the other hand, exceeded men in youth and school organizations, and alumni organizations. Thus, while men and women school board members did not seem to differ in the degree or amount of involvement in organizations prior to school board services, (both held 2.7 memberships), there appears to be noteworthy differences in the nature of their organizational memberships.

Furthermore, women were much more likely than men to cite one or more specific organizations (either the P.T.A. or the League) as being especially helpful in preparing them for school board membership. As a rule, men felt their occupation rather than an organizational affiliation was preparatory for school board service.

These findings seem to generally reflect the conclusions of previous school board studies, although some differences were noted.

In the 1974 study, Women on School Boards, women exceeded men in the number of organizational experiences they had held prior to school board membership and in their service on a board appointed committee. Men exceeded women in political organizations and governmental positions.¹⁴

The Johnson and Crowley study in 1978 indicated:

Although women and men differ only slightly in the number

¹⁴Ibid., p. 21.

of organizations to which they belong (medians of 3.0 for men and 3.4 for women), there are noteworthy differences in the kinds of affiliations reported.¹⁵

According to the Johnson and Crowley study, more women belong to political (a category that includes the League of Women Voters), youth, and school service groups, while more men were members of business, labor, and professional organizations.¹⁶ Women were also far more likely than men to mention a specific community organization as being especially helpful or supportive toward school board activities.¹⁷

Unlike the present study, the Bers study of men and women political elites indicated that women claimed membership in a significantly greater number of organizations.¹⁸ The Bers study does reflect the findings of the present study in the nature of organizational affiliations claimed by men and women. Although both women and men were likely to belong to at least one local civic, service, or church organization, a far greater proportion of women than men claimed P.T.A. membership. According to Bers, "clearly, ... the P.T.A. is a salient source of involvement for women, but it is not a dominant activity for

¹⁵Johnson and Crowley, p. 5.

¹⁶Ibid.

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Bers, "Local Political Elites," p. 384.

men."¹⁹ Another finding which was also reflected in the present study, was that although men exceeded women in political organizational affiliations, neither claimed membership in a political party to any appreciable degree. This conformed to the "general notion that school politics and partisan politics attract different sets of individuals."²⁰

The emergence of the P.T.A. and the League of Women Voters as critical preparatory organizations for women may have some implications for school board governance. Although in Gross' study of Massachusetts superintendents, 69 percent of the superintendents felt that the P.T.A. was a major promoter of public education, 5 percent of the superintendents felt that the P.T.A. was an obstacle to public education.²¹

According to one superintendent cited in Gross' study, Certain P.T.A. leaders think that they have the right to tell teachers what to teach and how to teach. They have caused considerable confusion and have been the source of parent-teacher conflict in several of our schools... The P.T.A.'s can be a wonderful asset to schools. In [named his community] they have hurt teacher morale and been a thorn in my side.²²

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Ibid.

²¹Gross, Who Runs Our Schools? p. 36.

²²Ibid., p. 32.

The P.T.A. appears to be emerging as a significant influence in the "pre-socialization" of women school board members.

According to Cistone, socialization is the

process by which individuals selectively acquire the values and attitudes, interests, and dispositions, skills and knowledge - that is, the culture - current in the group of which they are; or seek to become, members.²³

The P.T.A. seems to be becoming a political sub-system of the community, which reflects the actual community's political culture, and, as such, often acts as a "socializing, political structure for training, selecting, and recruiting board members."²⁴

If, as Cistone maintains, school board members make decisions by "relying on what they have learned prior to their election or appointment,"²⁵ rather than relying on the "collective wisdom of experienced school board members, or the superintendent,"²⁶ the P.T.A. and other organizations such as the League, become powerful socializing agencies for women that shape their value system, attitudes, and ultimately behavior.

²³Cistone, Understanding School Boards, p. 56.

²⁴Ibid., p. 261.

²⁵Peter J. Cistone, "School Board Members Learn Their Skills Before They Become School Board Members," The American School Board Journal 165 (January 1978): 33.

²⁶Ibid.

Since in the previous study, men did not cite any specific organizations as preparatory, the socializing influence for male board members would appear to remain their employment.

Sub-hypothesis 1.2

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their involvement in organizational governance (as defined by offices held) prior to school board service.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed involvement in organizational governance (which was defined by the offices board members held) prior to board service. Respondents were given three opportunities to indicate the name of any organization(s) in which they held an office, and the nature of that office. Offices were coded according to the following seven categories: president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, director, chairman, trustee. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 21 indicates the distribution of involvement in organizational governance and the percentages of total gender responses for each category of governance (including those who did not hold any office).

Table 21

Involvement in Organizational Governance
 (As Defined by Offices Held Prior to Board Election)
 (Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Involvement	Female Responses N=270	Male Responses N=360
President	18.2	13.9
Vice-President	5.2	3.9
Secretary	7.8	1.4
Treasurer	2.2	2.8
Director	1.9	3.6
Chairperson	10.0	8.1
Trustee	4.4	5.8
No Offices Held	50.4	60.6

$\chi^2 = 23.556$; $df=7$; probability = .0014; significant at $P < .05$ level of significance

Interestingly, women were more involved in organizational governance prior to board election as evidenced by the fact that 49.6 percent of the female responses indicated an office was held, whereas 39.4 percent of the male responses indicated an office was held. Further, women averaged 1.5 offices while men averaged 1.2 offices. Greater involvement in organizational governance was also noted by the nature of female involvement. Male responses were greater than female responses in three out of

the seven categories: treasurer, director, and trustee (board organizational member); women, however, outnumbered men in their involvement in four categories: president, vice-president, secretary, and chairperson.

This same pattern occurred when only the responses of the office holders were compared and the non-office holding responses were deleted. Of the female office holding responses, 36.6 percent were presidents, 10.5 were vice-presidents, and 15.7 percent were secretaries. Of the male responses, 35.2 percent were presidents, 9.9 percent were vice-presidents, and 3.5 percent were secretaries. Male responses again exceeded female responses in the office of treasurer, director, trustee, and in another category, chairperson.

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in their involvement in organizational governance prior to school board service. Sub-hypothesis 1.2 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were gathered through the interview instrument. The interviews confirmed the quantitative findings. Of the fifteen women interviewed, eleven (or 73.3 percent) had held organizational offices. Of those eleven office holders, eight (72.2 percent) had held presidencies. Further, of the eleven office holders, ten, or 90.0 percent,

held offices in either P.T.A., the League of Women Voters, or the A.A.U.W.; several held offices in all three organizations.

In addition to the more traditional offices, several women indicated that they had been either a P.T.A. Council Observer or a League Observer. These unclassified offices were felt to have great importance in preparing women for school board membership.

Although the male interview population seemed relatively comparable to the female population interviewed in terms of the percentage of office holders (80 percent of the interviewed males held some kind of office), the organizations in which they held office differed dramatically. Only one male was a P.T.A. president, whereas six, or 40 percent, held church-related offices. The remainder of the male office holders were distributed among professional organizations, such as the Lions, Jaycees, and Boy Scouts.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

An analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data seems to indicate that not only were the women school board members more involved in organizational governance prior to school board service, they were also more involved in higher levels of governance than were male board members. Males outnumbered females in the positions of treasurer (perhaps because of their fiscal interests), director, and trustee,

while women outnumbered men in the positions of president, vice-president, and chairperson.

Although women appeared to be involved in higher levels of organizational governance, the data seem to indicate that female board members showed less diversity than male board members in both their organizational membership and office-holding positions. Women board members seemed to have held offices in primarily three organizations, the P.T.A., League of Women Voters, and the A.A.U.W., while men showed greater variety in the scope of their organizational involvement.

Blanchard's study of new school board members supported this finding. He found that "female board members are much more likely than their male counterparts to have been active in the P.T.A., either as members or officers."²⁷ Bers also noted that of the women in her study who indicated P.T.A. membership, more than half were P.T.A. presidents.²⁸

Sub-hypothesis 1.3

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary motivations that most influenced them to seek school board membership.

Quantitative Data

One item in the questionnaire addressed motivations for seeking school board membership. Respondents were given a

²⁷Paul Blanchard, New Board Members: A Portrait, p. 4.

²⁸Bers, "Local Political Elites," p. 384.

list of thirteen motivations and were asked to rank order their top four choices. Those motivations ranked as a one or a two were considered primary motivations.

A chi-square analysis of variance indicated that this item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 22 indicates the percentages of total gender responses for the categories of primary motivation.

Table 22

Primary Motivations that Most Influenced School
Board Members to Seek School Board Membership

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Primary Motivations	Female Responses N=217	Male Responses N=260
Financial and Budget Concerns	2.8	10.8
School Closing Concerns	.5	1.2
Personal Interest in School Affairs and Education	37.3	29.2
Sense of Duty to the Community	22.1	29.2
Desire to Improve Student Achievement/Discipline	8.3	5.0
Desire to Improve School/ Community Relations	13.8	5.0
Desire for New or Improved Curricular and/or Instruc- tional Programs	7.8	6.9
Desire for Political Experience	.9	.8
Desire to Improve the Education of Own Children	4.6	8.9
Dissatisfaction with Performance of the Superintendent	.9	2.3
Dissatisfaction with Performance of Other School Administrators	.0	.4
Dissatisfaction with Performance of Teachers	.0	.0
Dissatisfaction with Performance of Board of Education	.9	.4

$\chi^2 = 34.129$; $df=11$; probability = .0003; significant at
P <.05 level of significance

Of the total female responses in the primary motivation category, 37.3 percent indicated a "personal interest in school affairs and education," and 22.1 percent indicated a "sense of duty to the community." Male responses, however, were equally distributed in terms of personal interest and a sense of duty, with 29.2 percent of the male responses in each category. Although the combined percentage indicated the majority of males and females (59.5 percent of the female responses and 58.5 percent of the male responses) selected personal interest and/or a sense of duty to community, female responses were more concentrated in the personal interest category.

Noteworthy differences were also observed in several other categories. Female responses were greater than male responses in the area of desire to improve student achievement and/or discipline (8.3 percent compared to 5.0 percent), improving the curricular and instructional program (7.8 percent compared to 6.9 percent), desire for political experience, and dissatisfaction with the board of education. Differences in the latter two categories were not appreciable, although higher percentages of women checked these categories. Male responses were greater than female responses in the area of district financial and business concerns (10.7 percent compared to 2.8 percent), school closing concerns (1.2 percent compared to .5 percent), desire to improve the education of their own children (8.9

percent compared to 4.6 percent), and dissatisfaction with the school administration (2.3 percent compared to .9 percent). If the top four primary motivations of each gender were ranked in order of descending importance, the results for women would be: personal interest in school affairs and education, sense of duty to the community, desire to improve school and community relations, and desire to improve student achievement and/or discipline. For men, the rank order would be: personal interest in school affairs, sense of duty to the community, financial and budget concerns, and desire to improve the education of their own children.

Although differences between male and female responses were noted in several categories, two categories appeared to show the greatest discrepancy between male and female respondents; they were budget and financial concerns, and desire to improve school/community relations. Male responses outnumbered female responses more than four to one in the finance area, and female responses exceeded male responses almost three to one in the school/community relations area.

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary motivations that most influenced them to seek school board membership. Sub-hypothesis 1.3 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were gathered through the interview instrument. The interviews confirmed the statistical findings and provided additional insights into the data obtained in the questionnaire.

The motivation pattern of male and female board members indicated in the questionnaire was supported in the interviews. Female responses were again greater than male responses in the area of personal interest in education (80 percent compared to 60 percent), improving school/community relations (26.7 percent compared to 13.3 percent), improving the curriculum and instructional program (13.3 percent compared to 6.7 percent), and improving student achievement and/or discipline (13.3 percent compared to none). Male responses were again greater than female responses in sense of duty to community (60 percent compared to 20 percent), dissatisfaction with either the board or the superintendent (20 percent compared to 6.7 percent), and finance and budget concerns (13.3 percent compared to 6.7 percent). Only one area, "desire to improve the education of my own children," differed from the questionnaire responses. In the questionnaire results men outnumbered women almost two to one in this area, while in the interview sample, women outnumbered men almost two to one.

The interview data seem to indicate that, coupled with the female board member's personal interest in education,

was a parallel motivation to represent the interests of the community to the board and the administration because the community was perceived as not being adequately represented or informed. This motivation may have been the outgrowth of the women board member's involvement in the community through the P.T.A. or the League, or her involvement as an educator. One woman echoed the feelings of several women in her comment:

I felt the superintendent was not being honest with the community. I felt he was trying to cover up and not show the community what was going on. I accomplished my goal of improving education by not accepting everything the superintendent had to say and by challenging and questioning.

In perceiving themselves as community advocates often in opposition to the board and the administration, the women board members seemed to feel they were "bringing some openness and a different point of view to the board." This orientation led to a desire to improve school/community relations, student achievement and discipline, and the curricular and instructional program.

Although only 6.7 percent of the women interviewed directly stated dissatisfaction with the superintendent as a primary motivation, during the interview six women indicated that, once on the board, they became active in working toward either a systematic plan for the evaluation of the superintendent by the board, or the superintendent's release.

Another interesting dimension of the female school board members' personal interest motivation appears to be related to the concept of achievement motivation in well-educated women. During the interviews, several of the women who were either unemployed or employed part-time indicated that school board membership provided an avenue for them to do something meaningful with their lives. They were frustrated because they had not pursued a career after graduation (from college) and they were looking for a niche -- a place to make a contribution; they needed something stimulating, enriching, and challenging.

An interesting observation of one woman was that, for many women board members, board membership has become a substitute for a career, and they "approach it with far more vigor, drive, and determination than men do because they see it as a mission."

Although some of the male board members interviewed indicated an interest in some "pet" curricular or school plant (construction) project, or a dissatisfaction with the board or superintendent over a specific issue generally related to their child, a majority of the male board members felt their primary motivation was to serve the community of which they were a member and to "give something back" to the community.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument appear to indicate that although the primary motivations of both male and female board members were personal interest in education and school affairs and a sense of duty to the community, women were more motivated by personal interests than were men. This may largely be due to the fact that almost one-third (31.1 percent) of the women board members were professional educators, while only 5.8 percent of the men were educators.

This professional training within the field of education would lead to greater personal interest in education. Furthermore, the interest in school affairs was heightened by a greater involvement on the part of women in youth and school district organizations and activities. Of the women respondents, 46.3 percent were involved in youth or school district organizations, while only 34.4 percent of the men were involved in these activities. Although Neal Gross' study found that "sex and marital status make little difference in motivation for seeking election to the school board,"²⁹ the findings of the Johnson and Crowley study and the National School Board Association study, largely confirmed the present study's findings, that gender does

²⁹Gross, Who Runs Our Schools?, p. 78.

make a difference in motivation for seeking school board election.

Johnson and Crowley found that men were primarily motivated by a desire for community service (24 percent compared to 10 percent), improving board performance (16 percent compared to 12 percent) and financial issues (12 percent compared to 4 percent). Women were primarily motivated by a general dissatisfaction with education (15 percent compared to 6 percent),³⁰ a finding not reflected in the present study.

The National School Boards Study, Women on School Boards, found that when personal interest and sense of duty were compared, women showed a higher degree of personal interest as a motivation (89.1 percent compared to 78.3 percent) while men showed a higher degree of sense of duty to the community as a motivation (76.4 percent compared to 63.4 percent).³¹

Susan Saiter's Ohio Study also supported the present study's findings. When women were asked for their primary motivation for running for the board, 77 percent indicated a personal interest in education.³²

³⁰Johnson and Crowley, p. 23.

³¹Women on School Boards, p.27.

³²Saiter, "Survey Part I," p. 15.

The concept of achievement motivation in women is supported by Bernadette Doran who states:

Women who work outside the home have other channels for leadership... It is the well-educated woman at home who realizes that public service offers a way to use her talents and resources.³³

Sub-hypothesis 1.4

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary groups that most encouraged them to seek school board office.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed to the groups that most encouraged school board members to seek office and to serve on the school board. Eight categories of groups were presented and respondents ranked their top four choices. Those groups that were ranked as a one or a two were considered the primary groups that encouraged school board members to seek school board office.

A chi-square analysis of variance indicated that this item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 23 indicates the percentages of total gender responses for each of the categories of primary group encouragement.

³³Doran, "the Feminist Surge" p. 26.

Table 23

Primary Groups That Most Encouraged Board Members
To Seek School Board Office

(Reported In Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Primary Groups	Female Responses N=164	Male Responses N=212
School District Administration	6.7	6.1
School Board Members	22.0	26.4
Teachers' Association	.6	3.3
Family Members	18.9	22.6
Friends and Neighbors	33.5	29.3
Organizations Affiliated With District	10.4	4.7
Community Caucus	7.9	7.1
Local Political Party	0	.5

$\chi^2 = 10.086$; $df=7$; probability = .1838; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Despite the lack of statistical significance between men and women school board members on this item, interesting differences were noted. Minor differences between male and female board members were observed in their choices of primary endorsing groups. These included: school district administration, teachers' association, community caucus, and local political party. Large differences, however, were noted in the categories of school board members, family, friends, and organizations affiliated with the district.

Although both men and women board members ranked friends and neighbors, family, and school board members as the top three groups that most encouraged them to seek office, the percentage of responses within each category differed between men and women. Of the female responses, 33.5 percent felt friends and neighbors had encouraged them, 22 percent felt school board members had encouraged them, and 18.9 percent indicated the family as a major source of encouragement.

Male respondents attributed less encouragement to friends and neighbors (29.3 percent) than did women, and more encouragement to school board members and family (26 percent and 22.6 percent respectively) than did women.

Another group that showed differences between men and women was organizations affiliated with the district. Of the female responses, 10.4 percent indicated they received support from school district organizations, while only 4.7 percent of the men indicated support from this group. In addition, viewed as a composite, 79.7 percent of the women received group encouragement and 86.1 percent of the men received group encouragement.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary groups that most encouraged them to seek school board office. Sub-hypothesis 1.4, therefore, is not rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data gathered through the interview largely confirmed the analytical findings of the written questionnaire. Of the interview sample, women indicated their greatest sources of encouragement were friends (53.3 percent), school board members (46.7 percent), family (26.7 percent), and organizations affiliated with the district (20 percent). Men indicated their greatest source of encouragement was family (40 percent), school board members (46.7 percent), friends (26.7 percent), and school district administrators (20 percent). Unlike the women, the men interviewed did not receive any encouragement from organizations affiliated with the district.

The interview revealed that, of the organizations affiliated with the district, the P.T.A. provided the most encouragement for women to seek school board office. Although the organization itself was credited with support by the majority of the women, one woman indicated that it was P.T.A. members "not wearing the P.T.A. hat" that were the most supportive. Other organizational affiliations for women included the League, the P.F.C. (Parents for Children), and school district advisory councils.

Interestingly, in discussing the influence of friends, several of the men cited their wives' friends who were members of the P.T.A. and the League, as being especially supportive. The majority of the men interviewed, however,

received encouragement from school board members who, to a great extent, were already their friends.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and interview instrument, although not statistically significant, seem to suggest a greater reliance of women on their own initiative in seeking school board membership, as evidenced by the greater proportion of men (86.1 percent compared to 79.8 percent for women) encouraged by a specific group. Further, the greater encouragement given to women by their friends and neighbors and organizations affiliated with the district, seems to suggest a more extensive community involvement on the part of women board members. Through their large degree of organizational affiliation and involvement, women appear to have a more extensive peer network that would tend to encourage board membership.

The greater proportion of men receiving encouragement from school board members and the indication that very often the school board members are their friends, seem to support the argument of Booth and Babchuck that "individuals with more contacts within the source network out of which the organization grows will be more likely to be recruited into the organization through personal influence of those already

involved."³⁴ Thus, it is logical that the males would tend to be more incumbent-recruited than the females.

Support for the findings of the present study are also found in the 1974 National School Board Association Study. In that study as well, families, friends, school board members, and school-related organizations played somewhat different roles in the decision to seek office depending upon the sex of the candidate.³⁵

Sub-hypothesis 1.5

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the public endorsement they received from specific groups or organizations.

Quantitative Data

Two items on the questionnaire addressed the public endorsement school board candidates received from specific groups or organizations. Respondents indicated whether or not they had received any public endorsement and the name of the specific group from which endorsement had been received. A chi-square analysis of variance indicated that both of these items were not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

³⁴Alan Booth and Nicholas Babchuck, "Personal Influence Networks and Voluntary Associations," in John N. Edwards and Alan Booth, eds., Social Participation in Urban Society (Cambridge: Schenkma, 1973), pp. 77-87, quoted in Bers, "Local Political Elites," p. 385.

³⁵Women on School Boards, p. 27.

Table 24 indicates the percentages of male and female board members who had received endorsements, and Table 25 indicates the percentage distribution of endorsements between male and female board members across nine categories of group endorsement. These included: school district administration, school board members, teachers' association, P.T.A., church, community caucus, newspaper, local political party, and the homeowner's association.

Table 24

Public Endorsement Received
by Male and Female School Board Members

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Public Endorsement	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Received Public Endorsement	43.3	39.2
Did Not Receive Public Endorsement	56.7	60.8

$\chi^2 = .369$; $df=1$; probability = .5434; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Table 25

Public Endorsement Received by Male and Female
School Board Members from Specific Groups and Organizations

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Responses
of Endorsed Board Members)

Endorsement	Female Respondents N=67	Male Respondents N=61
School District Administration	.0	1.6
School Board Members	4.3	3.3
Teachers' Association	14.9	18.0
P.T.A.	2.1	1.6
Church	0	1.6
Caucus	55.3	47.3
Newspaper	14.9	19.7
Local Political Party	4.3	1.6
Homeowners' Association	4.3	4.9

$\chi^2 = 3.140$; $df = 8$; probability = .9253; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Despite the lack of statistical significance between men and women school board members in these endorsements, interesting differences should be noted. A greater percentage of female board members received endorsements (43.3 percent compared to 39.2 percent for men) from specific groups or organizations. Furthermore, although the majority of both men and women received their endorsements from the community caucus, the newspaper, and the teachers'

association, women exceeded men in caucus endorsements (55.3 percent compared to 47.3 percent). Men exceeded women in newspaper endorsements (19.7 percent compared to 14.9 percent) and endorsements from the teachers' association (18 percent compared to 14.9 percent). All other differences were not appreciable.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the public endorsements they received from specific groups or organizations. Sub-hypothesis 1.5 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data gathered through the interview supported the findings in the questionnaire. A larger proportion of women (53.3 percent compared to 46.7 percent) had received endorsements and of those board members that received public endorsements, 87.5 percent of the women indicated they were endorsed by the local community caucus and 57.1 percent of the men indicated caucus endorsement. Both men and women indicated that they felt they had secured the endorsement of the caucus because they were honest and could be trusted. In addition, both cited the help of the caucus in campaigning, in preparing campaign presentations, and in campaign advertising.

In addition to asking board members about the groups that endorsed their candidacy, board members were asked about the groups that discouraged or hindered them from seeking office. Three of the women indicated they had been hindered and two of the men indicated they had been hindered. Of the three women respondents, two indicated they were opposed because they were women and because the "superintendent felt the board should be composed of businessmen who know about finance and buildings." The other woman was opposed by a local caucus because she was a teacher and the caucus felt she would support the teachers' union.

Of the male respondents, one indicated that he was hindered by incumbent board members and one man indicated that he was not endorsed by the caucus, although two women candidates were endorsed. He felt this was because the women were "change agents" and the caucus was supporting school district change.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to the questionnaire and the interview instrument seem to suggest greater community visibility on the part of women school board members. Women received more public endorsements than did the men and they tended to receive them from groups that had a community (caucus) rather than a special interest (Teachers' association) orientation.

Sub-hypothesis 1.6

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their present memberships in organizations.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed the present organizational memberships of school board members. Eight categories of organizational memberships were presented and respondents circled the categories of all the organizations in which they presently held memberships and recorded the names of the specific organizations within each category. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 26 indicates the percentages of total gender responses for each category of organizational membership.

Table 26

Present Membership in Organizations

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Present Membership	Female Responses N=182	Male Responses N=202
Youth or School	32.4	28.7
General Service	15.9	9.4
Church-Related	14.8	14.4
Alumni or University	14.8	8.9
Political	3.9	4.7
Professional, Occupational or Business	8.2	25.7
School District Advisory	8.2	5.0
Governmental Position or Board	1.7	3.5

$\chi^2 = 26.276$; $df = 7$; probability = .0004; significant at $P < .05$ level of significance

As the table indicates, women averaged 2.0 organizational memberships and men averaged 1.7 memberships. Differences between men and women school board members were also noted in all the membership categories. Most notably, female responses exceeded male responses in the category of youth and school organizations (32.4 percent compared to 28.7 percent), general service organizations (15.9 percent compared to 9.4 percent), alumni organizations (14.8 percent as compared to 8.9 percent), and school district advisory organizations (8.2 percent compared to 5 percent). Male

responses exceeded female responses in professional and business organizations (25.7 percent compared to 8.2 percent), political organizations (4.5 percent compared to 3.9 percent), and governmental positions or boards (3.5 percent compared to 1.7 percent).

The present organizational memberships of male and female school board members seem to mirror their organizational memberships prior to school board service. Women clearly exceed men in memberships in youth and school related organizations and men clearly exceeded women in memberships in professional, occupational, or business organizations.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in their present memberships in organizations. Sub-hypotheses 1.6 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative data were gathered through the interview instrument. The respondents in the interview sample supported the responses of the larger sample. Women exceeded men in their memberships in youth organizations (60 percent compared to 26.7 percent), general service organizations (26.7 percent compared to 13.3 percent), alumni organizations (20 percent compared to 13.3 percent), the P.T.A. (40 percent compared to 13.3 percent), the A.A.U.W. and the League of Women Voters. Male memberships

exceeded female memberships in professional or business organizations (40 percent compared to 20 percent).

Board members made no comments about their present organizational memberships.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and interview instrument appear to indicate a dichotomy of interests and organizational involvements on the part of male and female board members. Women held a majority of the youth, alumni, and school district committee memberships, while men clearly exceeded women in the number of their professional or business memberships.

Although the average number of organizational memberships had decreased for both men and women after they had become a board member (women's memberships decreased from an average of 2.7 to an average of 2.0, and male memberships decreased from an average of 2.7 to 1.7), it appeared that men had a larger decrease in organizational involvement after getting on the board. The general distribution of organizational involvement did not appear to change dramatically after board members began board service, although male members did appear to increase their memberships in youth alumni, and professional organizations, and female memberships appeared to increase in general service and alumni organizations.

Interestingly, the memberships of both men and women decreased in the area of school district advisory committees while they were on the board. Female memberships in this category decreased from 13.5 percent to 8.2 percent and male memberships decreased from 9.2 percent to 5 percent, a five percent decrease for both groups.

Sub-hypothesis 1.7

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their present involvement in organizational governance (as defined by organizational offices held).

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed present involvement in organizational governance. Organizational governance was defined as the organizational offices held. Respondents were given three opportunities to indicate the name of any organization in which an office was held and the nature of that office. Offices were coded according to the following seven categories: president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, director, chairperson, or trustee. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 27 indicates the distribution of present involvement in organizational governance and the percentages of total gender responses for each category of governance, including those who did not hold any office.

Table 27

Present Involvement in Organizational Governance
(As Defined by Offices Held)

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Responses)

Organizational Office	Female Responses N=270	Male Responses N=360
President	1.5	.5
Vice-President	.4	1.1
Secretary	1.5	.7
Treasurer	.7	.8
Director	.4	1.9
Chairperson	3.7	3.6
Trustee	4.8	5.0
No Office Held	87.0	86.4

$\chi^2 = 6.89$; $df = 7$; probability = .4401; not significant at .05 level of significance

Based upon the quantitative data analysis, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their present involvement in organizational governance. Sub-hypothesis 1.7 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data derived from the interviews were also inconclusive. Of the female respondents, 53.3 percent were not presently holding office, and of the male

respondents, 73.3 percent were not presently holding office.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

An analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data for this item appeared meaningless, since the majority of male (86.4 percent) and the female (87 percent) responses indicated that no offices were held. The number of responses in each office category was, therefore, very small.

It is interesting to note the changes in office holding that occurred after school board membership. The findings relating to organizational governance prior to school board service indicated that women held an average of 1.5 offices while men averaged 1.2 percent offices. Present organizational governance statistics indicated that the average number of offices held by female and male board members was less than one for both groups.

This seems to indicate a diminishing involvement in organizational governance after election to the Board of Education.

Sub-hypothesis 1.8

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the board offices presently held.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed school board offices board members presently occupied. Three offices were listed: president, vice-president, and secretary.

Respondents circled the appropriate office(s) held and indicated the number of years they had held each office. Four separate chi-square analyses were conducted on the offices held and on the mean number of years each office was held by both male and female board members. The chi-square analysis conducted for board offices indicated that this item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 28 indicates the distribution of board offices presently held by male and female board members and the percentage of gender respondents in each category of office.

Table 28

School Board Offices Presently Held

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Office Holders)

Offices Held	Female Respondents N=29	Male Respondents N=33
President	48.3	60.6
Vice-President	6.9	6.1
Secretary	44.8	33.3

$\chi^2 = .971$; $df = 2$; probability = .6152; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Table 29 indicates the results of the three independent chi-square analyses of the mean number of years male and female board members had each held their respective offices.

Table 29

Number of Years Present School Board Offices Were Held
(Reported in Mean Number of Years)

Years Offices Held	Female N=29	Male N=33
President ¹	2.8	3.9
Vice-President ²	1.5	4.5
Secretary ³	2.5	3.2

1. Probability = .3286; not significant at the .05 level of significance
2. Probability = .1807; not significant at the .05 level of significance
3. Probability = .0277; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

Of the three analyses conducted, only the number of years in which the office of secretary was held was statistically significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Despite the lack of statistical significance between male and female school board members in the board offices presently held, several interesting differences should be noted. Of the 90 female respondents, 29, or 32.2 percent were presently board office holders. Of the 120 male respondents, 33, or 27.5 percent were presently office holders. Female school board members appeared to hold more offices than male board members. In addition, differences were noted between men and women in the nature of the board

offices held. Of the male office holders, 60.6 percent were board presidents and 33.3 percent were board secretaries. Of the female office holders, 48.3 percent were board presidents and 44.8 percent were the board secretary.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the board offices presently held. Sub-hypothesis 1.8 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were gathered through the interview instrument. Of the female respondents, four or 26.7 percent, were board presidents, one was the board secretary, one was the board treasurer, and nine, or 60 percent, were not currently holding board office. Of the male respondents, two were board presidents, one was the board secretary, and twelve, or 80 percent, were not presently holding office.

The interview also questioned board members on the nature of their board's selection process for board offices. Male and female board members from the same districts responded identically to this question.

Generally, the process of officer selection was similar among districts and boards. Offices (usually a president and a secretary) were elected at the board's reorganizational meeting. However, despite the description of "nominations" and "open election process" eight or 53.4

percent of the boards had the offices "all wired" beforehand. This was accomplished in a variety of ways: phone calls between board members prior to the meeting, pre-meetings to "brain storm", or politicking by board members who wanted to hold an office (usually the presidency).

Of the female respondents, two indicated that they had wanted to be president and had indicated this to the board, but a man was elected instead. Both felt that they would not have been challenged had they been men. One of the male respondents indicated that he had tried for the board presidency but "it didn't work" because the decision has been made beforehand.

When asked about how their board office has effected their role as a board member, two of the six presidents (one male and one female) indicated that the board president position was a position of power because the president controlled board member's access to discussion. The remaining four presidents did not feel the board president role was a powerful position on the board.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

Although the difference between male and female school board members was not statistically significant in relation to the board offices presently held, it was interesting to note that, proportionately, more women than men were board office holders (32.3 percent compared to 27.5 percent). Further, men were more often the president of the board and

women were more frequently the board secretary. The small percentage of vice-presidential positions reflects the fact that the vast majority of boards do not have vice-presidents.

Although it is most difficult to make generalizations from the limited interview data, the discussions with women board members suggest that there is an increasing interest among women board members in holding board office. The data on women board presidents in DuPage County for 1970-1982 seem to support this. The percent of women board presidents in DuPage County has increased from 2 percent in 1970 to 33.3 percent in 1982. (See appendix L)

The findings of this present study reflect the findings of the National School Board Association Study, Women on School Boards. In the national study, "slightly more men than women (34.9 percent compared to 29.4 percent) had served or were currently serving as presidents or vice-presidents of the boards."³⁶ The board secretary position, however, showed a greater differential between men and women -- 30.6 percent of the women had been board clerks or secretaries as compared to 18.4 percent of the men.³⁷

Board office holding patterns appear to parallel the traditional societal norms of male - female division of labor. Men are more often the leaders and managers and

³⁶Ibid., p. 34.

³⁷Ibid.

women are more frequently the secretaries and clerical personnel.

Sub-hypothesis 1.9

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board committees on which they are presently serving.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed present membership on school board formal standing committees. Eight categories of school board committees were listed. These included: finance and budget, personnel, education and curriculum, policy, building and grounds, legislation, negotiations, and public relations. Respondents checked the formal standing committees presently existing on their board and the committees on which they were presently serving. Membership analysis was made in relation to the committees that were existing on a given board.

A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 30 indicates the percentages of total gender responses for each category of school board committee.

Table 30

Present Board Committee Memberships

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Board Committee Memberships	Female Responses N=122	Male Responses N=135
Finance/Budget	15.6	22.3
Personnel	4.9	4.4
Education/Curriculum	17.2	10.4
Policy	19.7	17.8
Building and Grounds	9.0	14.1
Legislative	14.8	9.6
Negotiations	12.3	14.8
Public Relations	6.6	6.7

$\chi^2 = 6.942$; $df = 7$; probability = .4349; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Although statistical significance was not indicated, some interesting differences between male and female board committee memberships should be noted. The women respondents indicated memberships on 122 committees, or an average of 1.4 per board member; the male respondents indicated memberships on 135 committees, or an average of 1.1 per board member. Thus, there does not appear to be a large discrepancy between the amount of school board committee participation on the part of men and women. Specific committee membership, however, indicated a

different pattern.

Of the total number of responses, 15.6 percent of the women as compared to 22.2 percent of the men, were on budget and finance committees; 4.9 percent of the women as compared to 4.4 percent of the men, were on personnel committees; 17.2 percent of the women as compared to 10.4 percent of the men, were on education and curriculum committees; 19.7 percent of the women, as compared to 17.8 percent of the men, were on policy committees; 9 percent of the women compared to 14.1 percent of the men, were on buildings and grounds committees; 14.8 percent of the women compared to 9.6 percent of the men, were on legislative committees; 12.3 percent of the women compared to 14.8 percent of the men, were on negotiation committees; and 6.6 percent of the women as compared to 6.7 percent of the men, were on public relations committees.

Women were, therefore, more prevalent on committees working with education and curriculum, policy and legislation. Men were more prevalent on finance and budget committees, buildings and grounds committees, and negotiations committees.

Based upon the quantitative analysis, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board committees on which they are presently serving. Sub-hypothesis 1.9 is, therefore, not rejected.

Sub-hypothesis 1.10

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board committee chairmanships presently held.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed committee chairmanships that school board members were presently holding. Eight categories of school board committees were listed and respondents checked the board committee chairmanship(s) they were presently holding. Due to the nature of the question, multiple responses were possible. The chairmanship was analyzed in relation to those committees presently existing on a given board. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance. (The probability ratio of .0547 is very close to statistical significance, however.)

Table 31 indicates the percentages on total gender responses for each category of committee chairmanship.

Table 31

Present Board Committee Chairmanships

(Reported as Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Present Board Committee Chairmanships	Female Responses N=37	Male Responses N=41
Financial/Budget	13.5	21.0
Personnel	13.5	4.9
Education/Curriculum	10.8	4.9
Policy	27.0	17.1
Building/Grounds	2.7	12.2
Legislative	21.6	14.6
Negotiations	2.7	22.0
Public Relations	8.1	2.4

$\chi^2 = 13.808$; $df = 7$; probability = .0547; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Although statistical significance is not indicated, some interesting differences between male and female board committee chairmanships should be noted. Of the total number of chairmanships held (78), women held 37, or 47.4 percent, and men held 41, or 52.6 percent. However, of the total number of responses, 13.5 percent of the women compared to 21 percent of the men, were chairman of finance and budget committees; 13.5 percent of the women compared to 4.9 percent of the men, held personnel committee chairmanships, 10.8 percent of the women compared to 4.9

percent of the men, held education committee chairmanships, 27 percent of the women compared to 17.1 percent of the men, held policy committee chairmanships; 2.7 percent of the women compared to 12.2 percent of the men, held buildings and grounds committee chairmanships; 21.6 percent of the women compared to 14.6 percent of the men, held legislative committee chairmanships; 2.7 percent of the women compared to 22 percent of the men, held negotiation committee chairmanships; and 8.1 percent of the women compared to 2.4 percent of the men, held chairmanships on the public relations committees.

Women held a larger percentage of chairmanships on the personnel, education, policy, legislation, and public relations committees. Men held a larger percentage of the chairmanships on the finance and budget, buildings and grounds, and negotiations committees.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no statistically significant difference between men and women board members in the school board committee chairmanships presently held. Sub-hypothesis 1.10 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were gathered throughout the interview instrument. The information derived from the interview did not follow the same pattern of memberships as that evidenced in the larger sample. In the interview sample, 62.5 percent

of the women compared to 50 percent of the men were on the finance and budget committees; 12.5 percent of the women, compared to none of the men, were on personnel committees; 25 percent of the women compared to 12.5 percent of the men, were on education and curriculum committees; 25 percent of the women compared to 37.5 percent of the men were on buildings and grounds committees; 37.5 percent of both men and women were on legislative committees; 37.5 percent of the women and 25 percent of the men were on negotiations committees; and none of the women or men were on public relations committees. Of the eight committees, female participation exceeded male participation in six committees; male participation exceeded female participation in only one committee -- buildings and grounds. Further, the average number of committee memberships for the interview sample was 2.3 memberships for women and 1.8 memberships for men.

During the interview, board members were asked to describe the process of committee selection used by their board. Since the composition of the interview sample represented fifteen boards in DuPage County, differences between board operations and procedures were noted, as opposed to differences in male and female board members. Of the fifteen boards, seven, or 46.7 percent did not have a formal standing committee structure; rather they had a committee of the whole structure without standing committees. Under this committee of the whole arrangement,

there were occasional ad hoc committees appointed. Although neither men nor women commented extensively about the standing committee structure, two board members -- one male and one female (from two different districts) indicated very strongly that in their judgement, standing committees "ran the district and diluted the power of the superintendent."

Generally, the processes of selecting both committee memberships and chairmanships were similar in all districts. The board president typically appointed board members to committees based on board member interest and expertise and assigned the committee chairmanships as well. Interesting variations between board were noted, however. Some boards had a rotational membership system; one board always put new board members on the policy committee to acquaint them with board policy; some had the entire board collectively decide which committees they wanted and their membership as well; some gave the individual board member total choice of a committee based on interest; and others gave the individual no choice. Despite these variations, none of the board members interviewed wished they had been appointed to a different committee. All seemed satisfied with their appointments.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument appear to indicate a greater involvement of women school board members on education and curriculum committees, policy committees and legislative committees. Male board members were more frequently found on committees dealing with finances and the physical plant. These included budget and finance committees, negotiations, and building and grounds committees.

The same pattern was evident in board chairmanships. Women held the majority of chairmanships on the personnel, education, legislation, and public relations committees, and men held the majority of chairmanships on budget and finance, buildings and grounds, and the negotiations committees.

Trudy Bers found the identical pattern of board committee membership in her study. Women exceeded men in the curriculum and education committees (21.4 percent compared to 19.5 percent); the policy committees (23.7 percent compared to 16.9 percent); and public and community relations committees (19.8 percent compared to 7.8 percent). Men exceeded women in the budget and finance committees (29.9 percent compared to 16.8 percent); the negotiations committee (33.8 percent compared to 19.8 percent); and the buildings and sites committee (26 percent compared to 11.5

percent).³⁸

According to Bers, this orientation toward committee service conforms to the role expectations of the men and women school board members in her study, "with women clustering around policy/community concerns and men clustering around administrative/financial concerns."³⁹

Although the interview data for this study seem to suggest that committee selection was based upon interest and expertise, it would be interesting to examine whether or not board presidents (who are largely male) have a tendency to appoint board members into stereotypic and traditional roles rather than expose board members to a variety of committees. Are male and female board members in finance and curriculum respectively, because they want to be, or does the committee appointment structure perpetuate this apparent membership imbalance? More research needs to be conducted on this issue.

Sub-hypothesis 1.11

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the frequency with which they engaged in several specific school-board related activities.

³⁸Bers, "Local Political Elites," p. 386.

³⁹Ibid.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed the frequency with which male and female school board members engaged in several specific school-board related activities. The question was divided into three general categories of involvement: (1) meetings, discussions, and phone calls; (2) reading; and (3) attending or visiting. Each one of the major categories was sub-divided into several specific activities. The following sub-categories were included under meetings, discussions or phone calls: school board members in own district, district superintendent, other district central office administrators, building principals, school board members in other districts, teachers or teachers' union, parents or parent groups, students or student groups, and state legislators.

The reading category included: materials related to the board, and education-related articles and journals. The attending or visiting category included: school board committee meetings, school-related events, classrooms, teacher institutes or other inservice activities, state school board workshops, division meetings or conventions, and national school board conventions and/or workshops.

Respondents indicated the frequency of their involvement in each of the sub-categories by checking the most appropriate of four frequency categories: weekly, monthly, every 3-4 months, or not at all.

Seventeen separate chi-square analyses were conducted -- one for each of the seventeen sub-categories.

Table 32 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with school board members in their own district.

Table 32

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With School Board Members in Own District

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	62.2	55.0
Monthly	24.4	41.7
Every 3-4 Months	5.6	3.3
Not At All	7.8	0

$\chi^2 = 14.837$; $df = 3$; probability = .0020; significant at $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-hypothesis was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 33 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with the district superintendent.

Table 33

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With District Superintendent

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	65.6	56.7
Monthly	28.9	37.5
Every 3-4 Months	3.3	3.3
Not At All	2.2	2.5

$\chi^2 = 1.817$; $df = 3$; probability = .6113; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-hypothesis was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 34 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with other district central office administrators.

Table 34

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With Central Office Administrators Other Than The
Superintendent

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	25.6	20.0
Monthly	35.6	45.8
Every 3-4 Months	18.9	11.7
Not At All	20.0	22.5

$\chi^2 = 3.988$; $df = 3$; probability = .2628; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated the sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 35 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with building principals.

Table 35

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With Building Principals

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	17.8	6.7
Monthly	37.8	45.0
Every 3-4 Months	30.0	26.7
Not At All	14.4	21.7

$\chi^2 = 7.844$; $df = 3$; probability = .0494; significant at $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated the sub-item was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 36 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with school board members in other districts.

Table 36

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With School Board Members in Other Districts

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	4.4	.8
Monthly	13.3	14.2
Every 3-4 Months	51.1	48.3
Not At All	31.1	36.7

$\chi^2 = 3.386$; $df = 3$; probability = .3359; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 37 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with the teachers or teachers' union.

Table 37

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With Teachers or Teachers' Union

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	15.6	5.8
Monthly	20.0	20.8
Every 3-4 Months	33.3	36.7
Not At All	31.1	36.7

$\chi^2 = 5.504$; $df = 3$; probability = .1384; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 38 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with parents or parent groups.

Table 38

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With Parents or Parent Groups

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	32.3	10.0
Monthly	33.3	30.0
Every 3-4 Months	24.4	44.2
Not At All	10.0	15.8

$\chi^2 = 20.104$; $df = 3$; probability = .0002; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 39 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with students or student groups.

Table 39

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With Students or Student Groups

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	15.6	5.8
Monthly	11.1	12.5
Every 3-4 Months	16.7	29.2
Not At All	56.7	52.5

$\chi^2 = 8.484$; $df = 3$; probability = .0370; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 40 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for meetings, discussions, or phone calls with state legislators.

Table 40

Frequency of Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls
With State Legislators

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	1.1	.8
Monthly	10.0	7.5
Every 3-4 Months	46.7	39.2
Not At All	42.2	52.5

$\chi^2 = 2.229$; $df = 3$; probability = .5263; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 41 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for reading materials relating to the board.

Table 41

Frequency of Reading Material Relating to The Board
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	74.4	76.7
Monthly	24.4	20.8
Every 3-4 Months	0	1.7
Not At All	1.1	.8

$\chi^2 = 1.875$; $df = 3$; probability = .5988; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 42 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for reading education-related articles and journals.

Table 42

Frequency of Reading Education-Related Articles and Journals

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	52.2	51.7
Monthly	43.3	40.8
Every 3-4 Months	3.3	2.5
Not At All	1.1	5.0

$\chi^2 = 2.538$; $df = 3$; probability = .4684; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 43 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for attending school board committee meetings.

Table 43

Frequency of Attending School Board Committee Meetings
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	22.2	26.7
Monthly	51.1	46.7
Every 3-4 Months	8.9	10.8
Not At All	17.8	15.8

$\chi^2 = .931$; $df = 3$; probability = .8181; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 44 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for attending school-related events such as drama, sports, etc.

Table 44
 Frequency of Attending School-Related Events
 (Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	20.0	15.0
Monthly	50.0	45.8
Every 3-4 Months	22.2	34.2
Not At All	7.8	5.0

$\chi^2 = 4.104$; $df = 3$; probability = .2504; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 45 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for visiting classrooms.

Table 45
 Frequency of Visiting Classrooms
 (Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	6.7	0.0
Monthly	18.9	12.5
Every 3-4 Months	44.4	50.0
Not At All	30.0	37.5

$\chi^2 = 10.555$; $df = 3$; probability = .0144; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 46 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for attending teacher institutes or other inservice activities.

Table 46

Frequency of Attending Teacher Institutes
or Other Inservice Activities

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	0.0	0.0
Monthly	4.4	2.5
Every 3-4 Months	31.1	27.5
Not At All	64.4	70.0

$\chi^2 = 1.049$; $df = 3$; probability = .5919; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated the sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 47 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for attending State School Board workshops, division meetings, or conventions.

Table 47

Frequency of Attending State School Board Workshops,
Division Meetings, or Conventions

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	0.0	.8
Monthly	12.2	7.5
Every 3-4 Months	75.6	64.2
Not At All	12.2	27.5

$\chi^2 = 8.649$; $df = 3$; probability = .0343; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 48 indicates the percentages of respondents in each of the frequency categories for attending National School Board conventions and/or workshops.

Table 48

Frequency of Attending National School Board Conventions
or Workshops

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Frequency	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Weekly	0.0	.8
Monthly	1.1	0.0
Every 3-4 Months	21.1	23.3
Not At All	77.8	75.8

$\chi^2 = 2.222$; $df = 3$; probability = .5276; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 49 provides a summary of the frequency with which male and female school board members engaged in seventeen specific board related activities.

Table 49

Summary of Frequency of School Board Member Engagement in School Board Related Activities
(Reported in Percentages of Total Respondents)

SCHOOL BOARD ACTIVITIES

Meetings, Discussions, or Phone Calls With:	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
	Weekly		Monthly		Every 3-4 Mo.		Not At All	
School Board Members In Own District *	62.2	55.0	24.5	41.7	5.6	3.3	7.8	0
District Superintendent	65.6	56.7	28.9	37.5	3.3	3.3	2.2	2.5
Other Central Office Administrators	25.6	20.0	35.6	45.8	18.9	11.7	20.0	22.5
Building Principals *	17.8	6.7	37.8	45.0	30.0	26.7	14.4	21.7
School Board Members In Other Districts	4.4	.8	13.3	14.2	51.1	48.3	31.1	36.7
Teachers or Teacher Union	15.6	5.8	20.0	20.8	33.3	36.7	31.1	36.7
Parents/Parent Groups *	32.2	10.0	33.3	30.0	24.4	44.2	10.0	15.9
Students/Student Groups *	15.6	5.8	11.1	12.5	16.7	29.2	56.7	52.5
State Legislators	1.1	.8	10.0	7.5	46.7	39.2	42.2	52.5
<u>Reading:</u>								
Board Related Materials	74.4	76.7	24.4	20.8	0	1.7	1.1	.8
Education Related Materials	52.2	51.7	43.3	40.8	3.3	2.5	1.1	5.0
<u>Attending:</u>								
School Board Committee Meetings	22.2	26.7	51.1	46.7	8.9	10.8	17.8	15.8
School-Related Events	20.0	15.0	50.0	45.8	22.2	34.2	7.8	5.0
Classrooms *	6.7	0	18.9	12.5	44.4	50.0	30.0	37.5
Teacher Institutes Other Inservice	12.2	7.5	4.4	2.5	31.1	27.5	52.2	62.5
State School Board Meetings	.0	.8	12.2	6.7	75.6	64.2	12.2	28.3
National School Board Meetings	0	.8	1.1	0	21.1	23.3	77.8	75.8

*Significant at or beyond the .05 level of significance

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed (which indicated that eleven of the fourteen items, or 64.7 percent were not statistically significant) there is no significant difference between male and female school board members in the frequency with which they engaged in several specific school board related activities. Sub-hypothesis 1.11 is, therefore, not rejected.

Despite the lack of statistical significance for the entire sub-hypothesis, six, or 33.3 percent of the sub-items were found to be statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level of significance. Women were more frequently involved than men in meetings, discussions, or phone calls with school board members in their own district (62.2 percent had weekly contact as compared to 55 percent of the men), with building principals (17.8 percent had weekly contacts as compared to 6.7 percent of the men), with parents or parent groups (32.2 percent had weekly contacts as compared to 10 percent of the men), and with students or student groups (15.6 percent had weekly contacts as compared to 5.8 percent of the men). Women were also more frequently involved than the male board members in visiting classrooms (6.7 percent had weekly contact as compared to none of the men, and 18.9 percent had monthly contact as compared to 12.5 percent of the men), and in attending State School Board Association Meetings (12.2 percent had monthly involvement as compared to 6.7 percent of the men, and 75.6

percent had involvement every 3-4 months as compared to 64.2 percent of the men). Weekly frequencies were not appreciable since the State organization does not meet weekly.

Although statistical significance was lacking in eleven of the categories, interesting differences were noted. The weekly involvement of women in all categories of school board activity except reading board related materials and attending school board committee meetings and National School Board Conventions, was greater than the weekly involvement of male board members. Further, the composite involvement of male and female board members indicated that men were more frequently not involved in thirteen of the seventeen categories. In addition to the statistically significant categories, women were more frequently involved in weekly discussion with district superintendents, central office administrators, school board members in other districts, teachers, and state legislators. Women were also more frequently involved in the weekly reading of educational related materials and in attending school-related events, and teacher institutes.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were gathered through the interview instrument. The interviews confirmed the findings of the questionnaires and provided valuable insights into the results obtained.

The interview questions in this area focused on two concepts: the degree of visibility board members believed they should have in relation to building and district events, and the specific nature of their involvement in activities in the district. Interesting differences were noted between male and female board members. The vast majority of the women believed that board members should be as "visible as possible" and generally visited classrooms and/or school buildings once a week and sometimes more frequently. (Interestingly, female respondents indicated that the frequency of their involvement in specific activities diminished when they became employed either full or part-time). As a rule, the men indicated that they believed that board members should be visible but not "overly visible," a characteristic that several of the men attributed to female board members. Generally, both groups attended school events with similar frequencies and indicated that the events they attended were usually those in which their own children were involved.

The most notable differences between men and women in terms of visibility were found in classroom visitation. The following comments reflected the feelings of the majority of the women:

- "It's important for board members to know the atmosphere of the school."
- "I believe board members should go to classrooms and institutes just to know what the district is producing."

- "The more visible you are, the more approachable you become and the more rapport you are able to develop individually and collectively."

Several women indicated that prior to school board membership they had served as building volunteers either in classrooms or the learning center. The majority of those who had been volunteers continued in this capacity after they became board members. One did not, however, because she believed her presence as a board member "stifled the teacher's communication." This notion was reflected in the comments of a female board president who said that board members should "show support, but not go to court -- they should be visible but not take center stage."

Typically, male board members indicated they visited classrooms two-three times per year and generally at times scheduled by the superintendent. Women, on the other hand, generally did not schedule visitations since they were usually in the building for another reason and the impromptu visitation occurred as part of another activity. Although most males felt their visitations were enjoyable and profitable, many felt visitations "upset" the schools and was an imposition on the teacher. Women, on the other hand, felt teachers enjoyed the contact with board members.

In terms of meetings and discussions, male and female board members were fairly equal in their discussions with the superintendent, although the women indicated that they initiated more superintendent contact than the men did.

In addition, of the central office personnel available in a district, women talked with the instructional person to a much greater extent than the men did, and the men talked with the business official more frequently than the women did.

Although both male and female board members indicated that they talked with the superintendent about whatever the district issues were at the time, women talked more frequently with the superintendent about curricular and instructional issues and men talked more frequently about finance, legal issues, and negotiations.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument appear to indicate a greater degree of involvement on the part of the female board members in school related activities.

Visibility within the district and individual buildings appeared to be a more important role orientation for women board members than for men. Women more frequently visited classrooms and attended school events, teacher institutes, and state school board meetings. They also had more frequent administrative, board, teacher, parent, student, and legislative contact than did male board members.

From the available data, it appeared that women came to the board with either previous classroom and school building experience (usually as a volunteer, a room-mother, or P.T.A.

president), or a role expectation that board members should visit buildings and classrooms to both show support and to keep informed. Men, on the other hand, seemed not to have this prior exposure to the schools, nor did the majority feel it was a crucial role expectation for a school board member. An important variable in this area is time, and generally women indicated they had more of it, because they were usually unemployed or employed part-time. However, since male board members seemed to have a different concept of their role as it related to visibility, one could speculate that if male board members had more time, they may not use it to visit school or classrooms.

It is also interesting to note that when board members initiated a contact with either the superintendent or a central office administrator, the focus of the conversation was congruent with the pattern of committee memberships and chairmanships. Female board members tended to express a greater interest in curriculum and instruction and male board members tended to express a greater involvement in business and finance.

The findings of this present study are reflected in the findings of the 1974 National School Board Association Study and the Johnson and Crowley Study.

The National School Board Association queried board members on the amount of time they devoted each week to school board duties, which included meetings, reading,

school visitation, etc. The total mean number of hours per week was 11.6 for women (12.6 hours for full-time housewives and 9.7 hours for employed women) and 7.4 hours for men.⁴⁰

In the Johnson and Crowley study, board members indicated the range of their involvement in four levels of activity: (1) board matters; (2) school-related events and meetings; (3) discussions with the public; and (4) discussions with teachers and administrators. As a group, women were more active than men in three of the four areas: hours spent on board matters, discussions with the public, and discussions with teachers and administrators.⁴¹ Unlike the National School Board Study, however, the difference between the involvement of men and women school board members was "accounted for largely by women who do not have paid employment or who work only part-time."⁴²

This is an area that needs to be explored further, since the present study did not differentiate between employed and unemployed women.

Sub-hypothesis 1.12

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in relation to the specific school board responsibilities they most wanted to work with during school board service.

⁴⁰Women on School Boards, p. 33.

⁴¹Johnson and Crowley, p. 25.

⁴²Ibid., p. 8.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed the specific school board responsibilities board members most wanted to work with during their service on the board of education. Thirteen categories of school board responsibilities were presented, and respondents ranked the top four areas they most wanted to work with when they became a school board member. Those responsibilities ranked as a one or a two were considered the responsibilities board members most wanted to work with during school board service. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 50 indicates the distribution of school board responsibilities and the percentages of gender responses within each category.

Table 50

Primary Areas of School Board Responsibilities
School Board Members Wanted to Work With the Most

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Wanted to Work With	Female Responses N=156	Male Responses N=222
Budget/Finance	5.1	25.7
School/Community Relations	19.9	12.6
Board/Superintendent Relations	6.4	6.8
Hiring/Evaluating Superintendent	1.9	2.3
Hiring/Evaluating Administrative and Instructional Staff	2.6	3.2
Curriculum and Instructional Program	28.1	19.8
Extra-Curricular Programs and Student Activities	.6	1.8
Support Services	.0	2.3
Developing Educational Policy and/or Philosophy	14.7	8.1
Contract Negotiations	3.2	9.0
Student Discipline	4.5	.5
Student Achievement	9.0	5.9
Legislation and the Legislative Process	3.9	2.3

$\chi^2 = 50.461$; $df = 12$; probability = .0001; significant
at the $P < .05$ level of significance

The four major areas that women board members most wanted to work with (in descending order) were: (1) the curriculum and instructional program (28.2 percent); (2) school and community relations (19.9 percent), (3) developing educational policy and/or philosophy (14.7 percent); and (4) student achievement (9.0 percent).

The four major areas male board members wanted to work with (in descending order) were: (1) budget and finance (25.7 percent); (2) the curriculum and instructional program (19.8 percent); (3) school and community relations (12.6 percent); and (4) negotiations (9 percent).

A greater percentage of female responses than male responses were found in school and community relations (19.8 percent, compared to 12.6 percent for men); the curriculum and instructional program (28.2 percent, compared to 19.8 percent for men); developing educational policy and philosophy (14.7 percent, compared to 8.1 percent for men); student discipline (4.5 percent, compared to .5 percent for men); student achievement (9 percent, compared to 5.9 percent for men); and legislation and the legislative process (3.9 percent, compared to 2.3 percent for men).

A greater percentage of male responses than female responses were found in budget and finance (25.7 percent compared to 5.1 percent for women); board/superintendent relations (6.8 percent compared to 6.4 percent for women); hiring and evaluating the superintendent (3.5 percent

compared to 2.6 percent for women; extra-curricular programs and student activities (1.8 percent compared to none for women); and negotiations (9.0 percent compared to 3.2 percent for women).

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in relation to the specific school board responsibilities they most wanted to work with during school board service. Sub-hypothesis 1.12 is, therefore, rejected.

Sub-hypothesis 1.13

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in relation to specific school board responsibilities they actually worked with the most during school board service.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the specific school board responsibilities board members actually worked with the most during school board service. Thirteen categories of school board responsibilities were presented, and respondents ranked the top four areas they actually worked with the most during their service on the board. Those responsibilities ranked as a one or a two were considered the responsibilities board members actually worked with the most during school board service. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 51 indicates the distribution of school board responsibilities and the percentages of gender responses within each category.

Table 51

Primary Areas of School Board Responsibility
 School Board Members Actually Worked With the Most
 (Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Actually Worked With	Female Responses N=177	Male Responses N=231
Budget/Finance	14.7	26.8
School/Community Relations	10.2	10.8
Board/Superintendent Relations	6.8	11.3
Hiring/Evaluating Superintendent	9.6	3.0
Hiring/Evaluating Administrative and Instructional Staff	2.3	2.6
Curriculum and Instructional Program	10.7	10.4
Extra-Curricular Programs and Student Activities	1.7	2.2
Support Services	5.7	5.6
Developing Educational Policy and Philosophy	11.3	7.8
Contract Negotiations	7.9	9.1
Student Discipline	0	.4
Student Achievement	0	1.3
Legislation and the Legislative Process	19.2	8.7

$\chi^2 = 29.570$; $df = 12$; probability = .0032; significant
 at the $P < .05$ level of significance

The four major areas that women board members actually worked with the most (in descending order) were: (1) legislation (19.2 percent compared to 8.7 percent for men); (2) budget and finance (14.7 percent compared to 26.8 percent for men); (3) developing educational policy and philosophy (11.3 percent compared to 7.8 percent for men); and (4) the curriculum and instructional program (10.7 percent compared to 10.4 percent for men).

The four major areas that male board members actually worked with the most (in descending order) were: (1) budget and finance (26.8 percent compared to 14.7 percent for women); (2) board/superintendent relations (11.3 percent compared to 6.8 percent for women); (3) school community relations (10.8 percent compared to 10.2 percent for women); and (4) curriculum and the instructional program (10.4 percent compared to 10.7 percent for women).

A greater percentage of female responses than male responses were found in hiring and evaluating the superintendent (9.6 percent compared to 3 percent for men); developing educational policy and philosophy (11.3 percent compared to 7.8 percent for men), and legislation (19.2 percent compared to 8.7 percent for men).

A greater percentage of male responses than female responses were found in: budget and finance (26.8 percent compared to 11.7 percent), board/superintendent relations (11.3 percent compared to 6.8 percent), and negotiations

(9.1 percent compared to 7.9 percent for women).

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in relation to the specific school board responsibilities they actually worked with the most during school board service. Sub-hypothesis 1.13 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were derived from the interview instrument. Board members were asked to discuss the two major school board responsibilities they most wanted to work with when they became a school board member and to contrast these two areas with the responsibilities they actually found themselves working with the most. If a discrepancy existed between the areas they wanted to work with and the areas they actually worked with, they were asked to account for the discrepancy.

The interview results largely supported the results reported in the questionnaire. The four major areas women board members in the interview sample most wanted to work with (in descending order) were: (1) curriculum and instructional program, (2) school community relations, (3) legislation, and (4) superintendent evaluation. (The ranking of the latter two areas differed from the questionnaire respondents.) Curriculum and instructional programs remained the top priority for female board member

respondents. The four major areas male board members in the interview sample most wanted to work with (in descending order) were: (1) budget and finance, (2) school community relations, (3) board/superintendent relations, and (4) curriculum. Budget and finance remained the top priority of male board member respondents, although the interview sample differed in their ranking of some responsibility areas.

Differences were also noted in the areas board members actually worked with the most, although they did not appear as diverse as the previous category. Female board members found themselves working the most in budget and finance, superintendent evaluation, hiring and evaluating the superintendent, developing educational policy and philosophy, and legislation. Male board members found themselves working the most with the curriculum and instructional program, budget and finance, hiring and evaluating the superintendent, and developing educational policy and philosophy.

Women respondents noted more discrepancies between what they wanted to do and what they were actually doing. Nine, or 68 percent of the female respondents indicated discrepancies. Four, or one-third of the male respondents indicated discrepancies between what they wanted to do and what they were actually doing.

Several women commented that they were disappointed in their present role involvement. One woman who wanted to

work in curriculum and instruction and found herself working in budget and finance said, "It seemed like the opposite of what I really wanted to do!!"

Another stated,

It's a business you are involved in... You have to know something about business ... although the administration develops the curriculum and the board isn't a part of the planning, it's due to absolute necessity that finances become top priority.

This apparent feeling of resignation is not shared by all the women. One woman indicated, "I do more pushing... I hope I don't develop such a friendship with [the superintendent] that I stop demanding [a system of accountability]."

Although fewer discrepancies were noted by male respondents, two male board members indicated a sense of disappointment that the emphasis of the board's activities was in the direction of budget and finance.

The following comments by one male board member reflected this concern:

I keep asking, 'Should we get involved in achievement and curriculum?' I have a nagging feeling that we spend more time and money on buildings and that while we shouldn't be making more textbook selections, we should get more involved in just what and how our children are learning.

Another male board member stated:

Board members tend to feel the most comfortable in finance and facilities because they deal with that. Numbers are easy; but still I think somehow we should get away from numbers.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

An analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data seems to indicate that male and female board members differed both in the areas of school board responsibility they wanted to work with when they became a board member and in the areas they found themselves actually working with after they became a school board member.

Female board members wanted to become involved in the curriculum and instructional program, school community relations, student achievement, and developing educational policy and philosophy. (During the interview, two women indicated that they had taken the board policy manual home and over the course of several months, rewrote it themselves -- with assistance from the Illinois Association of School Boards.)

Male board members on the other hand, wanted to work with finance and the budget process, curriculum and instruction, school community relations, and negotiations.

Differences also existed between male and female board members in the responsibilities with which they actually worked.

Female board members indicated they they worked the most with legislation. Male board members indicated that they worked the most with budget and finance. The data indicate more instances of discrepancy for women board members between what they wanted to do and what they found

themselves actually doing.

During the interviews, the female board members also indicated more instances of discrepancies between what they wanted to do when they became a board member and what they actually did.

It is noteworthy that the areas in which male and female board members wanted to work reflect their board committee assignments. Female board members were most typically on the educational committee, policy, and/or legislation committees, and male board members were most typically on the budget, negotiations, and buildings and grounds committees.

In addition, since a significant percentage of women were not employed (44.4 percent), time was available to visit classrooms, talk with principals and teachers, and to become integrally involved in the instructional program.

Further, of those women employed, 27.1 percent were classroom teachers.

Men, conversely, were generally employed in business occupations and transferred their business interests to the board of education.

In synthesizing this data, it appeared that there was a greater degree of contentment on the part of male school board members towards their role as a board member and the nature of their school board involvement than there was on the part of female school board members. (This may be due

to the fact that there was less discrepancy for male board members between what they wanted to do and what they are actually doing on the school board.) This apparent lack of contentment appears to have resulted in the female board member assuming a more assertive role on the board and working diligently toward bringing the concerns she wanted to deal with as a board member into the forefront of board activity.

Although there were no available studies that directly paralleled this inquiry, Blanchard's study of new school board members provides some supportive data.

In Blanchard's study, new board members indicated the areas of school board responsibility they expected to work with when they got on the board and the areas they actually found themselves working on. According to Blanchard's study, board members (male and female) expected to deal with curricular decisions, school expenditures, hiring teachers and school tasks. Once in office, however, they actually dealt with collective bargaining, school expenditures, and new school buildings.⁴³

These findings and the findings of the present study add some supportive data to Norman Kerr's assertion that "school board members are socialized by the school administration to become less involved in decisions relating

⁴³Blanchard, New School Board Members: A Portrait, p. 5.

to the curriculum and the instructional program and more involved in decisions relating to finance and buildings."⁴⁴

Sub-hypothesis 1.14

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their membership in an informal network of board members from other school districts.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed the concept of informal networks. Respondents were asked to circle "yes" or "no" in response to an inquiry about whether or not they considered themselves part of an informal network of board members from other school districts who consulted each other on matters of mutual concern.

A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 52 indicates the percentages of male and female involvement in informal networks.

⁴⁴Ibid.

Table 52

Membership in an Informal Network of School Board Members
From Other School Districts

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Informal Network Membership	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Member of Informal Network	37.8	23.3
Not a Member of Informal Network	62.2	76.7

$\chi^2 = 5.157$; $df = 1$; probability = .0232; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

Although the majority of male (76.7 percent) and female (62.2 percent) board members did not consider themselves to be members of an informal board member network, a larger percentage of women (37.8 percent compared to 25.3 percent of the men) considered themselves members of an informal network of board members.

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in their involvement in an informal network of board members from other school districts. Sub-hypothesis 1.14 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were derived from the interview instrument. Interview respondents were asked whether or not they considered themselves part of an informal network of

board members from other districts who discussed items of mutual concern. They were also asked to describe the membership and purposes of the network.

The information derived from the interview supported the quantitative data. Eight, or 53.3 percent of the female respondents indicated that they belonged to an informal board member network. Two, or 13.3 percent of the men interviewed indicated that they belonged to an informal network of board members.

The women who did not consider themselves informal network members indicated tht they occasionally talked with board members (almost exclusively female) from other school districts, but that this generally happened by chance, such as at the supermarket, the church, or I.A.S.B. functions. Others felt they belonged to formal networks which were primarily county or inter-district legislative networks. Several female members of elementary boards indicated that their boards would meet periodically with the associate high school boards to exchange information. This was regarded by the women respondents as a more formalized network initiated largely by the adminstration and not the board members of the respective districts.

The women respondents who considered themselves members of an informal network revealed several interesting concepts:

1. The DuPage County P.T.A. Council, an almost exclusively female organization composed of the presidents, directors, and committee chairpersons from all the individual P.T.A.'s in the County, meets regularly and usually in members' homes. The organization functions as a county network for the P.T.A. hierarchy and has become, in the words of one woman board member (and P.T.A. president), "an informal female school board member network that serves an informational rather than a support function." Through monthly contact with female P.T.A. leaders many of whom are board members in their respective districts, women board members became acquainted with other female board members.

2. Information gleaned through an informal board network was not always shared with board members in their respective districts. Some women indicated that they did discuss the information they gathered from other districts with their boards; however, several indicated that they considered the network a personal resource and information gathering source and therefore, used the information strictly in their own decision-making.

3. In addition to the P.T.A. Council serving as an informal female board member network, the League of Women Voters and, to a lesser extent, the A.A.U.W. served the same purpose. Members of the League were very often board members, and League meetings provided a natural forum for the informal discussion of school board matters.

4. Acquaintances made as a result of P.T.A. and League involvement often developed into close personal friendships which tended to have a rippling effect. Board members began to "invite" the friends of their friends to meet informally. One such group of female board members from other school districts meets informally for breakfast once a week in a local restaurant. Although the intent is strictly collegial friendships, board matters are frequently discussed.

5. Past female board members from within a given district often become a resource for the women school board members presently on the board. One woman indicated that she still "counsels" with past women board members and uses them as a sounding board and an information resource.

6. An informal leadership hierarchy appeared to exist within this informal network. The names of five women were repeatedly mentioned by the majority of the female respondents interviewed as being extremely helpful and useful sources of information.

7. The frequent attendance of women at I.A.S.B. (Illinois Association of School Board) functions has facilitated the development of an informal board network. Several women indicated that they would regularly schedule meetings with specific women board members from other school districts at the I.S.A.B. functions.

8. The active involvement of women in legislation within their own districts and in the County legislative

network has facilitated the development of informal networks among female board members.

9. The issues generally discussed within these informal networks were the curriculum and instructional program, superintendent evaluation, and policy development.

The responses of the men to this inquiry were vastly different. Two men felt they were members of an informal network of board members from other districts whom they consulted about legislation, finance, and certified salaries. The remainder of the male respondents did not feel they were members of an informal network or that one really existed. Two members expressly stated that they "had no use for board members in other districts." This concept was not stated by the majority of the male board members.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

An analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data indicated a greater degree of involvement on the part of female school board members in an informal network of board members from other school districts. Although two women stressed the personal and emotionally supportive nature of the network, six stated that the network served mainly an informational purpose in acting as a resource.

Caution should be used in analyzing this item. Due to the fact that informal network was not defined, the concept was subject to interpretation. It is possible that the results of the question would have been different had there

been a common definition and concept reference. Further, the proliferation of literature on women's networks and networking may have sensitized women to the concept of a network more than their male counterparts. Their greater awareness of the networking concept may have led the women to respond affirmatively to this question.

Despite these two important cautions, women board members do appear to have developed a series of significant informational ties that not only prevade several of the organizations of which they are members -- such as the P.T.A. and the League -- but seem also to have very subtle but far-reaching implications for their own boards of education. Not only do the P.T.A. and the League seem to be socializing agencies for women board members for their role on the school board, but the apparent emergence of an informal network composed almost exclusively of women, may have socializing influences as well.

Sub-hypothesis 1.15

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the categories of individuals from whom they received the most helpful information in several specific areas of school board responsibility.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the categories of individuals from whom board members received the most helpful information in specific areas of school board

responsibility. Fourteen areas of school board responsibilities were listed, and respondents indicated which one of the four categories of individuals was the most helpful source of information for each responsibility category.

The four sources of information included: (1) former and present board members in my district; (2) former and present board members in other districts; (3) superintendent in my district; (4) school personnel other than the superintendent; and a category in which a response could be recorded.

Fourteen separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the fourteen school board responsibility areas, in order to determine the most helpful source of school board information for each area.

Table 53 identifies the most helpful sources of information for School Board Procedures.

Table 53

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on School Board Procedures

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	32.2	30.8
Board Members in Other Districts	2.2	.8
Superintendent	46.7	49.2
Other School Personnel	3.3	.8
Other	6.7	13.3
No Information Received	8.9	5.0

$\chi^2 = 5.829$; $df = 5$; probability = .3232; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 54 indicates the most helpful sources of information for the Role of a School Board Member.

Table 54

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on the Role of a School Board Member

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	36.7	46.7
Board Members in Other Districts	5.6	6.7
Superintendent	25.6	14.2
Other School Personnel	2.2	0.
Other	23.2	27.5
No Information Received	6.7	5.0

$\chi^2 = 8.082$; $df = 5$; probability = .1518; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 55 indicates the most helpful sources of information for the District's Written Policies and Procedures.

Table 55

Most Helpful Sources for Information
On the District's Written Policies and Procedures
(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	8.9	11.7
Board Members in Other Districts	1.1	.8
Superintendent	58.9	64.2
Other School Personnel	8.9	3.3
Other	13.3	15.0
No Information Received	8.9	5.0

$\chi^2 = 4.696$; $df = 5$; probability = .4541; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 56 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Board/Superintendent Relations.

Table 56

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on Board/Superintendent Relations

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	46.7	53.3
Board Members in Other Districts	6.7	3.3
Superintendent	20.0	24.2
Other School Personnel	2.2	0
Other	12.2	13.3
No Information Received	12.2	5.8

$\chi^2 = 7.217$; $df = 5$; probability = .2050; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not found significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 57 indicates the most helpful sources of information for School Finance and the Budget Process.

Table 57

Most Helpful Sources for Information
On School Finance and Budget Process

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	5.6	9.2
Board Members in Other Districts	2.2	.8
Superintendent	40.0	45.8
Other School Personnel	35.6	39.2
Other	6.7	1.7
No Information Received	10.0	3.3

$\chi^2 = 9.224$; $df = 5$; probability = .1005; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not found significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 58 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Current Issues and Trends in Curriculum and Instruction.

Table 58

Most Helpful Sources for Information
On Current Issues and Trends in Curriculum and Instruction
(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	2.2	1.7
Board Members in Other Districts	0	.8
Superintendent	36.7	51.7
Other School Personnel	31.1	31.7
Other	16.7	10.0
No Information Received	13.3	4.2

$\chi^2 = 10.512$; $df = 5$; probability = .0620; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 59 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Curriculum and Instructional Program Development.

Table 59

Most Helpful Sources for Information
On Curriculum and Instructional Program Development
(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	2.2	1.7
Board Members in Other Districts	1.1	0
Superintendent	36.7	46.7
Other School Personnel	45.6	43.3
Other	3.3	3.3
No Information Received	11.1	5.0

$\chi^2 = 5.208$; $df = 5$; probability = .3910; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 60 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Programs to Meet the Needs of Special Students.

Table 60

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on Special Programs

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	3.3	1.7
Board Members in Other Districts	0	.8
Superintendent	34.4	50.8
Other School Personnel	47.8	41.7
Other	4.4	2.5
No Information Received	10.0	2.5

$\chi^2 = 10.583$; $df = 5$; probability = .0603; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 61 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Hiring and Evaluating the Superintendent.

Table 61

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on Hiring and Evaluating the Superintendent

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	62.2	55.8
Board Members in Other Districts	6.7	3.3
Superintendent	3.3	10.0
Other School Personnel	0	1.7
Other	15.6	22.5
No Information Received	12.2	6.7

$\chi^2 = 9.283$; $df = 5$; probability = .0983; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 62 indicates the most helpful sources of information on Hiring and Evaluating Administrative and Instructional Staff.

Table 62

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on Hiring and Evaluating Administrative
and Instructional Staff

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	17.8	16.7
Board Members in Other Districts	2.2	.8
Superintendent	62.2	66.7
Other School Personnel	4.4	4.2
Other	4.4	5.0
No Information Received	8.9	6.7

$\chi^2 = 1.264$; $df = 5$; probability = .9386; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 63 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Support Services.

Table 63

Most Helpful Sources for Information on Support Services
(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	5.6	7.5
Board Members in Other Districts	1.1	0
Superintendent	38.9	45.0
Other School Personnel	44.4	40.8
Other	2.2	3.3
No Information Received	7.8	3.3

$\chi^2 = 4.398$; $df = 5$; probability = .4936; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 64 indicates the most helpful sources of information for School/Community Relations Programs.

Table 64

Most Helpful Sources for Information on
School and Community Relations Programs

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	21.1	31.7
Board Members in Other Districts	6.7	1.7
Superintendent	41.1	41.7
Other School Personnel	8.9	8.3
Other	10.0	8.3
No Information Received	12.2	8.3

$\chi^2 = 6.444$; $df = 5$; probability = .2654; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 65 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Contract Negotiations.

Table 65

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on Contract Negotiations

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	18.9	28.3
Board Members in Other Districts	2.2	0
Superintendent	34.4	32.5
Other School Personnel	6.7	11.7
Other	14.4	14.2
No Information Received	23.3	13.3

$\chi^2 = 8.886$; $df = 5$; probability = .1137; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 66 indicates the most helpful sources of information for Current Legislative Issues and the Legislative Process.

Table 66

Most Helpful Sources for Information
on Legislative Issues and the Legislative Process

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Most Helpful Information Source	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Board Members in Own District	12.2	20.8
Board Members in Other Districts	6.7	2.5
Superintendent	41.1	49.2
Other School Personnel	5.6	2.5
Other	24.4	21.7
No Information Received	10.0	3.3

$\chi^2 = 10.164$; $df = 5$; probability = .0707; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 67 provides a summary of the informational source categories that male and female board members found to be the most helpful within fourteen specific areas of school board responsibility.

Table 67

Summary of the Most Helpful Sources of Information
For Fourteen Areas of School Board Responsibility

(Reported in Percentage of Total Gender Respondents)

School Board Responsibilities	Board Members In Own District		Board Members In Other District		Superintendent		Other School Personnel		Other	
	Female N=90	Male N=120	Female N=90	Male N=120	Female N=90	Male N=120	Female N=90	Male N=120	Female N=90	Male N=120
School Board Procedures	32.2	30.8	2.2	.8	46.7	49.2	3.3	.8	6.7	13.3
Role of a School Board Members	36.7	46.7	5.6	6.7	25.6	14.2	2.2	0	23.3	27.5
District's Policy & Procedures	8.9	11.7	1.1	.8	58.9	64.2	8.9	3.3	13.3	15.0
Board/Superintendent Relations	46.7	53.3	6.7	3.3	20.0	24.2	2.2	0	12.2	13.3
Finance & Budget Process	5.6	9.2	2.2	.8	40.0	45.8	35.6	39.2	6.7	1.7
Issues & Trends in Curriculum	2.2	1.7	0	.8	36.7	51.7	31.1	31.7	16.7	10.0
Curriculum & Instruction Program	2.2	1.7	1.1	0	36.7	46.7	45.6	43.3	3.3	3.3
Special Programs	3.3	1.7	0	.8	34.4	50.8	47.8	41.7	4.4	2.5
Hiring/Evaluating Superintendent	62.2	55.8	6.7	3.3	3.3	10.0	0	1.7	15.6	22.5
Hiring/Evaluating Administrators and Instructional Staff	17.8	16.7	2.2	.8	62.2	66.7	4.4	4.2	4.4	5.0
Support Services	5.6	7.5	1.1	0	38.9	45.0	44.4	40.8	2.2	3.3
School/Community Relations	21.1	31.7	6.7	1.7	41.1	41.7	8.9	8.3	10.0	8.3
Contract Negotiations	18.9	28.3	2.2	0	34.4	32.5	6.7	11.7	14.4	14.2
Legislative Issues	12.2	20.8	6.7	2.5	41.1	49.2	5.6	2.5	24.4	21.7

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed (statistical significance was not found in any of the fourteen responsibility areas), there is no significant difference between male and female board members in the categories of individuals from whom they received the most helpful information in several areas of school board responsibilities. Sub-hypothesis 1.15 is therefore, not rejected.

Despite the lack of statistical significance for the entire sub-hypothesis, some interesting patterns emerged in relation to the most helpful source of information for specific school board responsibilities.

1. In the area of School Board Procedures, the superintendent was reported to be the most helpful information source by the highest single percentage of male (49.2 percent) and female (46.7 percent) board members.

2. In the area of the Role of a School Board Member, board members in their own district were reported to be the most helpful information source by the highest single percentage of male (46.7 percent) and female (36.7 percent) board members.

3. In the area of the District's Written Policies and Procedures, the superintendent was reported to be the most helpful information source by the majority of male (64.2 percent) and female (58.9 percent) board members.

4. In the area of Board/Superintendent Relations, board members in their own district were reported to be the most helpful information source by the highest single percentage of both male (53.3 percent) and female (46.7 percent) board members.

5. In the area of School Finance and the Budget Process, the superintendent was reported to be the most helpful information source by the highest single percentage of both male (45.8 percent) and female (40 percent) board members.

6. In the area of Issues and Trends in the Curriculum, the superintendent was reported to be the most helpful information source by the highest single percentage of both male (51.7 percent) and female (36.7 percent) board members.

7. In the area of Curriculum and Instructional Program Development, male and female board members differed. Of the male board members, 46.7 percent indicated that the superintendent was the most helpful information source; of the female board members, 45.6 percent indicated that school personnel other than the superintendent were the most helpful sources of information.

8. In the area of Programs to Meet the Needs of Special Students, male and female board members again differed on whom they considered the most helpful source of information. Of the male board members, 50.8 percent indicated that the superintendent was the most helpful

information source; of the female board members, 47.8 percent indicated that school personnel other than the superintendent were the most helpful information source.

9. In the area of Hiring and Evaluating the Superintendent, board members in their own district were reported as the most helpful information source by the majority of both male (55.8 percent) and female (62.2 percent) board members.

10. In the area of Hiring and Evaluating Administrative and Instructional Staff, the superintendent was reported as the most helpful source of information by the majority of both male (66.7 percent) and female (62.2 percent) board members.

11. In the area of Support Services, male and female board members differed in the category of individuals from whom they received the most helpful information. Of the male board members 45 percent indicated that the superintendent was the most helpful information source. Of the female board members, 44.4 percent indicated that school personnel other than the superintendent were the most helpful information sources.

12. In the area of School/Community Relations Programs, the superintendent was reported as the most helpful source of information by the highest single percentage of male (41.7 percent) and female (41.7 percent) board members.

13. In the area of Contract Negotiations, the superintendent was reported as the most helpful information source by the highest single percentage of male (32.5 percent) and female (34.4 percent) board members.

14. In the area of Current Legislative Issues and the Legislative Process, the superintendent was reported to be the most helpful source of information by the highest percentage of male (49.2 percent) and female (41.1 percent) board members.

In summary, the superintendent was reported to be the most helpful source of information by the highest single percentage of both male and female board members in eight areas of school board responsibility. These included: School Board Procedures, District Policy and Procedures, Finance and Budget Process, Issues and Trends in the Curriculum, Hiring and Evaluating Administrators and the Instructional Staff, School Community Relations, Contract Negotiations, and Legislative Issues.

School board members in their own district were reported to be the most helpful source of information by the highest single percentage of both male and female board members in three areas of school board responsibility. These included: the Role of a School Board Member, Board/Superintendent Relations, and Hiring and Evaluating the Superintendent.

Male and female board members differed in the sources of information they believed were the most helpful in three areas of school board responsibility: Curriculum and Instructional Program Development, Programs to Meet the Needs of Special Students, and Support Services. In all of these areas, the highest single percentage of women selected school personnel other than the superintendent as the most helpful source of information, while male board members selected the superintendent as the most helpful source.

In two responsibility areas, the Role of a School Board Member and Current Legislative Issues, approximately one-fourth of both male and female board members selected the category described as "other." When the category was analyzed, the I.A.S.B. was reported as the most helpful source of information.

The analysis of the quantitative data points to the superintendent as the most helpful source of information for school board members in most areas of school board responsibilities.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were derived from the interview instrument. The responses of the interview sample reinforced the findings of the questionnaire.

Male and female board members were very similar in relation to this item. Both indicated that the superintendent and board members within their own district

were the most helpful sources of information for the majority of the areas of school board responsibility, although comments from the female board members suggested a greater reliance on school board members for information. The reverse seemed to be true for male board members who relied more heavily on the superintendent for information.

Both male and female board members indicated that they received the most helpful information about the role of a school board member from fellow board members and not the superintendent, which supported the findings of the questionnaire.

Women board members also tended to consult the district's curriculum administrator on curriculum issues and men more frequently consulted the business manager on business matters.

The I.A.S.B. was also mentioned as an important source of information by three men and two women board members.

The tone of the responses from three board members (one male and two female) indicated a degree of antagonism toward the superintendent. This apparent lack of trust (evident in the comments of one female board member) was shared by all three board members.

I learned the role of a board member from experience. The superintendent had an orientation session, but I didn't go because I felt he would try to give me his position, and I really didn't want to be influenced or feel obligated to him. Superintendents don't take board members seriously; they see a board member as an albatross... Superintendents know how to manipulate board members....

Although this hint of antagonism was visible, it in no way characterized the responses of the vast majority of male and female board members who were in generally close agreement on the helpfulness of the superintendent and their board members in providing information on areas of school board responsibility.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The data derived from the questionnaire and the interview seem to indicate strong consensus on the part of both male and female board members. For both groups, the two most helpful sources of information in the areas of school board responsibility were the superintendent and board members within their own districts.

Of the fourteen categories of school board responsibility, men and women board members differed in their responses in three categories: Curriculum and Instructional Program Development, Special Programs, and Support Services. Within these categories, women chose school personnel other than the superintendent as the most helpful information source and men chose the superintendent. This finding appears compatible with the data derived from other phases of this study. As a group, women board members tended to spend more time in the district talking with teachers, administrators, and building principals about the instructional program. It is, therefore, logical that they would tend to consult other school personnel, which included

not only central office staff, but building principals as well, about the curriculum and specialized programs.

It is also interesting to note that, although the highest single percentage of women board members selected either the superintendent or other board members as the most helpful information source for the majority of school board responsibilities, the percentage of women selecting the superintendent was less than the percentage of men selecting the superintendent in twelve of the fourteen areas. This may suggest a smaller reliance on the superintendent as an information source on the part of women board members than male board members.

Blanchard's study on new school board members supported the findings of this present study. Although Blanchard's study did not report separate findings for male and female board members, his study indicated that:

The people upon whom (new board members) rely most heavily [for information] are in their own districts -- usually experienced board members or the superintendent.⁴⁵

Sub-hypothesis 1.16

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the groups that have the most influence on their decision-making as a school board member.

⁴⁵Blanchard, New School Board Members: A Portrait, p. 14.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the groups that most influenced school board members in their decision-making. Twelve categories of groups were enumerated, and respondents ranked the four most influential groups in a priority ranking. Groups ranked one or two were designated as those most influential to board member decision-making. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 68 indicates the percentage distribution of board member responses across all twelve categories of groups.

Table 68

Primary Groups that Most Influence
School Board Member Decision-Making

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Responses)

Primary Groups	Female Responses N=164	Male Responses N=212
School District Administration	43.9	41.0
School Board Members in Own District	36.6	37.7
School Board Members in Other Districts	0.0	0.0
Teachers' Association	0.0	.9
Board Appointed Advisory Groups	6.7	5.2
Family Members	2.4	3.7
Friends and Neighbors	4.3	6.1
Student Groups	.6	0.0
Organizations Affiliated with the District	1.8	3.8
Community Caucus Groups	1.2	.9
State School Board Association	1.8	0.0
Local Political Party	.6	.5

$\chi^2 = 9.709$; $df = 10$; probability = .4664; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

Interestingly, male and female board members responded similarly to this question. In both groups, the school district administration was the most influential in terms of board member decision-making. Of the female responses, 43.9 percent selected the school district administration as compared to 41 percent of the male responses. The second most influential group for both men and women school board members was school board members in their own district. Of the female responses, 36.6 percent indicated school board members as compared to 37.7 percent of the male responses. Men and women board members differed in the groups that received the third highest single percentage. For women board members, board appointed advisory groups received the third highest single percentage (6.7 percent) while for male board members, friends received the third highest single percentage (6.1 percent).

Based upon the quantitative data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the groups that had the most influence on their decision-making as a school board member. Sub-hypothesis 1.16 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were derived from the interview instrument. Responses to the interview confirmed the questionnaire findings that both male and female board members were most influenced in their decision-making by the

school district administration and board members within their own district. However, within the interview sample, male and female board members differed in the priority given to the superintendent. Of the male respondents, nine, or 60 percent, indicated that they were most influenced in their decision-making by the opinions or recommendations of the superintendent. Two, or 13.3 percent, indicated priority reliance on school board members and four, or 26.7 percent, reported friends and family members were of primary importance.

Of the female respondents, three, or 20 percent, indicated primary reliance on the superintendent; three, or 20 percent, indicated primary reliance on their own research and their own opinion; four, or 26.7 percent, considered the responses of organizations affiliated with the district; and five, or 33.3 percent, indicated primary reliance on the opinions of school board members within their districts.

Although both male and female school board members were influenced by the school district and their fellow board members, the female interview respondents seemed to indicate greater diversity in the groups that most influenced their decision-making.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The data derived from the questionnaire and the interview seemed to indicate that male and female school board members differ in degree rather than in kind with

respect to the groups that have the most influence on their decision-making as school board members.

For both groups, the school district administration was the group of primary influence and school board members in their own district was the group exerting a secondary influence on decision-making.

With respect to other influential groups, female board members placed more emphasis on the recommendation of board advisory groups and male respondents relied more on family and friends. This supports an earlier finding that male board members were more encouraged by their families to seek school board membership than were female board members.

Sub-hypothesis 1.17

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in how they view the functions of the Board of Education.

Quantitative Data

One item in the questionnaire addressed the view board members had of the function of the board of education. Respondents were given narrative descriptions of two diverse patterns of school board functioning. One pattern indicated that the school board should be like a Legislature, the other indicated that the school board should be like a Corporation Board of Trustees. Respondents selected the role description that most closely reflected their point of view. A chi-square analysis indicated that this item was

not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 69 indicates the percentages of respondents who selected each of the two categories of school board functions.

Table 69

School Board Member's View of the Role of the School Board
as a Legislature or Corporation Board of Trustees

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Role of the School Board	Female Respondents N=89	Male Respondents N=119
Legislature	39.3	32.8
Corporation Board of Trustees	60.7	66.2

$\chi^2 = .954$; $df = 1$; probability = .3287; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

Although the majority of both male (66.2 percent) and female (60.7 percent) board members selected the Corporation Board of Trustees as the role that most clearly reflected their view of the school board's function, it is interesting to note that a greater percent of female board members (39.3 percent) than male members (32.8 percent) selected the Legislature alternative.

Based upon the quantitative data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in how they view the functions of the Board of Education. Sub-hypothesis 1.17 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data was derived from the interview instrument. Although most of the interview respondents said their view of the school board member's role was somewhere between the Legislature and Corporation Board position, when forced to choose, the majority of male (11, or 73.3 percent) and female (10, or 67.3 percent) respondents selected the Corporation Board of Trustees as the description that most closely reflected their point of view regarding the function and role of the board of education. Again, a greater proportion of female board members (33.3 percent) than male board members (26.7 percent) selected the Legislature alternative.

Male and female board members responded very similarly when asked to explain their choices. Respondents who selected the Corporation Board Description stressed their agreement with the general goal setting thrust of the description. They believed it was the primary function of the board to set policy and not "run the district," "administer the district's day-to-day operation," or "watch programs."

Male and female respondents who selected the Legislature description stressed the need for open debate and discussion of policy and procedures, and emphasized the democratic orientation of a school board as opposed to a corporation board which they perceived to have "vested

interests" and a "closed corporate image."

Interestingly, four of the women and four of the men who selected the Corporation Board alternative did so because they strongly objected to the phrase in the Legislature description that stated, "each representative acts as a representative or ombudsman for a constituency." All eight board members indicated that, had this last phrase been eliminated from the description, they would have selected the Legislature alternative because they agreed with the democratic orientation of open debate. The comments of one women board member seemed representative of the other board members.

I liked the open debate part of the Legislature description. I liked setting policy, but I did not like the last sentence. I feel strongly about reactive individuals. The board represents all constituencies -- we are ombudsman for all.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The questionnaire and interview data seem to support the idea that the majority of male and female board members believed the function and role of the school board is to act like a Corporation Board of Trustees. They supported the ideas that boards should set general goals, periodically review the progress of the school system, and act as a team in support of the institution. As a group, more female board members selected the Legislature alternative than did male board members; however, the difference was not statistically significant. More than one fourth of the

board members interviewed clearly stated an objection to the concept of board members serving as ombudsmen for individual constituencies. The concept of team work stated in the Corporation Board alternative apparently had strong endorsement from board members. It is possible that the responses to this question were in part negatively influenced by the ombudsman statement. The elimination of that statement may have resulted in a larger percentage of male and female board members selecting the Legislature alternative.

This possible "contamination" of the question by a statement that produced negative reactions may have yielded results that did not accurately reflect board members' views of the function of the Board of Education.

In his national study on new school board members conducted in 1978, Paul Blanchard asked new board members two questions that related to individual board member role orientation and perception of the school board's role. The first question asked board members to select which one of two basic orientations to representation they most subscribed to. The orientations were the "delegate" or the "trustee" role. The delegate role was described as doing what the public want him to do, and disregarding his own personal preference; the trustee role was described as voting his own convictions, regardless of what the public

wants him to do.⁴⁶ The results of this study indicated that an "overwhelming majority selected the trustee alternative,"⁴⁷ indicating a preference for reliance on personal judgement rather than on wishes of the constituency.

The second question Blanchard posed was used in the present study. Board members were asked whether a school board is more like a Legislature or a Corporation Board of Trustees. According to Blanchard, the even distribution of responses to this question indicated much less consensus than the delegate-trustee choices. Although a majority of board members (56 percent) favored the Corporation Board alternative, a relatively substantial number selected the Legislature option. Blanchard concluded:

Responses to this question suggest a greater willingness by board members to consider the political dimension of their role and its representational obligation than typical responses to a delegate -- trustee question would indicate.⁴⁸

Applying Blanchard's interpretation of the responses to this question to the present study, would lead to the tentative conclusion that female board members seem more conscious of the political dimension of the school board's role than male board members, since a greater percentage of

⁴⁶Ibid., pp. 17-18.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 18.

⁴⁸ibid.

women (39.3 percent) than men (32.8 percent) selected this alternative.

This conclusion is supported by earlier research conducted by Blanchard in which he found that women were slightly more likely to select the Legislative role for school boards. This, he believed, indicated "their preference for a more "activist" school board member role..."⁴⁹ The greater involvement of women board members in Legislation and Legislative process would tend to lend credence to this conclusion.

Sub-hypothesis 1.18

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in how they view the voting behaviors of their board on issues of importance.

Quantitative Data

One item on the questionnaire addressed the issue of school board voting behaviors. Four patterns of voting behavior were listed, and respondents circled the voting pattern that most generally described how their board voted on issues of importance. The four voting patterns were: (1) unanimously, because the board members agree; (2) unanimously, despite disagreement among board members; (3) a split vote, because of specific beliefs about an issue; and (4) a split vote, because of consistent long-run disagreements on the board. A chi-square analysis indicated

⁴⁹Blanchard, "Women in Public Education," p. 66.

that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 70 indicates the percentage distribution of male and female respondents within each of the four voting patterns.

Table 70

School Board Member Views of the Voting Behavior
of their Respective School Boards

(Reported in Percentages of Total Gender Respondents)

Views of School Board Voting Behavior	Female Respondents N=89	Male Respondents N=119
Unanimously, Due to Agreement	47.2	40.3
Unanimously, Despite Disagreement	24.7	22.7
Split, Due to Specific Beliefs	24.7	36.1
Split, Due to Long-Run Disagreements	3.4	.9

$\chi^2 = 4.461$; $df = 3$; probability = .2158; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A majority of both male (63 percent) and female (71.9 percent) board members indicated that their boards were generally unanimous in their voting behavior, although a larger percentage of female board members (47.2 percent compared to 40.3 percent for men) ascribed the pattern of unanimous voting to the fact that board members agree. Further, a larger percentage of male board members (37 percent) than female board members (28.1 percent) indicated

that the boards were generally split either because of specific beliefs about an issue or consistent and long-run board disagreements.

Based upon the quantitative data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in how they view the voting behavior of their boards on issues of importance. Sub-hypothesis 1.18 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were derived from the interview instrument and did not support the findings of the questionnaire. Of the female interview respondents, nine, or 60 percent, indicated that their board was generally split due to specific beliefs about an issue. The remaining six women (40 percent) indicated that their boards were generally unanimous in their voting behavior.

Of the male interview respondents, the reverse was true. Five of the men, or 33.3 percent, indicated their boards were usually split because of specific beliefs; and ten, or 66.7 percent indicated they were generally unanimous.

It should be noted that the thirty interview respondents represented fifteen, rather than thirty boards, since one male and one female were interviewed from each of fifteen boards. Therefore, differences in responses between males and females are particularly noteworthy, because they

suggest a definite difference in perception between men and women board members about the voting behaviors of their board. Female board members are apparently perceiving more board conflict than are male board members. It is also interesting to note that when the responses of the men and women from the same board are compared, five pairs of board members or 33.3 percent of the board members, disagreed in their perceptions of their board's general voting behavior.

The interview disclosed other interesting findings. The majority of the women who indicated that their boards were generally split, made a point to emphasize that in their judgement this was not negative because it fostered the consideration of other points of view. In addition, of the nine women who selected the split vote alternative, four indicated that the split was along issue and gender lines. In two cases, the women indicated that men voted together on business and financial issues, and in two cases they indicated that the women voted together on curricular and instructional issues.

A similar observation was made by four of the five men who indicated their boards generally evidenced a split-vote behavior. Again, the split was perceived to be along issues and gender lines. Of the four men, three indicated a female voting block on curriculum issues, and one indicated a male voting block (generally on business decisions).

An interesting comment was made by one male respondent who stated, "women tend to vote together because they have the time to investigate and they often investigate together. The differences are generally among men who haven't investigated."

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The questionnaire and interview data differed in their emphases given by male and female board members to each of the four school board voting behaviors. The questionnaire data indicated that the majority of the male and female board members believed their boards generally reflected the unanimous voting pattern, although men indicated less unanimity than women. Male and female interview respondents, however, differed in how they viewed the general voting behavior of their boards. A majority of the women reported a split-voting pattern and a majority of the men reported a unanimous voting pattern. Although the female respondents seemed to perceive a higher level of board conflict, they did not consider the conflict to be negative. Rather, it was seen as healthy in opening up channels of communication and having diverse opinions.

In 1975, Paul Blanchard conducted a survey of school board members who attended the 1976 National School Board Conference. This study revealed two areas of the decision-making process upon which women board members appeared to have an impact. One area was that boards with at least two

women were less likely to conceal the decision-making process from the public and the other was that board members with less than two women were much more likely to report that the board voted unanimously on a crucial issue despite board member disagreement.⁵⁰ Blanchard concluded that "the presence of women on the board appears to discourage the pattern of concealment in a significant way and 'open up' the decision-making process to the public view."⁵¹

Although the present study did not differentiate the responses of board members according to the gender composition of their board, the comments made by the women interviewed point to an awareness and apparent acceptance of board member conflict (as defined by split-voting).

Summary of Major Hypothesis One

Eighteen sub-hypotheses were included under Major Hypothesis One which stated that there was no significant difference between men and women school board members in their characteristics of school board service. Of the eighteen sub-hypotheses, seven were found to be statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level of significance and were, therefore, rejected.

Statistically significant differences were found to exist between male and female board members in the following

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 67.

⁵¹Ibid.

areas of school board service:

1. Organizational memberships prior to board election.

Women school board members were more likely to hold memberships in youth or school organizations, school district advisory committees, and alumni associations. Men school board members were more likely to hold memberships in professional, business, or occupational organizations, or general service organizations.

2. Involvement in organizational governance (as

defined by offices held) prior to board election. More women board members were involved in organizational governance prior to board service than were men board members. In addition to holding more organizational offices than men, women were also involved in higher levels of education governance. Women more frequently held the office of president, vice-president, or secretary within an organization.

3. Primary motivations that most influenced board

members to seek board membership. Women school board members were more likely than men to have been motivated to seek board membership due to a personal interest in school affairs and education and a desire to improve school/community relations. Male board members were more likely to be motivated by a sense of duty to the community and the financial and budget concerns of the district.

4. Present organizational memberships. Women school board members were more likely to hold memberships in youth and school organizations, general service organizations, and alumni organizations. Men were more likely to hold memberships in professional, business, or occupational organizations.

5. School board responsibilities board members most wanted to work with during school board service. Women board members were more likely to want to work with the curriculum and instructional program, school community relations, developing educational policy and philosophy, and improving student achievement. Male board members were more likely to want to work with budget and finance and contract negotiations.

6. School board responsibilities board members actually worked with during school board service. Women board members were more likely to work with legislation, developing educational policy and philosophy, and hiring and evaluating the superintendent. Male board members were more likely to work with budget and finance, board/superintendent relations, and negotiations.

7. Membership in an informal network of school board members from other districts who consult on matters of mutual concern. Women board members were more often involved than male board members in an informal network of board members from other school districts that discussed

matters of mutual concern.

Statistical significance was not found between men and women school board members in the following areas of school board service:

1. Primary groups that most encouraged board members to seek school board office

2. Public endorsement received from specific groups of organizations

3. Present involvement in organizational governance

4. Board offices presently held

5. Present board committees memberships

6. School board chairmanships presently held

7. Frequency of engagement in specific school board related activities. This sub-hypothesis contained seventeen school/board related activities. A separate chi-square analysis was conducted on each activity. Of the seventeen sub-items, six were found to be statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level of significance. Given the quantitative data, this researcher chose not to reject this sub-hypothesis.

8. Individuals who served as the most helpful source of information in several specific areas of school board responsibility. (This sub-hypothesis contained fourteen areas of school board responsibility. Separate chi-square analyses were conducted on each area. All of the fourteen sub-items were found not to be statistically significant at

the .05 level of significance. The sub-hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected.)

9. Primary groups that most influenced school board member decision-making

10. Board member's view of the role of the Board of Education

11. Board member's view of the voting behavior of their board on issues of importance

Although statistically significant differences were not found in 11, or 61.1 percent, of the sub-hypotheses, noteworthy differences between male and female board members were indicated.

As noted earlier in chapter III, the evaluation (rejection or non-rejection) of the Major Hypothesis would not be done as a summation but as a general judgement due to the number of sub-hypotheses contained under each major hypothesis.

Based upon the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data, it is the judgement of this researcher that significant differences do appear to exist between male and female board members in their characteristics of school board service.

Major Hypothesis One is, therefore, rejected.

Major Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in their role behavior (initiated or reviewed in committee) within specific school district functions.

Major Hypothesis Two was divided into fourteen sub-hypotheses. Seven hypotheses addressed the role of initiated (within each of the seven school district functions) and seven hypotheses addressed the role of reviewed in committee (within each of the seven school district functions). Separate statistical analyses were conducted on the data generated from each sub-hypothesis. A summation and evaluation of the major hypothesis was made at the conclusion of the data presentation and analysis of all of the sub-hypotheses.

Part III of the questionnaire was divided into seven questions that addressed the degree of school board member role involvement within the following seven school district functions: School Board Operation, Educational Program, Support Operations, Communication/Public Relations, Budget/Finance, Personnel Management, and Pupil Services. Each of the functional categories was subdivided into a number of management tasks.

Respondents indicated the degree of their role involvement by checking the behavior(s) most typically demonstrated within each of the management tasks. Four categories of behavior (role involvement) were presented. These were: initiated, reviewed in committee, voted at

board meeting, or not applicable.

Several behavioral categories could be checked depending upon the degree of the board member's role involvement within a given task. (The present study only addressed the behaviors of initiated and reviewed in committee.) This response format was identical for each of the seven questions. Distinct chi-square analyses were conducted to assess board member's role behavior within each of the seven functions and within each of the separate management tasks. A separate composite analysis of each role behavior (initiated or reviewed in committee) was made at the conclusion of the data presentation and analysis.

Sub-hypothesis 2.1

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the School Board Operations Function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of initiated in each of six management tasks within the School Board Operations function. The tasks were: Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals and Objectives, Policy Development, Procedures for School Board Organization, Employment of the Superintendent, Evaluation of the Superintendent, and Board Self-Evaluation.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the percentage distribution of male and female respondents who initiated

within the School Board Operation Function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 71 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within the School Board Operations Function.

Table 71

Initiated Role Within the School Board Operations Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	65.6	58.3
Did Not Initiate	34.4	41.7

$\chi^2 = 1.132$; $df = 1$; probability = .2873; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Six separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the six management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of the Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals and Objectives indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 72 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 72

Initiated Role With Respect to Assessment of District
Needs And Development of Goals and Objectives
Within the School Board Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	44.4	30.8
Did Not Initiate	55.6	69.2

$\chi^2 = 4.103$; $df = 1$; probability = .0428; significant
at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Policy Development indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 73 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 73

Initiated Role With Respect to Policy Development
Within the School Board Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	30.0	35.0
Did Not Initiate	70.0	65.0

$\chi^2 = .583$; $df = 1$; probability = .4452; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Developing Procedures for School Board Organization indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 74 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 74

Initiated Role With Respect to Developing Procedures
For School Board Organization
Within the School Board Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	18.9	20.0
Did Not Initiate	81.1	80.0

$\chi^2 = .040$; $df = 1$; probability = .8407; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Employment of the Superintendent indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 75 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 75

Initiated Role With Respect to Employment of the
Superintendent Within the School Board Operations Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	11.1	11.7
Did Not Initiate	88.9	88.3

$\chi^2 = .016$; $df = 1$; probability = .9003; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Evaluation of the Superintendent indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 76 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 76

Initiated Role With Respect to Evaluation of the
 Superintendent Within the School Board Operations Function
 (Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	24.4	24.2
Did Not Initiate	75.6	75.8

$\chi^2 = .002$; $df = 1$; probability = .9629; not significant at
 the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Board Self-Evaluation indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 77 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 77

Initiated Role With Respect to Board Self-Evaluation
Within the School Board Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	24.4	7.5
Did Not Initiate	75.6	92.5

$\chi^2 = 11.735$; $df = 1$; probability = .0006; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the school Board Operations function assessed collectively (see table 71), it is interesting to note that a greater percentage of women (65.6 percent) than men (58.3 percent) initiated within this function.

Furthermore, when the specific management tasks are reviewed, other noteworthy differences emerge. Statistically significant differences are noted between male and female board members in initiated behavior in two, or 33.3 percent of the six tasks in this function. These were: Assessment of District Needs and Developing Goals and Objectives, and Board Self-Evaluation. Of the respondents, 44.4 percent of the women compared to 30.8 percent of the

men, initiated in the Assessment of District Needs and the Development of Goals and Objectives, and 24.4 percent of the women, compared to 7.5 percent of the men initiated in the area of Board Self-Evaluation. Of the remaining four task areas, only slight differences were noted in the percentage of male and females initiating within this task. Policy Development showed the largest percentage difference between men and women school board members. Of the respondents, 30 percent of the women, compared to 35 percent of the men, indicated they had initiated within this area.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between male and female school board members in the role of initiated within the School Board Operations function. Sub-hypothesis 2.1 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were derived from the interview instrument. Respondents were asked to elaborate upon the two or three topics, questions, or projects, that they initiated (within any of the seven functions) with their board or administration. They were also requested to explain the process of initiation -- how their idea received the attention of either the board or the administration.

Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of initiated (across all seven functions), 52.8 percent of the responses were in the School

Board Operations function. Of the total number of male responses for the role of initiated, 42.4 percent were in the School Board Operations function.

Interesting differences also emerged within the management tasks. The women in the interview sample reported being involved in initiation in four of the six tasks. These included: Assessment of District Needs and the Development of Goals and Objectives, Policy Development, Evaluation of the Superintendent, and Board Self-Evaluation. Within these tasks, seven of the women had initiated a system of superintendent evaluation, five had initiated a district-wide needs assessment, four had initiated a board self-evaluation process, and three had initiated work in policy development.

The men in the interview sample also reported being involved in initiation in four of the six tasks. Four of the men had initiated work in policy development, four had initiated activities within the needs assessment task, three had initiated procedures for school board organization, and three had initiated a plan for superintendent evaluation.

The data seem to suggest that the women interviewed were more actively involved than the men in initiating activities within the School Board Operations function. Further, the women were more involved than the men in Evaluation of the Superintendent, in the Assessment of District Needs, and in Board Self-Evaluation. Men were more

involved in initiating Policy Development and School Board Organization.

In addition to differences in the amount of initiation found between men and women within this function, differences were also noted in the nature and degree of their initiating activities.

The questionnaire and the interview instrument defined the role behavior of initiated or originated to mean "bringing an issue to the board or administration, raising a question, or requesting a report." However, in describing their initiating behavior, the majority of female respondents went far beyond this definition. Not only did they raise an issue, ask a question, or request a report -- they researched the issue, answered the question, wrote the report, and recommended a course of action. In most cases, this was not done alone. Other board members (either present or past) from within the district, the Illinois School Consulting Service, the Illinois Association of School Boards, board members from other districts, or the National Association of School Boards, often served as resources to assist in information gathering, writing, editing, or reacting. The critical point is that the majority of female board members who indicated that they initiated, also followed through on their inquiries to the point of implementation.

The tasks of Superintendent Evaluation and Board Self-Evaluation are most illustrative of this high degree of initiating behavior. Examples of initiating behavior from several women respondents were indicative of this pattern of initiation.

1. One women indicated that at a board meeting one evening she "brought up the idea that they needed a formal way of evaluating the superintendent and board." After attending a National School Board Association meeting, she "came up with the evaluation system and a method of implementing it."

2. Another woman indicated that she wrote a recommendation for the development of a superintendent's evaluation system and shared it with one "of my lady friends on the board" before she presented it to the board (and the superintendent). She indicated that this pattern was fairly typical of how she brought issues to the board.

3. A third woman indicated that she "pushed for a superintendent's evaluation system because they had no formal way of evaluating the superintendent." She independently surveyed districts by calling board members and superintendents she knew, actually wrote the policy on superintendent evaluation and then "gave it to the board."

4. A similar procedure was indicated by another woman board member who said that superintendent evaluations had not been done by her board for years. She, therefore,

"developed the instrument and made sure it got done."

5. Another women stated, "We really haven't done a formal evaluation of the superintendent. I felt that was very important. I went looking for an instrument. I attended workshops and conferences, talked with people, and developed the instrument."

Although only five women have been cited, this general pattern of initiation coupled with research, inquiry, and program or task implementation, characterized the majority of the women board members interviewed.

Interestingly, this pattern did not generally characterize the initiating behavior of the men within the School Board Operation function. The vast majority of male board members interviewed described their initiating behavior as "bringing the matter to the board's or superintendent's attention," "requesting the superintendent be evaluated," "suggesting an evaluation system be used in business," "making policy suggestions that were implemented," or "raising a question." One male board member indicated that he actually "wrote policies that were practiced but were not in the board book."

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument seem to indicate a greater degree of involvement on the part of women school board members in initiating within the School Board Operations function.

Statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of initiating within the management tasks of Assessment of District Needs and Board Self-Evaluation.

Furthermore, the responses to the interview instrument seem to suggest a more intense and involved level of initiation on the part of female board members than male board members. While male board members typically initiated by suggesting a change at a board meeting and then expected the administration to research the necessary information and develop a plan for implementation, female board members tended to do their own research and develop the plan and implementation procedures themselves.

Sub-hypothesis 2.2

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Educational Program Function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of initiated in each of the nine management tasks within the Educational Program Function. These tasks included: Research and Development Program, Long-Range Curriculum Planning, Program Standards and Evaluation, Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped, and Gifted, Extra-Curricular Programs, Grading and Reporting Systems, Graduation Requirements, Textbook Selection, and New Courses.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the percentage distribution of male and female respondents who initiated within the Educational Program function was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 78 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within the Educational Program Function.

Table 78

Initiated Role Within the Educational Program Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	25.6	27.5
Did Not Initiate	74.4	72.5

$\chi^2 = .009$; $df = 1$; probability = .7525; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Nine separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the nine management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of the Research and Development Program indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 79 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 79

Initiated Role With Respect to the Research and Development
Program Within the Education Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	5.6	4.2
Did Not Initiate	94.4	95.8

$\chi^2 = .219$; $df = 1$; probability = .6400; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Long-Range Curriculum Planning indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 80 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 80

Initiated Role With Respect to Long-Range Curriculum
Planning Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	5.6	7.5
Did Not Initiate	94.4	92.5

$\chi^2 = .312$; $df = 1$; probability = .5762; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Program Standards and Evaluation indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 81 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 81

Initiated Role With Respect to Program Standards and
Evaluation Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	3.3	5.0
Did Not Initiate	96.7	95.0

$\chi^2 = .348$; $df = 1$; probability = .5551; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Special Programs indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 82 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 82

Initiated Role With Respect to Special Programs Within
the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	14.4	8.3
Did Not Initiate	85.6	91.7

$\chi^2 = 1.969$; $df = 1$; probability = .1605; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Extra Curricular Programs indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 83 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 83

Initiated Role With Respect to Extra-Curricular Program
Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	5.6	5.8
Did Not Initiate	94.4	94.2

$\chi^2 = .007$; $df = 1$; probability = .9316; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Grading and Reporting Systems indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 84 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 84

Initiated Role With Respect to Grading and Reporting
Systems Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	6.7	4.2
Did Not Initiate	93.3	95.8

$\chi^2 = .648$; $df = 1$; probability = .4210; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Graduation Requirements indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 85 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 85

Initiated Role With Respect to Graduation Requirements
Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	3.3	5.8
Did Not Initiate	96.7	94.2

$\chi^2 = .709$; $df = 1$; probability = .3999; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Textbook Selection indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 86 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 86

Initiated Role With Respect to Textbook Selection
Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	2.2	.8
Did Not Initiate	97.8	99.2

$\chi^2 = .705$; $df = 1$; probability = .4013; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of New Courses indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 87 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 87

Initiated Role With Respect to New Courses
Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	2.2	5.8
Did Not Initiate	97.8	94.2

$\chi^2 = 1.635$; $df = 1$; probability = .2010; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Educational Program function, statistically significant differences between male and female board members in the role of initiated within the entire function or any of its management tasks, were found not to exist.

Of the female respondents, 74.4 percent indicated they did not initiate within this function, and of the male respondents, 72.5 percent indicated non-initiation. Further, in most cases the percentages of initiating responses for male and female board members were less than 10 percent in each management task. These very low percentages make comparisons insignificant. It is interesting to note, however, that the greatest involvement within the Educational Program function for both men and women board members was in initiating Special Programs for

vocational, Handicapped, Gifted, etc.; 14.4 percent of the women and 8.3 percent of the men indicated they had initiated within these tasks.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between male and female school board members in the role of initiated within the Educational Program Function. Sub-hypothesis 2.2 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were derived from the interview instrument. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of initiated (across all seven (7) functions), 19.4 percent of the responses were in the Educational Program Function. Of the total number of male responses for the role of initiated, 21.2 percent were in the Educational Program Function.

Although the percentages of male initiating responses within this function were slightly higher than the percentages of female initiating responses, very little variation in the nature of their involvement was seen in the management tasks. Three women indicated initiation in Long-Range Curriculum Planning; two, in Developing New Courses; and one each in Grading and Reporting and Graduation Requirements. Of the men interviewed, three indicated initiation in New Courses; two, in Long-Range Curriculum

planning; and one each, in Graduation Requirements and Special Programs.

Although the questionnaire indicated that the greatest degree of initiation for both men and women was in the Special Programs area, this was not supported by those board members interviewed.

The following projects were initiated by individual female board members: (1) development of a five-year cycle of curriculum review; (2) development of a long-range curriculum plan; (3) initiation of a music appreciation program she developed on her own in her childrens' school (this was later adopted by the district); (4) development of new report cards; (5) development of a new grading system; and (6) revision of graduation requirements.

The following projects were initiated by individual male board members: (1) inclusion of a home arts program in the junior high (This was part of an election issue which this board member "campaigned" for); (2) requesting a study of computer utilization within the instructional program (This board member later became chairman of the board committee to study computers); (3) requesting a study to increase graduation requirements; (4) raising questions about the district's outdoor education program. (It was subsequently removed from the curriculum, which was the desire of this board member); and (5) "demanding" long-range curriculum planning.

For the most part, men and women did not differ in the content or nature of their initiating behavior within this function. Both men and women indicated that they raised an issue, made a request for a study, or asked several questions of the board or administration. However, as in the School Board Operations Function, there was a greater tendency for women to become involved not only in the initiation of a project, but its follow-through as well.

This was most clearly illustrated by the woman who indicated that she would never suggest an idea to her board of education because it would be rejected. Therefore, she started every potential district curricular change she "wanted" at the building level, by going to the principal in her child's building, asking that a program be initiated (which it always was), and then following its success, requesting that the board adopt it for all buildings. This process had apparently been successful on two occasions and was being instituted again with a foreign language program at the elementary level. Although this procedure was not typical of the other women board members, it does seem to illustrate a greater intensity of involvement on the part of women than men board members within this function.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument seem to indicate a rather low level of initiation on the part of both male and female board members

within the Educational Program Function. Almost three-fourths of both groups (74.4 percent of the women and 72.5 percent of the men) indicated they did not initiate in this function.

Interview data indicated that the men and women interviewed were relatively similar in the substance of what they initiated, i.e., new courses, increased graduation requirements, and long-range curriculum planning procedures. However, the women seemed to be more intensely involved in not only the initiation phase, but the research, development, and implementation phases of a project as well. Male board members seemed more willing to permit the administration to develop guidelines, plans, and implementation procedures.

The same pattern of involvement was indicated for tasks within the School Board Operations function. Although the interview data are limited, it seems to suggest that men and women board members may have a different style of operational behavior. Women appear to become far more involved in a level of decision-making that has long been considered the purview of the administration. Men do not appear to follow this behavior pattern. The greater availability of time on the part of the female board member may be one of the variables that encourages this behavioral pattern, since time is available for research, planning, visitation, and follow-through.

Sub-hypothesis 2.3

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Support Operations Function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of initiated in each of the four management tasks within the support Operations Function. Those tasks included: Facilities Planning and Development, Buildings and Grounds Maintenance, Transportation, and Food Service.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who initiated within the Support Operations function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 88 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within the Support Operations Function.

Table 88

Initiated Role Within the Support Operations Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	26.7	27.5
Did Not Initiate	73.3	72.5

$\chi^2 = .018$; $df = 1$; probability = .8931; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Four separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the four management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Facilities Planning and Development indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 89 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 89

Initiated Role with Respect to Facilities Planning and
Development within the Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	12.2	18.3
Did Not Initiate	87.8	81.7

$\chi^2 = 1.450$; $df = 1$; probability = .2285; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Buildings and Grounds Maintenance indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 90 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 90

Initiated Role with Respect to Buildings and Grounds
Maintenance within the Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	8.9	15.0
Did Not Initiate	91.1	85.0

$\chi^2 = 1.770$; $df = 1$; probability = .1833; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Transportation indicated this that sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 91 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 91

Initiated Role with Respect to Transportation
Within the Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	6.7	6.7
Did Not Initiate	93.3	93.3

$\chi^2 = 0$; $df = 1$; probability = 1.000; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Food Service indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 92 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 92

Initiated Role with Respect to Food Service
Within the Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	10.0	3.3
Did Not Initiate	90.0	96.7

$\chi^2 = 3.936$; $df = 1$; probability = .0473; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Support Operations functions, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Food Service Management task only. Of the female respondents, 10 percent initiated in Food Service, compared to 3.3 percent of the men indicating initiation within this task. No statistical significance was found between men and women school board members in the role of initiation within the entire Support Operations function or within the other three tasks: Facilities Planning and Development, Buildings and Grounds Maintenance, or Transportation.

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women school board members on the remainder of the tasks, it is interesting to note that a

larger percentage of men than women initiated within the Facilities Planning and Development task (18.3 percent compared to 12.2 percent for women) and the Buildings and Grounds Maintenance Task (15 percent compared to 8.9 percent for women).

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between male and female school board members in the role of initiated within the Support Operations function. Sub-hypothesis 2.3 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were obtained from the interview. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of initiated (across all seven functions), 2.8 percent of the responses were in the Support Operations functions. It appears that the male board members in the interview were more involved in initiating within the Support Operations functions than were the female board members.

Only one woman indicated initiation within Facilities Planning and Development. This initiation was in the form of introducing a compromise motion to keep a school open for another year until further study. According to this member, she, another board member who was male, and a former board member (female) "hammered out the actual motion and then called all the other board members so that we could present

a unanimous front."

The male board members claimed initiation within Facilities Planning and Development, Transportation and Buildings and Grounds Maintenance.

The projects initiated within these tasks included:

(1) "spearheading" the reorganization of building attendance boundaries; (2) building a new gym; (3) initiating the study of the transportation system; and (4) initiating an agreement with the local park district to mow district lawns.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument seem to indicate a relatively low level of initiation on the part of both male and female board members within the Support Operations function. Almost three-fourths of both groups (73.3 percent of the women and 72.5 percent of the men) indicated that they did not initiate in this function.

Statistical significance was indicated in the Food Service task, where 10 percent of the women and 3.3 percent of the men indicated they had initiated. Although statistical significance was not indicated in the other task areas, men surpassed women in the degree of initiation within Facilities Planning and Development (18.3 percent compared to 12.2 percent for women) and Buildings and

Grounds Maintenance (15.0 percent compared to 8.9 percent for women).

The interview data supported the questionnaire findings; although the numbers were quite low, more men indicated involvement in initiating activities within Facilities Planning and Development and Buildings and Grounds Maintenance than did the women interviewed.

Sub-hypothesis 2.4

There is no significant differences between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Communications/Public Relations Function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of initiated in each of the five management tasks within the Communications/Public Relations Functions. These tasks included: Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions, Developing Communications between Staff and Parents, Providing Information to the General Public, Providing Community Services, and Involvement in Legislative Issues.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who initiated within the Communications/Public Relations Function was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 93 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within the Communications/Public Relations Function.

Table 93

Initiated Role Within the Communications/Public Relations Functions

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	53.3	37.5
Did Not Initiate	46.7	62.5

$\chi^2 = 5.225$; $df = 1$; probability = .0223; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

Five separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the five management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 94 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 94

Initiated Role With Respect to Determining Community
Attitudes and Opinions within the Communications/Public
Relations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	31.1	16.7
Did Not Initiate	68.9	83.3

$\chi^2 = 6.085$; $df = 1$; probability = .0136; significant
at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Developing Communications between Staff and Parents indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 95 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 95

Initiated Role With Respect to Developing Communications
Between Staff and Parents within the Communication/Public
Relations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	17.8	10.8
Did Not Initiate	82.2	89.2

$\chi^2 = 2.084$; $df = 1$; probability = .1489; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Provide Information to the General Public indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 96 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 96

Initiated Role With Respect to Providing Information
to the General Public within the Communications/Public
Relations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	28.9	22.5
Did Not Initiate	71.1	77.5

$\chi^2 = 1.113$; $df = 1$; probability = .2915; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Provide Community Services indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 97 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 97

Initiated Role With Respect to Providing Community Services within the Communications/Public Relations Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	14.4	6.7
Did Not Initiate	85.6	93.3

$\chi^2 = 3.457$; $df = 1$; probability = .0630; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Involvement in Legislative Issues indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 98 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 98

Initiated Role with Respect to Involvement in Legislative
Issues within the Communications/Public Relations Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	27.8	12.2
Did Not Indicate	72.2	87.5

$\chi^2 = 7.785$; $df = 1$; probability = .0053; significant
at the $P < .05$ level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Communications/Public Relations Function, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of initiation within the entire function and within two task areas: Involvement in Legislative Issues and Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions. Of the female respondents, 53.5 percent indicated they had initiated within the entire function; of the male respondents, 37.5 percent indicated they had indicated within this function.

Further, 27.8 percent of the women compared to 12.5 percent of the men indicated they had initiated within the area of Legislative Issues, and 31.1 percent of the women compared to 16.7 percent of the men indicated they had

initiated in the area of Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions.

Although statistically significant differences were not found in the three other task areas, greater percentages of women than men indicated they had initiated within each area. Of the female respondents, 17.8 percent compared to 10.8 percent of the men initiated in Developing Communications between Staff and Parents; 28.9 percent of the women compared to 22.5 percent of the men initiated in Providing Information to the General Public; and 14.4 percent of the women compared to 6.7 percent of the men indicated initiation in Providing Community Services.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Communications/Public Relations function. Sub-hypothesis 2.4 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were obtained from the interview. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of initiated (across all seven functions), 16.7 percent of the responses were in the Communications/Public Relations function. Of the total number of male responses for the role of initiated, none were in the Communications/Public Relations function. Clearly, the female board members interviewed were more

involved in initiating within the Communications/Public Relations function than were the male board members.

Two women indicated their involvement was in the legislative area. As the legislative liaisons of their boards, they were the ones to "hear about legislative issues first," and to inform the board and often the superintendent of critical issues. One woman was an I.A.S.B. representative and, as such, spoke frequently to legislators and occasionally lobbied in Springfield on specific issues.

Two women indicated their involvement in this function was in the area of Providing Information to the General Public. All of these women indicated they had initiated the idea of starting newsletters for the community. Comments from several women are reflective of their initiating role within this task.

One woman stated:

The women on the board have the pulse of the community. I really pushed to open up communication through a newsletter.

Another women said:

We really needed a P.R. program... I spend hours doing it myself. I actually wrote newspaper articles, set up a program and the parameters of a program, and brought it to the board.

A third women indicated:

I went to a workshop (on writing newsletters) and reported back to the board. I actually put the newsletter together myself. I did all the typing... Now we have a newsletter as a result of my efforts.

These comments mirror earlier impressions gleaned from the interviews that the level and degree of involvement in initiating activities appears to be more comprehensive and intense with women than with men. The women tend not only to initiate an idea, but to develop it as well.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument seem to indicate a relatively high amount of involvement on the part of women board members in initiating activities with the Communications/Public Relations function. Of the women respondents, 53.3 percent indicated they had initiated within this function, as compared to 37.5 percent of the men. These statistical data were found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

In addition, statistical significance was found in Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions, and Involvement in Legislative Issues. In these areas and in the remaining tasks, a greater percentage of women than male board members were involved in initiating behavior. The interview data supported these findings, although the women in the interview sample were more involved in the task of Providing Information to the General Public. Without exception, this involved the actual preparation of news articles or a newsletter for their district.

Sub-hypothesis 2.5

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Budget/Finance Function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of initiated in each of the six management tasks within the Budget/Finance function. These included: Development of Revenue Sources, Budget Development based on Program Priorities, Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards, Long-Range Financial Forecasting, Purchasing, and Auditing.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who initiated within the Budget/Finance function was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 99 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within the Budget/Finance function.

Table 99

Initiated Role within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	13.3	26.7
Did Not Indicate	86.7	73.3

$\chi^2 = 5.520$; $df = 1$; probability = .0188; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

Six separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the six management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Development of Revenue Sources indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 100 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 100

Initiated Role with Respect to Development of
Revenue Sources within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	2.2	5.0
Did Not Indicate	97.8	95.0

$\chi^2 = 1.083$; $df = 1$; probability = .2980; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Budget Development based on Program Priorities indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 101 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 101

Initiated Role with Respect to Budget Development
within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	6.7	9.2
Did Not Indicate	93.3	90.8

$\chi^2 = .432$; $df = 1$; probability = .5110; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 102 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 102

Initiated Role with Respect to Accounting and Control
Procedures within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	3.3	13.3
Did Not Indicate	96.7	86.7

$\chi^2 = 6.250$; $df = 1$; probability = .0124; significant
at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Long-Range Financial Forecasting indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 103 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 103

Initiated Role with Respect to Long-Range Financial
Forecasting within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	7.8	12.5
Did Not Indicate	92.2	87.5

$\chi^2 = 1.223$; $df = 1$; probability = .2688; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Purchasing indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 104 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 104

Initiated Role with Respect to Purchasing
Within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	.0	5.0
Did Not Indicate	100.0	95.0

$\chi^2 = 4.632$; $df = 1$; probability = .0314; significant
at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Auditing indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 105 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 105

Initiated Role with Respect to Auditing within the
Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Indicated	1.1	2.5
Did Not Indicate	98.9	97.5

$\chi^2 = .531$; $df = 1$; probability = .4662; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Budget/Finance function, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Budget/Finance function assessed as a composite, and within the Accounting and Control Procedures and the Purchasing tasks. Of the female respondents, 13.3 percent indicated they had initiated within the entire function. Of the male respondents, 25.7 percent indicated they had initiated within the entire function. Further, 3.3 percent of the women, compared to 13.3 percent of the men, indicated they had initiated in Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards, and none of the women, compared to 5 percent of the men indicated they had initiated within the Purchasing task.

Although statistically significant differences were not found between men and women board members in the role of initiated in the four remaining task areas within this function, a greater percentage of men than women indicated they had initiated within each area. Of the female respondents, 2 percent compared to 5 percent of the men, had initiated in the Development of Revenue Sources; 6.7 percent of the women compared to 9.2 percent of the men, had initiated in Budget Development; 7.8 percent of the women compared to 12.5 percent of the men, had initiated in Long-Range Financial Forecasting; and 1.1 percent of the women compared to 2.5 percent of the men, had initiated in Auditing.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Budget/Finance function. Sub-hypothesis 2.5 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitatative data were derived from the interviews. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of initiated (across all seven functions), 2.8 percent of the responses were in the Budget/Finance function. Of the total number of male responses for the role of initiated, 18.2 percent were in the Budget/Finance function. From the interview data, male board members were more involved in initiating within the Budget/

finance function than were female board members.

One woman indicated that she had initiated a new budget development process built on educational program priorities because "our budget was not allocated for education but for maintenance." No other women interviewed indicated any involvement in this function.

Three men indicated involvement in the Budget/Finance function. Initiation was done in Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards, Long-Range Financial Forecasting, Budget Development, and Developing Revenue Sources. One man indicated that up until recently, he "handled the finances in the district," he initiated the ideas, "called other board members off the record to bounce ideas off of them," and then presented his ideas to the whole board. The other two male board members indicated that their initiating activities were largely in the form of requesting that the administration study alternative ways of developing the budget or making long-range financial projections.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview instrument seem to indicate a relatively low amount of involvement on the part of both male and female school board members in the Budget and Finance function, when compared with the other functions. Of the female respondents, 13.3 percent indicated they had initiated, and of the male respondents, 26.7 percent indicated they had

initiated. Despite the relatively small amount of involvement, male board members exceeded female board members in their involvement in this function. This proportion was found to be statistically significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

In addition, statistical significance was found in Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards, and Purchasing. In both of these task areas, and in the remaining four task areas, a greater percentage of male board members than female board members were involved in initiating behavior.

The interview data supported these findings. Only one woman interviewed indicated she had initiated within the Budget Development function, while three men indicated initiating activities.

Sub-hypothesis 2.6

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Personnel Management function.

Qualitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of initiated in each of the six management tasks within the Personnel Management function. These included: Development of Employment Policies and Procedures, Recruitment and Selection of Employees, Training and Development of Staff, Compensation Programs, Supervision and Evaluation of

Employee's Performance, and Staff Negotiations and/or Contract Administration.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who initiated within the Personnel Management function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 106 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within the Personnel Management function.

Table 106

Initiated Role within the Personnel Management Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	27.8	34.2
Did Not Intitiate	72.2	65.8

$\chi^2 = .974$; $df = 1$; probability = .3237; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Six separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the six management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of the Development of Employment Policies and Procedures indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 107 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 107

Initiated Role with Respect to Development of Employment Policies and Procedures within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	12.2	14.2
Did Not Intitiate	87.8	85.8

$\chi^2 = .168$; $df = 1$; probability = .6817; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Recruitment and Selection of Employees indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 108 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 108

Initiated Role with Respect to Recruitment and Selection
of Employees within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	3.3	4.2
Did Not Intitiate	96.7	95.8

$\chi^2 = .097$; $df = 1$; probability = .7549; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Training and Development of Staff indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 109 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 109

Initiated Role with Respect to Training and Development
of Staff Within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	3.3	4.2
Did Not Intitiate	96.7	95.8

$\chi^2 = .097$; $df = 1$; probability = .7549; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Compensation Programs indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 110 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 110

Initiated Role with Respect to Compensation Programs
Within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	4.4	11.7
Did Not Intitiate	95.6	88.3

$\chi^2 = 3.423$; $df = 1$; probability = .0643; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Supervision and Evaluation of Employee's Performance indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 111 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 111

Initiated Role with Respect to Supervision and Evaluation
of Employee Performance within the Personnel Management
Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	5.6	10.0
Did Not Intitiate	94.4	90.0

$\chi^2 = 1.365$; $df = 1$; probability = .2426; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Staff Negotiations and/or Contract Administration indicated that this sub-item was found not to be signifiant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 112 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 112

Initiated Role with Respect to Staff Negotiations and/or
Contract Administration within the Personnel Management
Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	12.2	19.2
Did Not Intitiate	87.8	80.8

$\chi^2 = 1.828$; $df = 1$; probability = .1764; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Personnel Management function, statistically significant differences were not found between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the entire function assessed collectively, or within any of the six management tasks. Of the female respondents, 27.8 percent indicated they had initiated within this function. Of the male respondents, 34.2 percent indicated they had initiated within this function.

Although statistically significant differences were not found to exist between male and female board members in the role of initiated within each of the six management tasks, a greater percentage of male than female members indicated they had initiated within each area. Of the female respondents, 12.2 percent compared to 14.2 percent of the

men had initiated in the Development of Employment Policies and Procedures; 3.3 percent, compared to 4.2 percent of the men had initiated in the Recruitment and Selection of Employees; 3.3 percent, compared to 4.2 percent of the men, had initiated in the Training and Development of Staff; 4.4 percent, compared to 11.7 percent of the men, had initiated in Compensation Programs; 5.6 percent, compared to 10 percent of the men had initiated in the Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance; and 12.2 percent, compared to 19.2 percent for men, indicated initiation in Staff Negotiations and/or Contract Administration.

Although the largest percentages of both male and female involvement in this function were seen within the same two task areas, Staff Negotiations and Development of Employment Policies and Procedures, male, rather than female, board members indicated a greater amount of initiating behaviors within these tasks.

Based upon the quantitative data analysis, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Personnel Management function. Sub-hypothesis 2.6 is therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were derived from the interviews. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of initiated (across all seven

functions), 5.6 percent were in the Personnel Management function. Of the total number of male responses for the role of initiated, 6.1 percent were in the Personnel Management function. Inappreciable differences would therefore, seem to exist between the male and female board members in the role of initiated within this function.

Of the two women involved in initiating within this function, one indicated that she initiated the development of a system of accountability within the district which included a system of teacher performance evaluation, and the other indicated that she initiated a new system of administrative compensation. According to her,

I wasn't happy with the way they [administrators] were setting salaries, so I brought a copy of the Hayes Report from my husband's company. I was really poking away at this... Now we have a beautiful evaluation instrument and compensation system.

Of the three men indicating initiation within this function, one had "initiated a change in the teachers' leave of absence procedures," another had "initiated a change in the negotiation team composition," and a third had "initiated a survey of other school districts and industries for competitive salary information."

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to both the questionnaire and the interview seem to indicate a greater involvement of male than female board members within the Personnel Management function. Of the female respondents, 27.8 percent initiated

in this function, compared to 34.2 percent for the men. Male board members also indicated more involvement than female board members in all of the six task areas within this function.

The women in the interview sample were also less involved in the Personnel Management function than the men interviewed, although they did not appear to differ significantly in the substance of the issues they addressed within this function, such as compensation policies; this is a particularly surprising finding. Since a larger percentage of female than male board members indicated both memberships on and chairmanships of personnel committees, one would have anticipated that female, rather than male, board members would have initiated more within the Personnel function.

Sub-hypothesis 2.7

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Pupil Services function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of initiated in each of the three management tasks within the Pupil Services function. These included: Guidance and Counseling Programs, Psychological, Social and Health Services, and Development of Policies and Procedures regulating Student Attendance and Discipline.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who initiated within the Pupil Services function was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 113 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within the Pupil Services function.

Table 113

Initiated Role Within the Pupil Services Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	20.0	10.0
Did Not Intitiate	80.0	90.0

$\chi^2 = 4.200$; $df = 1$; probability = .0404; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

Three separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the three managment tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Guidance and Counseling Programs indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 114 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 114

Initiated Role With Respect to Guidance and Counseling
Programs within the Pupil Services Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	6.7	3.3
Did Not Intitiate	93.3	96.7

$\chi^2 = 1.260$; $df = 1$; probability = .2617; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Psychological, Social and Health Services indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 115 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 115

Initiated Role With Respect to Psychological, Social, and
Health Services within the Pupil Services Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	4.4	2.5
Did Not Intitiate	95.6	97.5

$\chi^2 = .603$; $df = 1$; probability = .4373; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of the Development of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance and Discipline indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 116 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who initiated within this task.

Table 116

Initiated Role With Respect to Development of Policies
and Procedures within the Pupil Services Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	14.4	7.5
Did Not Intitiate	85.6	92.5

$\chi^2 = 2.644$; $df = 1$; probability = .1039; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

Quantitative Data

In assessing the quantitative data within the Pupil Services function, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Pupil Services function assessed collectively. Of the female respondents, 20 percent indicated initiation within this function, as compared to 10 percent of the male respondents. Although statistically significant differences were not found to exist in the role of initiated within each of the three management tasks, a greater percentage of female rather than male board members initiated within each of the tasks. Of the female respondents, 6.7 percent, compared to 3.3 percent of the men, had initiated in Guidance and Counseling Programs; 4.4 percent of the women, compared to 2.5 percent of the men,

had initiated in Psychological, Social and Health Services, and 14.4 percent of the women, compared to 7.5 percent of the men had initiated in Developing Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance and Discipline. Although the largest percentage of initiation within this function for both male and female board members was in Developing Policies and Procedures for Regulating Student Attendance and Discipline, female, rather than male, board members indicated a greater amount of initiating behavior within this task.

Based upon the quantitative data analyzed, there is a significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Pupil Services function.

Sub-hypothesis 2.7 is, therefore, rejected.

Qualitative Data

None of the men or women interviewed indicated any initiating behavior within the Pupil Services function.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

Since none of the interview sample indicated any involvement within the Pupil Service function, insights about the substance or nature of their initiating behavior cannot be gleaned. An analysis of the quantitative data, however, indicates statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in their

initiating role within this function. Women board members indicated a greater amount initiating within the function assessed collectively and within each of the management tasks. For both male and female board members, the task that received the greatest involvement was the Development of Policies and Procedures regulating Student Attendance and Discipline; however, women board members were almost twice as involved in this area than were male board members.

Analysis of the Role of Initiated Within School District Functions

Fourteen sub-hypotheses were included under Major Hypothesis Two. Seven of the fourteen hypotheses examined the role of initiated within each of seven school district functions. These functions included: School Board Operations, Educational Program, Support Operations, Communications and Public Relations, Budget and Finance, Personnel Management, and Pupil Services.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who initiated within all school district functions assessed as a composite, was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 117 indicates the percentages of male and female board members who initiated within all school district functions.

Table 117

Initiated Role with Respect to All
School District Functions

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Initiated	80.0	77.5
Did Not Initiate	20.0	22.5

$\chi^2 = .191$; $df = 1$; probability = .6622; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between males and females in the role of initiated collectively assessed within all school district functions, statistically significant differences between men and women board members were indicated in several specific school district functions and management tasks within these functions.

Table 118 provides a summary of the role of initiated within the seven school district functions.

Table 118

Summary Table of Role of Initiated Within
All School District Functions

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Function	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
School Board Operations	65.5	58.3
Education Program	25.6	27.5
Support Operations	26.7	27.5
*Communications/Public Relations	53.3	37.5
*Budget/Finance	13.3	26.7
Personnel Management	27.8	34.2
*Pupil Services	20.0	10.0

*Significant beyond the $P < .05$ level of significance

Statistically significant differences between male and female board members in the role of initiated were found in the Communications/Public Relations function (53.3 percent of the women, compared to 37.5 percent of the men initiated in this function), the Budget/Finance function (13.3 percent of the women compared to 26.7 percent of the men initiated in this function), and the Pupil Services function (20 percent of the women, compared to 10 percent of the men initiated in this function).

Interesting differences between men and women were also noted in the School Board Operation function, where a higher percentage of women initiated than did men (65.6 percent, compared to 58.3 percent for men), and the Personnel Management function, where a higher percentage of men initiated than did women (34.2 percent compared to 27.8 percent for women).

Table 119 provides a summary of the role of initiated within the thirty-nine (39) management tasks.

Table 119
 Summary Table of Initiated
 Within School District Management Tasks

School District Functions	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
<u>School Board Operations</u>		
1 Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals/Objectives*	44.4	30.8
2 Policy Development	30.0	35.0
3 Procedures for School Board Organization	18.9	20.0
4 Employment of Superintendent	11.1	11.7
5 Evaluation of Superintendent	24.4	24.2
6 Board Self-Evaluation*	24.4	7.5
<u>Educational Program</u>		
1 Research and Development Program	5.6	4.2
2 Long-Range Curriculum Planning	5.6	7.5
3 Program Standards and Evaluation	3.3	5.0
4 Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped, Gifted, Enrichment, etc.	14.4	8.3
5 Extra-Curricular Programs	5.6	5.8
6 Grading and Reporting Systems	6.7	4.2
7 Graduation Requirements	3.3	5.8
8 Textbook Selection	2.2	.8
9 New Courses	2.2	5.8
<u>Support Operations</u>		
1 Facilities Planning and Development	12.2	18.3
2 Buildings and Grounds Maintenance	8.9	15.0
3 Transportation	6.7	6.7
4 Food Service*	10.0	3.3

School District Functions	Female Respondents	Male Respondents
<u>Communication/Public Relations*</u>		
1 Determine Community Attitudes and Opinions*	31.1	16.7
2 Develop Communications Between Staff and Parents	17.8	10.8
3 Provide Information to General Public	28.9	22.5
4 Provide Community Services	14.4	6.7
5 Involvement in Legislative Issues*	27.8	12.5
<u>Budget/Finance</u>		
1 Development of Revenue Sources	2.2	5.0
2 Budget Development Based on Program Priorities	6.7	9.2
3 Accounting and Control Procedure and Standards	3.3	13.3
4 Long-Range Financial Forecasting	7.8	12.5
5 Purchasing*	.0	5.0
6 Auditing	1.1	2.5
<u>Personnel Development</u>		
1 Development of Employment Policies and Procedures	12.1	14.2
2 Recruitment and Selection of Employees	3.3	4.2
3 Training and Development of Staff	3.3	4.2
4 Compensation Programs	4.4	11.7
5 Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance	5.6	10.0
6 Staff Negotiations and/or Contract Administration	12.2	19.2
<u>Pupil Services*</u>		
1 Guidance and Counseling Program	6.7	3.3
2 Psychological, Social, and Health Services	4.4	2.5
3 Development of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance, Discipline	14.4	7.5

* Significant at $P < .05$ level of significance.

Statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in the role of initiated were found to exist within the following seven management tasks.

1. Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals and Objectives (44.4 percent of the women, compared to 30.8 percent of the men, indicated initiation).

2. Board Self-Evaluation (24.4 percent of the women, compared to 7.5 percent of the men indicated initiation).

3. Food Service (10 percent of the women, compared to 3.3 percent of the men, indicated initiation).

4. Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions (31.1 percent of the women, compared to 16.7 percent of the men, indicated initiation).

5. Involvement in Legislative Issues (27.8 percent of the women, compared to 12.5 percent of the men, indicated initiation).

6. Accounting and Control Procedures (3.3 percent of the women, compared to 13.3 percent of the men, indicated initiation).

7. Purchasing (none of the women, compared to 5 percent of the men, indicated initiation).

Of these seven task areas, women were more involved in initiation in five, or 71.4 percent of the tasks. Men were more involved in initiating in the Budget and Finance function, while women were more involved in initiating the School Board Operations, Communications, and Public

Relations functions.

When the thirty-nine tasks were collectively assessed, women indicated a higher degree of initiation than the men in sixteen, or 41.3 percent of the tasks, while men indicated a higher degree of initiation in 22, or 56.4 percent, of the tasks. (One task had an equal percentage of initiation between male and female board members.)

While this might appear to indicate that men were slightly more involved in initiation than women, the tasks in which significant differences were indicated do not support this. The interview data collected on the role of initiation across all functions and tasks seem to suggest some unique differences between men and women school board members, not only in the content of tasks initiated, but in degree, intensity, and involvement within those tasks.

Within the interview sample, the women were more involved in the School Board Operations function (most notably Evaluation of the Superintendent, Assessing Needs and Developing District Goals, and Board Self-Evaluation), the Education Program function (most notably Developing Long-Range Curriculum Planning), and the Communications and Public Relations function (most notably Providing Information to the General Public). Male board members in the interview sample were most involved in the School Board Operations function (most notably Policy Development), the Educational Program function (most notably New Course

Development), and the Budget and Finance function (most notably Developing Accounting and Control Procedures and Long-Range Financial Forecasting).

Interestingly, the interview data clearly supported the questionnaire data. Statistically significant differences between men and women in the role of initiation were not found in either the School Board Operations or the Educational Program function (the two top ranked functions of the men and women within the interview), but statistically significant differences were found between men and women in the role of initiated in the Communications/Public Relations function (where women had a greater level of role involvement) and the Budget and Finance function (where men had a greater level of role involvement).

These observations are supported by earlier findings in the present study. In the area of primary motivations for seeking school board memberships, both men and women cited personal interest and sense of duty as the two primary motivations; however, the third ranked motivation for women was the desire to improve school/community relations, and the third ranked motivation for men was district financial and budget concerns.

Similarly, in the question relating to the areas board members most wanted to work with when they became a board member, women indicated Curriculum and Instruction, and

school Community Relations, and men cited Budget and Finance.

The data seemed to suggest that the initiating role assumed by male and female board members was directed toward and congruent with their motivations for seeking school board membership and the areas they wanted to work with when they became a school board member.

This researcher seemed to sense another important but subtle difference between male and female board members in their initiating roles; this was seen in a rather nebulous and subjective dimension involving personal and emotional commitment, interest, drive, and follow-through. Not only did the majority of the women in the interview sample who indicated that they initiated, suggest a topic or a project, raise a question, or begin an inquiry, but once having brought an issue into the open, there appeared to be a very strong personal involvement with and commitment to that project. This commitment almost became a "mission," and this missionary zeal was manifested in much activity: calls and meetings with outside resource people (often board members from other districts), independent research, the development of a systematic action plan, and a subsequent recommendation to the board and administration for implementation. The male board members interviewed did not respond to their initiating role with this intensity. Once they had initiated a project, they relied more heavily on

the administration to develop the necessary processes that would lead to implementation.

Support for this subjective assertion was found in several board members' comments derived from the interview. Although the majority of male and female board members believed their role was to make policy, represent the needs and interests of the community, and not get directly involved in administrative tasks, women board members appeared to assume a far more assertive stance relative to their role as a board member. The following comments by two female and two male board members reflect this position:

Female board members:

Boards today need a lot of information. There's no such thing as too much information. Many superintendents consider that information superfluous but boards need that information because they need to be accountable to themselves.

Board members are accountable. You have to be better informed. The superintendent would like you to accept his recommendation, but you cannot just take recommendations. You have to know why, you have to ask hard questions, you have to know everything, because you are accountable.

Male board members:

My job is to provide children with the best possible education. I don't see myself as being the power to run the schools. I'm not the initiator, the innovator. We are the checks and balances, we oversee what the superintendent does.

I want to have exactly what the ideal setup is supposed to be -- an administration in which I have confidence and to rubber stamp them. I am willing to rubber stamp them if they are doing the right thing. My job is to make policy.

Although these comments were extracted from a small sample of the interview population, they do reflect the overall tone of the responses from their respective genders. Female board members appear to be assuming a far more assertive role on boards of education than their male counterparts.

This notion was reinforced in another comment by a female school board president:

There is a new breed of board member emerging. They are younger and tend not to have roots in the community; they are upward mobiles... They do not patronize the public, and they don't want to be patronized. They are moving, action people. Given the opportunity, they will take over the administration. They are motivated, probably because they feel they could do a better job. They will fill in the vacancy when there is a superintendent who is a weak leader. They are aware of each other and aware that there is a new board member face... They are verbal and open ... and are shifting the power bases... They accept very little on faith... They will probably vote for you, but give them all the information, don't keep anything back, because they are going to probe and ask a lot of questions until they feel comfortable... Women are clearly in the vanguard of this new breed... There is now an awareness that there is self-worth in women besides being a housewife or a secretary... Positions of management are now open to women.

This comment again reinforces the intensely personal involvement women seem to bring to their role as a school board member.

Further substantiation for this perception was found in the responses board members gave to interview questions that asked about their greatest contribution to the board and their greatest frustration as board members. The overwhelming majority of the women (13 out of 10) indicated

that their contributions to the board were the individual qualities they brought to the board, such as open-mindedness, analytical ability, clarifying ability, objectivity, action-orientation, insight, asking crucial questions, and organizational ability.

The men on the other hand (8 out of 15), claimed that their greatest contribution to the board was largely expertise in business and finance.

Differences were also noted in the area of board functioning. The majority of women indicated their biggest frustration was characterized by the fact that "things moved too slowly." Men, on the other hand, were more disturbed with public apathy.

Interestingly, these findings conform to the findings of the Bers study. Bers noted that, as a group, women indicated their contributions to the board were most frequently in the area of their personal qualities, while men cited their business knowledge or background.⁵² Further, women most often indicated that the personal characteristics of others were their greatest sources of frustration, while men stated their greatest frustration was working with the public.⁵³

Numerous board member comments were included to provide some support (albeit, subjective) to the earlier assertion

⁵²Bers, "Local Political Elites," p. 387.

⁵³Ibid.

that women seem to assume a far more initiating and assertive role on boards of education. They appear to perceive themselves and appear to be perceived by others (male school board members and administrators) as the change agents on the board.

As noted, this observation is subjective. However, it reoccurred with sufficient frequency to lead this researcher to conclude that in the role of initiation, men and women do appear to behave differently.

The literature also seems to lend support to this perception. Even the title of Bernadette Doran's article, "Feminist Surge Has Hit School Boards and They May Never Be the Same Again," reinforces this notion that the women school board member is indeed attempting to "make a difference" on school boards. According to Doran, "She's getting restless,"⁵⁴ and this restlessness and drive are manifested in more assertive school board initiating behavior.

Louise Dyer also supports this observation. In a nation-wide sampling of school board members (male and female), Dyer found the following:

1. Board members have decided to "junk the rubber stamp image."⁵⁵
2. They listen to their public.

⁵⁴Doran, "The Feminist Surge," p. 25.

⁵⁵Dyer, "The American School Board Member," p. 17.

3. They are "trumpeting about change"⁵⁶ in every sector of education.

4. They want a product that can be evaluated.

Dyer concludes that "the shift is clearly from rhetoric to results."⁵⁷

Although Dyer's study reflected both male and female board member activities, women board members seem to have embraced these philosophies with more zest.

Do men and women school board members differ in their initiating role on the board of Education? Statistically, the answer appears to be no; inferentially, however a difference seems apparent.

Sub-hypothesis 2.8

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the School Board Operations function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of reviewed in committee in each of the six management tasks within the School Board Operations function. These tasks were: Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals and Objectives, Policy Development, Procedures for School Board Organizations, Employment of the Superintendent, Evaluation of the Superintendent, and Board Self-Evaluation.

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 18.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 19.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the School Board Operation function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 120 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the School Board Operations function.

Table 120

Reviewed in Committee Role Within the
School Board Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	81.1	76.7
Did Not Review in Committee	18.9	23.3

$\chi^2 = .603$; $df = 1$ probability; $= .4373$; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Six separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the six management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of the Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals and Objectives indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 121 indicates the percentages of male and female

school board members who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 121

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals and Objectives Within the School Board Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	55.6	55.0
Did Not Review in Committee	44.4	45.0

$\chi^2 = .006$; $df = 1$; probability = .9361; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Policy Development indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 122 indicates the percentages of respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 122

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Policy
Development Within the School Board Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	65.6	38.3
Did Not Review in Committee	34.4	61.7

$\chi^2 = 15.244$; $df = 1$; probability = .0001; significant
at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Developing Procedures for School Board Organization indicated that this sub-item was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 123 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee in this task.

Table 123

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Procedures for
School Board Organization Within the School Board
Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	28.9	21.7
Did Not Review in Committee	71.1	78.3

$\chi^2 = 1.440$; $df = 1$; probability = .2302; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Employment of the Superintendent indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 124 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee in this task.

Table 124

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Employment of
the Superintendent Within the School Board
Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	31.1	21.7
Did Not Review in Committee	68.9	78.3

$\chi^2 = 2.401$; $df = 1$; probability = .1212; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Evaluation of the Superintendent indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 125 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 125

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Evaluation of
the Superintendent Within the School Board
Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	58.9	55.0
Did Not Review in Committee	41.1	45.0

$\chi^2 = .317$; $df = 1$; probability = .5736; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Board Self-Evaluation indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 126 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee in this task.

Table 126

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Board
Self-Evaluation Within the School Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	30.0	34.2
Did Not Review in Committee	70.0	65.8

$\chi^2 = .408$; $df = 1$; probability = .5231; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Support Operations function, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee with the Policy Development task only. Of the female respondents, 65.6 percent indicated they had reviewed this task within a committee, as compared to 38.3 percent of the men who indicated reviewed in committee.

No statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the entire Support Operations function or within the other five management tasks.

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in the remainder of the tasks, it is interesting to note that

greater percentages of women than men indicated their role as reviewed in committee. This was seen in the entire function assessed collectively (81.1 percent of the women, as compared to 76.7 percent of the men), and within four of the five following tasks: Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals/Objectives (55.6 percent of the women respondents, compared to 55 percent of the men), Procedures for School Board Organization (28.9 percent of the women, compared to 21.7 percent of the men), Employment of the Superintendent (31.1 percent of the women, compared to 21.7 percent of the men), Evaluation of the Superintendent (58.9 percent of the women, compared to 55 percent of the men), and Board Self-Evaluation (30 percent of the women, compared to 34.2 percent of the men). Board Self-Evaluation was the only area in which a greater percentage of men than women indicated a committee review.

Although both male and female board members were most involved in committee review work in Policy Development and Superintendent Evaluation, greater percentages of female respondents than male respondents were involved in committees in these two areas.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Support Operations function. Sub-hypothesis 2.8, is therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were derived from the interview. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of reviewed in committee (across all seven functions), 61.1 percent of the responses were in the School Board Operations function. Of the total number of male responses for the role of reviewed in committee, 35.3 percent were in School Board Operations. As a group, female responses were more concentrated in this function than in any of the other six district functions.

Of the interview sample, four women indicated they had been involved in either standing or ad hoc committee reviews of one or more of the following tasks: Employment and Evaluation of the Superintendent, Assessment of District Needs and the Development of Goals/Objectives, Policy Development, Board Self-Evaluation, and Procedures for School Board Organization. One indicated "dominance" of the committee, another said she played the role of "guide on the side," a third indicated she played the "aggressive role because she was the chairperson." All four women stressed the trust relationship necessary for productive committee interaction.

Two men from the interview sample indicated they had been involved in the committee review of one or more of the following tasks: Employment and Evaluation of the Superintendent, Assessment of District Needs and the

Development of Goals and Objectives, and Procedures for School Board Organization. Only one of the two men commented on his role within the committee. He indicated that "although he wasn't the chairman of the ad hoc committee on Superintendent Evaluation, he did most of the 'legwork'."

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to the questionnaire and the interview instrument indicated that a larger percentage of women board members were involved in the role of reviewed in committee within the School Board Operations function than were male board members. Although statistically significant differences between male and female board members within the reviewed in committee role were only found in the Policy Development task (65.6 percent of the women, compared to 38.3 percent of the men), a larger percentage of women were involved in all of the remaining tasks within this function, except Board Self-Evaluation. Male involvement exceeded female involvement in this task. (It must be remembered, however, that women showed a significantly greater involvement in initiation within this task area than did men.)

Although the number of interview respondents indicating involvement in this role was small, data gleaned from the interview also suggested a greater degree of involvement by

women board members than by male board members in this function.

Sub-hypothesis 2.9

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Educational Program function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of reviewed in committee in each of the nine management tasks within the Educational Program function. These tasks included: Research and Development Program, Long-Range Curriculum Planning, Program Standards and Evaluation, Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped and Gifted, Extra-Curricular Programs, Grading and Reporting Systems, Graduation Requirements, Textbook Selection and New Courses.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Educational Program function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 127 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Educational Program function.

Table 127

Reviewed in Committee Role within the
Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	73.3	62.5
Did Not Review in Committee	26.7	37.5

$\chi^2 = 2.736$; $df = 1$; probability = .0981; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

Nine separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the nine management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of the Research and Development Program indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 128 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 128

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Research and Development within the Educational Program
Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	22.2	19.2
Did Not Review in Committee	77.8	80.8

$\chi^2 = .295$; $df = 1$; probability = .5871; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Long-Range Curriculum Planning indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 129 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 129

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Long-Range Curriculum Planning within the Educational
Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	43.3	35.0
Did Not Review in Committee	56.7	65.0

$\chi^2 = 1.507$; $df = 1$; probability = .2195; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Program Standards and Evaluations indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 130 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this function.

Table 130

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Program Standards and Evaluation within the Educational
Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	46.7	37.5
Did Not Review in Committee	53.3	62.5

$\chi^2 = 1.781$; $df = 1$; probability = .1820; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Special Programs indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 131 indicates the percentage of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 131

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped, Gifted
Within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	47.8	38.3
Did Not Review in Committee	52.2	61.7

$\chi^2 = 1.879$; $df = 1$; probability = .1705; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Extra-Curricular Programs indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 132 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 132

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Extra-Curricular Programs within the
Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	26.7	26.7
Did Not Review in Committee	73.3	73.3

$\chi^2 = .000$; $df = 1$; probability = 1.000; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Grading and Reporting Systems indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 133 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 133

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Grading Reporting Systems within the Educational Program
Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	36.7	21.7
Did Not Review in Committee	63.3	78.3

$\chi^2 = 5.728$; $df = 1$ probability = .0167; significant at the
P<.05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Graduation Requirements indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 134 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 134

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Graduation Requirements within the Educational Program
Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	13.3	15.0
Did Not Review in Committee	86.7	85.0

$\chi^2 = .117$; $df = 1$; probability = .7327; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Textbook Selection indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 135 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 135

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Textbook Selection within the Educational Program
Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	36.7	30.8
Did Not Review in Committee	63.3	69.2

$\chi^2 = .787$; $df = 1$; probability = .3749; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of New Courses indicated that this sub-item was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 136 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 136

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
New Courses within the Educational Program Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	25.6	27.5
Did Not Review in Committee	74.4	72.5

$\chi^2 = .099$; $df = 1$; probability = .7525; not significant at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Educational Program function, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee in the Grading and Reporting Systems task only. Of the female respondents, 36.7 percent indicated they had reviewed this task within a committee, as compared to 21.7 percent of the men who indicated committee review.

No statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the entire Educational Program function or within any of the other eight management tasks.

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in their role behavior within the Educational Program function

or the eight tasks, it is interesting to note that greater percentages of women than men indicated their role as reviewed in committee within the eight functions assessed collectively (73.3 percent, compared to 62.5 percent for men) and within five of the eight remaining tasks. These tasks were: Research and Development Program (22.2 percent of the women, compared to 19.2 percent of the men), Long-Range Curriculum Planning (43.3 percent of the women, compared to 35 percent of the men), Program Standards and Evaluation (46.7 percent of the women, compared to 37.5 percent of the men), and Textbook Selection (36.7 percent of the women, compared to 30.1 percent of the men).

Male respondents showed a larger percentage of role involvement in committee review in two task areas: Graduation Requirements and New Courses. Both men and women were equal in terms of the percentages of reviewed in committee behavior within Extra-Curricular Programs.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Educational Program function. Sub-hypothesis 2.9 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were derived from the interview. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of reviewed in committee (across all seven

functions), 11.1 percent of the responses were in the Educational Program function. Of the total number of male responses given for the role of reviewed in committee, 5.9 percent were in the Educational Program function.

Of the interview sample, two women indicated they had been involved in reviewing some aspect of the educational or instructional program as part of a committee process.

One woman indicated committee involvement in developing special programs for gifted students, and the other indicated work in studying microcomputers as part of Long-Range Curriculum Planning. Both women indicated that the recommendation of the committee was taken to the whole board and was generally accepted by the board as a whole.

One male board member from the interview sample indicated committee involvement in the area of a computer study. He was a computer teacher and was placed on the committee by the board president because of his expertise.

Since only three interview respondents indicated active involvement in committee work within this function, it is difficult to draw any conclusions from the interview data.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to the questionnaire and the interview instrument seem to indicate a slightly greater involvement on the part of female board members in committee review work within the Educational Program function. Approximately 73 percent of the women respondents as

compared to 63 percent of the male respondents indicated they had reviewed one or more of the educational management tasks within either a standing or an hoc committee framework. Although statistically significant differences between males and females within the reviewed in committee role were only found in the Grading and Reporting Systems task (36.7 percent of the women, compared to 21.7 percent of the men), a larger percentage of women were involved in six of the nine tasks within this function. Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped, and Gifted received the highest percentage of female and male committee involvement, but again, women were more involved than men in this task (47.8 percent, compared to 38.3 percent for men).

Although the number of interview respondents indicating involvement in this area was small, it does seem to reinforce the greater involvement of women in this function.

Sub-hypothesis 2.10

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Support Operations function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of reviewed in committee in each of the four management tasks within the Support Operations function. These tasks included: Facilities Planning and Development, Buildings and Grounds Maintenance, Transportation, and Food Service.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Support Operations function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 137 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Support Operations function.

Table 137

Reviewed in Committee Role
Within the Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	60.0	55.0
Did Not Review in Committee	40.0	45.0

$\chi^2 = .525$; $df = 1$; probability = .4687; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Four separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the four management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Facilities Planning and Development indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 138 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 138

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Facilities
 Planning and Development within the Support Operations
 Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	47.1	42.5
Did Not Review in Committee	58.9	57.5

$\chi^2 = .041$; $df = 1$; probability = .8400; not significant at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Buildings and Grounds Maintenance indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 139 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 139

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Buildings and
Grounds Maintenance within the
Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	37.8	39.2
Did Not Review in Committee	62.2	60.8

$\chi^2 = .042$; $df = 1$; probability = .8379; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Transportation indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 140 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 140

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Transportation within the Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	36.7	33.3
Did Not Review in Committee	63.3	66.7

$\chi^2 = .252$; $df = 1$; probability = .6157; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Food Service indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 141 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 141

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Food Service within the Support Operations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	26.7	24.2
Did Not Review in Committee	73.3	75.8

$\chi^2 = .170$; $df = 1$; probability = .6798; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Support Operations function, no statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within any of the four management tasks or within the function assessed collectively. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women school board members with respect to their role behavior within this function, it is interesting to note that a greater percentage of women school board members (60 percent) than men school board members (55 percent) indicated their role was reviewed in committee within this function. Within the four management task areas, the differences in role behavior (reviewed in committee) between men and women were relatively small. The area of greatest difference was Facilities Planning and

Development, where 47.1 percent of the women, compared to 42.5 percent of the men indicated that they had reviewed this task within a committee.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee, within the Support Operations function. Sub-hypothesis 2.10 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were derived from the interview. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of reviewed in committee (across all seven functions), 5.6 percent were in the Support Operations function. Of the total number of male responses given for the role of reviewed in committee, 5.9 percent were in the Support Operations function.

Of the interview sample, one woman indicated she was part of the Buildings and Grounds Committee which was presently making a facilities study and would soon be studying the district's Life Safety Program.

Similarly, one male board member in the interview sample indicated involvement within the Support Operations function. He was also a member of the Buildings and Grounds Committee which was presently involved in facilities planning.

Since only two interview respondents indicated committee involvement within this function, it is difficult to draw substantial conclusions from the interview data.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to the questionnaire seem to indicate a slightly greater involvement on the part of the female board members in committee review work within the Support Operations function. Sixty percent of the women respondents, compared to 55 percent of the male respondents, indicated they had reviewed one or more of the Support Operations tasks within either a standing or an ad hoc committee structure. Although statistically significant differences between male and female board members were not found in any of the task areas, a larger percentage of women than men were involved in three of the four tasks within this function. This runs counter to the stereotype that the Support Operations function is mostly male dominated. The Facilities Planning and Development task received the highest percentage of both female and male committee involvement, but again, women were slightly more involved than men in this task (47.1 percent, compared to 42.5 percent for men).

Data derived from the interview sample were too small to either substantiate or refute these general findings.

Sub-hypothesis 2.11

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Communications/Public Relations function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of reviewed in committee in each of the five management tasks within the Communications/Public Relations function. These tasks included: Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions, Developing Communication between Staff and Parents, Providing Information to the General Public, Providing Community Services, and Involvement in Legislative Issues.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Communications/Public Relations function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 142 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Public Relations function.

Table 142

Reviewed in Committee Role
Within the Communications/Public Relations Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	67.8	55.8
Did Not Review in Committee	32.2	44.2

$\chi^2 = 3.083$; $df = 1$; probability = .0791; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Four separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the four management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 143 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 143

Reviewed in Committee Role
with Respect to Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions
Within the Communications/Public Relations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	36.7	33.3
Did Not Review in Committee	63.3	66.7

$\chi^2 = .252$; $df = 1$; probability = .6157; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Developing Communications between Staff and Parents indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 144 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 144

Reviewed in Committee Role
with Respect to Developing Communications between
Staff and Parents Within the Communications/Public Relations
Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	40.0	29.2
Did Not Review in Committee	60.0	70.8

$\chi^2 = 2.697$; $df = 1$; probability = .1012; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Providing Information to the General Public indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 145 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the task.

Table 145

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Provide
Information to the General Public
Within the Communications/Public Relations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	42.2	32.5
Did Not Review in Committee	57.8	67.5

$\chi^2 = 2.093$; $df = 1$; probability = .1479; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Providing Community Service indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 146 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 146

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Provide
Community Service Within the Communications/
Public Relations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	28.9	20.8
Did Not Review in Committee	71.1	79.2

$\chi^2 = 1.815$; $df = 1$; probability = .1779; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Involvement in Legislative Issues indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 147 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 147

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Involvement
in Legislative Issues Within the Communications/
Public Relations Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	45.6	32.5
Did Not Review in Committee	54.4	67.5

$\chi^2 = 3.717$; $df = 1$; probability = .0539; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Communications/Public Relations function, statistically significant differences were not found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within this function.

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women school board members with respect to their role behavior (reviewed in committee) within this function when assessed collectively, and within all of the five of the management tasks, it is interesting to note that a greater percentage of women board members (67.8 percent) than men board members (55.8 percent) indicated their role was reviewed in committee both within this function and within all of the five management tasks. These tasks were: Determining Community Attitudes and

Opinions (36.7 percent of the women, compared to 33.3 percent of the men); Developing Communications between Staff and Parents (40 percent of the women, compared to 29.2 percent of the men); Providing Information to the General Public (42.5 percent of the women, compared to 32.5 percent of the men); Providing Community Services (28.9 percent of the women, compared to 20.8 percent of the men); and Involvement in Legislative Issues (45.6 percent of the women, compared to 32.5 percent of the men).

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Communication/Public Relations function. Sub-hypothesis 2.11 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative Data were derived from the interview. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of reviewed in committee (across all seven functions), 11.1 percent were in the Communications/Public Relations function. Of the total number of male responses given for the role of reviewed in committee, 11.8 percent were in the Communications/Public Relations function.

Of the interview sample, two women indicated they were involved within this function. One was very involved in legislation as the board's legislative liaison and chairperson of the legislative committee, and the other

women indicated involvement in Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions as part of the work of her board's public relations ad hoc committee.

Two male board members also indicated involvement within this function. One male member was the board's legislative chairperson and was trying to establish a legislative network within the community. The other male board member served on his board's legislative committee.

Since only four out of thirty interview respondents indicated committee involvement within this function, it is difficult to draw meaningful conclusions from the interview data.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

Although statistically significant differences between male and female board members were not found in any of the tasks within this function, a larger percentage of women than men were involved in committee review in all of the five management tasks.

Of the male respondents, the highest percentage was involved in Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions. For women, their greatest involvement within this function was in legislation. This involvement was consistent with the fact that women were more likely to be members of Legislative Committees.

Although the data derived from the interview sample was too small to draw substantive conclusions, it is interesting

to note that three of the four respondents (two women and two men) were involved in board and community legislative tasks as a part of their board's legislative committees.

Sub-hypothesis 2.12

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Budget/Finance function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of reviewed in committee in each of the six management tasks within the Budget/Finance function. These included: Development of Revenue Sources, Budget Development Based on Program Priorities, Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards, Long-Range Financial Forecasting, Purchasing and Auditing.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Budget/Finance function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 148 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed on committee within the Budget/Finance function.

Table 148

Reviewed in Committee Role
within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	61.1	70.8
Did Not Review in Committee	38.9	29.2

$\chi^2 = 2.187$; $df = 1$; probability = .1391; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Six separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the six management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Development of Revenue Sources indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 149 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 149

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect
to Development of Revenue Sources
within the Budget/Finance

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	37.8	38.3
Did Not Review in Committee	62.2	61.7

$\chi^2 = .007$; $df = 1$; probability = .9346; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Budget Development based on Program Priorities indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 150 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 150

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect
to Budget Development within the Budget/Finance

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	45.6	55.0
Did Not Review in Committee	54.4	45.0

$\chi^2 = 1.836$; $df = 1$; probability = .1755; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards indicated that this sub-item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 151 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 151

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards
within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	26.7	40.0
Did Not Review in Committee	73.3	60.0

$\chi^2 = 4.058$; $df = 1$; probability = .0440; significant at
the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Long-Range Financial Forecasting indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 152 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 152

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Long Range Financial Forecasting within the
Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	48.9	46.7
Did Not Review in Committee	51.1	53.3

$\chi^2 = .102$; $df = 1$; probability = .7497; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Purchasing indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 153 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 153

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Purchasing within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	22.2	27.5
Did Not Review in Committee	77.8	72.5

$\chi^2 = .759$; $df = 1$; probability = .3836; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Auditing indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 154 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 154

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Auditing within the Budget/Finance Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	26.7	31.7
Did Not Review in Committee	73.3	68.3

$\chi^2 = .618$; $df = 1$; probability = .4318; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Budget/Finance function, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards management task only. Of the female respondents, 26.7 percent indicated they had reviewed this task within a committee, while 40 percent of the male respondents indicated committee review.

No statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the entire Budget/Finance function assessed collectively or within any of the other five management tasks.

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in their role behavior (reviewed in committee) within the entire function or the five tasks, it is interesting to note that greater percentages of male than female board members indicated their role was reviewed in committee within the entire function (70.8 percent, as compared to 61.1 percent for women), and within four of the five tasks. These tasks were: Development of Revenue Sources, (38.3 percent, compared to 37.8 percent of the women); Budget Development based on Program Priorities (55 percent, compared to 45.6 percent of the women); Purchasing (27.5 percent, compared to 22.2 percent of the women); and Auditing (31.7 percent, compared to 26.7 percent of the women).

Female respondents showed a larger percentage of role involvement in committee review in one task area -- Long-Range Financial Forecasting (48.9 percent, compared to 46.7 percent for men); however, this difference was not considered appreciable.

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Budget and Finance function. Sub-hypothesis 2.12 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were derived from the interview. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview for the role of reviewed in committee (across all seven functions), none were in the Budget/Finance function. Of the total number of male responses given for the role of reviewed in committee, 35.3 percent (which was the highest percentage of responses in any category) were in the Budget/Finance function.

None of the women in the interview sample indicated they were involved with any aspect of this function.

Four of the male respondents indicated they were involved in committee work within this function. Two of the men indicated they worked primarily on budget development, one indicated he worked on Long-Range Financial Forecasting a chairman of his board's finance committee, and the fourth stressed his active role in finance by indicating he "calls the shots."

Although the size of the interview sample indicating participation in this role was small (only four members out of thirty) the total lack of involvement of women seems to support the idea that men continue to dominate a school district's financial domain.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to the questionnaire indicated a statistically significant difference between male and female

board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards task. Forty percent of the men, compared to 26.7 percent of the women, were involved in committee review in this task. Although statistically significant differences between male and female board members were not found in the other areas, a larger percentage of men than women were involved in four of the other five tasks within this function. Women were more involved than men in Long-Range Financial Forecasting (48.9 percent, compared to 46.7 percent) but the differences were small. Fifty-four percent of the male respondents, as compared with 45.6 percent of the female respondents, were involved in budget development task within their school districts.

Sub-hypothesis 2.13

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Personnel Management function.

Qualitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of reviewed in committee in each of the six management tasks within the Personnel Management function. These included: Development of Employment Policies and Procedures, Recruitment and Selection of Employees, Training and Development of Staff, Compensation Programs, Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance, and Staff Negotiations

and/or Contract Administration.

A chi-square analysis of the role of reviewed in committee indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Personnel Management function was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 155 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Personnel Management function.

Table 155

Reviewed in Committee Role within the
Personnel Management Functions

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	76.7	71.7
Did Not Review in Committee	23.3	28.3

$\chi^2 = .665$; $df = 1$; probability = .4148; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Six separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the six management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Development of Employment Policies and Procedures indicated that this item was found to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Table 156 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 156

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Development of Employment Policies and Procedures
within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	51.1	36.7
Did Not Review in Committee	48.9	63.3

$\chi^2 = 4.381$; $df = 1$; probability = .0363; significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Recruitment and Selection of Employees indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 157 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 157

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Recruitment and Selection of Employees
within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Roles	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	22.2	16.7
Did Not Review in Committee	77.8	83.3

$\chi^2 = 1.029$; $df = 1$; probability = .3103; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Training and Development of Staff indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 158 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 158

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Training and Development of Staff within the
Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	17.8	20.0
Did Not Review in Committee	82.2	80.0

$\chi^2 = .165$; $df = 1$; probability = .6849; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Compensation Programs indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 159 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 159

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Compensation Programs
within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	34.5	45.8
Did Not Review in Committee	65.6	54.2

$\chi^2 = 2.759$; $df = 1$; probability = .0967; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of the Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 160 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 160

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance
within the Personnel Management Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	31.1	40.8
Did Not Review in Committee	68.9	59.2

$\chi^2 = 2.093$; $df = 1$; probability = .1479; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Staff Negotiations and/or Contract Administration indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 161 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 161

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Staff Negotiations within the Personnel Management Function
(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	52.2	47.5
Did Not Review in Committee	47.8	52.5

$\chi^2 = .459$; $df = 1$; probability = .4952; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Personnel Management function, statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Development of Employment Policies and Procedures task only. Of the female respondents, 51.1 percent indicated they had reviewed this task within a committee, while 36.7 percent of the men respondents indicated the review of the task.

No statistically significant differences were found between men and women in the role of reviewed in committee within the entire function assessed collectively, or within any of the five remaining task areas.

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between men and women board members in their role behavior (reviewed in committees) within the entire

function or the five tasks, it is interesting to note the distribution of the male and female respondents within the other management tasks.

In two of the task areas, women indicated a higher percentage than men in committee involvement. These areas were Recruitment and Selection of Employees (22.2 percent, compared to 16.7 percent for men), and Staff Negotiations and/or Contract Administration (52.2 percent compared to 47.5 percent for men).

Men indicated a higher percentage of committee involvement in three task areas. These included: Training and Development of Staff (20 percent, compared to 17.8 percent for women); Compensation Programs (45.8 percent, compared to 34.5 percent for women); and Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance (40.8 percent, compared to 31.1 percent for women).

Based upon the quantitative analysis of data, there is no significant difference between men and women board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Personnel Management function. Sub-hypothesis 2.13 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data were derived from the interviews. Of the total number of female responses given in the interview across all seven functions, 11.1 percent were in the Personnel Management function. Of the total number of male

responses given for the role of reviewed in committee, 5.9 percent were in the Personnel Management function.

Two of the women respondents indicated committee involvement within this function. One had become involved in developing appropriate compensation programs for both certified and classified staff, and another had been involved in the evaluation of employee performance. Within this latter category, the female board member had been most involved in teacher evaluation as co-chairperson of an ad hoc committee formed to study teacher evaluation. Within this role, she "did a lot of research by finding out what was available and how teachers were evaluated in other districts." As a result of her efforts which she characterized as "taking an aggressive role" on her committee, a new teacher evaluation program developed.

The male board member who indicated involvement in this function was involved in studying appropriate compensation programs for the district's employees.

Due to the small interview sample (three) who were involved in the Personnel Management function, definitive conclusions cannot be drawn from the interviews.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses to the questionnaire indicate statistically significant differences between male and female board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Development of Employment Policies and Procedures

task. Approximately 51 percent of the women, compared to 37 percent of the men, indicated committee involvement in this task. The two most prominent areas of committee involvement for women within the Personnel function were Staff Negotiations and Contract Administration (32.2 percent) and Employment Policy Development (51.1 percent). For men, their greatest involvement was in Staff Negotiations and Contract Administration (47.5 percent), followed by Compensation Programs (45.8 percent).

The Personnel Management function did not present the same skewed pattern of gender participation depicted in the Budget/Finance function (which was heavily dominated by males) or the Communications/Public Relations function (which was heavily dominated by females). Rather, within this function, the participation of both males and females was fairly evenly distributed. Of the female respondents, 76.7 percent indicated committee involvement in this function, as compared to 71.7 percent of the males. Further, of the six tasks, three had greater male participation and three had greater female participation.

Although two of the three board members interviewed indicated they were involved in compensation programs, the limited data do not lead to any significant findings.

Sub-hypothesis 2.14

There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Pupil Services function.

Quantitative Data

One item of the questionnaire addressed the role of reviewed in committee in each of the three management tasks within the Pupil Services function. These included: Guidance and Counseling Programs, Psychological, Social, and Health Services, and Development of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance, Discipline, etc.

A chi-square analysis of the role of reviewed in committee indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Pupil Service function was not found to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 162 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within the Pupil Services function.

Table 162

Reviewed in Committee Role
within the Pupil Services Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	51.1	41.7
Did Not Review in Committee	48.9	58.3

$\chi^2 = 1.849$; $df = 1$; probability = .1740; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

Three separate chi-square analyses were conducted, one for each of the three management tasks.

A chi-square analysis of Guidance and Counseling Programs indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 163 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 163

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Guidance and Counseling Programs within the
Pupil Services Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	24.4	25.0
Did Not Review in Committee	75.6	75.0

$\chi^2 = .009$; $df = 1$; probability = .9265; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Psychological, Social and Health Services indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 164 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 164

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
Psychological, Social, and Health Services
within the Pupil Services Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	27.8	24.2
Did Not Review in Committee	72.2	75.8

$\chi^2 = .351$; $df = 1$; probability = .5535; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

A chi-square analysis of Development of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance, and Discipline indicated that this sub-item was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 165 indicates the percentages of male and female respondents who reviewed in committee within this task.

Table 165

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to Development
of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance
and Discipline Within the Pupil Services Function

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	38.9	30.8
Did Not Review in Committee	61.1	69.2

$\chi^2 = 1.481$; $df = 1$; probability = .2236; not significant
at the .05 level of significance

In assessing the quantitative data within the Pupil Services function, no statistically significant differences were found between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within any of the three management tasks or within the entire function. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences in role behavior between male and female respondents, it is of interest that a greater percentage of women board members (51.1 percent) than male board members (41.7 percent) indicated their role was reviewed in committee within this function. Similarly, in two of the three task areas, women indicated greater role involvement than men. Of the women respondents, 27.8 percent, as compared to 24.2 percent of the men, indicated they had reviewed Psychological, Social and Health Services in committee, and 38.9 percent, as

compared to 30.8 percent of the men indicated they had reviewed the Development of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance and Discipline in committee.

Based upon the quantitative data presented, there is no significant difference between male and female school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Pupil Services function. Sub-hypothesis 2.14 is, therefore, not rejected.

Qualitative Data

None of the male and female board members interviewed indicated any involvement in the Pupil Services function within the context of a standing or an ad hoc committee.

Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of Data

The responses given to the questionnaire seem to indicate a greater degree of committee review on the part of women within the Pupil Services function. Although statistically significant differences were found not to exist between the role behavior (reviewed in committee) of men and in women within this function, female involvement exceeded male involvement in two of the three tasks and in the function assessed as a whole.

Analysis of the Role of Reviewed in Committee within School District Functions

Fourteen sub-hypotheses were included within Major Hypothesis Two. Seven of the fourteen hypotheses examined

the role of reviewed in committee within each of the seven school functions. These functions included: School Board Operations, Educational Program, Support Operations, Communications and Public Relations, Budget and Finance, Personnel Management and Pupil Services.

A chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of male and female respondents who reviewed in a committee within all school district functions as a whole, was found not to be significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 166 indicates the percentages of male and female board members who reviewed in committee within all school district functions (assessed collectively).

Table 166

Reviewed in Committee Role with Respect to
All School District Functions

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
Reviewed in Committee	91.1	90.0
Did Not Review in Committee	8.9	10.0

$\chi^2 = .074$; $df = 1$; probability = .7860; not significant at the .05 level of significance

Table 167 provides a summary of the role of reviewed in committee within the seven school district functions.

Table 167

Summary Table of Reviewed in Committee Role
within All School District Functions

(Reported in Percentages of Gender Respondents)

Role	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
School Board Operations	81.1	76.7
Educational Program	73.3	62.5
Support Operations	60.0	55.0
Communications/Public Relations	67.8	55.8
Budget/Finance	61.1	70.8
Personnel Management	76.7	71.7
Pupil Services	51.1	41.7

Despite the lack of statistically significant differences between males and females in the role of reviewed in committee within all school district functions assessed collectively or within each one assessed independently, it is interesting to note that a greater percentage of women were involved in committee review in six of the seven functions. Men indicated greater committee involvement in the Budget and Finance function only (70.8 percent, compared to 61.1 percent for women). For both men and women, their greatest committee involvement was in School Board Operations (81.1 percent of the women, compared

to 76.7 percent of the men) and Personnel Management (76.9 percent of the women, compared to 71.7 percent of the men). Differences were noted between men and women in their third and fourth levels of involvement. For women, they were the Educational Program and Communications and Public Relations, and for men they were Budget and Finance, and the Educational Program.

Table 168 provides a summary of the role of reviewed in committee within the thirty-nine management tasks.

Table 168

Summary Table of Reviewed in Committee
 within School District Functions
 (Reported in Percentage of Gender Respondents)

School District Functions	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
<u>School Board Operations</u>		
1 Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals/ Objectives	55.6	55.0
2 Policy Development*	65.6	38.3
3 Procedures for School Board Organization	28.9	21.7
4 Employment of Superintendent	31.1	21.7
5 Evaluation of Superintendent	58.9	55.
6 Board Self-Evaluation	30.0	34.2
<u>Educational Program</u>		
1 Research and Development Program	22.2	19.2
2 Long-Range Curriculum Planning	43.3	35.0
3 Program Standards and Evaluation	46.7	37.5
4 Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped, Gifted, Enrichment, etc.	47.8	38.3
5 Extra-Curricular Programs	26.7	26.7
6 Grading and Reporting Systems*	36.7	21.7
7 Graduation Requirements	13.	15.0
8 Textbook Selection	36.7	30.1
9 New Courses	25.6	27.5
<u>Support Operations</u>		
1 Facilities Planning and Development	47.1	42.5
2 Buildings and Grounds Maintenance	37.8	39.2
3 Transportation	36.7	33.3
4 Food Service	26.7	24.2

Table 168-Continued

School District Functions	Female Respondents	Male Respondents
<u>Communication/Public Relations</u>		
1 Determine Community Attitudes and Opinions	36.7	33.3
2 Develop Communications between Staff and Parents	40.0	29.2
3 Provide Information to General Public	42.2	32.5
4 Provide Community Services	28.9	20.8
5 Involvement in Legislative Issues	45.6	32.5
<u>Budget/Finance</u>		
1 Development of Revenue Sources	37.8	38.3
2 Budget Development Based on Program Priorities	45.6	55.0
3 Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards*	26.7	40.0
4 Long-Range Financial Forecasting	48.9	46.7
5 Purchasing	22.2	27.5
6 Auditing	26.7	31.7
<u>Personnel Management</u>		
1 Development of Employment Policies and Procedures*	51.1	36.7
2 Recruitment and Selection of Employees	22.2	16.7
3 Training and Development of Staff	17.8	20.0
4 Compensation Programs	34.5	45.8
5 Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance	31.1	40.8
6 Staff Negotiations and Contract Administration	52.2	47.5
<u>Pupil Services</u>		
1 Guidance and Counseling Programs	24.4	25.0
2 Psychological, Social, and Health Services	27.8	24.2
3 Development of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance, Discipline, etc.	38.9	30.8

* Significant at the $P < .05$ level of significance.

Statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee were found to exist within the following four management tasks:

1. Policy Development (65.6 percent of the women, compared to 38.3 percent of the men) indicated they had reviewed this task in committee.

2. Grading and Reporting Systems (36.7 percent of the women, compared to 21.7 percent of the men) indicated they had reviewed this task in committee.

3. Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards (26.7 percent of the women, compared to 40 percent of the men) indicated they had reviewed this task in committee.

4. Development of Employment Policies and Procedures (51.1 percent of the women, compared to 36.7 percent of the men) indicated they had reviewed this task within a committee.

Of the four task areas in which statistically significant differences were found between male and female board members, women were more involved in committee review in three, or 75 percent, of the four areas. As was evident in the analysis of the initiating role, men were also more involved in committee work in the Budget and Finance function, while women were more involved in committee tasks within School Board Operations, the Educational Program,

Communications and Public Relations, and Personnel Management.

When the thirty-nine management tasks were collectively studied, women indicated a higher degree of role involvement within committees in twenty-five or 64.1 percent of the tasks, while men indicated a higher degree of committee involvement in thirteen, or 33.3 percent of these tasks. (One task showed an equal percentage of committee review between male and female members). Of the thirteen tasks men were most involved in, nearly 40 percent were in the Budget/Finance function.

The interview data collected on the role of reviewed in committee across all functions and tasks seemed to support the collective findings of the questionnaire.

Within the interview sample, women were most involved in committee review tasks within School Board Operations, followed by an equal degree of involvement in the Educational Program, School/Community Relations, and Personnel Management. Male board members were primarily involved in School Board Operations, and Budget and Finance.

These observations are supported by previous findings in the present study. Since committee assignments were usually made on the basis of personal interest, one would anticipate that a board member's motivation for school board service would be reflected in his/her committee involvement. Clearly this was the case, since one of the primary

motivations for female board members for board service was school and community relations. Similarly, one of the primary motivations for male board member service was district financial concerns.

In addition, when asked about the areas they most wanted to work with as a school board member, women indicated curriculum and instruction and school/community relations, and men cited budget and finance.

The actual standing committee memberships of board members were also congruent with their committee review role. The single highest percentage of committee membership for male board members was the Budget and Finance Committee, while for women, the single highest committee membership was the Policy Committee (within the School Board Operations function).

These data seem to suggest that the reviewed in committee role assumed by male and female board members was directed toward and commensurate with the motivations for seeking school board membership and the areas they wanted to work with on the board.

The data also seem to suggest that there are traditional roles on boards that men and women tend to fill repeatedly. The present school board committee appointment process perpetuates this sexual division of labor, since it appears that females are generally not appointed to "male" committees (i.e., finance) and males are not generally

appointed to "female" committees (i.e., legislative).

Although it is important to preserve interest and expertise on board committees, perhaps as several board members indicated during the interviews, the rotational process of committee membership would, in the long run, best serve individuals and boards of education.

Summary of Major Hypothesis Two

Fourteen sub-hypotheses were included under Major Hypothesis Two which stated that there was no significant difference between men and women school board members in their role behavior (initiated and reviewed in committee) within specific school district functions. Seven of the fourteen hypotheses examined the role of initiated, and seven of the hypotheses examined the role of reviewed in committee.

Table 169 provides a summary of the role behavior of male and female board members within all school district functions and the thirty-nine management tasks.

Table 169

Summary of Table of Role Behavior of Board Members
 Within All School District Functions and Management Tasks

School District Functions	Initiated		Reviewed in Committee	
	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
<u>School Board Operations</u>				
1. Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals/Objectives	44.4	30.8	55.6	55.0
2. Policy Development	30.0	35.0	65.6	38.3
3. Procedures for School Board Organization	18.9	20.0	28.9	21.7
4. Employment of Superintendent	11.1	11.7	31.1	21.7
5. Evaluation of Superintendent	24.4	24.2	58.9	55.0
6. Board Self-Evaluation	24.4	7.5	40.0	34.2
<u>Educational Program</u>				
1. Research and Development Program	5.6	4.2	22.2	19.2
2. Long-Range Curriculum Planning	5.6	7.5	43.3	35.0
3. Program Standards and Evaluation	3.3	5.0	46.7	37.5
4. Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped, Gifted, Enrichment, etc.	14.4	8.3	47.8	38.3
5. Extra-Curricular Programs	5.6	5.8	26.7	26.7
6. Grading and Reporting Systems	6.7	4.2	36.7	21.7
7. Graduation Requirements	3.3	5.8	13.3	15.0
8. Textbook Selection	2.2	.8	36.7	30.1
9. New Courses	2.2	5.8	25.6	27.5
<u>Support Operations</u>				
1. Facilities Planning and Development	12.2	18.3	47.1	42.5
2. Buildings and Grounds Maintenance	8.9	15.0	37.8	39.2
3. Transportation	6.7	6.7	36.7	33.3
4. Food Service	10.0	3.3	26.7	24.2

Table 169--Continued

School District Functions	Initiated		Reviewed in Committee	
	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120	Female Respondents N=90	Male Respondents N=120
<u>Personnel Management</u>				
1. Development of Employment Policies and Procedures	12.2	14.2	51.1	36.7
2. Recruitment and Selection of Employees	3.3	4.2	22.2	16.7
3. Training and Development of Staff	3.3	4.2	17.8	20.0
4. Compensation Programs	4.4	11.7	34.5	45.8
5. Supervision and Evaluation of Employees' Performance	5.6	10.0	31.1	40.8
6. Staff Negotiations and/or Contract Administration	12.2	19.2	52.2	47.5
<u>Pupil Services</u>				
1. Guidance and Counseling Programs	6.7	3.3	24.4	25.0
2. Psychological, Social, and Health Services	4.4	2.5	27.8	24.2
3. Development of Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance, Discipline, etc.	14.4	7.5	38.9	30.8
<u>Communication/Public Relations</u>				
1. Determine Community Attitudes and Opinions	31.11	16.7	36.7	33.3
2. Develop Communications Between Staff and Parents	17.8	10.8	40.0	29.2
3. Provide Information to General Public	28.9	22.5	42.2	32.5
4. Provide Community Services	14.4	6.7	28.9	20.8
5. Involvement in Legislative Issues	27.8	12.5	45.6	32.5
<u>Budget/Finance</u>				
1. Development of Revenue Sources	2.2	5.0	37.8	38.3
2. Budget Development Based on Program Priorities	6.7	9.2	45.6	55.0
3. Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards	3.3	13.3	26.7	40.0
4. Long-Range Financial Forecasting	7.8	12.5	48.9	46.7
5. Purchasing	0	5.0	22.2	27.5
6. Auditing	1.1	2.5	26.7	31.7

Of the fourteen sub-hypotheses, three were found to be statistically significant beyond the .05 level of significance and were, therefore, rejected. Statistically significant differences were found to exist between male and female board members in the following areas.

1. Role of Initiated within the Community/Public Relations Function. Women board members were more involved in an initiating role within this function than were male board members.

2. Role of Initiated within the Budget/Finance Function. Male board members were more involved in an initiating role within this function than were female board members.

3. Role of Initiated within the Pupil Service Function. Female board members were more involved in an initiating role within this function than were male board members.

In addition to finding statistically significant differences between male and female board members with regard to their role behavior within district functions, statistically significant differences in role behavior also were found within specific management tasks.

Female board members were more involved in an initiating role within the following management tasks:

1. Assessment of District Needs and the Development of Goals and Objectives.

2. Board Self-Evaluation
3. Food Service
4. Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions
5. Involvement in Legislative Issues

Male board members were more involved in an initiating role within the following management tasks:

1. Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards
2. Purchasing

Female board members were more involved in a committee review role in the following management tasks:

1. Policy Development
2. Grading and Reporting Systems
3. Development of Employment Policies and Procedures

Male board members were more involved in a committee review role in the task of Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards.

When the initiating and committee review roles are assessed collectively, it is apparent that Developing Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards is a statistically significant area of involvement for male board members. No one task area emerged as a statistically significant area of involvement for women in both initiation and reviewed in committee roles.

Although statistically significant differences were not found between men and women school board members in eleven, or 78.6 percent of the hypotheses, noteworthy differences

between male and female role behavior were indicated.

As noted earlier in Chapter III, the evaluation (rejection or non-rejection) of the major hypothesis would not be done as a summation but as a general judgment due to the number of sub-hypotheses contained under each major hypothesis.

Based upon the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data, it is the judgment of the researcher that significant differences do appear to exist between male and female board members in their role behavior within specific school district function.

Major Hypothesis Two is, therefore, rejected.

Analysis of Female Respondents' Role Behavior on Boards of Education Within the Framework of the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior

The Getzels-Guba Model deals with the construct of social behavior within a hierarchial setting. According to the model, a social system consists of "two major classes of phenomena which are at once conceptually independent and phenomenally interactive."⁵⁸

The first class of phenomena, termed the nomothetic, consists of the institution with certain roles and expectiations that fulfill the system's goals and directions. It reflects a sociological orientation which seeks to understand behavior in terms of the normative

⁵⁸Getzels and Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," p. 424.

dimensions of the activity.

The second class, termed the idiographic, contains the individual with certain personalities and need-dispositions that occupy the system. This class reflects a psychological orientation which focuses on comprehending behavior in terms of the personal dimensions of the activity. Social behavior is the product of the simultaneous interaction of these constructs within the two classes of phenomena.⁵⁹

A pictorial representation of this model is found in chapter II of this study. (see figure 1.) It should be noted that within this Model, each component within a dimension functions as the analytic unit for the element preceding it.⁶⁰ The principle direction of the effects between the components of each dimension is, therefore, from left to right.⁶¹

In applying this Model to an analysis of the operational role behavior of female school board members, it is imperative that the concept of social behavior be understood.

In the Getzels-Guba theory, a given act is thought of as deriving simultaneously from within the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. Social behavior is the result of the individual trying to cope in an environment consisting

⁵⁹Ibid.

⁶⁰Sweitzer, p. 168.

⁶¹Ibid., p. 169.

of patterns of expectations of his/her behavior, and in ways that are congruent with his/her own unique patterns of needs.

Social behavior is defined by the equation $B=f(R \times P)$, where B is observed behavior, R is a specific institutional role defined by expectations, and P is the personality of the role incumbent defined by his/her need-dispositions.⁶² In understanding school board member role behavior, it is important to note that the relative proportion of role and personality variables that effect behavior, vary with the specific act, role, and personality involved.

This concept is graphically portrayed in chapter II. (see figure 2.)

According to this behavioral Model, a role incumbent's behavior may be ascribed along a continuum located on the axis X to Y ranging from primary emphasis on role-relevant behavior (nomothetic dimension) to primary emphasis on personality - relevant behavior (idiographic dimension).⁶³ Regardless of the emphasis, however, behavior remains a function of the interaction between role and personality.

Within this study, behavior was defined as "the overt performance of individuals; how the individual actually performs in a given position as distinct from how he is

⁶²Getzels and Guba, p. 429.

⁶³Sweitzer, pp. 171-172.

supposed to perform."⁶⁴

Several items in the questionnaire assessed school board member behavior -- how board members actually performed on the board of education. These items included: school board committee memberships and chairmanships held, areas of school board responsibility in which board members actively worked, frequency of involvement in specific school board activities, and the specific behaviors (initiated or reviewed in committee) board members most typically demonstrated within each of seven school district functions.

The findings of the present study as they relate to the role (expectations) and personality (needs-dispositions) of female school board members will be briefly reviewed. This will be followed by an analysis of the behavior of women board members according to nomothetic and idiographic constructs. It should be noted that the conclusions made about women school board members apply only to the respondents in this study.

According to the Getzels-Guba Model, role is the most important analytic sub-unit of the institution because it defines what the behavior of the individual role incumbent should be. Roles outline the expectations, rights, and duties of a position incumbent. They serve as institutional givens and as behavioral prescriptions for performance

⁶⁴Gross, Mason, and McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis, p. 14.

within a specific position.

The present study did not investigate the institutional role expectations of board members for their own role; nor did it investigate the perceptions of other school district personnel for the role of a school board member.

The literature, however, casts some light on the role and expectations traditionally placed upon school boards and inferentially upon school board members.

Primarily, the school board's role is seen to be governance and oversight. Its function is to study possibilities, weigh alternatives, determine major long- and short-range goals, formulate general policies and procedures, and monitor and evaluate educational performance. Broadly conceived, its role is policy-making and not policy-administering. The board and its individual members are not to implement or administer policies. They are not to supervise or evaluate on an individual basis, for that is the role of the school district administration.

According to the National School Board Association:

Board members are not staff members. Their job is not to roll up their sleeves and do. Their job is to deliberate together at board meetings and to make decisions that will ensure that the work of the school gets done.⁶⁵

Countless examples of the endorsement of this conception of the role of the school board are found throughout the literature. However, evidence is also

⁶⁵National School Board Association, School Board Handbook, p. 8.

growing that this traditional conception of school boards and school board member roles may be changing. Louise Dyer, president of the San Diego Board of Education, emphasized this changing role orientation for school boards when she stated that "Board members now seem to be serving notice on the education establishment saying "open up and let us in... Don't treat us as outsiders."⁶⁶ This apparent desire on the part of board members to become more involved in the educational process runs contrary to the traditional conception of the appropriate role of a school board member which was essentially: develop but don't do -- plan, but don't implement, or in the colloquial view -- look, but don't touch!

Although the literature examining this new orientation is most limited to date, the data collected in this present study provide some indication that the female school board member is rejecting the traditional role of "appropriate" school board member behavior in favor of a more involved and assertive role within the board of education.

Before the actual behavior of women school board members is analyzed, the findings of the present study as they relate to the personality and need-dispositions of female members (the idiographic constructs within the Model) will be reviewed.

⁶⁶Dyer, "The American School Board Member," p. 19.

For the purpose of this Model, personality is defined as the "dynamic organization within the individual of those need-dispositions that govern his unique reactions to the environment."⁶⁷ Need-dispositions are defined as the individual "tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners and to expect certain consequences from these actions."⁶⁸

Personality is, therefore, a product of the characteristics and need-dispositions of the individual. According to this study, what are the personal and professional characteristics of women on boards of education? Typically, the female respondents in this study were between thirty and forty-nine years of age (91.2 percent), had a high level of formal education as indicated by the fact that 63.4 percent had a bachelors degree, a graduate degree, or had done graduate work, were married (88.9 percent), had children (96.7 percent), were relatively affluent, with 60 percent indicating a total gross family income of \$40,000 or more, and were employed full- or part-time (73.3 percent). Of those employed either part or full-time, 27 percent were educators and 43.6 percent were either in managerial, professional, or technical fields other than teaching.

In addition, the female respondents were highly

⁶⁷Getzels and Guba, p. 428.

⁶⁸Ibid.

involved in organizations, both as a member and an officer. These organizations were most frequently youth and school organizations, church-related organizations, school district advisory groups, general service organizations (which included the League of Women Voters) and alumni organizations (which included the A.A.U.W.).

It is interesting to examine the profile of the female school board member in DuPage County in light of the profile of the "typical" DuPage County resident. When this is done, the "typical" female board member becomes atypical in terms of the County's population. Of the residents in DuPage County, 20 percent are college graduates, the mean income in the county is approximately \$14,500, and the occupational distribution of employed women indicates that 20 percent are professional or technical workers or managers.

What this limited data seem to suggest, is that women who seek school board membership in DuPage County are dramatically different from the majority of the residents and the women in the county, and this difference sets them apart from the norm.

Several questions in the questionnaire and the interview addressed concepts that related to an individual's need-dispositions. These included: motivations for seeking school board office, specific areas of school board responsibilities in which board members wanted to work while on the board, views about the role of the board,

orientations toward conflict, problem-solving and being a member of an organization, perceptions of board members, administrators, and community groups as sources of information, encouragement and/or endorsement, and orientations toward board member visibility and community representation and participation. These concepts will be reviewed in an effort to create an idiographic framework within which to analyze the behavior of women on school boards.

Although the data indicated that women had diverse motivations for seeking school board membership, the highest single percentage of women indicated personal interest in school affairs and education as the most important motivation. This was not a surprising finding in light of the youth, school, and educationally oriented organizational memberships held by women.

Other important motivations for women included: a sense of duty to the community, a desire to improve school and community relations, student achievement, discipline, and interest in the curriculum and instructional program. The interview data suggested another and perhaps more personal motivation for seeking school board office -- that was the desire to use her educational background and expertise in organizational governance, coupled with her drive, talent, and time, in a worthwhile manner. School board office was perceived by many women respondents as an

interim "occupation" (while the children were young) before resuming full-time employment. In the words of one female board president, "it was a way of doing something meaningful until I figured out what I really wanted to do with my life."

Once elected, women board members brought to their board a rather definitive set of expectations regarding the areas of school board responsibility they most wanted to work with; approximately 63 percent of their choices were in three areas: the curriculum and instructional program, school community relations, and developing educational policy and philosophy. Again, there is a clear sense of congruency between what women wanted to do as board members, their motivations for seeking board service, their organizational experience prior to board membership, and their professional training and expertise. (Over 30 percent were educators.)

Several other areas addressed tangentially in the questionnaire and/or interview have a bearing on understanding the need-dispositions or behavioral "orientations" of women school board members.

The organizations within which individuals actively participate develop norms of behavior. Over a period of time, these norms become internalized and, as such, become strong socializing forces for members within an organization; often the norms are internalized to such an

extent that they become part of the individual's personality and behavioral orientation.

The findings in this study suggest that women board members have been behaviorally socialized by a few powerful organizations -- namely, the P.T.A. and the League of Women Voters. According to the women interviewed, these organizations have sanctioned very definitive norms of behavior which include: open-debate, intense discussions, acceptance of disagreement and conflict, research, investigation, collegial and participative problem-solving, project and activity initiation, and project completion. The strong information-gathering, research and problem-solving orientation of these organizations appears to have been largely internalized by female board members as the - accepted and preferred way of behaving within an organization; this behavioral orientation is, therefore, transferred to other organizations in which they are involved, namely -- the board of education.

This orientation is also congruent with the greater tendency of female board members rather than male board members, to select the Legislature rather than the Corporation Board of Trustees role for the school board. As defined in the questionnaire, the Legislature "acts to create the best policies through open-debate," which is a behavior both modeled and encouraged by the organizations in which women are members. It is important to note that

because this behavior represents the behavioral norm for the members within these organizations, women not only transfer these behaviors to other organizations, but they come to other organizations with expectations that this role performance will be accepted.

In addition, the greater tendency of women to select the Legislative alternative is indicative of their strong commitment to the community, as evidenced by their motivation to improve school community relations, their desire to work with community and public relations, and their frequent chairmanships of board Public Relations committees. This suggests a greater orientation to represent the community to the board rather than legitimate the activities of the board and administration to the community.

This collegial and participative approach to problem solving is also supported by the fact that more women reported belonging to an informal board member network than did men. According to the female interview respondents, their reason for using this informal network was for informational purposes. It was seen to be an important resource in gathering information for problem-solving. In addition, when asked to identify the most helpful source of information for various school board responsibilities, the superintendent was selected most frequently by men and women. However, in three specific areas -- the curriculum

and instructional program, special programs, and support services, women more frequently consulted school personnel other than the superintendent.

This behavior was also evident in the groups that women indicated had the most influence on their decision-making. Although the superintendent and board members were the most influential, women also weighted the opinions of board-appointed advisory groups, school district organizations, and the I.A.S.B. in their decision-making more than men. Again, this seems to indicate a strong orientation on the part of women board members to consult diverse informational sources.

A strong orientation toward dynamic (active and participative) problem-solving and decision-making as a possible outgrowth of the organizational activities in which they have participated, is one component of the need-dispositions of women on boards of education.

Another orientation of women board members inferred from the questionnaire and interview data is an orientation toward visibility and board member involvement within school district activities. Statistically significant differences were noted between male and female board members in the frequency in which they engaged in meetings, discussions, phone calls, and visitations with personnel within and outside of the district. Female board members were more involved in weekly contacts than were males.

Further, when board members were asked in the interview to comment on how visible they thought board members should be, the women board members had a tendency to stress greater and more frequent visibility and attendance at building and district-level programs than the male members. Again, this frequent contact with a wide variety of individuals from whom they receive information reinforces and continues to expand the milieu of involvement in building level, district level, state, and local issues.

In summary, in reviewing the data received from both the questionnaire and the interview instrument, female respondents appeared to have internalized the following need-dispositions or "tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners..."⁶⁹

1. Strong interest and orientation toward improving the quality of education and curricular and instructional improvement

2. Strong community awareness, a desire to represent the needs of the community and to provide information to the community

3. Strong commitment to personal goal-fulfillment and the use of her talents in a meaningful way

4. Strong organizational and volunteer orientation coupled with experience in governance

⁶⁹Ibid.

5. Strong orientation to participative and collegial rather than unilateral decision-making

6. Strong involvement in shared problem-solving, and less acceptance of authority

7. Strong orientation toward the use of other programs and outside resources in decision-making

8. Strong orientation toward research, asking questions, probing and getting "all the information" before making a decision

9. Strong orientation toward board member visibility and involvement in the activities of the district, the staff, and the building

10. Strong orientation toward accountability in all levels of administration and board operations

Having reviewed the nomothetic and idiographic constructs that simultaneously interact to produce social behavior, we now turn to a review and analysis of the operational role behavior of women on boards of education in DuPage County, according to the Getzels-Guba Model. The behaviors to be analyzed are: (1) school board committee memberships and chairmanships held; (2) areas of school board responsibility in which women are actually working; (3) frequency of involvement in specific school board activity; and (4) the specific behaviors (initiated or reviewed in committee) board members most typically demonstrated within each of seven school district functions.

Of the eight categories of school board committee memberships, women primarily served on policy committees, legislative committees, and educational and curriculum committees. As might be anticipated, board committee chairmanships generally paralleled committee memberships. Women were more often the chairmen of Policy, Legislation, Education, and Public Relations committees. When viewed from the perspective of prior organizational involvement in youth and school-related committees and the perspective of motivations for seeking school board election, these committee and chairmanship assignments appear most congruent. Further, the interview data noted that the majority of female board members who were serving on committees were satisfied with the committees to which they were appointed. As noted earlier, board presidents typically made committee appointments based on interest and expertise; it appears from the findings of this study that women did have more interest and expertise in education, legislation, and public relations issues. Unfortunately, unless board member committee assignments are rotated in some fashion, these committees may continue to remain the "female" committees on the board.

The data on the areas of school board responsibility in which females are presently working reflect these same interests and orientations. With the exception of the budget and finance area in which approximately 15 percent of

female responses were generated, women indicated they were actually working the most with legislation and the legislative process, developing educational policy and philosophy, the curriculum and instructional program, school community relations, and hiring and evaluating the superintendent. Again, the personality antecedents to these behaviors are apparent. Through involvement in education and the community, often as a teacher and/or a member or officer of the P.T.A., women have consistently developed interests and expertise in the educational program and knowledge and understanding of the community. Their interests and experiences have been transferred quite naturally to the board of education.

The frequency of female board member involvement in a variety of specific activities within a school district is also congruent with and reflective of their personal need-dispositions discussed earlier.

According to the questionnaire and interview data, female board members were more involved than male board members in weekly contacts with school board members in their own districts and other districts, the superintendent, other central office administrators, building principals, teachers, parents, students, and legislators. They were also more involved in attending school-related events such as drama and sporting events, and staff inservice activities, visiting classrooms, and attending state school board

meetings. Although male board members had contact with these groups, the frequency of their contacts was generally monthly or every three to four months.

Not only was the frequency of female board member contact (which was greater than that reported by male board members) commensurate with their orientation toward visibility, but the nature of their contacts was also compatible with their orientation toward needing complete and thorough information from as many resources as possible. This data, coupled with the previous findings, certainly seem to indicate a highly intensive and broad involvement with the school system on all levels. This is the manner in which other organizational memberships were approached, and it is only logical that school board membership would be approached with the same commitment and involvement.

The last behaviors to be reviewed are the specific behaviors (initiated and reviewed in committee) that female board members typically demonstrated in thirty-nine management tasks within seven key school district functions. These functions included: School Board Operations, Educational Program, Support Operations, Communications/Public Relations, Budget and Finance, Personnel Management, and Pupil Services.

Statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in the role of initiated were found in the School Board Operations function, the

Communications/Public Relations function, and the Pupil Services function. In all three areas, women indicated greater involvement in initiating activities than did men. Further, when individual task areas within these functions were assessed, statistically significant differences between men and women were also indicated. These tasks included: Assessment of District Needs and the Development of Goals and Objectives, Board Self-Evaluation, Food Service, Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions, and Involvement in Legislative Issues. Again, women indicated greater involvement in initiating activities within these tasks. Although statistically significant differences were not noted in the remaining tasks, women continued to evidence a greater involvement in initiating activities than men in the following task areas: Evaluation of the Superintendent, Educational Research and Development Program, Special Programs for Vocational, Handicapped or Gifted Students, Grading and Reporting Systems, Textbook Selection, Developing Communication between Staff and Parents, Providing Information to the General Public, Providing Community Services, Providing Guidance and Counseling Programs, Psychological and Social Health Services, and Developing Policies and Procedures that regulate Student Attendance and Discipline.

In addition, when the interview data regarding the role of initiation was analyzed, it became evident that the males

and females (within this sample) differed in their definition and understanding of initiation. For men, initiation largely meant raising an issue; for women, initiation not only meant raising an issue, it also entailed researching the problem, asking questions of multiple and diverse populations, formulating tentative conclusions, and presenting a recommendation. Interview data also suggested that while this was a comfortable behavior for women, it was not comfortable for either male board members or the superintendent.

When these areas of initiating behavior are analyzed in relation to the personality and need-dispositions of female board members (as indicated by the data in this study), it becomes apparent that women are most congruent in their operational role on the board of education. They are not behaving any differently on the school board than they are on any other organizational board. Their orientation toward children, the educational program, school community relations, legislation and accountability are manifested in their involvement in specific school board tasks relating to these areas.

This pattern of involvement was seen in relation to female board member committee behavior.

Although statistically women were more involved than men in the committee review role in Educational Policy Development, Grading and Reporting Systems, and Development

of Employment Policies, they were also more involved than men in twenty-five, or 64.1 percent, of the other tasks.

When assessing the operational role behavior of women board members with respect to key school district functions, the data seems to suggest a greater involvement of women in initiating and/or committee review roles, in the following functions: (1) School Board Operations, (2) Educational Program, (3) Communication and Public Relations, and (4) Pupil Services.

The intensity of their involvement in these functions can be seen as a by-product of several factors:

1. Having time to devote to school board duties
2. A personal drive to use their talents and make a meaningful contribution
3. A behavioral orientation that requires thorough preparation and the initiation and completion of a task
4. A keen interest in improving the educational system and making it accountable to the board and the community

The primary emphasis of this analysis has been on the idiographic or personal dimension of the Getzels-Guba Model; the behavior of women on boards of education had been reviewed from this perspective. However, since the Model indicates that behavior is a product of both nomothetic (role) and idiographic (personality) functions, the nomothetic influences on female behavior must also be reviewed. When this is done, it becomes apparent that there

is some degree of conflict between the normative role expectations for school board members outlined in the literature and traditionally accepted as the "standard" for board member behavior, and the way in which female board members have defined their role as a result of their need-dispositions.

As the Model indicated, behavior may be reviewed along a continuum ranging from primary emphasis on role relevant performance to primary emphasis on personality-relevant performance.

The findings in this study seem to suggest that female board members tend toward a primary emphasis on personality-relevant rather than role-behavior performance, while male board members tend toward a primary emphasis on role relevant behavior. Given the expectations traditionally defined for the school board member's role, the maximization of the role dimension, as opposed to the personal dimension of social behavior, also appears to be the preferred behavior style of school district administrators.

The role behavior of women on school board also needs to be reviewed from the perspective of three additional constructs of the Getzels-Guba model; these are effectiveness, efficiency, and individual satisfaction.

According to Getzels and Guba:

The model ... makes possible clear cut ... distinctions between the terms so that a given role incumbent may ... be seen as effective without being efficient, and

efficient without being effective, and satisfied without being either effective or efficient.⁷⁰

Briefly, effectiveness is a function of the congruency of the role incumbents behavior with the expectations of the evaluator of the behavior; efficiency is a function of the congruency of the role incumbent's behavior with his own need-dispositions; and satisfaction in the function of the congruency of individual needs and institutional expectations.⁷¹

The findings of the present study seem to indicate that coupled with the apparent emphasis of female board members on personality-relevant behavior, is a parallel emphasis on efficiency. The behavior of women on boards of education appears to be efficient in terms of congruency with need-dispositions, but not necessarily organizationally effective in terms of congruency with institutional expectations.

In relation to this model, this has the potential for creating problematic situations for the institution and the administration because role-traditional expectations are not totally maintained, and for the individual, because behavior dissatisfaction results.

The research findings of the present study imply subtle but nonetheless discernible alterations in the functioning of boards of education as more and more women become members

⁷⁰Getzels and Guba, p. 433.

⁷¹Ibid., pp. 433-435.

of school boards.

A review of some of these implied alterations follows.

In 1927, George Counts expressed grave concern that "with respect to sex education, and occupation, the board shows a tendency to be narrowly selective...."⁷²

He elaborated his concerns further in the following statement:

Our boards of education are composed of businessmen. What this is likely to mean for American education is obvious. There is a grave danger that the curriculum, methods of instruction, administrative organization, and criteria for successful achievement in the school will be derived from the procedures, needs, ideals of commerce and industry. Evidence is already accumulated to indicate that this is taking place.⁷³

The literature review indicated that present day writers voiced the same concerns. The findings of the present study seem to indicate that, with respect to the functions and tasks Counts was most concerned about (curriculum, instruction, administrative organization, and student achievement), the balance of power is beginning to shift as a result of more and more women becoming members of local boards of education. This study has indicated that male board members continue to hold the majority of the memberships and chairmanships on the Budget, Buildings and Grounds, and Negotiations committees, while women hold the majority of memberships and chairmanships on Education,

⁷²Counts, p. 81.

⁷³Ibid., p. 94.

Policy, Public Relations, Personnel and Legislative committees.

Counts was also concerned that the composition of the school board would distort the primary purpose of the local board of education which was the development of educational policy. He strongly disagreed with other writers in administration at the time, most notably, Chancellor and Cubberley, who believed that an effective board facilitated the tasks of the administration. To Counts, this represented an emphasis "not on the character of the educational policies formulated, but on the efficiency with which they are executed."⁷⁴ These two distinct orientations to boardsmanship, efficiency and educational quality, are still discussed today. However, again the findings of the present study seem to imply that female school board members are more oriented toward educational policy-making, long-range planning, participative problem-solving, and less acceptance of the school superintendent as the sole source of information. This approach to problem-solving could be perceived as less efficient and less facilitative of the administrator's task.

The intent of this analysis was to review the operational role behavior of women on boards of education within the framework of the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior. It appears from this research study that the

⁷⁴Counts, p. 89.

behavior women exhibit on school boards is congruent with their personality and need-dispositions, but not always congruent with the role expectations of the institution.

What this study has indicated is that there does appear to be a female behavioral orientation to school board membership; however, the pattern of female (and male) behavior on school boards closely mirrors the behavioral orientations of men and women in general society. When this observation is taken into account, the results of this research contain few surprises.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter of the study contains a restatement of the theoretical framework presented in earlier chapters. Also included is a summary of the research design and data treatment developed for this study. Based upon the analysis of the data related to the basic questions of the study, conclusions and recommendations are presented. Recommendations for further research concerning men and women on boards of education and board/superintendent relations conclude this final chapter.

Summary of the Study

The study was concerned with the characteristics, roles, functions, and behavior of women on boards of education. In order to add depth to the conclusions of the study, the differences between the role behavior of male and female school were explored.

From this basic topic, three central questions were proposed:

1. Are there significant differences between men and women school board members in their characteristics of school board service?

2. Are there significant differences in the characteristics and operational role behavior of men and women serving on school boards with respect to seven key school district functions? These functions include: School Board Operations, Educational Program, Support Operations, Communications and Public Relations, Budget and Finance, Personnel Management, and Pupil Services.

3. If significant differences in the role behavior and functions of men and women school board members seem to exist, what implications may these differences have for directions in educational policy-making and educational governance?

The population for this study consisted of all the school board members in DuPage County, Illinois who were on Boards of Education after the November, 1982 school board election. Each of the forty-five school districts in DuPage County was represented in the actual sample.

The Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior was selected as the theoretical framework for this study. This model offers a way of analyzing behavior within the context of a social system as a function of two conceptually independent but phenomenally interactive dimensions -- the nomothetic and the idiographic. The nomothetic dimension consists of the institution with certain roles and expectations that fulfill the goals and directions of the system. The idiographic dimension consists of the individuals with certain personalities and need-dispositions that inhabit the system. The simultaneous interaction of these dimensions results in social behavior.

The questionnaire was sent to all 311 school board members in DuPage County. Questionnaires were returned by

210, or 67.5 percent of the board members, with representation from each of the county's forty-five school districts.

The interview sample was drawn from one-third, or fifteen of the school districts in DuPage County. In order to secure data from the two referent groups in each of the selected school districts, fifteen sets of "matched dyads" were interviewed. A proportional stratified random sampling technique was utilized in order to obtain a reliable and representative sample for the interview. Once the districts were selected, the actual interview population was determined through the process of random selection.

The data provided by the questionnaire were statistically analyzed through reporting percentages and/or mean responses for each item of the questionnaire and through the use of a chi-square analysis ($P < .05$ Alpha). When applied to the data, these procedures provided a means of determining statistically significant differences between men and women school board members.

Summary of the Findings

Major Hypothesis One which stated that there was no significant difference between men and women school board members in their characteristics of school board service was rejected. Eighteen sub-hypotheses were included under Major Hypothesis One. Of the eighteen sub-hypotheses, seven were found to be statistically significant at or beyond the .05

level of significance and were, therefore, rejected.

Major Hypothesis Two which stated that there was no significant difference between men and women school board members in their role behavior within specific school district functions was rejected. Fourteen sub-hypotheses were included under Major Hypothesis Two. Of the fourteen sub-hypotheses, three were found to be statistically significant beyond the .05 level of significance and were, therefore, rejected.

The quantitative data obtained in this study led to the numerous findings which follow. Findings one through twenty-two relate to Major Hypothesis One; findings twenty-three through thirty-six relate to Major Hypothesis Two.

1. There is a statistically significant difference between male and female school board members in their organizational memberships prior to school board service. Women were more likely to be members of youth and school organizations (P.T.A.), school district advisory committees, and university alumni organizations (A.A.U.W.), while men were more likely to be members of professional or business organizations and general service organizations (Lions, Jaycees, Kiwanis).

2. There is a statistically significant difference between male and female school board members in their involvement in organizational governance prior to school board service. More women were involved in organizational

governance than were men. In addition to holding more organizational offices than did men, women were also involved in higher levels of educational governance. Women more frequently held the office of president, vice-president, or secretary within their organizations.

3. There is a statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary motivations that most influenced them to seek school board membership. Women school board members were more likely than men to seek school board membership primarily due to a personal interest in school affairs and education. Other primary motivations included a sense of duty to the community and a desire to improve school/community relations. Male board members were largely motivated by a sense of duty to the community, a personal interest in education, and concerns about the budget and finances of the district.

4. There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the primary groups that most encouraged them to seek school board offices. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women were more encouraged than men by friends, neighbors, and organizations affiliated with the district; men were more encouraged than women by school board members and family.

5. There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the public endorsement they

received from specific groups or organizations. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, a greater percentage of women received public endorsements than did men. Further, women were more likely to receive public endorsement from the community caucus, while men were more likely to receive public endorsement from the teachers' association and the local newspaper.

6. There is a statistically significant difference between male and female school board members in their present memberships in organizations. Women school board members were more likely to be members of youth and school organizations (P.T.A.), general service organizations (League of Women Voters), and alumni organizations (A.A.U.W.), while men were more likely to hold memberships in professional, business, or occupational groups.

7. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in their present involvement in organizational governance. Over four-fifths of both men and women board members did not presently hold any organizational office other than the school board.

8. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board offices they presently held. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, a greater percentage of men held school board presidencies, while women were more likely to be board secretaries.

9. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board committees on which they are presently serving. Despite the lack of statistically significant difference, women were far more likely than men to be holding membership on the Education, Policy, and Legislative committees, while men were far more likely to be members of the Budget and Finance, Buildings and Grounds, and Negotiations committees.

10. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board committee chairmanships they presently held. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women were far more likely than men to hold the chairmanships of the Personnel, Education, Policy, Legislative, and Public Relations committees, while men were far more likely to be chairmen of the Budget and Finance, Buildings and Grounds, and Negotiations committees.

11. There are statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in the frequency with which they engage in meetings, discussions, or phone calls with school board members in their own district, building principals, parents, and students. Women have far more frequent (weekly) involvement with these groups than do men.

12. There are no statistically significant differences between men and women school board members in the frequency

with which they engage in meetings, discussions, or phone calls with the superintendent, other central office administrators, school board members in other districts, teachers, or state legislators. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women have more frequent contact than do men with all of the aforementioned groups.

13. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the frequency with which they read school board-related or education-related materials. Male and female board members read these materials with almost equal frequency.

14. There is a statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the frequency of their attendance in classrooms, and at state school board association meetings. Women visited classrooms and attended state board meetings with far greater frequency than did men.

15. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the frequency of their attendance at school board committee meetings, school-related events, teacher institutes, or national school board meetings. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women more frequently attended school-related events and teacher institutes, while men more frequently attended national school board association

meetings and school board committee meetings.

16. There is a statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the school board responsibilities they most wanted to work with during school board service. Women board members were more likely to want to work with the curriculum and instructional program, school/community relations, developing educational policy and philosophy, and improving student achievement. Male board members were more likely to want to work on budget and financial issues, and negotiations.

17. There is a statistically significant difference between men and women board members in the areas of school board responsibility they actually worked with the most. Women were more likely to work in hiring and evaluating the superintendent, legislation, and developing educational policy and philosophy. Men, on the other hand, were more likely to work with budget and finance, board/superintendent relations, and negotiations.

18. There is a statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in their membership in informal networks of school board members from other school districts. Women were far more likely than men to indicate membership in an informal network of school board members from other districts who periodically consulted each other on matters of mutual concern.

19. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the categories of individuals who served as their most helpful sources of information. Although the superintendent and other board members were perceived by both males and females to be the most helpful information source in most areas of school board responsibility, women were far more likely than men to seek input from school personnel other than the superintendent and from board members in other districts.

20. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the groups that had the most influence on their decision-making as a school board member. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women were more likely to be influenced by the school district administration, school board members, and board appointed advisory groups, while men were more likely to be influenced by school administrators, school board members, friends, and neighbors.

21. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in how they viewed the function of the board of education. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women were more likely than men to select the Legislature role for school boards, while men were more likely to select the Corporation Board of Trustees role.

22. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in how they viewed the voting behavior of their board of education. Although the majority of both men and women viewed their board as voting unanimously, men were more likely than women to view the board as voting in a split-vote pattern.

23. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the School Board Operations function. Despite the lack of significant differences within the entire function, statistically significant differences between men and women were found in two task areas: Assessment of District Needs and Development of Goals and Objectives, and Board Self-Evaluation. In both of these tasks, women indicated higher degrees of initiating behavior. In addition, women indicated a higher degree of initiating behavior in Superintendent Evaluation, while men indicated more initiation in Policy-Development, Superintendent Employment, and School Board Organizational Procedures.

24. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Education Program function. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women showed a higher level of initiating behavior in the following tasks: Research and Development, Special Programs

for Special Populations, Grading and Reporting Systems, and Textbook Selection. Men showed a greater level of initiating behavior in Long-Range Curricular Planning, Program Standards and Evaluation, Extra-Curricular Programs, Graduation Requirements, and New Courses.

25. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Support Operations function. Despite the lack of significant differences in the entire function, statistically significant differences were found in the Food Service area. Within this task, women indicated a significantly greater degree of initiating behavior. Other differences were noted in Facilities Planning and Development and Buildings and Grounds, where men indicated a greater degree of initiation.

26. There is a statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the Communications/Public Relations function and in Determining Community Attitudes and Opinions and Legislative involvement. In all of these areas, women indicated a significantly greater involvement in initiating behavior than did men. Although not statistically significant, women also indicated a greater degree of initiation in Staff and Parent Communications, and Providing Information and Services to the Community.

27. There is a statistically significant difference

between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Budget and Finance function and within Developing Accounting and Control Procedures and Standards, and Purchasing. In all of these areas, men indicated a significantly greater involvement in initiating than did women. Furthermore, although not statistically significant, men also indicated a greater degree of initiating behavior within Development of Revenue Sources, Budget Development, Long-Range Financial Forecasting, and Auditing.

28. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in their role of initiated within the Personnel Management function. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, men indicated a greater degree of initiating behavior within Development of Employment Policies, Employee Recruitment and Selection, Staff Development, Compensation Programs, Staff Evaluation and Negotiations.

29. There is a statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of initiated within the Pupil Services function. Women indicated a higher level of initiating behavior than did men in all the task areas. These included: Guidance and Counseling Programs, Psychological, Social and Health Services, and Developing Policies and Procedures Regulating Student Attendance.

30. There is no statistically significant difference

between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the School Board Operations function assessed collectively. Statistically significant differences, however, were noted in Policy Development, where more women than men indicated they had reviewed this area within a committee. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences in the other areas, women were more involved in committee work in District Needs Assessment, School Board Organizational Procedures, and Superintendent Employment and Evaluation. Men indicated greater committee involvement than women in Board Self-Evaluation.

31. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Educational Program function. Statistically significant differences were noted in the Grading and Reporting area, where more women than men indicated they had reviewed this task within a committee. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences in the other areas, women were more involved in committee review work in Research Development, Long-Range Curriculum Planning, Program Standards and Evaluation, Special Programs, and Textbook Selection. Men indicated a greater degree of committee review work in Graduation Requirements and New Courses.

32. There is no significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in

committee within the Support Operations function. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women indicated greater committee involvement in Facilities Planning and Development, Transportation, and Food Service, while men indicated greater committee review work in Building and Grounds Maintenance.

33. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Communications/Public Relations function. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women indicated higher levels of committee review behavior in determining Community Attitudes and Opinions, Developing Staff and Parent Communication, Providing Information and Services to the general public and Involvement in Legislative Issues.

34. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Budget/Finance function assessed collectively. Statistically significant differences were noted, however, in Accounting and Control Procedures, where men indicated more involvement than women. In addition, despite the lack of statistically significant differences, men indicated more committee involvement in Developing Revenue Sources, Budget Development, Purchasing, and Auditing. Women indicated more committee review involvement in Long-Range Financial Forecasting.

35. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Personnel Management function assessed collectively. Statistically significant differences, however, were noted in Development of Employment Policies and Procedures, where more women than men indicated committee involvement. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women also indicated greater committee involvement in Staff Recruitment and Selection and Negotiations, while men indicated greater committee involvement in Staff Development, Compensation Programs, and Supervision and Evaluation of Employees.

36. There is no statistically significant difference between men and women school board members in the role of reviewed in committee within the Pupil Services function. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, women indicated more committee involvement in Psychological, Social and Health Services, and Development of Policies and Procedures for Student Attendance and Discipline, while men indicated more committee involvement in Guidance and Counseling Programs.

Conclusions

Based upon the data gathered for the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Traditionally, women have been the supervisors of their children's education and, hence, have served as the

family representative to the school system. The role women appear to assume on boards of education reflects this traditional and historical pattern of educational orientation and experience. Their professional involvement in education, primarily as teachers, their personal interest in education and school affairs, and their memberships in youth, school, and school district organizations and advisory committees, all reflect their direct involvement with the school system prior to board service. Seeking school board office is a logical extension of their continued involvement in the school district.

2. Women board members come to the board of education with not only more personal involvement than men in the schools and the school district, but also with more experience in higher levels of organizational governance. This continual personal involvement in the school district appears to have made women much more knowledgeable about schools and education than male board members. Prior organizational office holding has provided not only practice in leadership, but an expectation for effective and efficient leadership on the part of the superintendent. These combined factors may result in changes in board procedures and in improvement in board governance.

3. The organizations to which female board members belong, namely, the P.T.A., the League of Women Voters, and the A.A.U.W., appear to have a significant socializing

influence on their operational role behavior within the board of education and in the degree of their involvement in school board-related activities. The initiating and problem solving behaviors women demonstrate on school boards reflects the behavioral norms and expectations sanctioned by these groups, which seem to serve as pre-socializing forces for female school board members. The behavioral pattern of male board members is also influenced by their organizational affiliations. However, since men and women differ in their organizational memberships (business, as opposed to youth and youth), their behavioral norms and expectations for "appropriate and effective" organizational behaviors are different.

4. The pattern of board office holding reflects the traditional societal pattern of "appropriate" male and female leadership roles. Men largely assume the primary leadership position, namely, the board presidency, and women largely assume the clerical role, namely the board secretary. This stereotypic pattern appears to be changing slowly, as more and more women are elected to the board president position.

5. The societal orientation of women toward children and the educational environment and the orientation of men toward business and professional interests is paralleled in their respective school board committee chairmanships and assignments and in the areas they wanted to work with and

actually worked with on the Board of Education. Women were primarily members of the Education, Public Relations, Legislative, Policy, and Personnel committees, while men were primarily members of Budget and Finance, Negotiations, and Buildings and Grounds committees. In addition, the initiating behavior of women board members is found primarily in goal development and communications, while male board member initiation was found primarily in budget and finance. These patterns of school board activity and behavior are again consistent with traditional role expectations. This research suggests that the addition of women on boards of education may balance the previously historical emphasis of boards on "busing, business, and bonds," with a greater emphasis on students, community, and curricular concerns.

6. In 1927 George Counts expressed a belief that there was a dichotomy of emphases on boards of education. One direction mirrored the corporate efficiency model where emphasis was placed on the efficient execution of tasks, while the other direction emphasized the quality of the educational enterprise. For Counts, the skewed composition of the school board at that time (predominately male business executives) encouraged the efficiency orientation, supported the administration generally without opposition, and often overlooked the quality and representatives of the educational program because it was left solely to the

administration. The results of the present study seem to indicate that male board members with their primary emphasis on business, finance, budget development, buildings and grounds maintenance, and negotiations continue to emphasize the efficient execution of administrative tasks, while female board members tend to give priority to the content and quality of the educational program and the public relations program. As board members, men tend more to leave the educational decision-making to the administration, while women tend to want to become very involved in decisions affecting the educational program. This also included a strong emphasis on superintendent evaluation and board self-evaluation as perceived correlates to educational quality.

7. The emphasis of women school board members on superintendent and board evaluation may tend to increase the board's role in educational accountability. It may also tend to make superintendents more accountable and, hence, more vulnerable. In this study, the majority of the women board members indicated that they believed the superintendent was the principle educational expert. However, they also stated that, if a board was not satisfied with the superintendent, he/she should be replaced; several women indicated that they were instrumental in their superintendent's release.

8. Another way in which the women's school board role mirrored their societal status was seen in their lesser

involvement in the labor force. Over 70 percent of the women in the study did not have full-time employment outside of the home. This greater availability and flexibility of time was reflected in the more frequent involvement of women in several specific school board-related activities such as meetings and discussions with administrators, board members, parents and student groups, visitation to classrooms, and more community contact. One outgrowth of this community availability is that women appear to have become specialists in community and public relations. This representative orientation was exemplified by their community contact, legislative involvement, greater degree of public endorsement, and service on community-oriented board committees.

9. The informal School board member network which is composed almost exclusively of women, not only brings women into greater contact with board members from other school districts, but it serves as a local and potentially state-wide informational resource link shared only by women. Through this board member network, women gain access not only to information on specific issues or topics with which their board is working, but they also gain information about other school boards (and other school district administrators). This comparative information often fosters inquiries by female board members about their district's educational program. This linkage system provides a

personal and professional support system for women paralleled only by the professional organizations to which men belong.

10. The tendency for women to more frequently select the Legislature rather than the Corporation Board of Trustees role for their school board is indicative of their actual involvement in legislation and community and public relations. It is also indicative of the initiating role behavior indicated most frequently by female school board members. This propensity towards initiation, open discussion, dialogue, and community representation seems to be fostering a more grass roots approach to educational governance, and a potential lessening of administrative control.

11. The literature seems to suggest that the efficiency model of school board behavior continues to be supported by school superintendents who maintain control through this orientation. In an article entitled, "School Boards and Superintendents: Modernizing the Model," Paul Schmidt and Fred Voss analyzed this model of board/superintendent relations which they termed the Harmony Model. According to Schmidt and Voss, the principal purpose of the Harmony Model, which is outlined in the professional literature and in school board manuals, is to "encourage boards to take on an essentially passive role. In contrast,

school administrators are urged to be more aggressive."¹ In their judgment, this model is outdated and no longer descriptive of the reality of school board functioning.

This present study appears to suggest that women board members bring a different orientation to the school board. They are opening up the decision-making process, they are becoming more involved in educational issues, they are attempting to bring the public into educational decision-making, and they are not accepting the administration on face value. While this commitment toward education and community participation is congruent with involvement in school and community organizations, one can predict that this orientation toward "appropriate" board member behavior could lead to board/superintendent conflict. Although Counts would probably indicate that the entrance of women onto school boards provides greater and broader community representation, school administrators might argue that it tends to diminish the efficiency of administrative and Board procedures. A balance must be struck, because neither efficiency nor quality should be sacrificed. If women continue to be elected to boards, the balance of power on school boards may definitely change.

¹Paul C. Schmidt and Fred Voss, "School Boards and Superintendents: Modernizing the Model," Teachers College Record 77 (May 1976): 519.

12. There appears to be a "new breed" of board member developing which is characterized by active participation in decision-making, sensitivity and involvement in the community, a diminished reliance on one authority for decision-making, and a strong desire for staff and program accountability. At this point in time, women seem to be in the forefront of this "new breed."

While the data reported in this study included a number of statistically significant differences in the percentages of male and female board members falling into specific categories of school board service characteristics, roles, and functions, it should be noted that the total number of men and women falling into any single category was often very small. What this suggests is that as a distinct group, neither men nor women school board members can be regarded as homogeneous. Furthermore, since this study described statistical uniformities, it must be noted that many individuals did not conform to these general tendencies. However, it is also clear that in many cases the degree of differences among male and female board members outweighed the similarities.

The differences between men and women board members found in this research are subtle, but nevertheless discernable.

These current differences may prove to be transitory as trends in society change. For example, the frequency of

involvement of women in school board-related activities may decrease as more and more women enter the labor force.

Although differences between the characteristics and behavior of male and female board members do appear to exist, care must be taken not to exaggerate the differences. Both men and women bring to the board of education perspectives and behavioral orientations that can enhance school board efficiency and educational quality.

Recommendations

As a result of the completion of this study, some recommendations can be made:

1. The entrance of large numbers of women into school board positions may necessitate the development of a new operational model for board/superintendent interaction. The prior school involvement, motivations, and behavioral orientations women board members seen to bring to school boards is challenging the traditional pattern of educational governance. A new style of interaction that is more open to discussion, debate, and problem-solving seems to be gradually replacing the traditional harmony model. It is recommended that the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of School Boards, and individual superintendents and school boards re-examine the assumptions that have historically served as the behavioral imperatives of this "old" model and develop a new operational model for board and superintendent leadership.

Peter Drucker, an eminent management consultant, made some observations about the management of boards. Although his comments were directed toward corporate boards, the concept is most applicable to public boards of education.

Drucker states:

Finally, management will realize that boards of directors can become effective and, therefore had better be treated properly. They should be built to perform. Most managements still have the idea that the board is something the law forces you to have and they try to keep it in a cage like a nice pussycat. But it can become a tiger, and then you had better make sure its your tiger.²

The changing social composition of boards of education brought on by the gradual shifting of the gender balance toward more equal female and male participation and the emergence of a "new breed" of board member, will necessitate the re-examination and possible re-definition of board and superintendent roles and the development of a new and more comprehensive leadership model for the superintendent.

2. Local boards of education should develop a comprehensive orientation program for new and present board members that specifically focuses on the attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral orientations that board members bring to school board membership, as well as the roles and functions of school boards. Knowing the reasons why individual board members seek board office, the activities they want to engage in as board members, their beliefs about

²Warren Bennis, "The Invention of Management: An Interview with Peter Drucker," American Management Association Management Digest 5 (July 1982): 12.

visibility and community interaction, and their orientations toward board and superintendent division of responsibility, would enable boards and superintendents to openly discuss and hence clarify their respective roles.

3. The board and the superintendent should mutually plan workshops and seminars that describe the interrelatedness of the various operational functions and tasks within the district. Furthermore, if women board members have a different orientation and perspective toward their roles as board members, it is important that the board receive training as a unit, lest multiple and diverse factions develop. In conjunction with these workshops, local boards should review their pattern of committee appointments to see if committee assignments follow traditional gender-related patterns, with men on Finance, Budget, and Negotiation committees, and women on Education, Legislation, and Community Relations committees. Although these assignments are typically based on interest and expertise, they subtly discriminate against both men and women, foster a myopic and gender-based orientation to the board, and conceivably cause board members to lose sight of the board's chief policy-making function.

4. Since it is evident that women bring an important perspective and level of expertise to the board of education, it is recommended that boards with little or no female representation encourage community groups to identify

and support qualified women as candidates for school board election. It is further recommended that when vacancies on boards occur, women be given consideration for the appointment.

5. There will be an increasing need for administrators, but especially superintendents (most of whom are male) to learn how to work effectively with women board members. Stereotypes and issues of male-female dominance should be re-examined, and discussed more openly and honestly by administrators. The nature of the questions women ask during board meetings, the nature and amount of information they require, and the amount of administrative contact they initiate must also be addressed by the administration. Administrators will also need to become increasingly aware of the "networking" that transpires between women boardmembers so that it can be used as a resource for the board.

6. Boards and administrators must meet periodically to re-evaluate both school board operations and goals of the institution in a collegial and participate style.

7. In order to help all board members in their understanding of the complete school operation, it is recommended that the board president and the superintendent strongly encourage board members to participate in county board workshops, Illinois Association of School Boards

meetings, and the meetings of the National School Board Association.

8. Although this study did not focus on identifying areas of sex bias, it is recommended that superintendents be aware of the possibility that negative attitudes toward women may exist within their organization. Increased awareness and sensitivity to the possible existence of sex bias may facilitate the avoidance or elimination of the possibility of unconscious sex role stereotyping.

9. It is recommended that the National Association of School Boards and the Illinois Association of School Boards develop a seminar or workshop that focuses on research of women on boards of education. This seminar would be geared to both male and female board members in an attempt to educate board members on the impact of women on educational governance.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. This study dealt specifically with only one aspect of the social system -- the social or operational behavior of women school board members. Therefore, further research should be conducted with women school board members in other dimensions of the social system. These include the institutional expectations of women school board members and the personality and need-dispositions of women on boards of education.

2. This study of women school board members should be replicated within other organizational settings where there is a Board of Directors or a Board of Trustees. These include library boards, park boards, bank and corporate boards, village boards, or boards of higher education. It would be interesting to research whether or not women are displaying the same role behaviors on other boards that they are displaying on school boards.

3. Only one model, the Getzels-Guba Model for assessing social behavior was utilized in the analysis of the data from the study. It is recommended that other behavioral models be used to examine the role behavior of women on boards of education. One such framework might be the Situational Leadership Model of Hersey and Blanchard, which would identify the leadership styles of women school board members.

4. A replication of this study should be conducted in another county in Illinois and in other states. The purpose of the replication would be to see if the findings of the DuPage County study are confirmed by the findings in another county and to identify the conditions that would account for the differences between the studies.

5. A follow-up study of women school board members should be conducted in DuPage County in 1983 following the next school board election. The study would seek to determine if the findings of the present study are sustained

as the composition of boards continue to change.

6. A national study of women on school boards should be conducted. The last and only national study of women board members was conducted in 1974. Increases in the number of women on school boards since that time merits another national study of the characteristics and roles of women on boards of education.

7. Although this study dealt specifically with women school board members, numerous observations were made about the role and function of school superintendents (94 percent of whom are male) in relation to school boards in general, and women board members in particular. Further research needs to be conducted to see if the behaviors women board members are exhibiting on school boards is in any way related to either the gender or operational leadership style of the superintendent.

8. Far more research needs to be conducted on the role of the informal school board member network in the socialization of female school board members.

9. An in-depth study needs to be made of the role of the P.T.A., the A.A.U.W., and the League of Women Voters in the "pre"-socialization of women school board members.

10. In order to begin to determine the actual impact of women school board members on policy-making within a district, case studies of the specific policies developed by individual school boards over a period of 5-10 years, should

be made. Thorough analysis of the content, manner of initiation, review, approval, and implementation of the policies within a specific district would provide considerable insight into the nature of the policies and the policy-making process within a district. Subsequent analyses of policies would seek to discern whether or not policy changes could be attributed to the influence of female school board members.

11. More research needs to be conducted on the relationship between the role orientation (trustee or delegate) of school board members and their involvement in policy-making, and policy-administering within a school district.

12. This study indicated that the majority of female school members are currently unemployed or employed part-time. Follow-up research needs to be conducted to see if the role behavior of women on school boards is altered as a result of more women entering the work force.

13. Additional research needs to be conducted on the role of the community caucus in the recruitment and election of women school board members.

14. This study examined the behavior of male and female board members. A separate study needs to be conducted on the behavior and perceptions of superintendents and male board members toward women on boards of education.

15. There appears to be a "new breed" of board member being elected to school boards, and women seem to be in the vanguard of this new breed. Additional research needs to be conducted on an appropriate leadership-management model for superintendents so that their management style is congruent with the expectations for management of the "new breed" of school board members.

16. The study focused on composite descriptions of the roles, functions, and behavior of women school board members. Additional studies need to be conducted on whether or not the type and size of a district has an impact on the roles and behavior of women board members.

17. More research needs to be conducted on the psychology of the female political elite. This psychological profile may lead to greater understanding of the achievement motivation of women on boards of education and, hence, a greater understanding of their behavioral orientation.

18. Research needs to be conducted on the possible impact on educational policy-making of current and former educators who are serving on school boards. In the present study over 30 percent of the board members were educators. This represented the single largest employment category. Further investigation should be conducted on the educational implications of this influential group.

Finally, it is critical that new ways of working with the changing membership of boards of education be developed. The perception of a growing "adversarial" relationship between administrators and members of boards of education must be reversed. Whether male or female, administrator or board member, we enter the educational environment to provide schooling for the young of our society. We must find ways of working together, so that noble purpose never becomes secondary to other issues.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Appendix A

Public Schools in DuPage County, Illinois
1981-82

<u>Elementary Districts</u>	<u>District No.</u>
Bensenville	2
Addison	4
Wood Dale	7
Itasca	10
Medinah	11
Roselle	12
Bloomington	13
Marquardt	15
Queen Bee	16
Keeneyville	20
Benjamin	25
McAuley	27
West Chicago	33
Winfield	34
Glen Ellyn	41
Lombard	44
Villa Park	45
Salt Creek	48
Butler	53
Downers Grove	58
Maercker	60
Darien	61
Gower	62
Cass	63
Bromberek	65
Center Cass	66
Woodridge	68
Puffer-Hefty	69
Glen Ellyn	89
Carol Stream	93
Palisades	180
Hinsdale	181
<u>High School Districts</u>	
Hinsdale	86
Glenbard	87
Community High School	88
West Chicago	94
Downers Grove	99
Fenton High School	100
Lake Park High School	108
<u>Unit Districts</u>	<u>District No.</u>
Wheaton Community Unit	200
Westmont Community Unit	201
Lisle Community Unit	202
Naperville Community Unit	203
Indian Prairie Community Unit	204
Elmhurst Community Unit	205

Appendix B

Appendix B

Stephanie Marshall
1145 Wheaton Oaks Drive
Wheaton, IL 60187

December 16, 1981

Dear Jury Panel Member,

The purpose of this letter is to seek your assistance in field testing the questionnaire to be used in the dissertation research I am conducting as a doctoral candidate at Loyola University of Chicago.

My topic is "An Analysis of the Profile, Functions, and Roles of Women on Boards of Education in DuPage County, Illinois." As part of this analysis, I will develop a composite personal profile of women on boards of education, as well as a profile of their functions and roles as board members. This will be compared with the profiles of male board members for the purpose of determining whether or not significant differences exist in the characteristics, functions, and role behavior of male and female board members.

The analysis will focus on several key areas:

1. A profile of the personal characteristics of male and female board members. (Part I of the questionnaire.)
2. A profile of the characteristics of prior and current board service of male and female board members. (Part II of the questionnaire.)
3. A profile of the roles and functions performed by men and women as they serve on boards of education. (Part III of the questionnaire.)

As a result of this study, I hope to be able to document the differing impact of male and female board members on board policies and practices and the need for greater role clarification between board members and the superintendent.

To complete this research, I am seeking your assistance by asking you to critique (not to complete) the questionnaire and to respond to the appropriateness and length of its content, and the clarity of its purpose. Further, if you feel there are questions that could be omitted or there are serious omissions in the questions asked, please delete or add questions as appropriate.

Please write any comments or reactions directly on the questionnaire and return it to me, within the next two (2) weeks, in the enclosed self-addressed envelope.

I recognize that you maintain a very busy schedule and, therefore, sincerely appreciate any assistance you can provide.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Stephanie Marshall
879-3850 (work)
690-9782 (home)

Enclosure: Questionnaire
Self-Addressed Envelope

Appendix C

Appendix C

1145 Wheaton Oaks Drive
Wheaton, Illinois 60187
February 19, 1982

Dear School Board Member,

Local control and citizen participation are important components in the governance of American public education. Although much is known about the responsibilities of school boards, very little information has been gathered on the characteristics, activities, functions, and roles of the individuals who serve on Boards of Education.

The purpose of this letter is to request your participation in a research study I am conducting with school board members in DuPage County, Illinois. This study is part of a doctoral program in Education Administration at Loyola University of Chicago.

As a public school administrator in Kane County, working directly with Boards of Education for several years, I have been intrigued by the changing membership of school boards over the last few years, especially the increase in the number of women. This has led to an interest in studying the dynamics between board members, administrators, teachers, and community members, the activities in which board members are involved, and the roles that men and women board members assume on Boards of Education.

My study will seek to develop profiles of men and women school board members, and will compare their functions and roles. The purpose is to determine whether or not significant differences exist in the characteristics, functions, and role behavior(s) of men and women serving on Boards of Education.

The enclosed questionnaire is an essential part of this research project and is being sent to all of the 311 school board members in DuPage County. I have compiled the available data on the changing patterns of school board membership in DuPage County over the last ten years, but the only source for the critical information on the activities and role behaviors of board members is you, the individual board member.

Since my research indicates that very few studies have been written on the roles of men and women school board members, your assistance will enable us to gain significant information and greater insight into the nature of school board membership. Will you please take the time necessary to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me within the next two weeks? Other aspects of this study cannot be completed until the information gathered from the questionnaire is received.

Please be assured that all questionnaires are anonymous and all information will be kept strictly confidential. An identification number is included for mailing purposes only. Your responses will be grouped with the responses of other board members so that no school district or individual will be specifically identified in this study.

Because I believe that this study will produce information that may be of significant interest to school board members and administrators, a copy of the summary will be made available to every superintendent and Board of Education president in DuPage County. If completing the questionnaire stimulates your interest in the summary, and you wish to receive a copy of the results, simply write "Copy of Results Requested" on the back of the return envelope, and print your name and address below it. Please do not put this information on the questionnaire itself.

I would be most happy to answer any questions you might have concerning this research. Should you have a question, please phone me at one of the numbers listed below.

I know that you maintain a busy schedule; however, I am trusting that the same sense of community involvement that inspired you to seek service as a school board member will cause you to contribute the time necessary to complete this questionnaire. It is my belief that the information gathered will make a significant contribution to the knowledge available on this important aspect of public school governance -- the leadership of our educational system.

I sincerely appreciate your interest and thank you for your assistance in this study.

Sincerely,

Stephanie Marshall
879-3850 (office)
690-9782 (home)

Appendix D

Appendix D

February 19, 1982

Dear Superintendent,

Local control and citizen participation are important components in the governance of American public education. Although much is known about the responsibilities of school boards, very little information has been gathered on the characteristics, activities, functions, and roles of the individuals who serve on Boards of Education.

The purpose of this letter is to request your support of a research study I am conducting with all of the 311 school board members in DuPage County, Illinois. This study is part of a doctoral program in Educational Administration at Loyola University of Chicago.

As an administrator, working directly with Boards of Education for several years, I have been intrigued by the changing membership of school boards over the last few years, especially the increase in the number of women. This has led to an interest in studying the dynamics between board members, administrators, teachers, and community members, the activities in which board members are involved, and the roles that men and women board members assume on Boards of Education.

My study will seek to develop profiles of men and women school board members, and will compare their functions and roles. The purpose is to determine whether or not significant differences exist in the characteristics, functions, and role behavior(s) of men and women serving on Boards of Education.

A cover letter and questionnaire have been mailed to each of the members of your Board of Education. Should you receive an inquiry from a board member regarding their completion of the questionnaire, I would sincerely appreciate your support and endorsement.

Since my research indicates that very few studies have been written that compare the roles of men and women school board members, the input from all board members is critical.

Because I believe that this study will produce information that may be of significant interest to school board members and administrators, a copy of the summary will be made available to every superintendent and Board of Education president in DuPage County.

If you wish to receive a copy of the questionnaire, please phone me at my office or my home, and I will be happy to send you one and answer any questions that you may have concerning this study.

Your support of this research project would be sincerely appreciated.

Sincerely,

Stephanie Marshall
Assistant for Superintendent
for Instruction
690-9782 (home)

Appendix E

Appendix E

February 26, 1982

Last week a questionnaire was mailed to you as part of a research study seeking information about the activities, roles, and functions of school board members in DuPage County, Illinois.

If you have already completed and returned it, please accept my sincere thanks. If you have not, please do so. Since the study is based exclusively on school board members in DuPage County, it is extremely important that your input be included if the results are to accurately portray DuPage County Board members.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it was misplaced, please call me at 879-3850 or 690-9782 and I will send you another one.

Thank you for your assistance.

Stephanie Marshall

Appendix F

Appendix F

1145 Wheaton Oaks Drive
Wheaton, IL 60187
March 11, 1982

Dear School Board Member,

About three (3) weeks ago, I wrote to you requesting your participation in a research study being conducted with school board members in DuPage County, Illinois. As of today, your questionnaire has not been received.

My research indicates that to date, very few studies have been written that compare the characteristics, activities, functions, and roles of men and women school board members, in order to determine whether or not significant differences exist.

Since the Board of Education is responsible for the governance of public education, it is most important that research be conducted on the men and women that occupy this critical position on school boards.

The information derived from this study will enable both board members and administrators to gain significant information and greater insight into the nature of school board membership.

I am writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of this study.

In order for the results of this study to be truly representative of the men and women school board members in DuPage County, it is essential that each person in the sample return their questionnaire.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire or it was misplaced, a replacement is enclosed.

If you wish to receive a copy of the results, simply put your name, address, and "Copy of Results Requested", on the back of the return envelope. I expect to have them ready to send by early next fall.

Your contribution to the success of this study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Stephanie Marshall
879-3850 (office)
690-9782 (home)

Enclosure: Questionnaire
Self-addressed stamped envelope

Appendix G

Appendix G

April 29, 1982

Dear Superintendent,

As you may recall, I sent you a letter in February, indicating that I was sending questionnaires to your School Board members as part of my dissertation research on the characteristics, roles and functions of men and women on Boards of Education in DuPage County.

I have received 210 questionnaires, which represents 67.5 of the board members in DuPage County. The next phase of my research design calls for me to interview 15% of the respondents or 30 board members, (one man and one woman) from each of fifteen randomly selected school districts in the county.

Through the process of random selection, your district was chosen. The purpose of this letter is to inform you that two board members from your district have agreed to be interviewed. The purpose of the interview is to expand and clarify the data represented on the questionnaire. As with the questionnaire, the data reported in the interview will be anonymous, no district or individual will be identified.

As I indicated in my first letter, a summary of the results will be sent to every superintendent and board president in DuPage County.

If you have any questions about this study, I will be happy to answer them.

Thank you for your support of this project.

Sincerely,

Stephanie Marshall

Appendix H

Appendix H

QUESTIONNAIRE

THE PROFILES, FUNCTIONS, AND ROLES OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS IN DUPAGE COUNTY, ILLINOIS

INSTRUCTIONS: This questionnaire is divided into three (3) parts. Part I relates to the activities of school board members prior to and during school board service; Part II relates to the functions and roles school board members assume as they serve on Boards of Education; and Part III relates to background information on school districts and school board members.

Please respond to each question by: (1) circling the numeral of the appropriate response, (2) checking the appropriate column, (3) rank ordering the information requested, or, (4) entering the information requested on the blank provided.

Additional comments may be added next to your answers, if you wish. Questions that do not apply to you as a school board member should be marked N/A (Not Applicable). Should you choose not to respond to a question, leave it blank.

PART I-A ACTIVITIES PRIOR TO SCHOOL BOARD SERVICE

Q-1 Before you began service on the Board of Education, in which of the following had you participated or held membership? (Circle all that apply, and fill in the specific organization(s) in each category.)

- 1 YOUTH, SCHOOL ORGANIZATION(S) (e.g., PTA, BOOSTER CLUB) _____
- 2 GENERAL SERVICE ORGANIZATION(S) (e.g., LIONS) _____
- 3 CHURCH-RELATED ORGANIZATION(S) _____
- 4 ALUMNI OR UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION(S) (e.g., A.A.U.W.) _____
- 5 POLITICAL ORGANIZATION(S) _____
- 6 PROFESSIONAL, OCCUPATIONAL, OR BUSINESS ORGANIZATION(S) (e.g., CHAMBER OF COMMERCE) _____
- 7 SCHOOL DISTRICT ADVISORY COMMITTEE(S) _____
- 8 GOVERNMENTAL POSITION OR BOARD (e.g., MAYOR, PARK BOARD) _____
- 9 OTHER (SPECIFY) _____

Q-2 If you were an officer or board member in any of the above groups or organizations, please indicate the organization(s) and the office(s) held:

- 1 ORGANIZATION _____ OFFICE(S) HELD _____
- 2 ORGANIZATION _____ OFFICE(S) HELD _____
- 3 ORGANIZATION _____ OFFICE(S) HELD _____

Q-3 What were your motivations for seeking school board membership? RANK ORDER your four (4) most important motivations with #1 as the most important.

- _____ 1 DISTRICT FINANCIAL AND BUDGET CONCERNS
- _____ 2 SCHOOL CLOSING CONCERNS
- _____ 3 PERSONAL INTEREST IN SCHOOL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION
- _____ 4 SENSE OF DUTY TO THE COMMUNITY
- _____ 5 DESIRE TO IMPROVE STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND/OR DISCIPLINE
- _____ 6 DESIRE TO IMPROVE SCHOOL/COMMUNITY RELATIONS
- _____ 7 DESIRE FOR NEW OR IMPROVED CURRICULAR AND/OR INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS
- _____ 8 DESIRE FOR POLITICAL EXPERIENCE
- _____ 9 DESIRE TO IMPROVE THE EDUCATION OF MY OWN CHILDREN
- _____ 10 DISSATISFACTION WITH PERFORMANCE OF SUPERINTENDENT
- _____ 11 DISSATISFACTION WITH PERFORMANCE OF OTHER SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS
- _____ 12 DISSATISFACTION WITH PERFORMANCE OF TEACHERS
- _____ 13 DISSATISFACTION WITH PERFORMANCE OF BOARD OF EDUCATION
- _____ 14 OTHER (EXPLAIN) _____

Q-4 What were the groups that encouraged you to seek office and to serve on the school board? RANK ORDER the four (4) most important groups with #1 being the most important.

- _____ 1 SCHOOL DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION
- _____ 2 SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS (PAST OR PRESENT)
- _____ 3 TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OR UNION
- _____ 4 FAMILY MEMBERS
- _____ 5 FRIENDS AND NEIGHBORS
- _____ 6 ORGANIZATIONS AFFILIATED WITH DISTRICT (e.g., PTA, BOOSTER CLUB, ETC.)
- _____ 7 COMMUNITY CAUCUS GROUP
- _____ 8 LOCAL POLITICAL PARTY
- _____ 9 OTHER (SPECIFY) _____

Q-5 Did you receive a public endorsement from any specific group(s) or organization(s)? (Circle the appropriate numeral and indicate the specific group, if applicable.)

- 1 YES (SPECIFY) _____
- 2 NO

PART I-B ACTIVITIES OF CURRENT SCHOOL BOARD SERVICE

Q-6 How many years (including this year) have you served as a school board member? (If you have served on other Boards of Education, include the total of all years.)

_____ TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS SERVED

Q-7 How did you first become a school board member? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)

- 1 ELECTION
- 2 APPOINTMENT

Q-8 In which of the following are you presently participating or holding membership? (Circle all that apply and fill in the specific organization(s) in each category.)

- 1 YOUTH, SCHOOL ORGANIZATION(S) (e.g., PTA, BOOSTER CLUB) _____
- 2 GENERAL SERVICE ORGANIZATION(S) (e.g., LIONS) _____
- 3 CHURCH-RELATED ORGANIZATION(S) _____
- 4 ALUMNI OR UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION(S) (e.g., A.A.U.W.) _____
- 5 POLITICAL ORGANIZATION(S) _____
- 6 PROFESSIONAL, OCCUPATIONAL, OR BUSINESS ORGANIZATION(S) (e.g., CHAMBER OF COMMERCE) _____
- 7 SCHOOL DISTRICT ADVISORY COMMITTEE(S) _____
- 8 GOVERNMENTAL POSITION OR BOARD (e.g., MAYOR, PARK BOARD) _____
- 9 OTHER (SPECIFY) _____

Q-9 If you are an officer or board member in any of the above groups or organizations, please indicate the organization(s) and the office(s) held:

- 1 ORGANIZATION _____ OFFICE(S) HELD _____
- 2 ORGANIZATION _____ OFFICE(S) HELD _____
- 3 ORGANIZATION _____ OFFICE(S) HELD _____

Q-10 If you now serve as an officer of the Board of Education, circle the appropriate numeral and enter the number of years you have held this office. (Include this year.)

- 1 PRESIDENT _____ NUMBER OF YEARS
- 2 VICE-PRESIDENT _____ NUMBER OF YEARS
- 3 SECRETARY _____ NUMBER OF YEARS
- 4 OTHER (SPECIFY) _____ NUMBER OF YEARS

Q-11 If you have previously served as an officer(s) of the Board of Education, circle the appropriate numeral and enter the number of years you held this office(s).

- 1 PRESIDENT _____ NUMBER OF YEARS
- 2 VICE-PRESIDENT _____ NUMBER OF YEARS
- 3 SECRETARY _____ NUMBER OF YEARS
- 4 OTHER (SPECIFY) _____ NUMBER OF YEARS

Q-19 Typically, which group(s) have the most influence on your decision-making as a board member? RANK ORDER the four (4) most important groups with #1 being the most important.

- 1 _____ SCHOOL DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION
- 2 _____ SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS FROM MY DISTRICT (PAST OR PRESENT)
- 3 _____ SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS FROM OTHER DISTRICTS (PAST OR PRESENT)
- 4 _____ TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OR UNION
- 5 _____ BOARD APPOINTED ADVISORY GROUPS
- 6 _____ FAMILY MEMBERS
- 7 _____ FRIENDS AND NEIGHBORS
- 8 _____ STUDENT GROUPS
- 9 _____ ORGANIZATIONS AFFILIATED WITH DISTRICT (i.e., PTA, BOOSTER CLUB)
- 10 _____ COMMUNITY CAUCUS GROUP
- 11 _____ STATE SCHOOL BOARD ASSOCIATION
- 12 _____ LOCAL POLITICAL PARTY
- 13 _____ OTHER (SPECIFY) _____

Q-20 Which of the following most closely reflects your point of view? (Circle the appropriate numeral)

- 1 A SCHOOL BOARD SHOULD BE LIKE A LEGISLATURE. (IT ACTS TO CREATE THE BEST POLICIES, THROUGH OPEN DEBATE. IT WATCHES VIGILANTLY THE PROGRESS OF ITS POLICIES. EACH REPRESENTATIVE ACTS AS A REPRESENTATIVE OR "OMBUDSMAN" FOR A CONSTITUENCY.)
- 2 A SCHOOL BOARD SHOULD BE LIKE A CORPORATION BOARD OF TRUSTEES. (IT ACTS TO SET GENERAL GOALS. PERIODICALLY IT REVIEWS WITH STAFF THE STATUS OF THE INSTITUTION. ITS MEMBERS GENERALLY ACT AS A TEAM TO SUPPORT THE WORK OF THE INSTITUTION.)

Q-21 Generally, on an issue of importance, how does your Board vote? (Circle the one (1) that most generally applies.)

- 1 UNANIMOUSLY, BECAUSE THE BOARD MEMBERS AGREE
- 2 UNANIMOUSLY, DESPITE DISAGREEMENT AMONG BOARD MEMBERS
- 3 A SPLIT VOTE, BECAUSE OF SPECIFIC BELIEFS ABOUT THE ISSUE
- 4 A SPLIT VOTE, BECAUSE OF CONSISTENT LONG-RUN DISAGREEMENTS WITHIN THE BOARD

PART II FUNCTIONS AND ROLES OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

Directions: Using the four (4) categories of role involvement, listed below, please check the behavior(s) you most typically demonstrate(d), over the past twelve (12) months, for each of the school district functions and tasks listed. Depending upon the degree of your involvement for each task, you may have checks in more than one (1) column.

- Column A - If you were the board member or one of the board members who brought the issue to the Board or administration, raised a question with the Board or administration about the task, or requested a report or study related to this task, check Column A - INITIATED OR ORIGINATED.
- Column B - If you were involved in the discussion and review of this task as a member of a Board committee (either standing or ad hoc), check Column B - REVIEWED IN COMMITTEE.
- Column C - If your involvement with the specific task was at the level of discussion and voting at the Board meeting, check Column C - VOTED AT BOARD MEETING.
- Column D - If you were not involved in a task in any way, check Column D - NOT APPLICABLE.

DEGREE OF ROLE INVOLVEMENT

	A INITIATED OR ORIGINATED	B REVIEWED IN COMMITTEE	C VOTED AT BOARD MEETING	D NOT APPLICABLE
SCHOOL DISTRICT FUNCTIONS				
Q-22 School Board Operations				
1 ASSESSMENT OF DISTRICT NEEDS AND DEVELOPMENT OF GOALS/OBJECTIVES				
2 POLICY DEVELOPMENT				
3 PROCEDURES FOR SCHOOL BOARD ORGANIZATION				
4 EMPLOYMENT OF SUPERINTENDENT				
5 EVALUATION OF SUPERINTENDENT				
6 BOARD SELF-EVALUATION				

DEGREE OF ROLE INVOLVEMENT

A B C D
 INITIATED REVIEWED VOTED AT NOT
 OR IN BOARD NOT
 ORIGINATED COMMITTEE MEETING APPLICABLE

		A	B	C	D
		INITIATED OR ORIGINATED	REVIEWED IN COMMITTEE	VOTED AT BOARD MEETING	NOT APPLICABLE
Q-23	<u>Educational Program</u>				
	1 RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM				
	2 LONG-RANGE CURRICULUM PLANNING				
	3 PROGRAM STANDARDS AND EVALUATION				
	4 SPECIAL PROGRAMS FOR VOCATIONAL, HANDICAPPED, GIFTED, ENRICHMENT, ETC.				
	5 EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMS				
	6 GRADING AND REPORTING SYSTEMS				
	7 GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS				
	8 TEXTBOOK SELECTION				
	9 NEW COURSES				
Q-24	<u>Support Operations</u>				
	1 FACILITIES PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT				
	2 BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS MAINTENANCE				
	3 TRANSPORTATION				
	4 FOOD SERVICE				
Q-25	<u>Communication/Public Relations</u>				
	1 DETERMINE COMMUNITY ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS				
	2 DEVELOP COMMUNICATIONS BETWEEN STAFF AND PARENTS				
	3 PROVIDE INFORMATION TO GENERAL PUBLIC				
	4 PROVIDE COMMUNITY SERVICES				
	5 INVOLVEMENT IN LEGISLATIVE ISSUES				
Q-26	<u>Budget/Finance</u>				
	1 DEVELOPMENT OF REVENUE SOURCES				
	2 BUDGET DEVELOPMENT BASED ON PROGRAM PRIORITIES				
	3 ACCOUNTING AND CONTROL PROCEDURES AND STAND- ARDS				
	4 LONG-RANGE FINANCIAL FORECASTING				
	5 PURCHASING				
	6 AUDITING				
Q-27	<u>Personnel Management</u>				
	1 DEVELOPMENT OF EMPLOYMENT POLICIES AND PROCEDURES				
	2 RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF EMPLOYEES				
	3 TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF				
	4 COMPENSATION PROGRAMS				
	5 SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION OF EMPLOYEES' PERFORMANCE				
	6 STAFF NEGOTIATIONS AND/OR CONTRACT ADMINISTRATION				
Q-28	<u>Pupil Services</u>				
	1 GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAMS				
	2 PSYCHOLOGICAL, SOCIAL, AND HEALTH SERVICES				
	3 DEVELOPMENT OF POLICIES AND PROCEDURES REGULATING STUDENT ATTENDANCE, DISCIPLINE, ETC.				

Q-12 Does the Board of Education on which you are presently serving use a formal standing committee structure? (Circle the appropriate numeral.) If your answer is NO, proceed to question #14.

- 1 YES
- 2 NO

Q-13 Do you have a choice of the board committee(s) to which you are appointed? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)

- 1 YES
- 2 NO

Q-14 This question relates to school board standing committee memberships and chairmanships. Check all that apply in each of the respective columns.

- Column A - Check the committees presently existing on your Board of Education.
- Column B - Check the committees on which you have previously been a member.
- Column C - Check the committees on which you have previously been a chairperson.
- Column D - Check the committees on which you are presently a member.
- Column E - Check the committees on which you are presently the chairperson.

Committee	A	B	C	D	E
	Presently Existing	Previously Member	Previously Chairperson	Presently Member	Presently Chairperson
1 FINANCE/BUDGET					
2 PERSONNEL					
3 EDUCATION/CURRICULUM					
4 POLICY					
5 BUILDINGS/GROUNDS					
6 LEGISLATIVE					
7 NEGOTIATIONS					
8 PUBLIC RELATIONS					
9 OTHER (SPECIFY BELOW)					

Q-15 School board members are involved in a variety of activities. As a board member, how often within the last twelve (12) months did you engage in each of the following school board related activities? (Check the most appropriate column for each activity listed.)

	A	B	C	D
	Weekly	Monthly	Every 3-4 Months	Not At All
<u>MEETINGS, DISCUSSIONS, OR PHONE CALLS WITH:</u>				
1 SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS IN <u>OWN</u> DISTRICT				
2 DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT				
3 OTHER DISTRICT CENTRAL OFFICE ADMINISTRATORS				
4 BUILDING PRINCIPALS				
5 SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS IN <u>OTHER</u> DISTRICTS				
6 TEACHERS OR TEACHERS' UNION				
7 PARENTS OR PARENT GROUPS				
8 STUDENTS OR STUDENT GROUPS				
9 STATE LEGISLATORS				
<u>READING:</u>				
10 MATERIALS RELATING TO THE BOARD (e.g., AGENDA, LEGISLATIVE ALERTS)				
11 EDUCATIONAL-RELATED ARTICLES AND JOURNALS				
<u>ATTENDING OR VISITING:</u>				
12 SCHOOL BOARD COMMITTEE MEETINGS				
13 SCHOOL-RELATED EVENTS (e.g., DRAMA, SPORTS)				
14 CLASSROOMS				
15 TEACHER INSTITUTES OR OTHER INSERVICE ACTIVITIES				
16 STATE SCHOOL BOARD WORKSHOPS/DIVISION MEETINGS OR CONVENTIONS				
17 NATIONAL SCHOOL BOARD CONVENTIONS AND/OR WORKSHOPS				
18 OTHER (SPECIFY) _____				

Q-16 Several areas of school board responsibilities are listed below. In column A RANK ORDER the four (4) areas you wanted to work with the most when you became a school board member. In column B RANK ORDER the four (4) areas you actually worked with the most after you became a school board member. RANK ORDER the four (4) areas in each column with #1 being the area you wanted to work with the most or actually worked with the most.

	A Wanted to Work With	B Actually Worked With
1 BUDGET/FINANCE		
2 SCHOOL/COMMUNITY RELATIONS		
3 BOARD/SUPERINTENDENT RELATIONS		
4 HIRING/EVALUATING SUPERINTENDENT		
5 HIRING/EVALUATING ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF		
6 CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM		
7 EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMS AND STUDENT ACTIVITIES		
8 SUPPORT SERVICES (TRANSPORTATION AND BUILDINGS)		
9 DEVELOPING EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND/OR PHILOSOPHY		
10 CONTRACT NEGOTIATIONS		
11 STUDENT DISCIPLINE		
12 STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT		
13 LEGISLATION AND THE LEGISLATIVE PROCESS		
14 OTHER (SPECIFY) _____		

Q-17 Would you consider yourself part of an "informal network" of board members from other school districts who consult each other on matters of mutual concern? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)

- 1 YES
- 2 NO

Q-18 Most school board members obtain information from several sources. For each area of school board responsibility listed below, check the one (1) column that reflects your most helpful source of information.

	A Former and Present Board Mem- bers in my District	B Former and Present Board Mem- bers in Other Districts	C Superintendent of my District	D School Per- sonnel Other than my Superinten- dent	E Other (Specify)
1 SCHOOL BOARD PROCEDURES					
2 THE ROLE OF A SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER					
3 THE DISTRICT'S WRITTEN POLICIES AND PROCEDURES					
4 BOARD/SUPERINTENDENT RELATIONS					
5 SCHOOL FINANCE AND THE BUDGET PROCESS					
6 CURRENT ISSUES AND TRENDS IN CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION					
7 CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT					
8 PROGRAMS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF SPECIAL STUDENTS					
9 HIRING AND EVALUATING THE SUPERINTENDENT					
10 HIRING AND EVALUATING ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF					
11 SUPPORT SERVICES (TRANSPORTATION AND BUILDINGS)					
12 SCHOOL/COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS					
13 CONTRACT NEGOTIATIONS					
14 CURRENT LEGISLATIVE ISSUES AND THE LEGISLATIVE PROCESS					

PART III-A SCHOOL DISTRICT DATA

- Q-29 What is your school district type? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)
- 1 ELEMENTARY
 - 2 HIGH SCHOOL 9-12
 - 3 UNIT K-12
- Q-30 What is your school district pupil enrollment? (Enter the approximate number.)
- Q-31 What is the present composition of your school board? (Enter the appropriate numbers.)
- _____ NUMBER OF MALE SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
- _____ NUMBER OF FEMALE SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

PART III-B PERSONAL DATA

- Q-32 What is your sex? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)
- 1 MALE
 - 2 FEMALE
- Q-33 What is your age? (Circle the numeral of the appropriate interval.)
- 1 20 - 29
 - 2 30 - 39
 - 3 40 - 49
 - 4 50 AND OVER
- Q-34 What is your highest level of formal education? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)
- 1 HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA
 - 2 ATTENDED COLLEGE BUT DID NOT OBTAIN A DEGREE
 - 3 BACHELOR'S DEGREE
 - 4 GRADUATE WORK OR GRADUATE DEGREE (SPECIFY DEGREE) _____
- Q-35 What is your present marital status? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)
- 1 SINGLE
 - 2 MARRIED
 - 3 WIDOWED
 - 4 DIVORCED
- Q-36 What is your total gross family income? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)
- 1 LESS THAN 20,000
 - 2 20 - 29,999
 - 3 30 - 39,999
 - 4 40 - 49,999
 - 5 50,000 AND OVER
- Q-37 How many years have you lived in your school district? (Enter the appropriate number.)
- _____ TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS
- Q-38 What is your present status of employment? (Circle the appropriate numeral.)
- 1 NOT EMPLOYED
 - 2 EMPLOYED PART-TIME
 - 3 EMPLOYED FULL-TIME
 - 4 RETIRED
- Q-39 If employed, what is your occupation? Using the blank provided, be specific about the nature of your work.
- _____
- If not presently employed, fill in your previous occupation (if applicable).
- _____
- Q-40 Are you a parent? (Circle the appropriate numeral and indicate the number of children you have.)
- 1 YES _____ NUMBER OF CHILDREN
 - 2 NO
- Q-41 How many children in your family are currently attending public school in your school district? (Enter the appropriate number in each category.)
- 1 ELEMENTARY (K-6) _____
 - 2 JUNIOR HIGH (7-8) _____
 - 3 HIGH SCHOOL (9-12) _____

Q-42 Is there anything else you would care to share on your role as a school board member, on the the role of men and women school board members, or on the ways, if any, in which men and women school board members differ from each other in their interests, attitudes, capabilities, behavior, or impact on the school district or the Board of Education. If so, please use this space for that purpose.

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. YOUR CONTRIBUTION TO THIS STUDY IS GREATLY APPRECIATED.

Stephanie Marshall
1145 Wheaton Oaks Drive
Wheaton, IL 60187
690-9782 (Home)
879-3850 (Office)

Appendix I

Appendix I

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS**"Assessing School Board Members Activities, Functions and Roles"**

The questions listed below were utilized to guide the interview with the sample of school board members who responded by completing the questionnaire. The questions were asked in the same order and in the same manner in an effort to render the responses comparable.

1. How did the organizations and/or officers in which you were involved prior to school board membership prepare you for serving on the board of education? (i.e., opportunity for leadership; communication linkage and networks developed; experience with educational or school related issues, etc.) Are you still a member and/or officer in these or any other organizations? Do you feel your continued membership is beneficial to you as a school board member? Please explain.
2. What was your primary motivation for seeking school board membership? What did you want to accomplish? Do you feel that your membership on the board of education is contributing to this goal? Please explain.
3. What group(s) was most supportive in encouraging you to serve on the board of education? How did they encourage your candidacy? Did you receive a public endorsement from this or any other group? What form did the endorsement take?

Was there any organization or group that discouraged or hindered you from seeking office? By what means did they discourage or hinder your candidacy?

4. To what do you attribute your successful election or appointment to the board of education? Were you running on a specific platform; in support of an organization of group, or a specific issue? Please explain.

5. If you had the necessary support and the right opportunity, has your experience on the board of education stimulated your interest in seeking any other elective or appointive offices at the local, state or national level? Please explain.
6. Please explain the process of how you board selects its officers. If you are presently holding an office or have previously held an office on the board of education, please explain how this position has contributed to your effectiveness as a board member or has permitted you to address the critical issue(s) which you wanted to work with when you became a board member.
7. Please explain the process of how board committee assignments are made. (i.e., appointment by board president, nomination and election, or member choice.) Considering all of you board's committees, on which one would you most prefer to be a member and why?
8. School board members are involved in a variety of activities, a number of which include meetings, discussion or phone calls with various personnel, reading materials, and attending or visiting school, district, or board-related activities or events. Please elaborate on your activities within each of these areas:
 - A. With whom do you most frequently meet, discuss, or confer? How frequently per week do you talk?
 - B. What topics or issues do you most frequently discuss with that individual or group?
 - C. Considering all the groups and individuals with whom you confer, what issues seem to be the most frequently discussed?
 - D. How visible do you think board members should be at school related activities or events, teacher institutes, or state and national school board meetings? Please explain.
9. Considering all the responsibilities, concerns, topics that school board members must become involved in, what two (2) areas did you want to work with the most when you became a school member? Why did you want to work in these areas? What specific issues did you want to address? What did you hope to achieve or change in

each area? Now that you are a board member, are these the areas in which you are actually working? If not, how do you account for the discrepancy? Do you feel that the areas in which you are actually working are the most important and should receive top priority?

10. Board members receive needed information from several sources. For each of the following four (4) categories of individuals, please indicate how you were helped by that individual or group, what information they generally provided to you, and what issues you generally discussed with them.
- A. Former and present board members in your district.
 - B. Former and present board members in other districts.
 - C. Superintendent.
 - D. School personnel other than superintendent.

All things considered, who or what groups are the most helpful overall in providing you with the information you need to perform your duties as a school board member?

12. Within the structure of an organization and also outside of the formal organization, there is often an "informal" network of people from which members receive critical information. Would you consider yourself part of an informal network of board members from other school districts who consult each other on matters of mutual concern? Why are you not a member? (Is it because you choose not to be involved; you were not "invited"; or you were not aware that one exists?) If you are a member, please describe the network and how it operates. Who are the members? (composition by gender and district type, etc.) How frequently are issues discussed; by what means are issues discussed (phone calls, informal meetings over coffee; home gatherings, as part of other organizational meetings, etc.) What issues are most frequently discussed? What are the benefits of such a network to you?
13. Please read the cards I will give you describing two points of views about the role and operation of Boards of education. Please select the one that most closely reflects your point of view and explain why you chose as you did.

14. Of all the groups that exist within the school district and the community, which two (2) groups have the most influence in your decision-making as a school member? Why do you consider the opinion and/or recommendation of these groups so vital?
15. Would you describe your board's general pattern of voting on critical issues. Is it unanimous, because the board members agree; is it unanimous despite disagreement among board members; is it a split vote because of specific beliefs about an issue; or is it a split vote because of consistent long-term disagreements within the board?

Would you further elaborate on the pattern? Who generally disagrees? Do men or women tend to vote together? Is there a perceived pattern to the voting on specific issues? Are there issues that are perceived to be critical to men or women board members as a group? Do men and women tend to endorse different issues?

16. What are the two (2) most prominent issues or projects dealt with by your board within the past year? What issues or projects that have not been before the board in the past year would you like to see the board address?
17. You probably recall that on the questionnaire, several questions were asked about your role involvement in key district functions. Several school district functions were listed (board operations, educational program, budget and finance). You were asked to indicate whether you initiated or originated the issue or task, were part of a committee that reviewed it or simply voted on it at a board meeting.

In reviewing your role behavior over the past year, would you please elaborate on the two (2) or three (3) areas, topics, or questions that you initiated with either the board or administration. Would you please explain what you initiated; how you initiated this function; did you first bring it to the administration's attention or to the board? Did you privately request a study or report from the administration or did you publically request a report? Did you initiate the issue and study alone or with other board members with a similar interest? What did you want to accomplish as a result of initiating this issue? What is the present status of the issue(s)?

18. This question is a continuation of the previous one, however, it deals with your role as a board committee member. Over the last twelve (12) months, what issues did you review and study as a member of a board committee? Name the committee and describe the functions and role in the committee structure. Was this an issue of importance to you? Describe the committee role in the study of the issue. Did the committee make a recommendation to the board of education? Was it accepted? Had you asked to be on the committee? Was there another committee that you would have preferred to be on? Do you support the idea of standing or ad hoc board of education committees?
19. What effect has your employment status had on your role as a school board member? Please explain.
20. Briefly, what do you see as your major contribution to your board of education?
21. What has been the most frustrating aspect of your board membership?
22. Do you ever feel any conflict between your responsibility to the public and the school administration? Please explain.

The focus of this study was to determine whether or not significant differences exist between men and women school board members on their characteristics, activities, and roles on boards of education. The following questions relate specifically to these issues.

23. In your experience or judgment, do you feel that male board members interact differently with female board members and/or have different role expectations for female board members?
24. In your experience or judgment, do you think the superintendent interacts differently with male or female board members and/or has different role expectations for male and female board members?
25. Is there anything else you would care to add on your role as a board member on the role of men and women school board members, or on the ways, if any, in which men and women school board members differ from each other in their interests, attitudes, capabilities, behavior or impact on the school district or the board or education?

Appendix J

Appendix J

Composite Chart of Number and Percent of
 Women School Board Members and Women School Board Presidents
 In DuPage County, Illinois, From 1970-1982

School Year	Number of School Districts	Total Number Board Members	Number Women Board Members	Percent Women Board Members	Number Women Board Presidents	Percent Women Board President
1970-71	50	338	53	15.7	1	2.0
1971-72	50	337	61	18.1	3	6.0
1972-73	46	318	63	19.8	2	4.4
1973-74	46	318	66	20.8	3	6.5
1974-75	45	311	82	26.4	5	11.1
1975-76	45	311	85	27.3	6	13.3
1976-77	45	311	91	29.3	7	15.6
1977-78	45	310	90	29.0	9	20.0
1978-79	45	311	98	31.2	10	22.2
1979-80	45	309	111	35.9	11	24.4
1980-81	45	311	108	34.7	11	24.4
1981-82	45	311	120	38.6	15	33.3

Appendix K

Appendix K

Number and Percent of School Boards
 In DuPage County, Illinois, Without Women Board Members From 1970-1982

Year	Number of School Boards	Percent, Illinois Boards
1970-71	15	30.0
1971-72	11	22.0
1972-73	6	13.0
1973-74	5	10.9
1974-75	3	6.7
1975-76	4	8.9
1976-77	4	8.9
1977-78	5	11.1
1978-79	4	8.9
1979-80	1	2.2
1980-81	0	0.0
1981-82	0	0.0

Appendix L

Appendix L

Number and Percent of School Boards in DuPage County, Illinois
 With Two or More Women Board Members From 1970-1982

Year	Number of School Boards	Percent, School Boards
1970-71	16	32.0
1971-72	18	36.0
1972-73	19	41.3
1973-74	20	43.5
1974-75	29	64.4
1975-76	29	64.4
1976-77	31	68.9
1977-78	28	62.2
1978-79	34	75.6
1979-80	37	82.2
1980-81	35	77.8
1981-82	36	80.0

Appendix M

Appendix M

Number and Percent of School Boards in DuPage County, Illinois
 With a Majority of Women School Board Members from 1970-82

Year	Number of School Boards	Percent, School Boards
1970-71	0	0.0
1971-72	0	0.0
1972-73	0	0.0
1973-74	0	0.0
1974-75	1	2.2
1975-76	2	4.4
1976-77	4	8.9
1977-78	7	15.6
1978-79	6	13.3
1979-80	9	20.0
1980-81	6	13.3
1981-82	12	26.7

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Stephanie Anne Pace Marshall has been read and approved by the following committee:

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

December 3, 1982

Date

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Director's Signature