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School Board Leadership:

A Study of Training for School Board Members Across The United States

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Abstract

Local school board members play a significant role as leaders of public education in the United States. As leaders, local school board members are charged with the responsibility to create an environment within their school districts that enable students to meet rigorous content knowledge and performance standards. The public's expectations of the local school boards have changed considerably in recent years, primarily due to the standards and accountability reform movement. In most states, local school board members are now being held accountable for student achievement based on annual standardized assessments. The increased expectations and scrutiny of local school boards have been accompanied with greater emphasis on preparation and training programs for local school board members.

The purpose of this study was to investigate and report states' mandates and requirements for local school board training and to document the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members across the United States. The design of this quantitative study included two surveys disseminated to two target populations. The first target population was comprised of the executive directors of each state's school boards association. The second target population included local school members who held leadership positions in their school boards association for their respective states.

The study was designed to identify which states in the United States: (1) mandate training for local school board members with an enforcement provision; (2) mandate training for

local school board members with no enforcement provision; and (3) do not mandate training for local school board members. The study explored whether or not there were differences in the perceptions held by local school board members regarding training pursuant the following variables: (1) length of service on the local school board; (2) education level; (3) gender (4) district size (5) whether the board member was elected or appointed; and (6) whether training in their respective states was mandated, mandated with an enforcement provision, or not mandated. Information was also requested relative to the characteristics of training activities provided for the local school board members.

The findings from this study showed that the legal requirements for training of local school board members across the United States have remained relatively unchanged from those reported in previous research studies. There were minimal differences found in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that mandate training (with and without an enforcement provision) and states that do not mandate training. An analysis of data collected through a survey administered to a delimited population of local school board members indicated a preference for training through use of for small-group concurrent sessions. The respondents perceived that small group concurrent sessions was the most effective presentation format for training. Further analysis of data also found that the respondents perceived that regional meetings and school board retreats were effective formats for training.

Findings from the study appear to suggest that local school board members participated in training whether it was mandated in their states or not. The findings also seem to imply that more emphasis and attention could be placed on the quality of the training provided for local school board members.

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I also acknowledge my seven living siblings, especially Brenda and Bobby, for taking a particular interest in my education and achievement over the years. Their support and encouragement have always been very special to me. I am appreciative of my dear friend Ralph, who cheered me on in good times and bad, and provided knowledge and expertise in compiling data and in various spreadsheets.

Dedication

This research is dedicated to my parents, Walter Edward Burrell, Sr. (1904-1974) and Carrie Lou Street Burrell (1915-1989), who were able to raise twelve children during a difficult period in the history of our country. They were wonderful examples of the importance of being resilient and resourceful, especially when facing life's challenges. I am eternally grateful for their wisdom, love, and support.

I also dedicate this research to my loving and beautiful children, Nikki and Byron Pollard. I have learned as much from them as they have from me. Byron helped me a great deal with proofreading and assistance with my many computer challenges. Nikki has been a true cheerleader who always had a word of wisdom and a sense of humor. I would not have been able to complete this research without their continual support and encouragement.

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Chapter 1

Introduction to the Study

Background

The role of the local school board has changed significantly since the first boards were established in Massachusetts over 200 years ago. Elizabeth (2003) indicated that earlier school boards generally had one primary responsibility: finding teachers. The author further stated that today's school board members are asked to serve on committees that include budget and finance, building and construction, policy, technology, negotiations, and personnel (Elizabeth, 2003). While school board members have higher incomes and are better educated than the typical American (Hess, 2002; Nylander, 2007), they are not necessarily informed about the complexities of governing a school district.

Many researchers have emphasized the importance of training for local school board members. Anderson and Snyder (2001) pointed out that few board members have ever had training that is especially relevant to the complex and demanding leadership roles they occupy on a school board. McAdams (2003) stated that while a trained board does not guarantee good governance, he contended that training almost always improves a board, and sometimes it can make a great board. A report from the Education Policy and Leadership Center (2004) asserted that the work of school boards could be strengthened if all board members were required to participate periodically in professional development or training. A survey of 600 Michigan voters, commissioned by the Michigan Association of School Boards, found that trained school boards can save districts money by making informed decisions regarding personnel issues, legal

matters, negotiations, and contractual obligations (Michigan Association of School Boards, 2006).

Although training for local school boards has been emphasized in the literature as a critical component of school board leadership, not all states mandate training for local school board members. Based on a 2008 survey by the National School Boards Association, with 44 state school board associations responding, 20 states reported mandated training and 24 states indicated that training was not mandated for local school board members. The responses to the 2010 survey conducted by the National School Boards Association showed very similar results. Among 45 state school boards associations responding, 20 states reported mandated training and 25 states indicated that training was not mandatory for local school board members. McAdams (2003) stated that few boards make development a priority and that boards will do what the law requires. Similarly, Smoley (1999) indicated that board members tend to do things that are required or expected, whether by law, by administrative practice, or by community demand (Smoley, 1999).

Local school boards are no longer merely overseers of school systems; they are leaders of public education and charged with the responsibility of creating conditions within their school districts that enable students to meet rigorous knowledge and performance standards (Gemberling, Smith, and Villani, 2009). The public's expectations of local school boards have increased with the standards and accountability movement in recent years. Local school boards are now being held accountable for student performance on annual state tests, with results of these tests publicized and deficiencies dissected and analyzed (Walser, 2009).

The increased expectations and scrutiny of local school boards come at a time when student populations in school districts across the United States have become more ethnically

diverse and less wealthy. A report from the Institute for Educational Leadership (2001) emphasized that the implications of changing student demographics for education are enormous. The changes in student demographics, according to Petersen and Fusarelli (2001) have contributed to a more divisive and politicized environment in public education and the American society as a whole.

While local school boards have become the focus of increasing criticism and scrutiny, Carver (1997) stated that local boards of public education have one of the most difficult tasks among public and nonprofit bodies because of "four peculiar conditions:

> (1) individual board members are often elected; (2) school boards are tightly regulated by state or provincial authorities; (3) school boards preside in the public spotlight over an emotional topic; and (4) everyone thinks he or she is an expert because, after all, we all went to school" (p. 215).

In light of the complexity of school boards as presented by Carver (1997) and other researchers, the importance of training programs for local school board members is evident.

In spite of the long history of local school board governance, there has been a belief among a number of researchers and scholars that local school boards should be eliminated. According to Elizabeth (2003) some researchers have stated that local school boards as they now exist are too often composed of unskilled, unprepared people elected by a tiny turnout of voters, and that they handicap the students they are supposed to help. The Report of the Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance (1992) emphasized structural changes in education governance and suggested the elimination of local school boards by moving control of education to the state. In contrast, Smoley (1999) and other researchers have argued against replacing local school boards with other forms of governance because community control of schools is central to

the vitality of our democratic way of life. Described by Reimer (2008) as democracy's best kept secret, local school boards are preservers of the nation's historic commitment to schools that reflect the needs and values of each community (Education Policy and Leadership Center, 2004).

Statement of the Problem

While local school board members have higher incomes and are better educated than the typical American (Hess, 2002; Nylander, 2007) many of these officials are unfamiliar with the complexities of public education. They often begin their work as local school board members without any previous experience in educational leadership. The brief tenure of local school board members is another consideration for the issue of training. Nylander (2007) found that 51 percent of local school board members have four years or less of service. Given this turnover, the need to consider a training program that includes orientation activities for new school board members and continued training for veteran members becomes very clear.

Although numerous researchers have emphasized the importance of training for local school board members, the 2010 survey conducted by the National School Boards Association found that 25 states do not mandate training. Even in states that mandated training for local school members over the past few years, Danzberger (1994) argued that a few hours a year of state required training for board members will not improve board governance in light of political pressures from constituents or board members' own inclinations (Danzberger, 1994). Training for local school board members is often provided in the form of short, single-topic courses in board responsibilities and educational policy (Smoley, 1999) and board operations or formal legal concerns (Hess, 2002). Instead of fragmented training, Cline, Billingsley, and Farley (1993) stated that staff development (and training) programs should be based on participants' needs and encompass best practices for planning and implementation. If training and

development programs are going to be effective, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) asserted that the needs of the participants must be met. The authors further stated that one way to determine the training needs of participants is to ask them through use of surveys or interviews (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006).

Although many states have instituted mandatory training for local school board members, many scholars and researchers advocated mandated training not only for the board members but for the school board/superintendent team. Mountford (2008) argued that while board development programs and superintendent preparation programs continue to try to educate board members and superintendents on their roles and responsibilities, the problems associated with school boards and superintendents have continued to exist for the past 200 years. She further suggested that training and education programs for board members and superintendents have only been addressing the symptoms of something deeper. She argued that until the source of those symptoms is identified and dealt with in a direct manner, school boards and superintendents will likely remain largely dysfunctional. Mountford (2008) and Grissom (2009) agreed that there are underlying sociological and psychological root causes that deeply contribute to the tensions between local school boards and superintendents and in the case of Grissom's study, among school board members themselves. Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) emphasized the need for high-quality, state mandated instruction each year for the local school board/superintendent team. They maintained that the school board/superintendent team would become more effective when both parties participate in training together.

Governing a local school district, particularly in light of the accountability movement and expectations for student achievement, requires immediate familiarity with a complex and sophisticated public education system. Roberts and Sampson (2011) found that state school

board associations' executive directors reported that professional development for local school board members had a positive effect on student achievement (Roberts and Sampson, 2011). There appears to be a general agreement among numerous researchers and scholars that local school board members should be required to participate in training programs that are aligned with their challenging leadership responsibilities.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate and report states' mandates and requirements for local school board training and to document the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members across the United States. The study consisted of two phases that targeted two sample populations. Phase I included a survey designed for the executive director of each state's school boards association. The state of Hawaii was excluded from the study because there are no local school boards; the state board of education governs a single, statewide school district (National School Boards Association, 2009). Phase II of the study included a survey designed for local school members who served in leadership positions through their state's school boards association. The research questions for the study were:

1. What are the legal requirements regarding training for local school board members in your state?
2. What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e.: training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs)
3. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that: (a) mandate training with an enforcement provision;

(b) mandate training with no enforcement provision; and (c) do not mandate training?

4. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?

Significance of the Study

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2011), there were 13,629 public school districts in the United States in the 2009-2010 school year. A uniquely American institution, Land (2002) reported that there are approximately 95,000 school board members who serve on these local public school boards. Based on data from the National Center for Education Statistics Digest of Education Statistics (2010), there were approximately 49.3 million students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools in the fall 2008, with a projected enrollment of 50.8 million by the fall of 2015 (National Center for Education Statistics Digest of Education Statistics, 2010). The sheer magnitude of public school students and public education reflected in these data support the notion that leadership for our nation's school is a tremendous responsibility for local school boards.

The legitimacy of local school boards has been questioned because of low voter turnout (Todras, 1993) and concerns about whether voters hold school board members accountable for the academic performance of the schools that they oversee (Berry and Howell, 2008). While it has been assumed that school board members do not influence student achievement because of organizational separation and disparate roles (Alsbury, 2008), a link between school board leadership and high student achievement was found in the Lighthouse Inquiry, a longitudinal study conducted by the Iowa Association of School Boards (2000). One of the tenets of the Lighthouse Inquiry is that knowledgeable school board members,

operating from a distance, create the conditions necessary for schools to generate productive change (Iowa Association of School Boards, 2000).

Numerous researchers and scholars hold the notion that local school board training programs and activities have a positive influence on local school board leadership. Eadie (2005) argued that many school boards are not capable of the kind of high-impact governing work that would make a real difference in their school districts. He further stated that the situation is not because of an inadequate pool of people who are bright and committed enough to govern at a high level, rather, he attributes inadequate attention to developing and managing school boards as governing organizations as a major problem (Eadie, 2005). While Reimer (2008) contended that school board members do not need to be educational professionals or organizational professionals, McAdams (2003) argued that training almost always improves a school board. Carver (1997) stated that all jobs require continual updating of skills and refurbishing of understanding (Carver, 1997).

Researchers in the area of staff development agree that the goal of training is to change individuals' knowledge, understanding, behaviors, and skills. Guskey (1995) stated that staff development must include organizational development as well as individual development and improvement. Smoley (1999) stated that ideal development and training for school boards would include a sustained program for the full board, with an integrated approach to topics and an emphasis on self-assessment, basic purposes, and board functioning (Smoley, 1999).

Another significance of this study is its focus on the local school board as a separate and unique entity in school district leadership and governance. Stated as a limitation in her study, Land (2002) indicates that one hindrance to the development of a solid research base on school

board effectiveness is the failure of studies of educational governance to treat school boards as a discrete unit of analysis (Land, 2002).

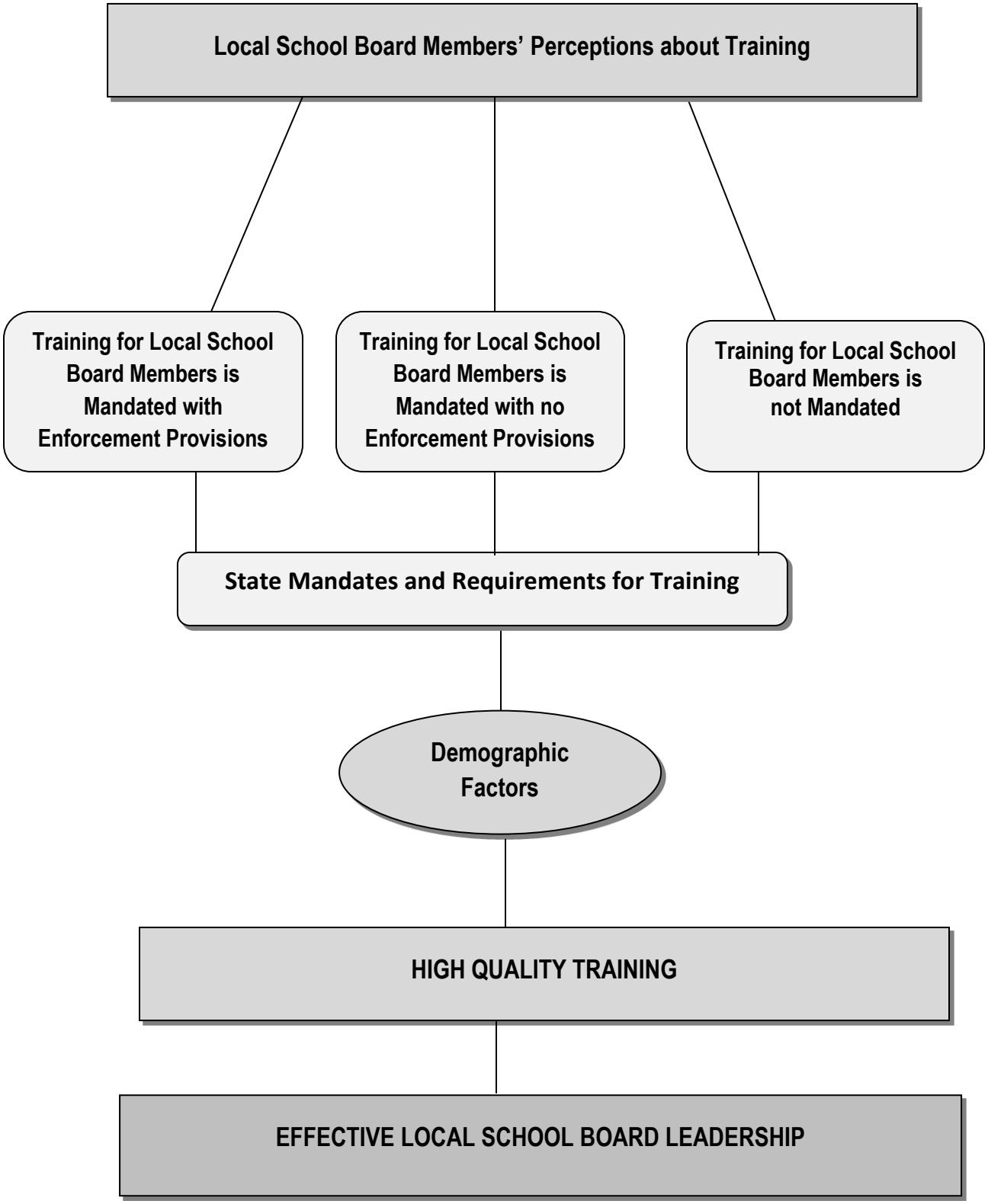
Theoretical Framework

Many researchers who have studied local school boards have supported the idea that training for local school boards improves the leadership performance of the board members. It has been emphasized that the training must be specific and targeted to the complex and challenging leadership tasks that local school board members are expected to fulfill.

While the ultimate goal of any type of training or staff development is to improve performance, there are many characteristics and factors that must be considered in the process of designing training programs. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) identified the following ten important factors that should be considered in the process of planning and implementing effective training programs: (1) determining needs; (2) setting objectives; (3) determining subject content; (4) selecting participants; (5) determining the best schedule; (6) selecting appropriate facilities; (7) selecting appropriate instructors; (8) selecting and preparing audiovisual aids; (9) coordinating the program; and (10) evaluating the program (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). The theoretical framework in Figure 1 shows several links toward the goal of effective local school board leadership. The level of leadership from local school board members is often influenced by the level of preparedness and training that they are provided. While training programs and activities for local school board members are often planned and implemented without their direct involvement, researchers identified in this section and in Chapter 2, support the importance of involving the population targeted for training in the planning, implementation, and evaluation processes. The quality of the training that is attended by local school board members, whether they serve in states that mandate training or not, is

directly linked with the training characteristics and practices that have been used by the individuals or entities responsible for planning, coordinating, and implementing the training. The perceptions about training as reported by local school board members are likely to be influenced by the quality and relevancy of the training and many of the ten factors identified by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick's book (2006).

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework



Definition of Terms

1. Local School Board: School board means any agency or agencies which administer a system of one or more public schools and any other agency which is responsible for the assignment of students to or within such system. http://definitions.uslegal.com/s/school-board/

2. Orientation: Orientation refers to training specifically designed for new board members or staff in order to provide them the tools necessary to make a successful transition to a new position. Orientation may include a training session related to job expectations and responsibilities and could also provide new staff or board members with a mentor who could provide knowledge and information. Training sessions for the orientation are typically held within a specified timeline. (Definition adapted from: http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/orientation.html)

3. School district: A school district is a quasi-municipal corporations created and organized by state legislatures and charged with the administration of public schools within the state. (http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Schools+and+School+Districts)

4. Training: Organized activity aimed at imparting information and/or instructions to improve the recipient's performance or to help him or her attain a required level of knowledge or skill. (http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/training.html). In the context of this study, the term training, is used synonymously with board development, staff development, and professional development

Limitations and Delimitations

Limitations

The possibility of bias due to the self-reporting nature of a survey is often considered a limitation. Missing data, such as the failure of participants to respond to the invitation to participate in the survey, impact the response rate. There is also the possibility that participants could respond incorrectly or inaccurately to survey questions. Participants that do respond to the survey could leave some questions unanswered which is also considered a limitation and perceived as missing data.

Delimitations

The possibility of a delimitation, within control of the researcher, is the accuracy of the survey questions and reporting of collected data. The researcher made every effort to ensure validation of the survey instruments. The researcher also made numerous attempts at contacting individuals in the sample populations in an effort to increase the response rate.

The local school board members targeted for the study were identified through a careful delimited population process. The target population of local school board members was limited to those who held leadership positions as identified through their respective state's school boards association web site.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction of the study and includes the background, statement of the problem, research questions, significance and purpose of the study, theoretical framework, definition of terms, limitations, and organization of the study. Chapter 2 provides a review of literature. This chapter includes a historical perspective of local school boards, role and responsibility of local school boards, training for

local school board members, and a summary. The third chapter explains the methodology that was used and includes the research design, population sample, instrumentation, data collection, and analysis. Chapter 4 describes the response rates, results of the data collected, compares the findings to theory, and identifies emergent themes. Chapter 5, the final chapter in the study, summarizes the findings, describes conclusions from the study, identifies implications for practice, lists recommendations for further study, and expresses my reflections on the research study.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

Historical Perspective of Local School Boards

The local school board, unique in American society and in the world, has governed public education for more than two centuries (Kirst, 2008). A historical review of local school boards and public education in the context of social, political, and economical events is presented to illustrate influences on public education governance. The historical perspective of local school boards and public education is divided into three periods: the colonial period, common school period, and the modern period.

Colonial Period – Early National Period of Public Education, 1600 – 1840

During the colonial period, America was governed by British rule and there was a general distrust of distant government. After America won its independence from British rule, widely held convictions about distant government affected the decisions that governed education. North America's colonies began to establish elected school boards of three to five laymen who could make decisions based on local values, goals, challenges, and resources (Reimer, 2008).

Massachusetts led the way in establishing schools during the early colonial period. The Massachusetts Bay Colony School Law was passed in 1642. The law required parents to assure that their children know the principles of religion and the capital laws of the commonwealth. In 1647, the Massachusetts Law, also known as the Old Deluder Satan Act, required every town with at least fifty families to establish and maintain schools (Land, 2002; Plecki, McCleery, and Knapp, 2006). Elected representatives called selectmen were entrusted with maintaining schools. In the beginning, the selectmen controlled nearly every aspect of school administration,

including collecting taxes, hiring and managing teachers, managing facilities, and testing students (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001). As local responsibilities increased with population growth and student enrollment, public interest in education also grew. The selectmen began to separate educational governance from general local governance (Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance, 1992). Committees were appointed by the local selectmen to govern education in the towns (Land, 2002). In 1789, Massachusetts passed the first state school law and authorized towns to employ special committees elected by the people to oversee schools (McCurdy, 1992).

The first state board of education was established in Massachusetts in 1837. While the establishment of state boards of education gave states a greater role in education, local school boards retained most of the control over their schools (Danzberger, 1994, Land, 2002). Local school boards began to hire full-time superintendents in the 1830s when growth in student populations made it impossible for unpaid, part-time school board members to manage schools. The yielding of power to the superintendent was often tentative and school boards would occasionally hire a superintendent and later return school management to the school board (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001).

Common School Period – Progressive Period of Public Education, 1840 – 1920

By the mid-1800s, the power to oversee schools had begun to separate somewhat from local school boards. The growth and complexity of American society and its schools created a viewpoint that public education required more than lay leadership. Increases in student enrollment and overall population growth that began in the 1830s continued during the Common School Period. McCurdy (1992) indicated that school governance in the 1840s and 1850s changed from a one-headed system of leadership to a two-headed system (McCurdy, 1992). By

1860, twenty-seven urban school districts had superintendents. The establishment of a central administrative authority, the superintendent, was characteristic of urban school districts during this period and was later instituted in rural and small-town schools in the twentieth century (Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance, 1992).

During the Civil War period, superintendents became increasingly agitated by their lack of real authority in making systemic change without the approval of school boards that were increasing in size and diversity. By the late 1800s, concerns about school committees appointed by local selectmen arose and reformers sought to make changes to local educational governance (Plecki et al, 1999). School boards in large cities were the first to experience major changes in structure and roles (Kirst, 2008). This led to the consolidation of school districts and centralization of local school boards so that small boards, selected through citywide elections, governed more schools and more students. During this period, the basic administrative structure and patterns of school policy, similar to what we have today were established: a central school board for each district with a chief executive, the superintendent (Plecki, et al, 2006; Land, 2002; Danzberger, 1994).

Between 1890 and 1920, many cities began to abolish the decentralized ward committees. During this time, there were more than 603 local school board members in twenty-eight cities with populations of 100,000 or more, with an average board membership of 21.5 members for each city. By 1923, the average board membership had decreased to seven members. The new model of corporate management indicated that small boards were to decide “policy” and delegate “administration” to the superintendent and specialists. Decisions made by the school superintendent increased while those made by the local school board decreased (National Commission on Governing America’s Schools, 1999; Twentieth Century Task Force on School

Governance, 1992). According to the Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance (1992), members of the reformed school boards were frequently heads of major businesses and therefore constrained to actively participate in school policy debate. The board members began to rely increasingly on the superintendent and the selection of the superintendent became a more critical function of the local school board (Twentieth Century Task Force, 1992). Concurrent with the shift in decision-making at the local level, state departments of education began to grow in importance and size (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999).

Hess (2002) indicated that a legacy of school governance left from the Progressive Period of public education was the desire to remove politics from the education process. They sought to remove partisan favor from the electoral process by not holding local school board elections on the same day as major elections (Hess, 2002). The practice of nonpartisan elections that began during the Progressive Period, though criticized by many current scholars and researchers, has continued through today's school board elections in many localities across the country.

Modern Period – Present Day Public Education, 1920 – Present

During the first two decades of the twentieth century, the nature of schooling changed to reflect industrial and technological advancements, urbanization, population characteristics, and corporate values of efficiency and productivity. There was a widespread belief in bureaucratic and scientifically managed organizations. Superintendents and school boards appeared to adopt the concept of centralized control and created large, comprehensive school systems (Björk, 2005). Depoliticizing and differentiating public education became a focus of reform. State departments of education continued to grow in importance and size as a means of providing uniformity of practice within a state and assuring that districts met certain minimum standards (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999).

The United States pulled far ahead of other countries in the education of its youth. From 1920 to 1940, the "high school movement" resulted in a drastic increase in the number of 18-year-olds with high school diplomas, from nine percent in 1920 to more than 50 percent in 1940 (Goldin and Katz, 2008).

While the United States experienced significant achievements in public education during this period, the country also experienced major challenges. The Great Depression in 1929 resulted in economic devastation that had an adverse impact on public education funding. During this time period, schools were closed, teachers laid off, and salaries were lowered. As the United States entered World War II in 1941, much of the country's resources were given to the war effort. Education was not a high priority as many young men quit school to enlist in the military. Schools were challenged with personnel issues as teachers and other school employees enlisted, were drafted, or left public education to pursue employment in various defense plants (American Educational History Timeline, 2010).

After World War II, school reform advocates voiced concern about what was perceived as an outdated curriculum in America's schools. They argued that students were studying Newton's law when they should have been learning about subatomic particles (Bracey and Resnick, 1998). Public attention on curriculum matters rather than administrative and governance structures continued through the 1950s and was heightened in 1957 with the launching of the Soviet Union's Sputnik satellite. Critics blamed a legacy of progressive education as the culprit responsible for American's decline in science and mathematics. The federal response was the passing of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 which boosted efforts in science and mathematics (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999). Bracey (2009) argued that public education was used as a scapegoat for Sputnik and that

schools never recovered from the blame and scrutiny. He reasoned that faulting schools for letting the Russians get into space first does not pass any reality test, but it happened anyway; and it happened over and over as social crises, real and imaged, have emerged since Sputnik. Bracey (2009) further emphasized that "people will believe anything you say about public education as long as it's bad" (Bracey, 2009; p. 39).

Three years prior to Sputnik, in a landmark decision, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka, that intentionally segregated schools are inherently unequal and violated the U.S. Constitution's equal-protection clause. Often referred to as the ruling that changed America, the Brown vs. Board decision launched decades of massive policy changes intended to expand equitable access to education resources (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999).

During the decade of the 1960s, civil rights, collective bargaining, and teachers' rights were areas of focus in public education. For many local school boards and superintendents, bargaining with teacher union affiliates created a new demand on their time (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999). In 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act passed by the U.S. Congress provided federal funds to help low-income students and included the initiation of major educational programs such and Title I and bilingual education. Federal involvement in public education continued to increase during the 1970s as federal funding increased for specific populations, such as the disadvantaged, minorities, women, and the disabled. The United States Department of Education was created and signed into law in 1979.

The composition and role of local school boards shifted during the mid-1960s. School boards moved away from a corporate model of "establishment" members who acted as trustees

of the community at large. Minority groups historically neglected by unresponsive school boards demanded access to governing the institutions that played such vital roles in the lives of their children (Petersen and Fusarelli, 2005).

The decade of the 1980s included a quest for educational excellence and prompted states to become more involved in local educational governance. State involvement in local education governance was characterized by legislating curricula, teacher certification competency testing, graduation standards, and data collection (Land, 2002). Expectations for school and district leaders shifted from effective management to student learning, teacher professionalism, decentralization, distributed leadership, and shared governance. The expectations underscored the importance of the superintendent's educational background and democratic leadership (Björk, 2005). Education reform during this period overtly questioned almost everything about the public school system except the local institution that governed the schools, the local school board (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001). Demands for proven performance reached unprecedented levels (Reimer, 2008) during this decade. Danzberger (1994) noted that at the end of the 1980s, in spite of state reform efforts, hopes for rapid increases in student achievement did not occur (Danzberger, 1994).

The 1990s marked the beginning of more decentralized approaches that focused on increasing student achievement at the local level through site-based management, school choice, and deregulation. In spite of the decentralized approaches implemented by local school districts, the state still had the ultimate authority to establish and change governance arrangements (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999). The decade of the 1990s was also characterized by changes in student demographics in school districts across the country. Overall, student populations have become more diverse and less wealthy. Whittle (2006)

emphasized that we are sending 15 million of our children, mostly whom are poor and of color, to schools that by government statistics, are significantly failing to deliver on a promise this democracy proudly makes to all its citizens: an equal start (Whittle, 2006).

While Alsbury (2008) indicated that it is a daunting task to try compiling an adequate list of the extraordinary changes in American education that now form the environment for local school boards, Marx (2006) identified sixteen trends and their impact on the future of public education and our society as a whole.

Many of the sixteen trends identified by Marx (2006) have implications for local school boards and other educational leaders. Five of the sixteen trends that appeared to have the most immediate impact on public education are listed as follows. (1) For the first time in history, the old will outnumber the young, while the traditional school-age populations continue to grow. School leaders will need to contend with growing enrollments and massive retirements from education professionals. (2) Majorities will become minorities, creating ongoing challenges for social cohesion. Improving achievement for all students with challenges will likely grow as some students and their schools fail to meet benchmarks on high-stakes tests. (3) Technology will increase the speed of communication and the pace of advancement or decline. The demand for higher-level teaching skills will be needed as growing numbers of students come to school with more information on some topics than their teachers. Instruction on the ethical dimensions of technology is needed in what has already become a very fast-moving world. (4) The Millennial Generation, born between 1983 and 2003, will insist on solutions to accumulated problems and injustices, while an emerging Generation E, born after 2004, will call for equilibrium. School leaders and educators must help students and communities understand divergent views because combined, the students, teachers, administrators, and parents who are

directly involved in a school or college could represent up to three or four generations. Millennials will move into positions of leadership at every level and take on problems and injustices of the world. Educators will need to help these students understand their roles in a global community. They will need to be taught about the histories, cultures, and people of the world. (5) Standards and high-stakes tests will fuel a demand for personalization in an education system increasingly committed to lifelong human development. School leaders and schools will be challenged to shape education programs that balance the interests, abilities, talents, and aspirations of students with the needs of society. Educators will need to ensure that standards do not limit the curriculum or push students out of school (Marx, 2006).

The current K-12 Public education governance arrangements have resulted from an evolution of structures and processes over the course of two centuries. Federal and state governments have assumed a much greater role in the governance of education which continues to have significant and far-reaching influence on control by local school boards. Whittle (2006) contended that improving public education would require a radical shift from local enterprises to regional and national projects. He stated that over the past century in America, virtually every category of goods and services have made this shift except public education (Whittle, 2006).

Profile of Local School Boards

Anderson and Snyder (2001) stated that local school board members represent the largest single body of elected public officials in the country. According to Hess and Meeks (2010), there are approximately 14,000 local boards in the United States. The National Center for Education Statistics (2011) showed that during the 2009-2010 school year, there were 13,629 local education agencies that operated as regular agencies responsible for educating students residing with their jurisdictions (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011).

Local school board members are elected or appointed depending on the governance structure of state and local government. With 45 states responding, the National School Boards Association (2009) reported that local school board members are elected in 26 states and elected in 19 states. There are no local school boards in the state of Hawaii; the state board of education governs a single statewide school district (National School Boards Association, 2009).

Many local school board members receive little or no pay for their service. A national survey conducted by Nylander (2007) reported that 55 percent of the board members reported that they received no pay for serving on the school board; 22 percent indicated an annual salary between $1,000 and $5,000; 10 percent receive less than $1,000; and 9 percent more than $5,000. Hess and Meeks (2010) reported that in small districts, three-fourths of local school board members receive no salary compensation and the other one fourth earn less than $5,000 per year. In larger school districts, 22 percent of local school board members earn $10,000 or more per year for their service and about 8 percent earn more than $15,000 per year (Hess and Meeks, 2010).

Research indicates that local school board members tend to be better educated than the typical American. Nylander (2007) found that 43 percent of the local school board members in the study had graduate degrees; 33 percent with bachelor's degrees; 13 percent with some college experience; 7 percent with a two-year degree; and 3 percent with a high school diploma or equivalent. Hess and Meeks (2010) reported three-fourths of board members with at least a bachelor's degree, exceeding the 29.5 percent of American adults over age 25 that hold at least a Bachelor of Arts degree. In large districts, more than half of school board members reported having an advanced degree and 85 percent with at least a Bachelor of Arts degree.

The length of service on the local school board varied among researchers. Hess (2002) found the length of time on the local school board varied from 41 percent of the members serving two to five years; a little more than 30 percent with six to ten years; about 18 percent serving more than ten years; and approximately 10 percent serving less than two years on their current school board. Nylander (2007) reported 30 percent of local school board members served five to nine years; 28 percent one to four years; 20 percent more than 10 years; and 12 percent less than one year of school board service. Hess and Meeks (2010) indicated that 28.4 percent of local school board members had a tenure of two plus to five years; 27.1 percent reported a tenure of five plus to ten years; 22.9 percent with more than 10 years of board service; and 21.7 percent with zero to two years of service on the local school board.

In terms of gender, Hess (2002) found 61.1 percent of board members were male and 38.9 percent female. Nylander (2007) reported 55 percent male and 45 percent female. In a later study, Hess and Meeks (2010) found similar gender data with 56 percent male and 44 percent female.

Local school board members spend considerable hours on issues related to their work on the board. Nylander (2007) indicated that local school board members spend up to twenty hours each week on board-related activities. Hess (2002) found a range of ten to more than 70 hours per month. Hess and Meeks (2010) reported that in large school districts, 40 percent of school board members reported working more than 40 hours per month and less than one in 10 board members reported working less than 15 hours per month on board-related activities. The findings were different for small school districts where more than half of board members reported working less than 15 hours per month and 8.3 percent of board members reported working more than 40 hours per month on board business (Hess and Meeks, 2010). The amount

of time that local school board members spend on board-related activities may be viewed as highly commendable, especially since many board members receive little to no monetary compensation for service. However, Glass (2000) suggested that such a time commitment indicates that board members are routinely and heavily involved in management (Glass, 2000).

National data have shown that student demographics continue to change in the area of race and ethnic diversity. Diverse representation on local school boards has been included in the research. Hess and Meeks (2010) reported 80.7 percent of local school board members as White/Caucasian; 12.3 percent Black/African American; 3.1 percent Hispanic/Latino; 1.7 percent identified themselves as "other"; 1.2 percent reported as American Indian or Alaska Native; 0.8 percent as Asian; and 0.1 percent as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. Nylander (2007) reported that 90 percent of board members were White/Caucasian; 6 percent Black/African American; 2 percent Hispanic/Latino; 1 percent American Indian/Native American; and 1 percent "other" (Nylander, 2007). Hess and Meeks (2010) indicated that large school districts were most likely to include minority board members, where African Americans constituted 21.8 percent and Latinos 6 percent in largest districts (Hess and Meeks, 2010).

Hill (2003) argued that regardless of the practical and symbolic value of diverse local school board membership, it has increased rather than decreased fragmentation of school districts. He further stated that different board members have their own concerns and loyalties, and pay attention to particular causes, programs, interest groups, and teacher factions (Hill, 2003). On the other hand, Grissom (2009) found that boards with racial heterogeneity had fewer incidences of conflict. He also found that local school boards with gender heterogeneity showed no significant relationship with board conflict which indicated that boards composed of women and men have little to do with promoting or mitigating disagreements. In contrast to gender and

race heterogeneity, the findings did show that ideological heterogeneity as linked to greater conflict among board members but only in regards to fiscal ideology rather than social ideology (Grissom, 2009).

Another profile statistic of local school boards and an area of debate is whether board members should be elected or appointed. Land (2002) stated that most often, school board members are elected at-large, elected within subdivisions or wards, or appointed. Hess (2002) reported that 96.2 percent of members were elected and four percent appointed. In a later study with similar results, Hess and Meeks (2010) found that 94.5 percent of school board members reported being elected to office and 5.5 percent were appointed (Hess and Meeks, 2010).

Voter turnout and the timing of local school board elections have also been examined. Hess (2002) stated that the timing of local school board elections should coincide with "higher profile/higher stakes" elections which would likely produce higher voter turnout (Hess, 2002). Several researchers and school board critics have argued that state policy makers, in collaboration with school boards, should engage in activities to increase voter participation in school board elections. Critics of local school boards frequently discount the democratic and representative attributes of local school boards because voter participation tends to be lower than that of other public offices (Todras, 1993; Elizabeth, 2006; National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999). Land (2002) emphasized that arguments for and against elected and appointed school boards have focused on which procedure is superior for effective educational governance, rather than which procedure works best under which circumstances or how the negative aspects of each process can be minimized (Land, 2002).

Regardless of the process used for individuals to become local school board members, critics of local school boards have become increasingly vocal about whether boards are needed.

The National Commission on Governing America's Schools (1999) and Smoley (1999) argued that instead of eliminating school boards altogether or transforming them into something other than a community representative body, the better policy response is to determine ways in which weak school boards and indeed all school boards can be supported to raise their level of success (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999; Smoley, 1999).

Role and Responsibility of the Local School Board

Local school boards are legislatively created bodies empowered to create policy within the confines of law and statute (Glass, 2000). Since statutes differ from state to state, the range of governance responsibilities of local school boards are numerous and diverse.

The ambiguity of state statues often complicates the manner in which local school board members provide leadership for the organization. Danzberger (1994) indicated that state statutes essentially make school boards responsible for everything. As a result, many school board members find it difficult to be responsible for everything and not supervise the actual doing or implementation of those things (Danzberger, 1994), which often leads to micromanagement of administrative matters by school boards (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001). The processes established by such laws often result in an adversarial relationship between the local school members and the superintendent (Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000).

School boards and superintendents both have vital roles and responsibilities for improving student achievement and overall success of the school district. Ziebarth (2002) emphasized that in many states, the responsibilities of the local school board and superintendent are delineated not in a single statute, but addressed separately and often scattered across various sections of the state statute. The result of this format is often a lack of understanding of, and confusion about what school boards should do as opposed to the duties of the superintendent.

Ziebarth (2002) and Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) recommended that state leaders enact clearer, more specific sets of responsibilities for local school boards and superintendents.

While local school boards and individual school board members are generally discouraged from becoming involved in the day-to-day operation and administration of the school district, Glass (2000) pointed out that in small, rural school districts, the involvement might be a welcomed expectation. He indicated that is some small, rural school districts where seven member school boards might represent 400 families and with a district office consisting of three or fewer administrators, it is quite likely that individual board members or the board as a whole will assume some managerial responsibilities. In such school districts, the micromanagement might be expected by community members and might also be a traditional practice in those types of districts (Glass, 2000).

Reimer (2008) indicated that when local school board members, though well-intentioned but often uniformed, involve themselves in the daily administration and operation of the school district, the governance role of the superintendent is critically weakened. When this happens with top-level leadership from the school board and superintendent, Reimer (2008) argued that morale and motivation inside the school district organization are adversely affected. Similarly, Carver (1997) stated that without a clear difference in job contributions and expectations, the school board becomes staff "one step removed" (Carver, 1997). As many local school boards continue to struggle with state and federal requirements to improve their lowest performing schools, Hill (2003) argued that there are no practical limits to school board powers and that they own the district: they hire the superintendent and all staff, decide how much money will be spent, and in some cases, boards set the schedules and approve textbooks. He reasoned that it is no surprise that local school board members tend to micromanage (Hill, 2003).

According to McCurdy (1992), throughout the 20th Century, the role of the local school board and superintendent has continued to evolve within the traditional framework of boards as policymakers and superintendents as implementers of policy. Although there are individuals who believe that the distinction between school board and superintendent roles is a myth, McCurdy (1992) maintained that the distinction is real, although it tends to be ill-defined (McCurdy, 1992).

The National School Boards Association asserted that the local school board is a critical public link to public schools. Whether elected or appointed, school board members serve their communities in four important ways: (1) school boards look out for students and make education the only line item on the school board's agenda; (2) when making decisions about school programs, school boards incorporate their community's view of what students should know and be able to do; (3) school boards are accessible to the public and accountable for the performance of their schools; and (4) school boards are the education watchdog for their communities, ensuring that students get the best education for the tax dollars spent (National School Boards Association).

The role of the local school board has continued to evolve since the first boards were established. Elizabeth (2003) indicated that earlier school boards generally had one primary responsibility: finding teachers. The author further stated that today's board members are asked to serve on committees that include budget and finance, building and construction, policy, technology, negotiations, and personnel (Elizabeth, 2003). Historically, local school boards believed their role was not to substitute their own views on matters on pedagogy for those of professional educators. Rather they perceived their role to be supportive, approving the budget and legal documents, dealing with constituents, receiving reports, and campaigning for board

issues (Lashway, 2002). The Education Policy and Leadership Center (2004) indicated that the most fundamental purpose of local school boards in the past and today is to represent the community and its values in the governance of public education (Education Policy and Leadership Center, 2004).

Public education governance at the local level operates in a broader context that includes the state and federal levels of government. While the state plays a dominant role and largely defines and influences the role and responsibilities of local school boards through the combined actions of state legislatures, state boards of education, and the courts, other factors also influence how school boards carry out their responsibilities. These factors include differences among school districts such as school district size, geographic location, impact of poverty, racial and ethnic diversity, values and expectations of the community, available revenues, and public involvement (Dennis, 2000; Land, 2002; Hess, 2002).

According to Kowalski (2008) there are several other factors that determine how school board members behave in carrying out their role and responsibilities. Kowalski indicated that board member behavior is determined by an elaborate and complex mix of three factors: (1) personal orientation; (2) role conceptualization; and (3) ability and disposition. Personal orientations include two extremes on a continuum. At one extreme is the “trustee orientation” and at the other end is the “delegate orientation”. The trustee focuses on serving the needs of all stakeholders and the general welfare of the community and makes key rational decisions. The delegate focuses on serving personal needs of special interest groups and makes key decisions politically. Few school board members are exclusively a delegate or a trustee. Rather, board members tend to behave in accordance with one extreme or the other based on political realities faced by board members in their school districts (Kowalski, 2008).

According to Kowalski (2008) the second factor that contributes to board behavior is role conceptualization. While role orientations are personal, role conceptualizations are societal and organizational. Three distinct role conceptualization themes have been identified as the facilitative role, representative role, and instrumental role. The facilitative role dates back to the origin of public education in America within the context of local control and reflective of the cherished values of liberty. The representative role emerged as school districts became larger and more complex organizations, especially after 1900. The representative role is characterized by a focus on representing stakeholders in making key decisions and concerned with providing a representative form of democratic governance. The instrumental role of school board members emerged as governance of public education became more centralized. The instrumental role is characterized by a focus on enforcement of laws and state policy, with a focus on fiduciary responsibilities and accountability (Kowalski, 2008).

The third factor described by Kowalski (2008) as a contributing factor to school board member behavior is ability and disposition. He stated that ability pertains to knowledge and skills and influences whether an individual has the capacity to do what is expected. Dispositions refer to philosophical beliefs and values and represent one's willingness to do what is expected. He further emphasized that possessing knowledge does not ensure that it will be used; and conversely, having the will to do something is insufficient without the essential knowledge (Kowalski, 2008).

Researchers have identified policymaking as one common responsibility of the local school board's governance role. A well-known model for structured and systematic board governance is "Policy Governance" created by John Carver in the 1970s. Carver (1997; 2000) stated that policies permeate and dominate all aspects of organizational life and provide the most

powerful force for the exercise of leadership. Six essential characteristics of the Policy Governance model were identified: (1) governance is viewed as a specialized form of ownership rather than a specialized form of management where boards are more identified with the general public than with the staff; (2) as a body, the board is vested with authority rather than individual board members' authority; (3) on behalf of the public, the board specifies the nature and cost of consumer results, referred to as "ends" but the board does not prescribe methods and activities, referred to as "means", required in day-to-day operations; (4) boundaries of acceptability are outlined by the board and within these boundaries, the superintendent and staff are allowed to establish the means to meet the ends; (5) the board systematically and rigorously monitors performance on ends and unacceptable means, treating the superintendent as a true chief executive officer and all accountability for ends and unacceptable means rests with the superintendent alone; and (6) board meetings are primarily used to gather information, debate, and resolve issues around long-term ends rather than dealing with matters that can be delegated. The consent agenda is used for items that should be delegated to the superintendent but upon which the law requires board action (Carver, 2000).

Legal Aspect of the Local School Board

The Tenth Amendment to the United States Constitution states: "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States, respectively, or to the people." Since education is not mentioned in the United States Constitution, it is apparently reserved to the states or to the people (Alexander and Alexander, 2005). With the exception of Hawaii, the constitution of each state contains a provision for establishing a system of public schools to be governed by a local school board that shall establish policy for those schools (Land, 2002). Public school governance in Hawaii is

controlled at the state level. Article X of the constitution of Hawaii indicates that the state's board of education has the power to formulate statewide educational policy and appoint the superintendent of education as the chief executive officer of the public school system (Constitution of Hawaii).

A general pattern followed by many states is for the legislative branch of government to create other bodies and to share its power with them. Local school boards were created as such bodies (Dennis, 2000). As a legal entity of the state, the role and responsibilities of the local school board and its members are specific and identified within the education laws and regulations of the state (Reimer, 2008).

First and Walberg (1992) stated that within the limits of any state legislature's delegation, local school boards have implied power to act as they deem appropriate in matters of educational policy and school governance. Reimer (2008) contended that local school boards perform actions that reflect all three branches of government: legislative, executive, and judicial. She indicated that local school boards perform a legislative function because they are responsible for setting policy, approving budgets, establishing regulations, and engaging constituents. Local school boards perform an executive government function when they carry out policy, and take on a judicial function when serving as the final body for appeals from student discipline cases, staff grievances, and evaluation of the superintendent (Reimer, 2008). Petersen and Fusarelli (2001) noted that the power of the local school board to advance the district or force it into gridlock is enormous. A similar perspective was expressed by Hill (2003) who argued that there are no practical limits on the power of local school boards.

Many school board scholars and researchers have advocated for major reform of public school governance. Although written 18 years ago, the viewpoint of Danzberger (1994) is still

applicable in 2012. She argued that the current system of public school governance is not structurally suited to govern effectively in an increasingly divisive society facing unprecedented economic and social challenges. A major recommendation for school board reform described by Danzberger (1994) and the Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance (1992) was: repeal of all current laws and regulations that specify the duties, functions, selection, and role of the school board, then rename the school board the "local education policy board". The local education policy board would be allowed to: (1) hire administrative law judges or another type of qualified third party, to hear and decide on complaints and appeals on issues that affect individual students or staff; (2) establish a procedure, outside the school board, to hear and decide complaints from individual constituents; (3) establish policies to facilitate cooperation and collaboration with appropriate units of general government and other agencies serving children and families; (4) convene community forums to discuss major education policy issues and to provide leadership for public education; (5) conduct regular and periodic self-assessments; and (6) commit themselves to an ongoing process of learning and development based on the results of their self-assessments (Danzberger, 1994; Twentieth Century Task Force, 1992).

Accountability for Student Achievement

The challenges of raising student achievement suggest a significant governance role for local school boards in setting educational policy. The increasing emphasis on accountability in public education, in the context of more state and federal mandates and a slow economy have been the catalysts for closer examination of the responsibility of the local board for student achievement. Moe (2002) argued that authorities are now faced with a school system that has been in existence for over a century but has never really been held accountable for student achievement (Moe, 2002).

Many states now have publicly disseminated report cards for schools and school districts that contain data on student achievement by grade, subject, student subgroups, graduation rate, and other indicators of school and district performance. According to the Institute for Educational Leadership (2001) a school district's rating on its report card can influence everything from the continued tenure of the superintendent to the market value of homes in the community (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001). In addition to the school and district report cards that are required in many states, there are several national student assessments that are conducted and data are publicly displayed, discussed, and scrutinized.

Accountability for low student academic achievement and school dropout rates are two major reasons for the recent focus on the local school board's role in student achievement. According to the Condition of Education Report, National Center on Education Statistics, between 2007 and 2009, there was no measurable change in the average grade 4 reading score. There was a small increase of one point in the average grade 8 reading score. In terms of the achievement gap, in 2009, White students at grade 12 scored 27 points higher in reading than Black students and 22 points higher than Hispanic students. Neither score gap was significantly different from the respective score gaps in previous assessment years. From 1990 to 2009, average grade 4 mathematics scores increased by 27 points and average grade 8 scores increased by 20 points. For this same time period at grade 12, average scores increased by 3 points between 2005 and 2009. In terms of the achievement gap, in 2009 White students at grade 12 scored 30 points higher in mathematics than Black students and 23 points higher than Hispanic students. Neither score gap was measurably different from the corresponding score gaps in 2005. (National Center on Education Statistics, 2011 Condition of Education Report).

Statistics for the high school dropout rate as reported by Stillwell (2009) showed 613,379 dropouts from high school (grades 9-12) with an overall dropout rate of 4.1 percent across all 49 reporting states and the District of Columbia in the 2007-2008 school year. The dropout rate was lowest for Asian/Pacific Islander students at 2.4 percent and highest for American Indian/Alaska Native students with a rate of 7.3 percent. The dropout rate for White students was 2.8 percent, 6.0 percent for Hispanic students, and 6.7 percent for Black students (Stillwell, 2009).

The role of the local school board in student achievement has been the focus of research studies and commentary literature. Lashway (2002) noted that school boards have historically taken a low-key approach to student learning, reasoning that instructional decisions should be made by professional educators. While the challenge of raising student achievement is clear, Bracey and Resnick (1998) suggested that board members should use the power of their office to lead school systems to higher levels of student achievement (Bracey and Resnick, 1998).

Some critics of local school boards have emphasized that not enough time is spent on policy development and oversight, especially in the area of student achievement. Walser (2009) argued that if school boards are serious about student achievement, persons watching board meetings should be able to tell; student achievement would be at the top of the list of the agenda discussion. Gemberling et al. (2009) emphasized the importance of routine, monthly board work sessions that could be structured to allow board members and staff to sit together around a table to discuss current and future issues about student achievement and continuous improvement. Similarly, Bracey and Resnick (1998) asserted that beyond providing financial resources, the local school board must take the lead in creating an environment for student learning by making it a significant part of its regular meeting agenda, discuss it on board committee work, and advocate it throughout the community (Bracey and Resnick, 1998).

The perception of many critics of public education and local school boards is that boards are not doing enough to improve student achievement. Plecki et al. (2006) argued that local school boards have failed to focus on student achievement or assume a proactive role in educational reform, while states, the courts, and the federal government have exercised increasing involvement in the improvement of schools (Plecki et al., 2006).

Examples of local school boards that have demonstrated a leadership role and a pledge towards improving student achievement have been noted in some research. Walser (2009) described the benefits of board commitment in the case of Madison County, Kentucky. In 2005, the local school board and superintendent accepted an invitation from the Kentucky state education department to participate in a Voluntary Partnership Assistance Team initiative, which offered support to districts with low student performance on state tests. As part of the agreement, the local school board and superintendent had to agree to a scholastic audit of the school system, which resulted in eight areas for improvement. The local school board adopted the audit's recommendations for improvement, including one that advised the school board to do a better job of communicating its commitment to improving student achievement (Walser, 2009).

While state intervention for low performing schools and districts range from voluntary to mandatory participation, efforts initiated at the local level to examine the role of the school board in student achievement have also been documented in the literature. One example is the Lighthouse Inquiry, a ten-year case study that concluded in 2010 and was initiated by the Iowa Association of School Boards. The study investigated the beliefs of school board members and superintendents about the roles and responsibilities of local boards for improving student learning. The overall goal of the study was to identify links between what school boards do and the achievement of students in the schools. The study found that school board behaviors in high

achieving school districts were different from school board behaviors in low achieving school districts. In high achieving school districts, the school board/superintendent team and school personnel expressed an "elevating" view of students and the districts focus' was on opportunities for continual improvement. In low achieving districts, the school board/superintendent team and school personnel tended to accept limitations in students and the school district. School board members in high achieving districts showed greater understanding and influence in conditions for productive change, whereas school board members in low achieving districts were generally vaguely aware of school improvement initiatives and were seldom able to describe actions taken by staff members to improve learning (Iowa Association of School Boards, 2009).

The extent to which local school boards are able to directly influence student achievement has been a topic of debate. Hill (2003) argued that governance is only indirectly connected to the improvement of learning, yet it can clearly play a vital role or conversely, can greatly obstruct educators' efforts to support and enhance learning (Hill, 2003). In the Lighthouse Inquiry, Iowa Association of School Boards (2000) considered the proximal concept, where environmental conditions are placed on a continuum ranging from those closest to the person (proximal) and those farther away (distal). The theory was that proximal conditions would have a bigger effect than distal conditions. In the context of the Lighthouse Inquiry, the board/superintendent team leadership was viewed as distal or at a distance from the student learner. Nevertheless, the study emphasized that it was the policymakers, operating from a distance, that created the conditions needed for schools to generate productive change. Further, the study indicated that site-based management, designed to move aspects of governance closer to the classroom, has neither resulted in greater innovation nor improved student learning (Iowa Association of School Boards, 2000).

Seven key areas of local school board performance were identified during all phases of the Lighthouse Inquiry. The seven performance areas identified included: (1) creating awareness and a sense of urgency of the need to improve; (2) applying pressure for accountability through extensive use of data and setting high expectations for improvement and monitoring progress; (3) modeling a willingness to learn and motivate; (4) providing ongoing support for quality professional development through creating time and financial resources; (5) supporting and connecting with districtwide leadership by establishing a board/superintendent team and demonstrating a willingness and readiness to lead and let others lead; (6) developing policy deliberately in key areas related to teaching and learning, with a focus on outcomes; and (7) connecting with the community (Delagardelle, 2008).

Another research study that examined whether school board leadership influences student achievement was conducted by Alsbury (2008). The mixed-method study was intended to determine the presence of a significant relationship between local school board turnover and student test score range; and superintendent turnover and student test score change. Surveys were disseminated to all school district superintendents in the state of Washington. Superintendents were asked to indicate each school board member turnover by year, from 1993 to 2001 and to specify whether the turnover was a retirement, resignation, or defeat. Student achievement was tracked by the cumulative English and math scores of cohorts of students over an eight-year period using the Washington state assessment. The study found a significant relationship between frequent politically motivated school board turnover and student achievement decline, indicating a relevancy and importance of locally elected school boards. Alsbury (2008) concluded that the study dispels claims of irrelevancy, elitism, or disconnectedness of local school boards to their schools (Alsbury, 2008).

According to Bracey and Resnick (1998) the fundamental role of the local school board is to provide the leadership necessary to create a learning environment conducive to student achievement at the highest levels. They identified four pillars of the local school board's role: (1) setting a vision for student achievement; (2) establishing a successful learning environment; (3) exercising accountability for results; and (4) using advocacy to build support (Bracey and Resnick, 1998). The four pillars suggested by Bracey and Resnick (1998) are reflected in the Key Work of School Boards, a publication of the National School Boards Association.

Originally written as a guidebook for local school boards in 1999, the second edition of the Key Work of School Boards was published in 2009 to reflect changes brought about by new federal and individual state legislation and the choices that evolving technology brings to educational leadership. The guidebook states that in order for local school boards to create optimal conditions for teaching and learning, boards must understand issues on a deep level, be able to align resources, and must foster a culture within the system that supports and rewards the work of principals, teacher, and students. The Key Work of School Boards outlines a framework of eight key areas that local school boards should focus on: (1) vision and mission; (2) standards for performance; (3) assessment to determine how well students are doing in meeting performance standards; (4) accountability for how students perform; (5) alignment between student achievement and board actions in creating the conditions under which excellent teaching and learning can occur; (6) climate and culture; (7) collaborative relationships and community engagement; and (8) continuous improvement. The framework represents a local school board governing role with the "systems thinking theory, which means governing through understanding not only that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, but also that each part is essential (Gemberling et al., 2009; National School Boards Association).

Gemberling et al. (2009) emphasized that local school boards have the responsibility to create conditions within the school district that enable students to meet rigorous knowledge and performance standards. Similarly, Walser (2009) suggested several ways that local school boards can influence student achievement. Six recommendations for continuous improvement activities that both local school board members and superintendents should participate in were outlined in the research. Specifically, the board should: (1) follow a regular process to review student achievement data to ensure continuous improvement; (2) take part in training on principles of continuous improvement, including the use of data; (3) participate in work sessions to better understand needed changes in curriculum and instruction based on related data; (4) provide funding for continuous improvement; (5) adopt board policies that support continuous improvement; and (6) communicate the value of continuous improvement to the community (Walser, 2009).

In recent years, the measures of success for student achievement have primarily focused on established benchmarks on standardized tests. While these measures of student achievement appear to have been widely accepted and necessary, Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) emphasized the importance of broadening the definition of student success. They suggested that student success be defined as: (1) academic attainment reaching beyond what a state test or other standardized test currently measures, to include higher order thinking skills, intellectual curiosity, and creativity; (2) job skills and preparation; (3) citizenship that includes volunteerism, voting, community service, and abiding by laws; (4) appreciation of the arts; (5) development of character and values; (6) sound physical development and optimal health of all children throughout their formative years; and (7) understanding and valuing the growing diversity of American society (Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000). As researchers, school board scholars, and

educational leaders continue to emphasize school board accountability for student achievement, the definition and measures of student achievement will likely continue to be examined.

The National Commission on Governing America's Schools (1999) suggested five essential elements of governance focused on student achievement: (1) clearly identified results intended for students; (2) agreed upon measures of those results; (3) strategic alignment of the entire school organization to achieve the desired results; (4) processes used by the school board and staff to track progress towards the intended results; and (5) maintain attention on these important goals. Since more than 70 percent of households do not have children in school and often do not have accurate information about public schools, it is essential that local school board members be advocates for education (National Commission on Governing America's Schools, 1999). The importance of communicating with the public about the importance of education and student achievement was also emphasized by Walser (2009), Delagardelle (2008), Gemberling et al. (2009), and Bracey and Resnick (1998). Community collaboration and building partnerships were identified by local school board members as areas for further board training (Hess, 2002).

Suggestions in research literature about local school board performance as it relates to continuous student achievement appear to have compelling implications for comprehensive training programs for local school board members. Hess (2002) found that local school board members identified student achievement as an area for further training. Hess and Meeks (2010) reported that 49.2 percent of local board members indicated the need for further training in the area of student achievement.

Relationship Between the Local School Board and Superintendent

Building and sustaining a positive, collaborative relationship between the local school board and superintendent, and among board members themselves, is crucial to the mission and

goals of the school district. Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) stated that when an atmosphere of cooperation and mutual support is established, the school board and superintendent leadership team can focus on student achievement, teacher development, and community needs; policy development; long-range planning, progress towards goals, and effective allocation of resources (Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000). The public nature of the relationship between the school board and superintendent could perpetuate some of the power struggles, role confusion, and contention frequently discussed in the literature.

Many critics of local school boards have argued that local school board members lack the training or capacity to develop productive, positive, and long-term relationships with superintendents (Land, 2002). Mountford (2008) stated that board development and training programs have continually addressed building relationships but the problem has continued to exist. Mountford (2008) argued that board development and training programs may have neglected to address the underlying psychological and sociological root causes of tensions between school boards and superintendents (Mountford, 2008).

Various sources of tension between local school boards and superintendents have been identified by several researchers: (1) ambiguity of state statutes; (2) confusion over roles and responsibilities; (3) power struggles; (4) motives for school board service; and (5) disparate beliefs and attitudes (Ziebarth 2002; Danzberger, 1994; Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000; Mountford, 2008). Research literature indicated that these sources of tension have existed since the inception of the superintendency and continue to persist today with increasing complexity. Mountford (2008) identified five new sources of controversy between local school boards and superintendents: (1) changes in philosophical orientation among new generations of board

members; (2) disparate beliefs and attitudes and beliefs; (3) increasing state and federal accountability; (4) increasing resistance for service; and (5) public apathy toward education.

The ambiguous nature of state laws has been acknowledged as a major contributing factor to strained relationships between local school board members and the superintendent. Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) asserted that the new state laws on school district governance are needed and that these new state laws must support a school board and superintendent leadership team. Danzberger (1994) contended that state statutes essentially make school boards responsible for everything, which often leads to the tendency for local school board members to become involved in day-to-day operations of the school district. Ziebarth (2002) suggested that in order to prevent local school board members and superintendents from "stepping on each other's toes", state laws must codify specific tasks (Ziebarth, 2002).

Not all local school board researchers and scholars view the ambiguity of state statutes as the root cause for divisive relationships between local school board and superintendents. The Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance (1992) reported that the majority of difficulties in local school board/superintendent relationships are behavioral and therefore, within the control of one or both parties. The report suggested that school boards and superintendents could take a proactive stance and anticipate issues that could cause stress in their relationship. Both parties should establish a mutually agreed upon process for resolving conflicts in order to better deal with challenging issues when they arise. Reimer (2008) argued that local school board members and superintendents must work hard to respect the division of labor. Board members must always be diligent in distinguishing between their role as a citizen representative and the superintendent's role as head of the organization (Reimer, 2008).

The responsibilities of the local school board and superintendent are intertwined and mutually supportive. Effective school districts have governance teams that consist of a local school board and superintendent team working together (Education Policy and Leadership Center (2004). The absence of clear definitions of roles and responsibilities often result in micromanagement of administrative matters by school boards or individual members who may intervene inappropriately in aspects of school situations ranging from curriculum design to student transfers (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001). Smoley (1999) maintained that the more competent the superintendent, the more likely a board will function properly. Without the superintendent as a partner, the board may struggle with its role, making decisions that are fragmented or that reflect staff recommendations rather than the board's own perspective (Smoley, 1999). Although the relationship between the local school board and superintendent is often contentious, it is possible for a strong supportive partnership to develop if the relationship is well conceived and such a relationship can set the stage for effective governance and management (Smoley, 1999; Carver 2000).

The Education Policy and Leadership Center (2004) reported that trust is an important factor in the relationship between the local school board and superintendent. The report indicated that when boards trust their superintendents, they support the superintendent's leadership and management of the school district. Conversely, boards that do not trust their superintendents tend to micromanage and superintendents who do not respect the board's governance role, typically attempt to circumvent the board (The Education Policy and Leadership Center, 2004).

Smoley (1999) stated that the superintendent is an employee of the school board and chief executive officer of the school district. As such, without conscious, proactive effort,

superintendents can impede a board's understanding and execution of their responsibility. Superintendents who want to efficiently accomplish their objectives or who fear interference from the school board may not build board capacity to perform. The superintendent's role is to take the lead in looking with the board at how to be effective and to get the problems out in the open (Smoley, 1999). A somewhat different perspective was suggested by Carver (1997) who argued that the board is responsible for its own development, its own job design, its own discipline, its own performance. He argued that primary responsibility for board development does not rest in the chief executive officer [superintendent]; only responsible stewardship can justify a board's considerable authority. Carver (1997) further emphasized that only a deluded governance cannot be excellent or efficient (Carver, 1997).

Power struggles was another factor suggested by some researchers as a cause of tense relationships between the local school board and the superintendent. Glass (2002) stated that school boards create zones of decision-making within which superintendents may act and that these zones influence whether a superintendent has the decision-making authority to initiate and carry out reform measures required by the state, school district staff, or community (Glass, 2002). Mountford (2008) suggested that power struggles often emerge when school board members attempt to control staff, faculty, or the superintendent in order to satisfy their own views or agendas. Power struggles can also exist among board members, which frequently occur during the decision-making process. Most school board members and many superintendents have not received training in collaborative decision-making and team building skills (Mountford, 2008).

The community has been identified as the origin of some power struggles between the local school board and superintendent and among school board members. Carver (2000) argued

that the school board, not the superintendent, is responsible for resolving the powerful and conflicting desires of the public. In some ways the superintendent becomes a less important public figure as the board becomes more responsible for community relations. Any practice that obscures the public local school board and superintendent chain of command robs governance of its integrity and misconstrues the superintendent's job (Carver, 2000).

The hierarchy of accountability to the public and community could be problematic in school districts where both local school board members and the superintendent are elected. Both are accountable to the voters. The relationship between the local school board members and the superintendent could become at odds in this type of local government model, since the superintendent is expected to implement board policy and oversee the day-to-day operation of the schools as well as be accountable to voters. In this scenario, if the local school board and superintendent fail to work together cooperatively, and problems are not resolved until the next election cycle, the schools would most likely suffer (Dixon, 2009).

Questionable motives for school board service were identified as a factor that influences the relationship between local school board members and the superintendent. According to Mountford (2008) local school board members who seek service as a civic duty are likely to make decisions based on the common good. Some school board members were shown to be motivated to serve on boards for power acquisition rather than altruism or the promotion of the common good (Mountford, 2008). McCurdy (1992) suggested that the activist movement of 1960s and 1970s created new local school board members who have the activist mindset. These activist-minded school board members can be a source of tension, but not necessarily in a negative sense. He stated that activist school board members want to be involved, can be more

demanding and assertive employers, and some superintendents may be unaccustomed to dealing with such boards (McCurdy, 1992).

Disparate beliefs and attitudes was another factor identified by researchers as contributing to the relationship between local school board members and the superintendent. Mountford (2008) stated that the leadership style and decision-making approach of local school board members are generally shaped by beliefs, interests or agendas. Disparate and contrasting beliefs among local school board members can contribute to difficulty in building strong relationships with superintendents. While state statues indicate that school boards must act as a group, not individually, the reality is that local school boards consist of members with different beliefs and interests, and come from contrasting generational profiles with different styles of decision-making and leadership abilities (Mountford, 2008).

Research literature suggested that the increase in state and federal involvement in education and pressures of public accountability could account for some of the conflict between local school boards and superintendents (McCurdy, 1992; Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000; Eadie, 2005; Education Policy and Leadership Center, 2004; and Mountford, 2008). Local school board members were encouraged to be creative in making decisions and to play an active role in student achievement; however, decisions made outside the parameters of state or federal legislation could get the local district penalized so local school board members frequently found themselves “rubber-stamping” the superintendent’s recommendations in order to protect the district from sanctions or penalties (Mountford, 2008; National Commission on Governing America’s Schools, 1999). In contrast, Delagardelle (2008) stated that local school board members of the pilot districts in the Lighthouse Inquiry were not passive “rubber stampers.” They served as policymakers active in student achievement efforts, without acting as if they were

professional educators. Simultaneously, the superintendents in the pilot school districts did not view their local school boards as a necessity to be tolerated. Together, the local school board members and superintendents in the pilot districts gained a sense of the leadership role the board could play and made substantial efforts to engage with each other as leadership partners without discounting the diverse perspectives and unique responsibilities each position brings to the team (Delagardelle, 2008).

The nature of the relationship between the school board and superintendent is heavily influenced by the fact that local school boards are generally responsible for hiring and evaluating the superintendent. In a national study of local school boards, Nylander (2007) found that 34 percent of the local school board members indicated that their current superintendent was doing a good job. The local school board members who participated in the study conducted by Hess (2002) reported three critical factors in evaluating superintendent performance: (1) relationship between the school board and superintendent; (2) morale of school system employees; (3) and the safety of students. When asked what school board members focus on in assessing superintendent performance, responses varied significantly with district size. The biggest single difference between large and small districts was on the superintendent's efforts to address racial and ethnic concerns, with 56 percent of large district respondents terming the superintendent's efforts in that area as "very important," compared with only 32 percent of board members from small districts. Other significant differences between large and small districts included district performance on standardized assessments, relations with community leaders, and success of reform initiatives (Hess, 2002).

The consequences of weak and fragmented relationships between local school board members and superintendents have been discussed in the literature. Eadie (2005) asserted that the

most important negative consequence of dysfunction at the top is the failure to make strategic and policy-level decisions that require close collaboration between the local school board and the superintendent. The district's image in the community and its relationships with key stakeholders can also be damaged by a dysfunctional partnership and relationship between local school board members and the superintendent. Internal leadership and management also deteriorate as the superintendent's credibility inevitably erodes as he/she fails to get routine matters approved at local school board meetings. As the relationship continues to worsen, so does the communication between the superintendent and the board (Eadie, 2005). Research literature has indicated that a dysfunctional relationship between the local school board and superintendent has the potential to increase superintendent turnover which could adversely influence student achievement. The Colorado Association of School Executives (2003) reported that the attrition rate for superintendents in Colorado is higher than the national average. Eighty percent of the superintendents in the study indicated that poor relationships between the local school board and superintendent and lack of school board support contributed to a shortage of suitable candidates and the high turnover rate (Colorado Association of School Executives, 2003).

The school board and superintendent both have the responsibility to establish and maintain a positive relationship (Education Policy and Leadership Center, 2004; Smoley, 1999; and Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance, 1992). Smoley (1999) argued that the superintendent should take the lead in building a partnership and teambuilding relationship with the school board. Fuqua (2000) suggested several practices and agreements that have been successful in building and sustaining a positive relationship between local school board members and the superintendent. She asserted that these six practices can help to build and sustain a

culture of quality and respect, while reinforcing the role of the superintendent as leader. The six practices are: (1) define the culture; (2) set goals; (3) treat board members equally; (4) work for the majority; (5) do not socialize with board members; and (6) stay out of the fray (Fuqua, 2000).

The first practice described by Fuqua (2000) is to define the culture. This means that the superintendent frequently clarifies for everyone in the district, including the school board, two important non-negotiables: that the students' interests come first, and that everyone must treat each other with respect. The superintendent takes the lead in setting goals by facilitating special work sessions to focus on collective goals which can be powerful when the board is divided philosophically or personally. Establishing a culture of respect means that the superintendent treats all board members equally and displays a cordial and business-like demeanor towards each board member, regardless of whether the courtesy is reciprocated. Equal treatment by the superintendent also means that all board members receive the same information at the same time. Working for the majority means that there is an understanding that the superintendent will take direction only from the majority of the board, rather than from individual members. The superintendent states upfront that socializing with board members, either individually or collectively will not occur. A superintendent who participates in social activities with board members could create feelings of favoritism among them, which can only exacerbate an already competitive and often contentious environment. Finally, Fuqua (2000) suggested that superintendents should stay out of the fray and away from dynamics that have nothing to do with education. If the superintendent joins the fray, focus on the students will likely be lost or compromised (Fuqua, 2000).

Watson and Grogan (2005) noted that superintendents and local school boards are witnessing a shift in their spheres of influence. They described the superintendency as a position

of power embedded in politics. Over the years, some of the control of education that once resided with the superintendent has been eroded as state and federal mandates have limited and inhibited local control (Watson and Grogan, 2005).

Relationship Among Local School Board Members

Land (2002) stated that school board members are authorized by states to govern as a body and not as individuals. As such, the ability of board members to work together and reach consensus is essential for boards to exercise authority. Recent criticisms about school boards relate to their responses to special interests groups, constituents, or single issues (Land, 2002; Hill, 2003). Plecki et al. (2006) asserted that school board members are often unable to work effectively and collaboratively with each other because of power struggles. When school boards are involved in power struggles, focus on policymaking and student achievement is diminished. Several sources of contention among school board members were identified: (1) limited preparation and training for the job; (2) incentives and processes by which board members are recruited; and (3) practice of school board positions as a stepping stone to other positions of influence within local politics (Plecki et al., 2006).

Carver (1997) suggested that the most immediate responsibility of a board is to deal with the implications of being in a group. The hurdle of moving to a true group responsibility can easily prevent a board from attending to critical duties. Boards are typically fraught with extensive interpersonal dynamics and should take the time to design a sound board process before the process becomes personalized. A sound, codified board process can ameliorate jockeying for power, individuals' controlling the group through negativism, and the board's digressing into unrelated topics (Carver, 1997).

While school board members are expected to collaborate with board colleagues in making decisions about the school district, Mountford (2008) emphasized that very limited training has been provided in collaborative decision-making. Power struggles often occur between those board members who genuinely want the district to perform well and those who wish to advocate for their own agendas. This often leads to an attempt by school board members to control district staff, school faculty, and often the superintendent (Mountford, 2008).

Researchers and school board scholars have provided recommendations to help local school board members work together as a team. Smoley (1999) stated that working towards consensus is a critical element of effective decision-making. Boards come together as a group when they operate within norms, demonstrate leadership, articulate cohesiveness, act on values, and show respect. To operate within norms means that board members share an agreement or understanding about certain aspects of the way they will operate. Some of the most common norms for board operations include: (1) make decision by consensus and try to settle differences of opinion before voting; (2) support decisions unanimously made by the board as a unit, regardless of the member's own views; (3) discuss issues publicly prior to the vote and establish processes to explore viewpoints private and legally in preparation for public discussion; (4) honor confidentiality about personnel decisions, actions protected from public disclosure, and unofficial interactions among members; (5) participate with commitment by reviewing materials and participating in meetings; (6) set the agenda jointly with the superintendent and board president with input from all board members; and (7) contact staff and visit schools appropriately to ensure that schools are not disrupted, that the superintendent is aware of the board member's visit to the schools, and that information is shared among board members (Smoley, 1999). The

magnitude of school board responsibilities and the limited time and experience of individual board members, make functioning as a group even more important.

While Smoley (1999) suggested norms for school board members, Eadie (2005) asserted that not all members on the school board will be enthusiastic about designing or actively participating in the group processes for doing their governing work. He argued that the majority of the board will eventually buy into the design process, but some resistance should be expected initially. Several strategies for dealing with resistance were suggested: (1) a willingness to speak up and stand firm about the importance of designing a "high-impact" governing process; (2) a personal effort to educate board colleagues on the key elements of high-impact governing; and (3) suggesting that board colleagues participate in educational programs and training on governance, such as those offered by state and national associations (Eadie, 2005).

Lencioni (2002) suggested that building a cohesive team is difficult but not complicated. He contended that organizations fail to achieve teamwork because they unknowingly fall prey to five natural but dangerous pitfalls called the five dysfunctions of a team. The first dysfunction, the "absence of trust" among team members makes it impossible for members to be open and honest. The failure to trust leads to the second dysfunction, "fear of conflict," which leads to masked discussions and guarded comments. The lack of healthy conflict leads to the third dysfunction, "lack of commitment." In the absence of real commitment and buy-in, team members develop the fourth dysfunction, "avoidance of accountability." Failure to hold one another accountable creates an environment where the fifth dysfunction, inattention to results," can flourish (Lencioni, 2002). According to Smoley (1999) school board members need time together, preferably in a retreat setting apart from their regular board meeting to discuss their values, vision and means of working together. The training and development should provide a

collective and comprehensive experience rather than the typical short, single-topic courses or sessions in board responsibilities and educational policy. The ideal board training and development is a sustained program for a full board, with an integrated approach to topics and an emphasis on self-assessment, basic purposes, and board functioning (Smoley, 1999).

Several researchers have suggested that board members' behaviors are heavily influenced by internal and external factors such as their values, beliefs, perceptions of their role and responsibilities, and to some extent, their motivation for seeking board service. Grissom (2009) examined the influence of internal and external characteristics on boards' decision-making processes. The study was conducted to identify extrinsic and intrinsic factors that lead public boards, particularly school boards, to experience higher degrees of contentious decision-making. The following intrinsic factors were identified and measured in the study: (1) heterogeneity of the board as measured by gender, race, and ideology; (2) common vision and goals; and (3) professionalized decision processes. Gender heterogeneity was found to show no significant relationship with board conflict which indicated that boards composed of women and men have little to do with promoting or mitigating disagreements. Similarly, it was found that boards with racial heterogeneity had fewer incidences of conflict. In contrast to gender and race heterogeneity, the findings did show that ideological heterogeneity was linked to greater conflict among board members but only in regards to fiscal ideology rather than social ideology. It was further found that boards with common vision and goals and who implemented professionalized governance practices would have fewer decision-making conflicts (Grissom, 2009). The findings varied with school district size, diversity of the student population, and whether the school district was urban, suburban, or rural. Grissom (2009) found that urban school boards tended to experience a greater percentage of divisive decisions than suburban boards. It was also

reported that school boards in rural areas have more divisive relationships than suburban school boards. In terms of size, it was found that school boards in districts with large numbers of students experienced less divisiveness and were more likely to promote consensus. The study also indicated that school boards in districts with larger numbers of non-White students experienced substantially higher conflict in decision-making (Grissom, 2009).

Board members' perceptions of group dynamics was a variable examined in another study of local school board members. Nylander (2007) found that 30 percent of the board members indicated that they "strongly agreed" and 45 percent "agreed" that there were school board members who can stop progress from taking place. In terms of contact with other board members outside of official meetings, 45 percent of the board members indicated that they socialize with other school board members on unrelated school board matters on a monthly basis but 42 percent said that they never socialize with other board members (Nylander, 2007).

Training for Local School Board Members

Many researchers, policymakers, school board scholars, educational leaders, and school board members have emphasized the importance of training for school boards. Anderson and Snyder (2001) stated that many school board members are leaders of some sort but few board members have ever had training that specifically target the multifaceted and demanding leadership roles required of school boards. Hess (2002) and Nylander (2007) reported that school board members have higher incomes and are better educated than the typical American (Hess, 2002; Nylander, 2007). These two factors could lead to an assumption that local school board members with these two demographics come to their positions on the school board already prepared for the leadership responsibilities of school board members. However, Anderson and Snyder (2001) indicated that board members of any demographic are not necessarily informed

about the complexities of governing a school district. Danzberger (1994) contended that there is little evidence that boards will commit themselves to sustained development activities.

McAdams (2003) stated that while a trained board does not guarantee good governance, he emphasized that training almost always improves a board, and sometimes it can make a great board. A report from the Education Policy and Leadership Center (2004) concluded that the work of school boards could be strengthened if all board members were required to participate periodically in professional development.

Eadie (2005) maintained that the better educated and trained the school board members are in the work of governing; the more likely they are to perform at a high level. Every board that is committed to "high-impact" governing must also be committed to its own continuing education dealing with two basic educational challenges: (1) How can we make sure that new members are well prepared to hit the ground running rather than spend their first year on the governing job learning the ropes; and (2) How do we keep board members' governing knowledge and skills up-to-date so they are able to participate productively and creatively in ongoing board capacity building? Many board members are initially reluctant to invest in developing their own governing knowledge and skills once they have gone through the basic orientation for new board members (Eadie, 2005).

The Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance (1992) stated that since school boards must conduct their work in public, how they govern is a matter of public record and observation. The evidence indicates that the majority of school boards do not spend much time on board development and training and do not regularly assess their governance performance. The Southeastern Regional Vision for Education (1997) found that it often takes 6-12 months of on-the-job training before new school board members can function effectively. Reimer (2008)

maintained that good governance is not inherent but is a specific role that school board members must learn. Good school board governance is not taught anywhere in the context of board governance and for most school board members, training is optional (Reimer, 2008). Roberts and Sampson (2011) argued that local school board members should participate in required professional development in all areas of public schooling so that quality decisions can be made for children's education (Roberts and Sampson, 2011).

State Legislation: Mandated and Non-Mandated Training

Although training for school board members has been emphasized in the literature as a critical component of school board leadership, not all states mandate training for local school boards. Based on responses to a survey of state associations of school boards, with 45 states responding, the National School Boards Association (2010) found that 20 states reported mandated training for local school boards and 25 states reported that training was not mandatory for local school boards. In the 20 states that mandate training, 11 states have enforcement provisions built into the law for board members that do not comply with the training requirements. The consequences of failing to comply with the requirements varied widely among the 11 states. For example, in the state of Kentucky, the state board of education has the option to remove a school board member who does not comply with the required training. In Mississippi, the board member is removed from office by the Attorney General for failing to fulfill the training requirements. In Virginia, the school division superintendent is required to certify that the board met the training requirement each year in the Superintendent’s Annual Report to the state department of education; the state Attorney General’s office could initiate removal of board members who do not comply with the requirements (National School Boards Association, 2010).

Responses to the survey of state associations of school boards conducted by the National School Boards Association (2008) were very similar to findings reported in 2010. There were 44 state school board associations that responded to the 2008 survey. Twenty states reported mandated training for local school board members and 24 states reported that training is not mandated (National School Boards Association, 2008). Among the 20 states that mandated training as reported in the 2010 and 2008 findings, only six states mandated training for new school board members and 14 for new and veteran school board members (National School Boards Association, 2008; National School Boards Association 2010). Critics of mandatory professional development for school board members have asked why a special requirement should be created for only these elected officials (Education Leadership and Policy Center, 2004; Glass 2000). Glass (2000) argued that school boards are different from other elected or appointed officials and special in that they have legal responsibility for education required in state constitutions (Glass 2000).

Although many states do not mandate training, support for mandated training has been articulated by several researchers. McAdams (2003) stated that few boards make development a priority and that boards will do what the law requires. Similarly, Smoley (1999) stated that board members tend to do things that are required or expected, whether by law, by administrative practice, or by community demand. Petronis (1996) conducted a survey of superintendents in Illinois with 497 usable returns. The results of the survey indicated that mandatory school board training was favored by administrators in all districts but particularly in smaller districts. Respondents from larger school districts indicated support for mandatory training but also noted that training alone was not viewed as a method of reducing conflict between local school board members and the administration (Petronis, 1996). The Michigan Association of School Boards

(2006) conducted a survey of 600 voters to determine perceptions about school board training. The results of the survey showed that 66 percent of the respondents supported mandatory school board training; 80 percent considered training as necessary in order for board members to fulfill their responsibilities under the law; 76 percent indicated more confidence in decision-making ability of board members if they participate in training and professional development; 74 percent supported the local school district funding the training and professional development of board members; and 62 percent of the respondents stated that they are more likely to vote for a candidate if the candidate has received training and professional development (Michigan Association of School Boards, 2006).

Planning, Implementation, and Evaluation of Training

Several researchers, policymakers, and educational leaders have addressed how training for board members should be implemented. The Education Policy and Leadership Center (2004) noted three key actions: orientation for new board members, professional development for all school board members, and the adoption by each school board of a code of conduct to guide its members' behavior. Carver (1997) asserted that orientation for new board members can help institutionalize the board's governance process and prepare new members for immediate participation. Adequate preparation to shoulder the burden of strategic leadership requires something more substantial than a typical orientation. He emphasized that "job training" is required to properly prepare new board members with the process and the current values and perspectives of the board they are joining. Training for new members should be built primarily around strategic leadership (Carver, 1997). Similarly, Eadie (2005) suggested that a formal school board training process should consist of two elements: (1) a thorough orientation program for incoming board members; and (2) a continuing education program aimed at keeping

board members' knowledge and skills current. New member orientation often has little to do with the work of governing which is obviously what board members should spend most of their time doing. Instead, new board members are often briefed in detail on the programs, services, budget, administrative structure, and other facets of the organizational life of the school district rather than the board itself. While the organizational structure, mission, and key programs of the district are important, orientation for new school board members should include: (1) the board's governing role; (2) performance targets and expectations of individual board members; and (3) board involvement in key processes such as the evaluation of the superintendent, strategic planning, and budgeting (Eadie, 2005).

The Education Policy and Leadership Center (2004) suggested that an initial orientation program should be required for new members before they are seated on the board and continuing professional development during each term of office should be required to stay in office and to stand for re-election to the board. The orientation for new members should be about three to four hours in duration and should focus on school law, duties of board membership, and ethical behavior of board members (Education Policy and Leadership Center, 2004).

Walser (2009) contended that to be leaders in this century, high-functioning school boards must train themselves continually, whether through in-house workshops led by administrators, attendance at state and/or national school board associations workshops and annual conventions, online courses, or board association Websites; or in-depth contacts with consultants or facilitators. Land (2002) indicated that some critics have argued that formal development and training programs are often superficial and presented in a lecture-style format. Training and development should focus on building skills for individual board members rather than the board as one body and/or the board/superintendent team (Land, 2002). The Education

Policy and Leadership Center (2004) stated that the requirement for periodic continuing professional development for all board members should focus on effective boardsmanship, education governance, finance, standards and assessment, and accountability. Training and development providers should make the activities available at times and locations convenient for board members, considering distance learning as an option. The district leadership team of superintendent and board should meet at least once a year to assess its own effectiveness. This assessment should help determine needs of board members and the board as a whole (Education Policy and Leadership Center, 2004).

Thomas (1993) listed the following sources that school board members use to learn about their role and responsibilities: (1) on the job; (2) following the lead of others; (3) other school board members; (4) the superintendent; (5) prior experience; (6) conferences and conventions; and (7) written public documents. Eadie (2005) stated that a retreat can be effective in providing board training but warned that retreats can be high-risk events and could do more harm than good if not carefully designed and conducted. Five rules to ensure a successful retreat were suggested: (1) involve all board members in the design of the retreat; (2) hire a professional facilitator; (3) use well-designed breakout groups to generate content, promote feelings of ownership, and foster active participation; (4) avoid reaching premature formal consensus or making final decision; and (5) agree on the follow-through process at the beginning of the retreat design (Eadie, 2005).

School board scholars and researchers in the area of training and professional development have addressed the importance of aligning training topics with the needs of the participants and in alignment with job and performance criteria. Eadie (2005) suggested that board members assess their own leadership skills and knowledge, identify areas in need of

improvement, and steer training in directions that will support accomplishment of identified learning goals. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) provided several suggestions on how to determine needs for training: (1) ask the individuals targeted to participate in the training; (2) ask other individuals familiar with the job and how it is being performed; (3) test the participants on current level of knowledge and skills and use test results to identify areas for training; and (4) analyze performance appraisals of participants, if available (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). Similarly, Cline, Billingsley, and Farley (1993) stated that staff development programs are often ineffective because of the failure to identify relevant needs and priorities. They argued that training sessions are often offered in one-shot and disjointed inservice programs with little follow-up assistance. The authors maintained that assessing the participants' needs is critical to the success of any staff development program. The authors recommended several methods of collecting information: needs assessment instruments, interviews, observations, and review of records (Cline, Billingsley, and Farley, 1993).

Butler (1989) also stated that training and development programs should be planned in response to assessed needs of the participants and the content should match the current developmental level of the participants. There should be an expectation that participants will be actively involved in the training with an emphasis on self-directed learning. The program design should schedule training at a convenient time and location to avoid interfering with other responsibilities of the targeted audience (Butler, 1989). Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) emphasized three things to consider when determining the best schedule for implementing training programs: the trainees, their bosses [board members who are employed], and best conditions for learning. An important scheduling decision is whether to offer the training on a concentrated basis, such as a solid week of training; or should the training be spread out over

several weeks or months. Once the schedule is determined, it should be communicated well in advance of the training (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). Butler (1989) further noted that the content should be presented in various modes and through a variety of [interactive] activities, including small-group discussion and opportunities for collegial learning. The participants should have opportunities for practice and experimentation in a non-threatening environment so that participants can receive feedback (Butler, 1989).

While findings about best practices for training and professional development programs suggested by Guskey (2003) were directed toward teachers' professional development, implications for training targeted for local school board members are applicable for some of the findings. Guskey (2003) examined thirteen well-known lists of characteristics of effective professional development and identified areas most frequently mentioned in the lists. Those that appeared to be applicable to planning and implementing school board training included: (1) enhancement of knowledge about content; (2) sufficient time and resources; (3) promotion of collegiality and collaborative exchange; (4) specific evaluation procedures; and (5) building leadership capacity (Guskey, 2003).

Evaluation of training and professional development activities was identified as a critical component by several researchers. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) suggested several guiding questions for the evaluation of training: (1) do people's initial reactions to the learning experience indicate that the learning is relevant and immediately applicable to their needs; (2) how effective is the learning and how sustainable will it be; (3) what are people doing differently and better as a result of the training; and (4) what results are these investments in learning and development having for the organization (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006).

Best practices for evaluation and assessment of training programs were also addressed by Guskey (2003) who suggested formative, ongoing assessment information on the status of the training activities and whether expected progress is being made based on training and development of participants. Training formats that are primarily lecture style do not lend themselves to formative evaluation unless participants are clearly informed on how the information received should be used in their roles; is there a direct connection between what is learned and the practical application (Guskey, 2003).

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) and Guskey (2003) suggested that a summative evaluation process of the training and development be conducted at the completion of the program or activity. The summative evaluation process should provide training program developers and decision makers with judgments about the overall merit or worth of the training. The summative evaluation will describe what was accomplished; what were the consequences or final results, intended or unintended, of the training. Guskey (2003) emphasized that the summative evaluation process includes the merit of the training, an examination by the extent to which participants learned made a difference in practice or how they perform.

Training and board development activities are provided by various organizations and trainers with various backgrounds and expertise. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) asserted that trainers must have the ability to communicate and teach to a diverse group of individuals with a broad range of educational levels. Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) indicated that state associations of school boards and administrators should be major providers of orientation for new members. The Colorado Association of School Executives (2003) found that 58 percent of superintendents who responded to a survey provided orientation and training to their local school board members. According to the National School Boards Association (2010) several entities

provide training for school board members among the 45 states that responded to the survey. The states' school boards association was listed as one entity allowed to provide training in 19 of the 20 states that mandated training. Some of the other approved providers listed among the states included the state department of education, any source selected by the local school board, school law firms, and miscellaneous educational organizations (National School Boards Association, 2010).

The qualifications of the trainers were addressed by Cline et al. (1993). The authors suggested that the trainers should be knowledgeable about and consider the characteristics of the adult learner when planning and implementing activities (Cline et al., 1993). Several primary characteristics of adult learning mentioned by several researchers included: (1) adult learners need to see the link between the professional development learning and application to their day-to-day activities; (2) adults need to participate in small-group activities during learning activities in order to share, reflect, and generalize their learning; (3) adult learners come to a training activity with both a greater volume and a different quality of experience from youths; (4) adults tend to be more internally rather than externally motivated to learn; (5) the transfer of learning for adults is not automatic and must be facilitated through coaching, mentoring, and other types of follow up support (Baumgartner, Lee, Birden, and Flowers, 2003; Cyr, 1999; and Cline et al., 1993).

Training Programs for Local School Boards

The review of literature indicated widespread agreement that local school board members should be required to attend training and professional development activities. The topics that should be included in school board training activities were also mentioned in the literature.

Butler (1989), Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006), Guskey (2003), Eadie (2005), and

Cline et al. (1993) were among several researchers that emphasized the importance of involving the targeted audience for training in identifying areas of training needs. Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) recommended high quality training with topics tied directly to the key responsibilities of the school board, building the local school board superintendent team, and to the needs of children and the educational process as these change over time (Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000). Reimer (2008) stated that training should include information about the track record of the previous board because it allows the new board members to better understand the current circumstances of the district. Training in the area of privacy laws and board responsibilities regarding civil rights are essential topics to be included in training for local school boards (Reimer, 2008).

Board accountability for student achievement has been emphasized in the literature. Bracey and Resnick (1998) created a training guide to assist school board members on how to use the power of their office to influence student achievement. The training guide includes: (1) content knowledge that local school board members need in order to make decisions about raising student achievement; (2) the strategies that school boards can use to govern more effectively; and (3) a guide to other key information sources. The authors emphasized that school boards should determine the rigor and relevance of the curriculum and contended that local school boards should make certain that their policies are not inadvertently tracking certain segments of their school populations into jobs with little future (Bracey and Resnick, 1998).

Walser (2009) indicated that boards are not expected to know everything about student achievement but need to know enough about the work of educators working to raise student achievement to be able to assess their efforts, support them, and communicate about them, without dictating what should be done.

In a national study of local school boards, Hess (2002) asked local school board members about areas of training that they had received in eleven specific dimensions of board activity. The eleven dimensions included: board member roles and responsibilities; board and superintendent relations; leadership skills; legal issues in education; board accountability; communications; budget/resource allocation; student achievement issues; strategic planning; community engagement; and community collaborations/partnerships. The most common training topic reported was board member roles and responsibilities (94.3 percent), followed by board and superintendent relations (79.4 percent), leadership skills (76.5 percent), and legal issues in education (74.8 percent), and board accountability (71.9 percent). The study indicated that board members are less frequently trained in the areas of communications, budgeting, student achievement, and community engagement and partnerships. The study further concluded that large districts provide more training than smaller districts and are more likely to train school board members in areas such as community engagement and partnerships, student achievement, communications, and strategic planning. The study also found that 21.1 percent of the school board members requested additional training in the area of student achievement and 21.7 percent in community collaboration. It was reported that board members from smaller districts desired additional training more than their counterparts in large school districts (Hess, 2002).

According to the National School Boards Association (2010) survey to determine data on training, 20 states reported mandated training for local school boards, 25 states do not mandate training, and five states did not respond to the survey. Of the 20 states that mandate training for local school boards, 17 states include required topics as part of the training requirement. Among the required topics listed across the 17 states, there were several common topics: governance, finance and budget, duties and responsibilities of school board members, board-superintendent

relations, personnel, and school law. Among the 20 states that mandate training, the requirements for number of hours differed from state to state. Training requirements also differed among and within states for new and veteran board members. For example, in Delaware, two required training components are one-time requirements for all board members and all other training is voluntary. In North Carolina, 12 clock hours of training are required annually. Kentucky's training requirements were reported to include 12 hours of training per year for board members with 0-3 years of service, 8 of which must be received through the Kentucky School Boards Association. Members with 4-7 years of service in Kentucky are required to receive 8 hours of training a year through any source they choose. School board members in Kentucky with 8 years or more of service must receive 4 hours of training a year through a source of their choice. In Missouri, new board members must participate in 16 hours of instruction within one year of being appointed or elected (National School Boards Association, 2010. Although research suggested that local school boards are expected to play a critical role in providing leadership for the school district, leadership was rarely mentioned as a topic for training; topics related to student achievement were not widely mentioned in the survey results.

Local school board training programs have been described in the research literature. Anderson and Snyder (2001) reported on leadership training provided for school board members in Fort Worth Independent School District in Fort Worth, Texas. Through a needs assessment survey, training needs were identified by each school board member. Four themes emerged from the survey and provided the framework for developing and organizing the training materials. The four themes identified through the needs assessment were: (1) the school board member role; (2) communications linkages and processes; (3) problem-solving and decision-making; and

(4) planning. The Texas Association of School Boards was invited to participate in the planning and implementation of the training and provided information about the role of the school board and legal issues. Communication included concerns for responding to the community in terms of becoming more knowledgeable about responding to various community groups, especially to minority and/or ethnic groups. The fourth theme, planning, included long and short-range comprehensive board planning skills that would generate direction and set priorities for the school district; effective use of time in school board meetings; and effective use of time to analyze program requests and budget considerations. Evaluation of the workshop included perceptions of board members regarding the workshop's effectiveness in meeting their expressed needs and follow up events. Board members reported that they had a better understanding of the kind of board interaction that could generate trust and a motivation to work together toward collective solutions. They also indicated receiving an array of techniques for problem-solving and decision-making skills. Their concern at the end of the workshop was how to become skillful in using the various techniques learned in board meetings. The board members concern for skill building led to ideas for follow up training. The president of the Fort Worth School Board made a request to the superintendent that his administrative staff receive similar kinds of training in role analysis, communications, problem-solving, and planning (Anderson and Snyder, 2001).

Another description of a training program for local school board members was the Mississippi Model described by the Southeastern Regional Vision for Education (1997). The Mississippi Code established the core curriculum and the basic course for training for school board members. The instructional design was created through involvement of the Mississippi Department of Education, the Mississippi School Boards Association, the Legislature, presenters,

consultants, and participants. The training topics were embedded in five modules: (1) from private citizen to public servant; (2) instruction – the bottom line; (3) financial management; (4) crisis management; and (5) personnel issues. Three short sessions on leadership, resources, and legislative update, were also included in the training. The evaluation of the training model was conducted through two focus groups. Results of the focus groups indicated that the most frequent effect of the training cited by participants was the clarification of roles and responsibilities. The focus group discussions also showed that school board members who participated in the training became more aware of the district level partners with whom they needed to communicate, particularly the importance of communication between the board and superintendent. Other indicators of training success as articulated by the focus group sessions were becoming a better team player, more effective use of protocol and strategic problem-solving, and making specific policy and procedural changes (Southeastern Regional Vision for Education, 1997).

The Institute for Educational Leadership (2001) stated that joint self-evaluation and professional development sessions for superintendents and board members can promote collaboration and professional growth. An example mentioned was the California School Boards Association's Masters in Governance program that helps school board members and superintendents function effectively as governance teams. Participants who complete all coursework in the two-year series of sessions receive a Masters in Governance certificate (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001).

Evaluation and Assessment of Local School Board Performance

The research literature indicated growing support for the evaluation of school board performance, either through board self-assessment, evaluation of the board by internal groups,

and by external groups and organizations. First and Walberg (1992) stated that effective school boards have procedures for self-assessment and invest in their own development, using diverse approaches that address the needs of the board as a whole, as well as those of individual members. Land (2002) indicated that school board authorities have recommended board evaluations through self-assessments or evaluations by external entities as a way to hold themselves accountable for their performance. The Southeastern Regional Vision for Education (1997) suggested that boards consider the need for evaluating how effectively they are performing as a basis for determining training needs. Self-reflection and identification of strengths and weaknesses can point the way to needed training or other resources for improvement (Southeastern Regional Vision for Education, 1997).

Glass (2000) argued that if students, teachers, administrators, and district support staff are evaluated by legislative or district policy, school board members should also be evaluated. He asserted that school board evaluation should focus on self-evaluation strategies to improve both board and board member performance. Glass (2000) suggested that the primary reason to advocate for board and board member evaluation is to develop a sufficient database in order to make assumptions regarding the effects of board performance on the most important function in the district, student achievement.

Smoley (1999) stated that self-assessment is important for board development because it frames the discussion of purpose and function and motivates performance. By looking at its own operation, a board can discuss key issues of purpose and operation such as: What are we accomplishing and are we accomplishing what we should be as a board? Is our district improving and are we helping district improvement efforts? How are we functioning as a board and are there issues that keep us from performing our work effectively. Training for board

improvement should center around conducting a self-assessment; implementing a monitoring process to determine how well the board is accomplishing its goals for self-improvement; and engage in systematic development with retreat activity and using the results of the self-assessment to identify areas for improvement (Smoley, 1999). These identified areas for improvement could become topics for board training and development either at the local level or participation by board members in state and/or national events that offer an array of topics for school board member improvement.

Reimer (2008) asserted that school boards are evaluated through the election process by the voters. Board members can maximize the work they do during their term in office by participating in an honest and careful evaluation of the board and of themselves. Effective school board evaluations require that board members look hard at their work as recorded through minutes from meetings and answer the question: "How are things better since last year"? Board members must be able to state confidently how they have influenced the current status, whether there has been improvement or lack of progress (Reimer, 2008).

The Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance (1992) alluded to a growing acceptance of school board self-evaluation and awareness of the need to deal with the more serious problems of disorderly boards or boards that find themselves at the center of community controversy. Regular self-assessment and substantive development and training are imperative to improve governance performance (Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance, 1992)

Although Glass (2000) supported the establishment of a performance evaluation system for school boards, challenges were also identified. First, the criteria and standards indicating successful performance are often general and in most cases, do not lend themselves to objective

methods of evaluation. An evaluation system would need to be agreed upon by all board members and should consider what is to be evaluated and can it be evaluated. While there is general agreement about the behaviors expected in the role of a board member and concrete actions in generating policy might be easy to observe, qualitatively examining the actions of both boards and board members might be difficult. Developing an evaluation model for school board members would include one or all of the following: (1) self-appraisal where board members assess themselves based on a set of performance standards agreed upon by the board; (2) external appraisal by a neutral, objective, outside party; (3) community appraisal by a formal collection of opinion from the community. The overall purpose of the evaluation would be to identify areas in need of improvement on the part of the board (Glass, 2000). Data from board evaluations have implications for training and development.

Smoley (1999) stated that self-assessment is important for board development and identified three self-improvement activities that contribute to board effectiveness. The first activity is that the board cultivates leadership by actively recruiting citizens to run for office or to fill board positions when resignations occur during a term of office. The second self-improvement activity is assessing competence, which involves board members' assessment of its own performance. Board members diagnose strengths and limitations and examine its mistakes. The third activity that supports self-improvement of a board is obtaining assistance; board members seek and use assistance from outsiders, consultants, or facilitators in accomplishing its work. Conducting a self-assessment should be a well-defined action that provides basic information for boards to use in considering their own value and operation. All board members must decide who collects the self-assessment data and who will compile and process the data. Decide how the information from the self-assessment will be discussed (regular board meeting or

special session), time needed, and how the public will be involved. How the data will be used to improve board functioning is a key component (Smoley, 1999).

Eadie (2005) asserted that the practice of individual board members evaluating their colleagues creates some anxiety and trepidation but more often than not, produces positive results. Committed, hard-working board members tend to welcome their performance being monitored because formal performance assessment is a way to both evaluate the importance of the governing role while honoring and acknowledging hard work and dedication. Eadie (2005) argued that the failure to establish individual board member performance standards and monitoring performance demeans the governing function by saying that any level of performance is good enough. Performance targets must be developed in a retreat setting and agreed upon by all members; some examples included: (1) missing no more than one full board meeting during any fiscal year, except in case of a family emergency; (2) coming to meetings prepared to participate fully; (3) participating in at least one graduation ceremony annually; (4) attend annual strategic work session kicking off the planning cycle; (5) coming to meetings prepared to participate; and (6) making at least three presentations per year on behalf of the district to key stakeholder organizations in the community. The objective of the monitoring process is to identify substandard performance before it becomes habitual and to provide counsel aimed at correcting it, without causing any embarrassment to erring board members (Eadie, 2005).

Examples of local school districts that have implemented various forms of evaluation of school boards have been discussed in the research. Walser (2009) described a board evaluation program in Berlin, Connecticut where the school board requested administrators to anonymously evaluate the school board as a check on how they are doing. The evaluations are conducted annually and give the board an opportunity to learn if they are micromanaging or stepping

outside of their boundaries. Comments from the administrators who conduct the evaluations are kept anonymous and compiled by the president of the administrators' union. The evaluation includes observations at the school board meetings, communication, and leadership (Walser, 2009).

Maxwell (2009) reported a new governance initiative launched in January 2009, in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania with a focus on continuous improvement. The Pittsburgh school board had a reputation for personal feuds among its members and constant clashes with the former superintendent. The Board Watch program was developed as a new governance initiative to improve school board governance and performance. The Board Watch program recruits and trains volunteers to evaluate the performance of the school board on five good governance practices: focus and mission, transparency, conduct, role clarity, and competency. At least three Board Watch volunteers attend each school board meeting wearing badges to identify themselves. They fill out a form to rate the board on several measures including how often they heard members discuss topics related to the board's own stated goals, time management of the meeting, board members' civility in their comments. The paper evaluations are collected after each meeting and data compiled later with results from other meetings to determine letter grades. A report card from the Board Watch group is issued publicly every three or four months. The report cards grade the board on the measures of good governance and make a series of recommendations on how the board can improve (Maxwell, 2009). Glass (2000) also recommended a report card of the performance of board members that would be available to the public. He argued that a credible report card of the board's performance could serve as a tool for improvement Glass, 2000). Maxwell (2009) reported that in the two report cards Board Watch had issued thus far, the school board received mostly mediocre marks with its strongest point

being transparency and its weakest mark in role clarity. Maxwell stated that the school board president supports the performance report cards and hopes they will help to improve the image of the school board in the eye of the public (Maxwell, 2009).

Summary

The concept of school board training and development has been the topic of research and commentary literature for many decades. Studies have focused on the need for school board training, particularly in light of the increased accountability for student achievement, more local and state involvement in public education, changing demographics of student populations, and the current societal trends that will profoundly influence education (Danzberger, 1994; Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000; Peterson and Fusarelli, 2001; Marx, 2006).

The research literature indicated that the role of the local school board has evolved from its original role as "selectmen," in control of nearly every aspect of school administration and in a country that was primarily agricultural, to a role of "shared leadership" with the superintendent in a country in the midst of the technology age. In spite of the long history of local school boards, the review of literature indicated that boards have existed in the shadows of educational reform efforts, especially over the past 20 years. The focus on accountability for student achievement that exploded with the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 as amended, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, thrust local schools in the public eye. There has been increased attention on local school boards, concurrent with concerns that student achievement in the United States lags behind under industrialized countries. One question has emerged from the literature: Do local school boards have the ability to provide the kind of leadership that is needed for our schools at this point in our history?

Since local school boards are legally created entities of the state, the role and responsibilities of local boards are specific and identified within the education laws and regulations of the state. This includes whether or not local school boards are required to participate in training and development activities. According to the National School Boards Association (2010), with 45 states responding to the survey, 20 states mandate training for local school boards, 25 states do not mandate training (National School Boards Association, 2010). Many researchers and policymakers strongly supported mandated training for local school boards (Ziebarth, 2002; Danzberger, 1994; Eadie, 2005; Smoley, 1999; and Goodman and Zimmerman, 2000).

While many policymakers, educational leaders, school board researchers, superintendents, and school board members themselves indicated a need for, and support of, training and development for local school boards, the literature also addressed best practices for training and professional development programs. Among the best practices cited in the literature, there are three that would seem to influence training for school boards: (1) needs assessment with board member involvement in identifying topics; (2) consideration of adult learning theory with an emphasis on relevancy of the training and opportunities for small group activities; (3) logistics and methods of presentation, including various formats such as face-to-face, webinars, distance learning, and other training techniques; (4) assessment and evaluation of the training, specifically, identifying whether or not the board member's performance improve as a result of the training.

Some researchers supported evaluations of board performance, through an internal entity, external group, self-assessment, assessment of each other, or a combination of any or all of these. According to the Twentieth Century Task Force on School Governance (1992) there has been a

growing acceptance of school board self-assessment for the purpose of improving governance performance. Given the legal nature of the role and responsibilities of local school boards and the varying opinions and findings presented in the review of literature, additional research on training programs for school boards and the perceptions of school board members about training is needed. To this end, this study investigated what states are currently doing in the area of board training and how local school board members perceive the training that has been provided.

Chapter 3

Methodology and Research Design

Introduction

This chapter includes a description of the research design, population, samples, instrumentation, procedures for data collection, and data analyses.

The purpose of this study was to investigate and report states' mandates and requirements for local school board training and to document the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members across the United States. The research questions for the study were:

1. What are the legal requirements regarding training for local school board members in your state?
2. What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e.: training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs)
3. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that: (a) mandate training with an enforcement provision; (b) mandate training with no enforcement provision; and (c) do not mandate training?
4. To what extent are there differences in local school board member's perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?

Population Samples

The research sample included two populations, one for each phase of the study. The first phase of the study involved a survey of the executive director of each state's school boards associations. The electronic mail addresses for the executive directors were obtained from each state's school boards association's website. The state of Hawaii was excluded from the study because there are no local school boards in Hawaii.

The second phase of the study involved a survey of local school board members. The local school board members included in the survey were identified through a careful delimited population process. The sample of local school board members was limited to those who served in leadership positions as identified through the state's school boards association web site.

Instrumentation

A survey can be used as a valuable tool to collect information pertaining to training needs and evaluation of training programs (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). A review of literature did not yield survey instruments specifically aligned with the purpose of this study. Two survey instruments were developed by the researcher to gather information from the executive director of each state's school boards association (Appendix A) and from local school board members (Appendix B).

Survey for Executive Directors of State School Boards Associations

The researcher sought input from a panel of educators through a letter of invitation (Appendix H) regarding the content of the initial survey questions. Of the ten educators invited to participate in the review, the researcher received eight responses. The panel of reviewers included: one retired division superintendent, one high school principal, one retired assistant superintendent for administration, two university administrative interns, and three central office

administrators. The reviewers were asked to complete the survey and to rate the survey from two perspectives: (1) the association between the survey questions and the research questions; and (2) clarity of the survey questions. The researcher modified or discarded a survey question(s) if less than 80 percent of the panel agreed that there was an association between the survey question and the research questions or if less than 80 percent of the panel agreed that the survey question was clear (Appendix J).

Survey for Local School Board Members

The researcher sought input from a panel of former and current local school board members through a letter of invitation (Appendix I) regarding the content of the initial survey questions. The local school board members invited to participate in the survey review process were not members of the sample. Of the 15 local school board members and educators invited to participate in the survey review process, responses were received from five individuals. The panel of five reviewers included: three local school board members, one principal, and one central office administrator. The reviewers were asked to complete the survey and to rate the survey from two perspectives: (1) the association between the survey questions and the research questions; and (2) clarity of the survey questions. The researcher modified or discarded a survey question(s) if less than 80 percent of the panel agreed that there was an association between the survey question and the research questions or if less than 80 percent of the panel agreed that the survey question was clear (Appendix K). The researcher also revised a research question in order to more clearly denote the survey questions that referred to characteristics of training.

Instrument Design

The survey instrument for the executive directors consisted of fourteen questions that represented four major categories: (1) state requirements for training of local school board

members; (2) providers of training; (3) training topics; and (4) demographic and identifying information. The survey instrument was composed of multiple choice and text open-ended questions. The survey was created using Quintessential Instructional Archive (QUIA), an online program that provides a variety of instructional tools, including surveys.

The survey instrument for the local school board members consisted of twenty-three questions that represented six major categories: (1) identifying and demographic information; (2) training topics; (3) level of participation in training activities; (4) format and providers of training; (5) school board evaluation and needs assessment; and (6) influence of training on performance as a local school board member. The survey instrument was composed of multiple choice, text open-ended, and rating scale questions. The survey was also created using Quintessential Instructional Archive (QUIA), an online program that provides a variety of instructional tools, including surveys.

Procedures

The research study met the requirements of sound ethical protocols involving human subjects. The participants' privacy and confidentiality were maintained throughout the study. Participants were not required to give their names. A letter of invitation to participate in the study explained how the results of the study would be used and ensured confidentiality (Appendix E, Appendix F, and Appendix G). The Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) was used to document these procedures. Prior to conducting the study, the researcher was granted approval by the IRB (Appendix L). The researcher obtained an IRB certificate of completion on training in human subjects' protection (Appendix M).

The first phase of the study involved a survey that was disseminated to the executive director of each state's school boards association. Electronic mail addresses for the executive directors were obtained from each state's school boards association's website. The executive directors in 49 states were contacted by electronic mail to announce the upcoming survey (Appendix C). The state of Hawaii was excluded from the study because there are no local school boards in that state. Several days following the announcement, another electronic mail was sent with a message that briefly explained the survey and included the Quia survey web address and link access. An official cover letter that explained more about the study and how the results would be used was attached to the electronic mail message (Appendix E). In an effort to maximize the return rate, the researcher sent several follow up electronic mail messages reminding the executive directors who had not responded. Telephone calls were also made in an effort to increase the survey return rate.

The second phase of the study involved a survey that was disseminated to the local school board members identified through a careful delimited population process. Local school board members included in the study sample were board members identified as serving in various leadership positions through their state's school boards association web site. The researcher visited the school boards association web sites of each state to compile a list of names and electronic mail addresses. In many instances, the researcher accessed the school district web sites for those members who did not have an electronic mail address listed on the web site of the state's school boards association.

The sample included 986 local school board members. Of these, 783 local school board members had electronic mail addresses. Communication to the remaining 203 local school board members was sent through postal mail.

The 783 local school board members were contacted by electronic mail to announce the upcoming survey (Appendix D). Several days following the announcement to the local school board members, another electronic mail was sent with a message that briefly explained the survey. The electronic mail message also included the Quia survey web address and link access. An official cover letter that explained more about the study and how the results would be used was attached to the electronic mail message (Appendix G). In an effort to maximize the return rate, the researcher sent several follow up electronic mail messages reminding the local school board members who had not responded. A post card (Appendix D) announcing the survey was sent to the 203 local school board members whose electronic mail addresses were not found on the web sites. Several days following the postcard announcement, a cover letter (Appendix F) and a copy of the survey (Appendix B) were mailed to each board member.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The analysis of data from the survey of executive directors consisted of descriptive statistics, specifically frequencies and percentages, research questions 1 and 2. The researcher sought to verify each state's requirements regarding training for local school board members, the executive directors' descriptions about training programs and activities, topics of training provided for local school board members, and how training is provided. The states' requirements for local school board training consisted of three identifiers: (a) states that mandate training with an enforcement provision; (b) states that mandate training with no enforcement provision; and (c) states that do not mandate training. The data regarding states' mandates and requirements for training in the executive directors' survey was used in the analyses of survey data from the local school board members to address research questions 3 and 4.

The analysis of data from the survey of local school board members consisted of descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA. The purpose of the one-way ANOVA was to test for whether means were statistically different. The test for differences was accomplished by partitioning the total variance into the component that was due to true random error and the components that were due to differences between means. If significance was found, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis that the means in the population were different from each other was accepted (Howell, 2007). The Tukey Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test was used as a post-hoc analysis when the one-way ANOVA showed a significant result.

The researcher desired to ascertain the amount of variance among local school board members' perceptions of training with regard to states' requirements for training and local school members' length of service on the board, level of education, gender, district size, and whether the board members was elected or appointed. The ANOVA was used to analyze data for research questions 3 and 4 to ascertain if differences between and among groups were statistically significant – which meant the difference between variables was granter than would be expected by chance. The ANOVA used for analysis of research questions 3 and 4 were investigated at the .05 level of significance. This means that any differences found in the data had a 5 percent probability of occurring due to chance. In order to compare the means for a variable across two or more variables, a factorial design was used to evaluate two or more variables while labeling one set of variables as the independent variable and the other set of variables as the dependent variable. Descriptive statistics were also used to analyze data collected from the local school board members' survey. Frequency distributions, percentages, and means were used to report data from survey questions related to research question 2.

The Tukey Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test was conducted when the ANOVA analysis showed a significant result ($p < .05$). The alpha level of significance used for the Tukey HSD post hoc test was $p < .05$. The Tukey HSD post hoc test compares all possible pairs of group means to determine which differences in group means are statistically different (Howell, 2007). Data collection and data analysis procedures are shown in Table 1.

Table 1.

Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

Research Questions (RQ)	**Data Collection**	**Survey Questions (Q)**	**Data Analysis**
RQ1. What are the legal requirements regarding training for local school board members in your state?	Executive Director Survey	Q2-8	Descriptive Statistics
RQ2. What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e.: training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and identifying training needs)	Executive Director Survey Local School Board Member Survey	Q9,11,12,& 13 Q2-4, 6-11 & 14	Descriptive Statistics
RQ3. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that: (a) mandate training with an enforcement provision; (b) mandate training with no enforcement provision; and (c) do not mandate training?	Executive Director Survey Local School Board Member Survey	Q2-4 Q5, 12, & 13	Descriptive Statistics & ANOVA
RQ4. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?	Local School Board Member Survey	Q5,12, & 13 And Q 19-23	Descriptive Statistics & ANOVA

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the research methodology used for the study. The study consisted of a non-experimental research designed, detailed descriptions of the two population groups, development of instrumentation used, and data collection procedures and data analysis using SAS-JMP® statistical software.

Chapter 4

Analysis of Data

Review of Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate and report states' mandates and requirements for local school board training and to document the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members across the United States. The study consisted of two phases that targeted two sample populations. Phase I included a survey designed for the executive director of each state's school boards association. Phase II of the study included a survey disseminated designed for local school members who served in leadership positions through their state's school boards association. The research questions for the study were:

1. What are the legal requirements regarding training for local school board members in your state?
2. What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e.: training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs)
3. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that: (a) mandate training with an enforcement provision; (b) mandate training with no enforcement provision; and (c) do not mandate training?
4. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?

Phase I – Survey of Executive Directors

Response Rate

The results of data analyses presented in this section are based on responses to a survey disseminated to the executive director of school boards associations in 49 states Appendix A). The state of Hawaii was excluded from the study because there are no local school boards; the state board of education governs a single, statewide school district (National School Boards Association, 2009).

The electronic mail address for each state's executive director was obtained from the 49 web sites. An announcement about the upcoming survey was sent to the executive directors (Appendix C). A few days after the announcement, a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and another electronic message was sent to the 49 executive directors (Appendix E). Follow up electronic mail messages and telephone calls were made in an effort to increase the response rate. A total of 41 responses were received out of the 49 surveys disseminated to the executive directors. This number represents a response rate of 84 percent.

Results of Collected Data

Research Question 1: *What are the legal requirements regarding training for local school board members in your state?* Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data. Based on responses from 41 states' executive directors, 21 states do not mandate training for local school board members and 20 states mandate training for local school board members (Table 2). There were eight states whose executive director of the state school boards association did not respond to the survey and are therefore, not included in the list.

Table 2.

States that Mandate and do not Mandate Training for Local School Board Members

State	Yes or No	State (cont.)	Yes or No
Alabama	Yes	Nebraska	No
Alaska	No	Nevada	No
Arizona	No	New Hampshire	No
Arkansas	Yes	New York	Yes
Colorado	No	North Carolina	Yes
Connecticut	No	North Dakota	Yes
Delaware	No	Ohio	No
Georgia	Yes	Oklahoma	Yes
Illinois	Yes	Oregon	No
Indiana	No	Rhode Island	Yes
Iowa	No	South Carolina	Yes
Kansas	No	South Dakota	No
Kentucky	Yes	Tennessee	Yes
Louisiana	Yes	Texas	Yes
Maine	No	Vermont	No
Maryland	No	Virginia	Yes
Massachusetts	Yes	Washington	No
Michigan	No	West Virginia	Yes
Minnesota	Yes	Wisconsin	No
Mississippi	Yes	Wyoming	No
Missouri	Yes		
N = 41			
Yes = 20			
No = 21			

Executive directors who indicated that training was a mandate in their state were asked to indicate if the law applied to new and veteran local school board members, new board members only, or veteran board members only. Of the 20 states that reported mandated training for local school board members, fifteen of these states mandate training for both new and veteran local school board members and five states mandate training for new local school board members only (Table 3). No states reported mandated training for veteran local school board members only.

Table 3.

States that Mandate Training for New and/or Veteran Local School Board Members

State	New and Veteran Board Members	New Board Members Only
Alabama	X	
Arkansas	X	
Georgia	X	
Kentucky	X	
Louisiana	X	
Mississippi	X	
Missouri	X	
North Carolina	X	
North Dakota	X	
Oklahoma	X	
Rhode Island	X	
Tennessee	X	
Texas	X	
Virginia	X	
West Virginia		X
Illinois		X
Massachusetts		X
Minnesota		X
New York		X
South Carolina		X
Total	15	5

When asked if there was an enforcement provision in the law in states that mandate training for local school board members, nine states responded “yes”, ten states responded “no”, and one state that indicated mandated training in a previous survey question did not respond (Table 4). The survey included one open-ended question that asked executive directors to list the enforcement provisions included in the law for local school board members who do not comply with the law on required training.

Table 4.

States that Mandate Training – Enforcement Provisions

State	Yes	No	No Response
Arkansas	X		
Kentucky	X		
Mississippi	X		
New York	X		
Oklahoma	X		
Tennessee	X		
Texas	X		
Virginia	X		
West Virginia	X		
Alabama		X	
Illinois		X	
Louisiana		X	
Massachusetts		X	
Minnesota		X	
Missouri		X	
North Carolina		X	
North Dakota		X	
Rhode Island		X	
South Carolina		X	
Georgia			X
Total	9	10	1

The researcher deemed it very important to provide executive directors the opportunity to define specific enforcement provisions within the law in their states. This information is included to provide another critical dimension of training requirements for local school board members and for consideration of future research in this area.

Eleven executive directors responded to the open-ended question. The researcher examined the responses to this question in an effort to identify major themes. Nine of the responses indicated that a local school board member “may” or “could” be removed from office if the requirement for training is not met. The same nine executive directors reported that documentation of compliance must be reported annually; two reported that compliance for

training must be reported to the state's education department and two reported that compliance must be presented to the public, including the press. Removal from office for failing to meet the state's requirements for training included the following descriptions: (1) local school board members may be removed from office based on petitions filed by citizens with follow up by the state Supreme Court if sufficient signatures are obtained on the petition; (2) local school board members may be removed from office through the office of the Attorney General or the Commissioner of Education; (3) local school board member seats are to be declared vacant if a board member does not meet their continuing education credit requirements; and (4) a local school board member could lose his/her seat in the next election since the status of meeting the training requirement is reported publicly to the press. One state reported that the failure of a local school board member to meet the training requirements could also violate state accreditation.

The researcher wanted to document and report whether minimum training hours were included in the law in states that mandate training for local school board members. Sixteen states reported a minimum number of training hours required for new local school board members. Ten states reported a minimum number of training hours mandated for veteran local school board members. Five states reported mandated training for local school board members with no indication of a minimum number of training hours for new or veteran school board members (Table 5).

Table 5.

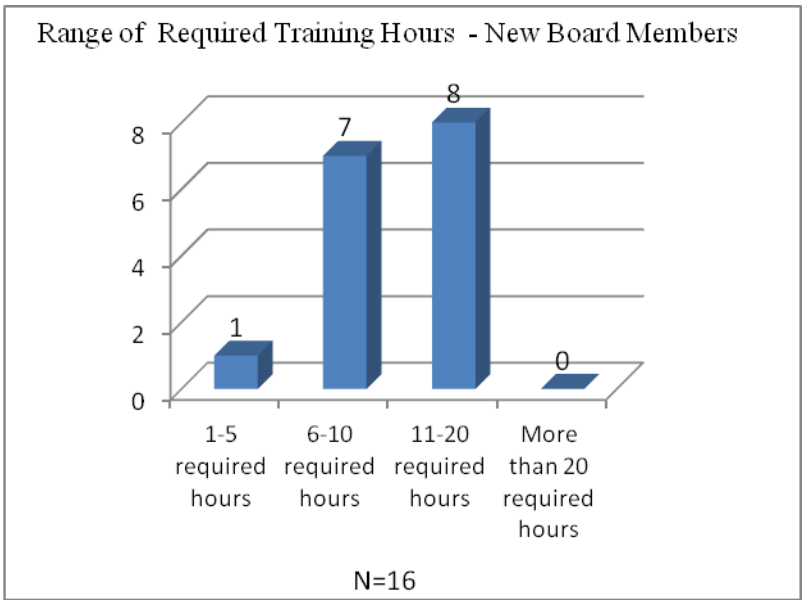
States with Minimum Training Hours for New and Veteran Local School Board Members

State	Minimum Hours for New Board Members	Minimum Hours for Veteran Board Members
Arkansas	X	X
Georgia	X	X
Illinois	X	
Kentucky	X	X
Louisiana	X	X
Massachusetts	X	
Mississippi	X	X
Missouri	X	
New York	X	
North Carolina	X	X
Oklahoma	X	X
Rhode Island	X	X
South Carolina	X	
Tennessee	X	X
Texas	X	X
West Virginia	X	
Total	16	10

The survey for executive directors inquired about the range of minimum training hours required for new and veteran local school board members. Of the 16 state executive directors that responded to the question, eight states reported a range of 11-20 required hours of training for new local school board members; seven states reported a range of 1-10 hours of required training, and one state reported a range of 1-5 hours of training. There were no states that reported required training hours of 20 or more (Figure 2).

Figure 2

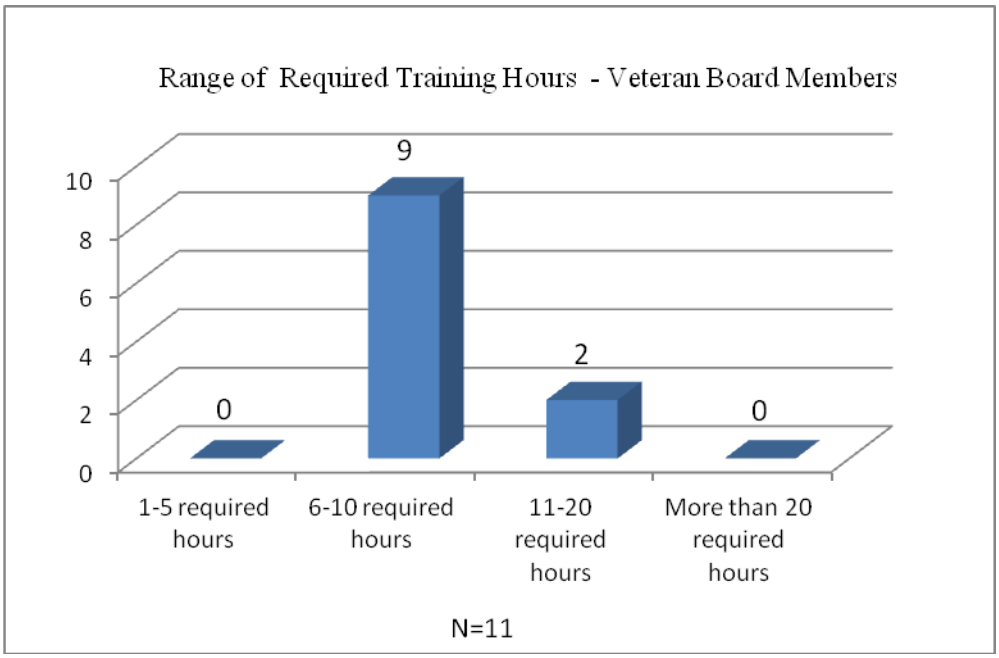
Range of Required Training Hours for New Local School Board Members



Eleven states reported a required number of training hours for veteran local school board members. Nine states reported that veteran local school board members are required to participate in 6-10 hours of training, two states indicated 11-20 required hours of training, and none of the eleven states reported the range of 0-5 hours of required training for veteran school board members (Figure 3).

Figure 3

Range of Required Training Hours for Veteran Local School Board Members



Research Question 2: *What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e.: training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs)* Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data.

The provider of training is one characteristic of training programs and activities that the researcher included in the survey of executive directors. In states that mandate training for local school board members, with 20 states responding, 100 percent of the respondents reported that the State Association of School Boards provided training for local school board members. The State Department of Education and Law Firms were each listed as training providers by 30 percent of the respondents. Universities or Colleges were listed by 25 percent of survey respondents. Twelve (or 60 percent) of the respondents indicated “other providers” (Table 6).

Table 6.

Providers of Training Identified by Executor Directors in States that Mandate Training

Providers of Training	**Number of States Selecting Provider**	**Percent of States Selecting Provider**
State Association of School Boards	20	100%
State Department of Education	6	30%
Universities or Colleges	5	25%
Law Firms	6	30%
Other Providers	12	60%
N=20		

Respondents were asked to list the "other providers" in an open-ended survey question. The list of "other providers included: local and regional school boards associations, the National School Boards Association, national organizations, private consultants, and other state-specific groups. Three executive directors reported that providers of training can be selected by the local school board. Two executive directors reported that providers of local school board training must be approved by the Department of Education. Examples of state-specific groups reported in the survey were the Missouri Association of Rural Education, Boards of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES), and the County Board Member Training Standards Review Committee in West Virginia. West Virginia also reported that attendance at an orientation is required prior to a board member-elect taking office. One state indicated that there were too many "other providers" to list and another state reported that the law mandating school board training was recently passed and other providers were unknown at the time that the researcher conducted the study.

Twenty-one state executive directors reported that training is not mandated by law but that they are aware of training opportunities provided for local school board members who choose to participate. Of these states, 100 percent reported that training for local school board members is provided by the State Association of School Boards. Law firms were reported by 29 percent and the State Department of Education by about 21 percent of the respondents. Universities or colleges were reported as providers of training by about 13 percent of the respondents. Nine respondents (about 38 percent) indicated "other providers" (Table 7).

Table 7.

Providers of Training Identified by Executive Directors in States that do not Mandate Training

Providers of Training	**Number of States Selecting Provider**	**Percent of States Selecting Provider**
State Association of School Boards	21	100%
State Department of Education	5	21%
Universities or Colleges	3	13%
Law Firms	7	29%
Other Providers	9	38%
N = 21		

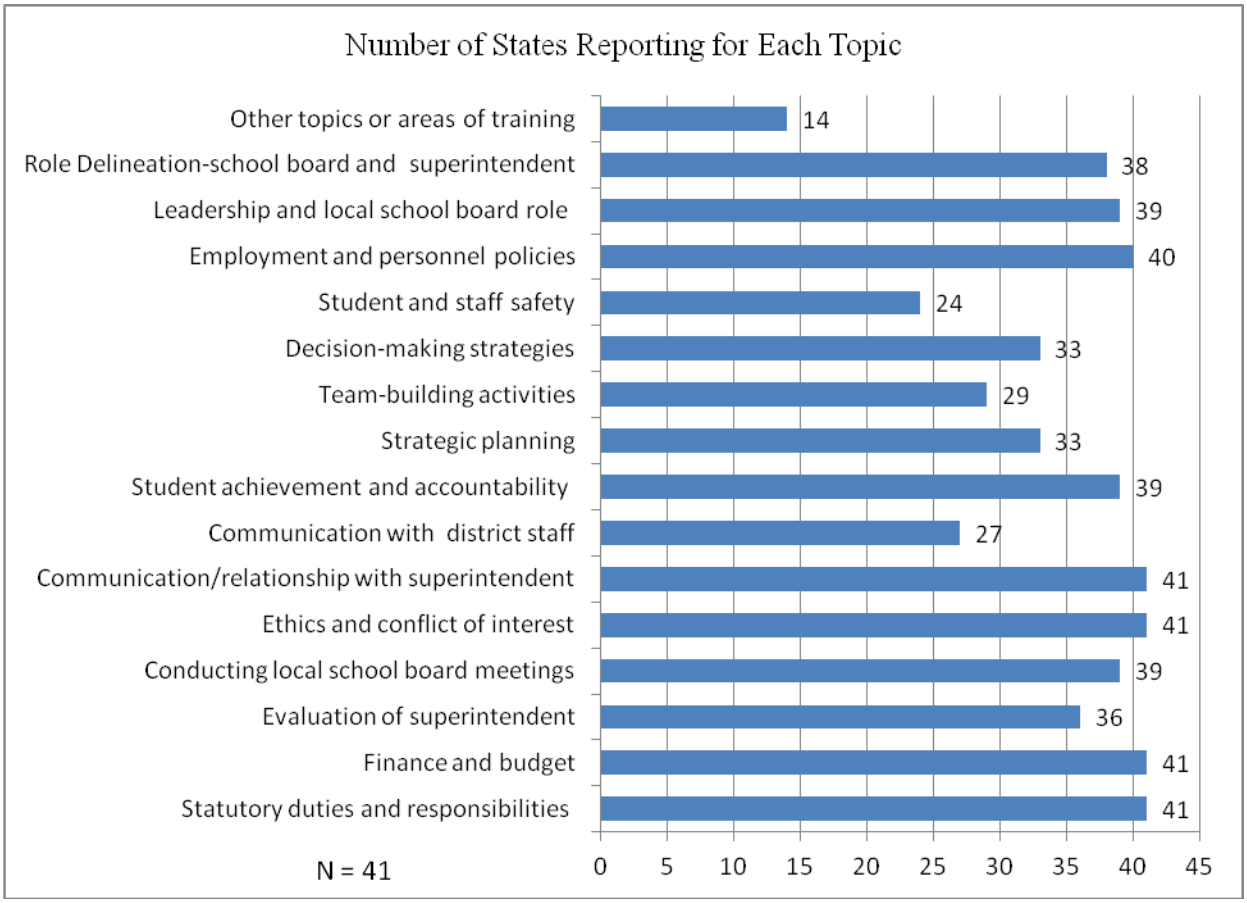
Respondents were asked to list the "other providers" in an open-ended survey question. The list of "other providers included: independent consultants who provide general information and specific information specific to a particular issue, such as a new testing program or capital project, education leaders, and other state-specific groups. State-specific groups included the Ohio Association of School Business Officials (treasurers' association) and the Buckeye Association of School Administrators (superintendents' association), Policy Governance

Trainers and the Colorado Legacy Foundation, and the Wisconsin Association of School Administrators/

Executive directors were asked to identify training topics that have been provided for local school board members in their states, whether or not training is mandated by law. Responses were received from 41 (100 percent) executive directors. Of the five training topics that received the highest percentage of respondents, statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board, was identified by 100 percent of the respondents. School finance and budget, ethics and conflict of interest, communication and relationship with the superintendent, were each identified as a training topic by about 98 percent of the respondents. The topic, employment and personnel policies, was identified by about 95 percent of the states that responded. The five training topics that received the lowest percent of respondents were: student staff and safety (57 percent); communication with district staff (64 percent); team-building (69 percent); and strategic planning and decision-making strategies each with 79 percent. Fourteen respondents indicated “other topics” Figure 4).

Figure 4

Number of Executive Directors that Specified Training Topics Provided for Local School Board Members



Fourteen executive directors responded to the open-ended survey question to list "other training topics" that have been provided for local school board members. The researcher reviewed the list of training topics to identify major themes. The list of "other training topics" included the following: (1) working with the media; (2) collective bargaining; (3) parliamentary procedures for board presidents; (4) school board self-assessment; (5) school construction; (6) policy development; (7) urban issues; (8) developing core values and beliefs; (9) child advocacy and school climate; and (10) The Key Work of School Boards: A Framework for School Board Governance, published by the National School Boards Association.

Phase II – Survey of Local School Board Members

Response Rate

The results of data analyses presented in Phase II of this study are based on responses to a survey disseminated to local school board members who serve in various leadership positions through their state school boards associations (Appendix B). The local school board members were identified by researching the web site for each state's school boards association. In many instances, web sites of the local school board members' school district were also reviewed in an effort to find electronic mail addresses.

Nine hundred eight-six (986) local school board members were identified as serving in various leadership positions through their state school boards association and were invited to participate in the study. Of these, 783 local board members were contacted by electronic mail. Electronic mail addresses were not found for 203 local school board members and they were contacted by postal mail. Survey responses were received from 365 local school board members which equals a response rate of 37 percent. It is important to note that local school board members who responded to survey represented each of the 49 states included in the research study.

The state of Hawaii was excluded from the study. There are no local school boards in Hawaii and the state board of education governs a single, statewide school district (National School Boards Association, 2009; Land, 2002).

Results of Collected Data

Research Question 2: *What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e training, topics, providers of training,*

presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs) Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data. Local school board members who responded to the survey represented each of the 49 states included in the research study.

Training Topics: Question 3 in the survey for local school board members asked the participants to identify the topics of training that have been presented during their attendance. Fourteen choices and the opportunity to select "other topics" were provided for local school board members to select. The topic most frequently identified was "statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board". The topic that was least identified was "communication between local school board and district staff". Thirty-eight percent of the local school board members checked "other topics" (Table 8).

Table 8

Training Topics Presented During Sessions Attended by Local School Board Members

Training Topic	**Percent of Total Board Members N = 365**
Statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board	94
Ethics and conflict of interest	90
Law on conducting school board meetings	88
School finance and budget	87
Distinction between role of the local school board and role of the superintendent	87
Leadership and the role of the local school board	87
Student achievement and accountability issues	85
Communication between local school board and superintendent	84
Evaluation of superintendent	80
Strategic planning	79
Team-building strategies	68
Employment and personnel policies	66
Decision-making strategies	62
Communication between local school board and district staff	56
Other topics	38

The researcher included an open-ended question that provided local school board members to list "other topics" that have been presented during their attendance at training. The researcher examined the responses in an effort to identify emerging themes and topics that were repeated throughout the numerous responses. Of the 137 local school board members who responded to the open-ended question, the following training topics were identified: (1) legislative updates, issues, and processes; (2) community involvement; (3) communication with the media and press; (4) technology in the classroom, including social networking; (5) negotiations with governing bodies; (6) anti-bullying; (7) collective bargaining; (8) facilities; and (9) school law.

Rating of Training Topics: Survey question 5 on the local school board member survey instrument asked participants to consider the level of importance and rate training topics that need more emphasis. As shown in Table 9, each of the fifteen training topics were rated by slight differences in the total numbers of local school board members who responded to each topic. More than 50 percent of local school board members who rated each training topic selected the following topics as "very important": statutory duties and responsibilities of local school board; school finance and budget, ethics and conflict of interest, communication between local school board and superintendent, student achievement and accountability issues, distinction between role of the school board and role of the superintendent, strategic planning, and leadership and role of the local school board.

Table 9

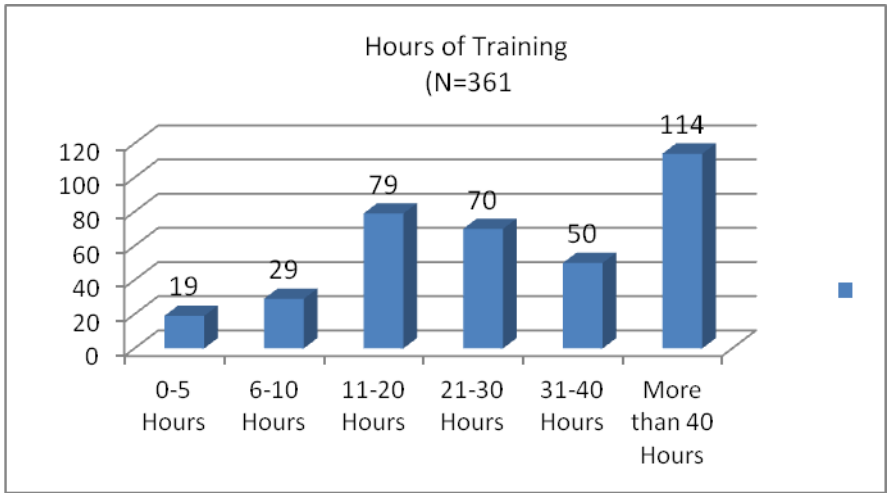
Aggregate responses for rating of training topics

Training Topic	Total Participants	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Least Important
	Number and Percent				
Statutory duties and responsibilities of local school board	355	229 65%	89 25%	23 6%	14 4%
School finance and budget	353	243 69%	80 23%	19 5%	11 3%
Evaluation of superintendent	353	168 48%	133 38%	38 11%	14 4%
Law on conducting school board meetings	351	128 36%	154 44%	54 15%	15 4%
Ethics and conflict of interest	354	179 51%	130 37%	32 9%	13 4%
Communication between school board and superintendent	356	193 54%	126 35%	30 8%	7 2%
Communication between school board and district staff	352	65 18%	152 43%	111 32%	24 7%
Student achievement and accountability issues	360	255 71%	79 22%	14 4%	12 3%
Distinction between role of the school board and role of the superintendent	353	189 54%	121 34%	32 9%	11 3%
Strategic planning	356	185 52%	122 34%	43 12%	6 2%
Team-building strategies	354	100 28%	162 46%	81 23%	11 3%
Employment and personnel policies	351	85 24%	161 46%	88 25%	17 5%
Decision-making process	354	121 34%	178 50%	50 14%	5 1%
Leadership and role of school board	357	245 69%	84 24%	20 6%	8 2%

Attendance at Training Sessions: Of the 365 local school board members who responded to the survey, 361 (99 percent) reported that they have attended training during their tenure and 4 (1 percent) of local school board members reported that they had not attended training. Local school board members were asked to estimate the number of hours of training that they attended in the past 12 months (Figure 5). Of the 362 local school board members that responded to this survey question, it was noted that 31 percent (114 board members) reported that they attended more than 40 hours of training in the last 12 months. The range of training hours selected by the least number of local school board members was the 0-5 hours with five percent (19 board members) who chose this range. Other data found regarding the range of training hours were: 11-20 hours with 22 percent (79 board members); 21-30 hours with 19 percent (70 board members); 31-40 hours with 14 percent (50 board members); and 6-10 hours with eight percent (29 board members).

Figure 5

Range of Training Hours Reported by Local School Board Members in Last 12 Months



The provider of training is one characteristic of training programs and activities that the researcher included in the survey of local school board members. Six choices were listed as

shown in Table 10. The states' school boards associations were identified by 99 percent (360 board members). Universities or colleges received the fewest number of local school board members with 7 percent (24 board members) who selected them as a provider.

Table 10

Providers of Training Identified by Local School Board Members

Provider of Training	Number of School Board Members Selecting Provider	Percent of Total School Board Members (N=365)
School Boards Association	360	99%
Law Firms	264	72%
Other Providers	115	32%
District Superintendent	90	25%
State Education Department	72	20%
Universities or Colleges	24	7%

Respondents were asked to list the "other providers" in an open-ended survey question. Thirty-two percent (115 board members) indicated 'other providers" of training. The researcher examined the responses in an effort to identify emerging themes that were repeated throughout the numerous responses. Of the 115 local school board members who responded to the open-ended question, the following training providers were identified: (1) National School Boards Association; (2) consultants and commercial vendors; (3) county office of education; (4) district level staff; (5) educational service centers and co-ops; (6) networking with other school board members outside of the district; (7) Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES); (8) state superintendents' association; (9) Center for the Reform of School Systems (CRSS); (10) Council of Great City Schools; (11) Broad Foundation; (12) state and national Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA); (13) regional annual retreats; (14) State Collaborative On Reforming

Education (SCORE); (15) Family Services and Juvenile Welfare boards; (16) school board attorneys and state council of school board attorneys;

The format of presentations made during training sessions for local school board members was included as a characteristic of training that the researcher wanted to investigate. Local school board members were asked to identify presentation formats that had been used during training that they attended. The survey question included eight choices and local school board members could check all that applied based on their experiences (Table 11). Large group and small group presentation formats at state conferences were identified by 93 percent (338 board members) and 91 percent (332 board members) respectively. The regional meeting format was selected by 84 percent (308 board members) and the school board retreat was identified by 67 percent (246 board members). A little more than half of the local school board members selected national conferences and webinars as presentation formats. Fifty-four percent (196 board members) identified national conferences and 53 percent (194 board members identified webinars. Thirteen percent (46 board members) selected online classes as a presentation format and 11 percent (40 board members) indicated “other formats’.

Table 11

Presentation Formats Used in Training Attended by Local School Board Members

Presentation Format	Number of School Board Members Selecting Format	Percent of Total School Board Members (N=365)
State Conference-Large Group	338	93%
State Conference-Small Group	332	91%
Regional Meetings	308	84%
School Board Retreats	246	67%
National Conference	196	54%
Webinars	194	53%
Online Classes	46	13%
Other Formats	40	11%

The researcher examined the "other formats" responses from the 40 local school board members in an effort to identify emerging themes that were repeated throughout the numerous responses. Of the 40 local school board members who responded to the open-ended question, the following presentation formats were identified: (1) audio-visual tapes; (2) blogs and list-serv discussion groups; (3) cohort groups of boards training over an extended period of time; (4) customized local school board work sessions; (5) distance learning and video conferencing; (6) district workshops; (7) interactive project-based sessions; (8) books on leadership; (9) panel discussions; (10) roundtable discussions; (11) classroom and schoolwide tours to observe special programs such as technology, media, etc.; (12) vendor exhibits; and (13) videos and Skype.

Rating of Presentation Formats: Survey question 12 on the local school board member survey instrument asked participants to rate the effectiveness level of seven presentation formats that they had experienced during their training. As shown in Table 12, each of the seven presentation formats was rated by differences in the total numbers of local school board members

who responded to each format. Results indicated that "state conference small group concurrent sessions" were rated "very effective by 70 percent of 354 local school board members. "School board retreats" was rated as "very effective" by 61 percent of 293 local school board members. Of the 355 local school board members who responded, "state conference large group general sessions" was rated "very effective" by a little over one third (35 percent).

Table 12

Aggregate Responses for Rating of Presentation Formats – Level of Effectiveness

Presentation Format	**Total Participants**	**Very Effective**	**Effective**	**Somewhat Effective**	**Least Effective**
		Number and Percent			
State conference large group general sessions	355	123 35%	164 46%	57 16%	11 3%
State conference small group concurrent sessions	354	247 70%	86 24%	11 3%	10 3%
School board retreats	293	179 61%	69 24%	34 12%	11 4%
Webinars	242	29 12%	116 48%	68 28%	29 12%
National conferences	254	71 28%	112 44%	52 20%	19 7%
Online Classes	154	17 11%	54 35%	58 38%	25 16%
Regional meetings	317	150 47%	118 37%	36 11%	13 4%

The researcher inquired about another characteristic of training programs and activities – the needs assessment. The survey included five questions aligned with this characteristic of training. Local school board members were asked if topics provided for training were selected based on suggestions from local school board members. Of the 359 local school board members

responding, 84 percent (302 board members) answered “yes” and 16 percent (57 board members) answered “no” (Table 13).

The researcher desired to investigate whether local school boards participate in a board performance evaluation program, how the evaluation program was conducted, and whether the results of the board evaluation was used to identify areas of need for board member(s) training.

Of the 362 local school board members responding, 58 percent (209 board members) answered “yes” that their local school board participates in a board performance evaluation program. Forty-two percent (153 board members) answered “no”. The survey question that inquired whether the results of the board performance evaluation were used to identify areas of need for training was answered by 211 local school board members. Seventy-two percent (153 board members) reported that the results of the board’s performance evaluation were used to identify areas of need for board member(s) training. Twenty-eight percent (58 board members) answered “no” that the results of the board performance evaluation were not used to identify areas of need for training (Table 13).

The researcher wanted to know if local school board members whose school boards did not participate in an evaluation program, think that an evaluation program would be beneficial. Of the 192 respondents to the survey question, 93 percent (178 board members) indicated that a board evaluation program would be beneficial and 7 percent (14 board members) said “no’, that a board evaluation program would not be beneficial (Table 13).

Table 13

Other Characteristics of Training – Identification of Needs and Board Evaluation

Survey Question	Number Responses (N)	Percent of N	
		Yes	No
#14: Are the topics provided for training selected based on suggestions from local school board members?	359	84%	16%
#15. Does your local school board participate in a board performance evaluation program?	362	58%	42%
#17. If your school board participates in a performance evaluation program, are the results of the evaluation used to identify areas of need for board member(s) training?	211	72%	28%
#18. If your school board does NOT participate in a performance evaluation program, do you think that a board evaluation program would be beneficial?	192	93%	7%

In terms of how the board performance evaluation program was conducted, the survey question provided three options that local school board members could select. Of the 210 local school board members responding, 93 percent (195 board members) selected a self-evaluation; 6 percent (12 board members) indicated that the board evaluation was conducted by an external group or agency; and one percent (3 board members) reported that the board evaluation was conducted by and internal group (Table 14).

Table 14

Methods Used in Performance Evaluation of Local School Boards

Evaluation Method	Number of Board Members Selecting Methods	Percent of Board Members (N=210)
Self-Evaluation	195	93%
Evaluation by External Group	12	6%
Evaluation by Internal Group	3	1%

One major goal of training was improvement in knowledge, skills, and performance. The researcher asked local school board members to indicate the extent to which training had improved their performance by completing a statement. Results are shown in Table 15.

Table 15.

Aggregate responses for rating of influence of training on performance

"The training that I have attended has….	**Number of Responses (N = 364)**
greatly improved my performance as a local school board member.	267
somewhat improved my performance as a local school board member.	92
had little impact on my performance as a local school board member.	2
had no impact on my performance as a local school board member.	3

Research Question 3: *To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that: (a) mandate training with an enforcement provision; (b) mandate training with no enforcement provision for; and (c) do not mandate training?*

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was conducted on the three perception questions (5, 12, and 13 as dependent variables) from the survey to local school board members and survey questions 2 and 4 from the survey to executive directors. The states' training mandates and requirements (independent variable) were extracted from the survey responses from the executive directors' survey, questions 2 and 4. Survey question 2 asked executive directors if training for local school board members is mandated by law in their state and question 4 asked if there is an enforcement provision.

Survey question 5 asked local school board members to rate the level of importance of fourteen training topics that need more emphasis in future training sessions. The rating scale choices for survey question 5 were: very important, important, somewhat important, and least important. The fourteen training topics listed in question 5 were frequently discussed in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study.

Of the fourteen training topics listed, the ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) found in local school board members' perceptions about training topics that need more emphasis in states that mandate training with an enforcement provision, mandate training with no enforcement provision, and states that do not mandate training. The ANOVA results for survey question 5 are shown in Table 16 through Table 29.

Table 16

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Importance of training topics by Independent variable - States' training requirements ("Statutory Duties and Responsibilities of the Local School Board"

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	2.23	1.11	1.83	0.16
Error	258	157.01	0.60		
C. Total	260	159.24			

Table 17

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable –Importance of training topics by Independent variable - States' training requirements ("School Finance and Budget")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.34	0.17	0.31	0.73
Error	256	143.97	0.56		
C. Total	258	144.32			

Table 18

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent variable - States' training requirements ("Evaluation of Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	1.38	0.69	1.07	0.34
Error	257	166.67	0.64		
C. Total	259	168.06			

Table 19

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable - States' training requirements ("Law on Conducting Local School Board Meetings")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.53	0.26	0.38	0.67
Error	255	177.63	0.69		
C. Total	257	178.17			

Table 20

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Ethics and Conflict of Interest")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	2.20	1.10	1.81	0.16
Error	258	157.11	0.60		
C. Total	260	159.31			

Table 21

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Communication Between Local School Board and Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p (F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.89	0.44	0.78	0.45
Error	259	146.92	0.56		
C. Total	261	147.81			

Table 22

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Communication Between Local School Board and District Staff")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.13	0.06	0.10	0.90
Error	256	177.42	0.69		
C. Total	258	177.55			

Table 23

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of Training Topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Student Achievement and Accountability Issues")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.14	0.07	0.12	0.88
Error	260	145.32	0.55		
C. Total	262	145.47			

Table 24

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' Training Requirements ("Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.80	0.40	0.64	0.52
Error	258	161.88	0.62		
C. Total	260	162.68			

Table 25

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Strategic Planning")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.23	0.11	0.19	0.82
Error	260	157.58	0.60		
C. Total	262	157.81			

Table 26

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Team-Building Strategies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.48	0.24	0.38	0.68
Error	258	167.49	0.64		
C. Total	260	167.98			

Table 27

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Employment and Personnel Policies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.28	0.14	0.21	0.80
Error	255	167.09	0.65		
C. Total	257	167.37			

Table 28

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Decision-Making Process")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.14	0.07	0.14	0.86
Error	257	128.98	0.50		
C. Total	259	129.13			

Table 29

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	1.53	0.76	1.50	0.22
Error	259	132.72	0.51		
C. Total	261	134.26			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 12 from the local school board members' survey and questions 2 and 4 from the survey for executive directors that provided states' training requirements (independent variable). Survey question 12 asked local school board members to rate the level of effectiveness of seven presentation formats (dependent variable). The rating scale choices for survey question 12 were: very effective, effective, somewhat effective, and least effective. The seven presentation formats were often identified in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study.

Of the seven presentation formats listed in the research question, there were no significant differences ($p < .05$ level) found in five of the presentation formats (Table 30-32; Table 35, and Table 38). As shown in Table 30, the ANOVA showed a significant difference ($p < .05$) in local school board members' perception about the level of effectiveness of "Webinars" as a presentation format among states' training requirements [$F(2,178) = 5.37$, $p = .00$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p< .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of groups of means. The Tukey HSD (Table 34) indicated a significance of .00 in the pairs Mandated not Enforced ($M = 2.76$, $SE = .10$) and Not Mandated ($M = 2.33$, $SE =.09$). As shown in Table 36, a significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members' perception about the effectiveness of training format, "Online Classes" among states' training requirements [$F(2,108) = 3.65$, $p = .02$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of groups of means. They Tukey HSD (Table 37) indicated a significance level of .04 in the comparison of pairs Mandated and Enforced ($M = 2.55$, $SE = .15$) and Not Mandated ($M = 2.1$, $SE = .13$).

Table 30

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("State Conference Large Group General Sessions")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	6.98	3.49	1.81	0.16
Error	257	495.79	1.92		
C. Total	259	502.78			

Table 31

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.96
Error	257	115.27	0.44		
C. Total	259	115.30			

Table 32

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("School Board Retreats")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.41	0.20	0.27	0.76
Error	212	162.76	0.76		
C. Total	214	163.18			

Table 33

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Webinars")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	7.09	3.54	5.37	0.00*
Error	178	117.54	0.66		
C. Total	180	124.64			

*p < .05

Table 34

Tukey HSD comparison of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Webinars")

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
Mandated not Enforced	Not Mandated	2.76	2.33	.425	.00*
Mandated and Enforced	Not Mandated	2.69	2.33	.352	.06
Mandated not Enforced	Mandated and Enforced	2.76	2.69	.072	.89

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 35

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("National Conference")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	1.06	0.53	0.70	0.49
Error	180	136.15	0.75		
C. Total	182	137.21			

Table 36

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent variable – States' training requirements ("Online Classes")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	6.18	3.09	3.65	0.02*
Error	108	91.40	0.84		
C. Total	110	97.58			

*p < .05

Table 37

Tukey Comparisons for all pairs for Dependent Variable - Effectiveness of presentation formats and Independent Variable – States' training Requirements ("Online Classes")

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
Mandated not Enforced	Not Mandated	2.58	2.10	.488	.04*
Mandated and Enforced	Not Mandated	2.55	2.10	.455	.10
Mandated not Enforced	Mandated and Enforced	2.58	2.55	.032	.98

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 38

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – States' training requirements ("Regional Meetings")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	1.34	0.67	0.95	0.38
Error	231	162.23	0.70		
C. Total	233	163.57			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 13 from the local school board members' survey and questions 2 and 4 from the survey to executive directors that provided states' training requirements (independent variable). Survey question 13 asked local school board members to indicate the extent to which their participation in training sessions improved their performance (dependent variable) as a local school board member. The rating scale choices for survey question 13 were: greatly improved my performance, somewhat improved my performance, had little impact on my performance, and had no impact on my performance.

There were no significant differences ($p < .05$ level) found in local school board members' ratings on the extent to which participation in training improved their performance on the school board among states' training requirements (Table 39).

Table 39

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Influence of training by Independent Variable – States' training requirements

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
States' Training Requirements	2	0.63	0.31	1.43	0.23
Error	263	57.87	0.22		
C. Total	265	58.51			

Research Question 4: *To what extent are there differences in local school board member's perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?*

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 5 to determine differences in local school board members perceptions about training topics (dependent variable) with regard to their length

of service (independent variable) on the local school board (survey question 22). Survey question 5 asked local school board members to rate the level of importance of fourteen training topics that need more emphasis in future training sessions. The rating scale choices for survey question 5 were: very important, important, somewhat important, and least important. The training topics listed in question 5 were frequently discussed in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study. Survey question 22 asked local school board members how many years had they served on the school board. The survey question choices were: less than 2 years, 2-4 years, 4-6 years, 6-10 years, and more than 10 years.

The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) in thirteen of the fourteen training topics listed in the survey question among school board members' length of service (Table 40 - 43; Table 46-54). As shown in Table 42, a significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members' perceptions about the level of importance of training topic "Ethics and Conflict of Interest" among length of service on the school board ($F(4,348) = 3.31$, $p = .01$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible groups of means. The Tukey HSD (Table 45) indicated a significance level of .01 in the comparison of pairs > 10 years of service on the school board ($M = 3.42$, $SE = .05$) and 2-4 years of service on the school board ($M = 2.93$, $SE = .14$).

Table 40

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable- Length of service ("Statutory Duties and Responsibilities of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.49	0.62	1.00	0.40
Error	350	216.25	0.61		
C. Total	354	218.74			

Table 41

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("School Finance and Budget")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	1.13	0.28	0.52	0.72
Error	348	189.27	0.54		
C. Total	352	190.40			

Table 42

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of Service ("Evaluation of Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	4.78	1.19	1.82	0.12
Error	348	227.74	0.65		
C. Total	352	232.52			

Table 43

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of Service ("Law on Conducting School Board Meetings")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	1.43	0.35	0.52	0.71
Error	346	235.05	0.67		
C. Total	350	236.48			

Table 44

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service (“Ethics and Conflict of Interest”)

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	8.11	2.02	3.31	0.01*
Error	349	213.52	0.61		
C. Total	353	221.64			

*p < .05

Table 45

Tukey HSD comparison of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service (“Ethics and Conflict of Interest”)

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
> 10 years	< 2 years	3.42	2.85	.567	.32
6-10 years	< 2 years	3.37	2.85	.522	.43
> 10 years	2-4 years	3.42	2.93	.491	.01*
6-10 years	2-4 years	3.37	2.93	.445	.05
4-6 years	< 2 years	3.29	2.85	.436	.63
4-6 years	2-4 years	3.29	2.93	.360	.26
> 10 years	4-6 years	3.42	3.29	.130	.83
6-10 years	4-6 years	3.37	3.29	.085	.97
2-4 years	< 2 years	2.93	2.85	.076	.99
> 10 years	6-10 years	3.42	3.37	.045	.99

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 46

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Communication Between Local School Board and Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	1.79	0.44	0.84	0.49
Error	351	186.84	0.53		
C. Total	355	188.63			

Table 47

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Communication Between Local School Board and District Staff")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.15	0.53	0.76	0.54
Error	347	244.74	0.70		
C. Total	351	246.89			

Table 48

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics and Independent Variable – Length of service ("Student Achievement and Accountability Issues")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.26	0.56	1.09	0.36
Error	353	183.20	0.51		
C. Total	357	185.46			

Table 49

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.84	0.71	1.17	0.32
Error	348	210.52	0.60		
C. Total	352	213.37			

Table 50

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Strategic Planning")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.88	0.72	1.12	0.28
Error	351	201.64	0.57		
C. Total	355	204.52			

Table 51

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Team-Building Strategies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	3.52	0.88	1.38	0.23
Error	349	221.44	0.63		
C. Total	353	224.97			

Table 52

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Employment and Personnel Policies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	4.08	1.02	1.51	0.19
Error	346	233.01	0.67		
C. Total	350	237.09			

Table 53

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Decision-Making Process")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.31	1.57	1.13	0.34
Error	349	178.17	0.51		
C. Total	353	180.48			

Table 54

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	0.87	0.21	0.44	0.77
Error	352	173.77	0.49		
C. Total	356	174.64			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 5 to determine differences in local school board member's perceptions about training topics (dependent variable) with regard to their level of education (independent variable) from survey question 21. Survey question 5 asked local school board members to rate the level of importance of fourteen training topics that need more emphasis in future training sessions. The rating scale choices for survey question 5 were: very important, important, somewhat important, and least important. The training topics listed in question 5 were frequently discussed in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study. Survey question 21 asked local school board members to check their highest level of education. The survey question choices were: post-graduate college degree, graduate college degree, four-year degree, some college or other post-secondary education, high school graduate, and did not graduate high school. The researcher used the ranges of education level for survey question 21 based on the review of research in Chapter 2 of this study.

The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) in twelve of the fourteen training topics listed in the survey question (Table 55-65, Table 68). As shown in Table 66, the ANOVA showed a significance ($p < .05$) in local school board members perceptions about training topic, "Employment and Personnel Policies" with regard to their level of education [$F(4,346) = 2.54$, $p = .03$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of groups of means. Although the ANOVA indicated significance, the Tukey HSD (Table 67) did not indicate a difference in any pair comparisons of group means.

As shown in Table 69, the ANOVA yielded a significance level ($p < .05$) on local school board members' perceptions about training topic, "Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board" with regard to their level of education [$F (4,352) = 2.53$, $p = .04$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of group means. The

Tukey HSD (Table 70) indicated a significance level of .01 in the comparison of pairs Some College (M = 3.76, SE = .08) and Post Graduate Degree (M = 3.45, SE = .07).

Table 55

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Statutory Duties and Responsibilities of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	1.85	0.46	0.74	0.55
Error	350	216.89	0.61		
C. Total	354	218.74			

Table 56

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("School Finance and Budget")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	0.58	0.14	0.27	0.89
Error	348	189.81	0.54		
C. Total	352	190.40			

Table 57

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Evaluation of Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	4.88	0.14	1.86	0.11
Error	348	227.64	0.54		
C. Total	352	232.52			

Table 58

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Law on Conducting School Board Meetings")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	4.75	0.14	1.77	0.13
Error	346	231.72	1.18		
C. Total	350	236.48			

Table 59

Summary ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Ethics and Conflict of Interest")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	0.45	0.11	0.17	0.94
Error	349	221.18	0.63		
C. Total	353	221.64			

Table 60

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Communication Between Local School Board and Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	2.03	0.50	0.95	0.43
Error	351	186.60	0.53		
C. Total	355	188.63			

Table 61

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Communication Between Local School Board and District Staff")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	4.38	1.09	1.57	0.18
Error	347	242.50	0.69		
C. Total	351	246.89			

Table 62

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Student Achievement and Accountability Issues")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	3.03	0.75	1.47	0.21
Error	353	182.42	0.51		
C. Total	357	185.46			

Table 63

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	1.68	0.42	1.69	0.59
Error	348	211.68	0.60		
C. Total	352	213.37			

Table 64

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Strategic Planning")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	3.91	0.97	1.71	0.14
Error	351	200.61	0.57		
Total	355	204.52			

Table 65

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Team-Building Strategies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	5.57	1.39	2.21	0.06
Error	349	219.39	0.62		
C. Total	353	224.97			

Table 66

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Employment and Personnel Policies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	6.78	1.69	2.54	0.03*
Error	346	230.31	0.66		
Total	350	237.09			

*p < .05

Table 67

Tukey HSD comparisons of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable Education Level ("Employment and Personnel Policies")

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
High School	Post Graduate	3.27	2.96	.304	.76
Some College	Four-Year College	3.06	2.79	.262	.23
Post Graduate	Graduate	2.96	2.73	.235	.35
High School	Some College	3.27	3.06	.212	.93
Post Graduate	Four-Year College	2.96	2.79	.169	.57
Some College	Post Graduate	3.06	2.96	.092	.95
Four-Year College	Graduate	2.79	2.73	.065	.98
High School	Graduate	3.27	2.73	.540	.24
High School	Four-Year College	3.27	2.79	.474	.35
Some College	Graduate	3.06	2.73	.328	.99

Note: Although significance was shown in the ANOVA test, post-hoc analysis with the Tukey HSD did not show any significant mean differences.

Table 68

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Decision-Making Process")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	2.96	0.74	1.45	0.21
Error	349	177.52	0.50		
C. Total	353	180.48			

Table 69

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	4.88	1.22	2.53	0.04*
Error	352	169.76	0.48		
C. Total	356	174.64			

*p < .05

Table 70

Tukey HSD comparisons of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Education level ("Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board")

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value
Some College	Post Graduate	3.76	3.42	.339	.01*
High School	Post Graduate	3.72	3.42	.301	.65
Some College	Graduate	3.76	3.56	.195	.45
Four-Year College	Post Graduate	3.60	3.42	.181	.33
High School	Graduate	3.72	3.56	.157	.95
Some College	Four-Year College	3.76	3.60	.157	.57
Graduate Degree	Post Graduate	3.56	3.42	.143	.67
High School	Four-Year College	3.72	3.60	.120	.98
Four-Year College	Graduate	3.60	3.56	.037	.99
Some College	High School	3.76	3.72	.037	.99

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

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An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 5 to determine differences in local school board member's perceptions about training topics (dependent variable) with regard to their gender (independent variable) in survey question 20. Survey question 5 asked local school board members to rate the level of importance of fourteen training topics that need more emphasis in future training sessions. The rating scale choices for survey question 5 were: very important, important, somewhat important, and least important. The training topics listed in question 5 were frequently discussed in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study. Survey question 20 asked local school board members to check their gender: male or female.

The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) in thirteen of the fourteen training topics listed in the survey question (Table 71-72; Table 75-84). As shown in Table 74, a significance level ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members' perceptions about training topic "Law on Conducting School Board Meetings" and gender of local school board members [$F (1,347) = 5.51$, $p = .01$]. Post hoc analysis was not conducted because here were only two groups: Female ($M = 3.23$, $SE = .06$) and Male ($M = 3.02$, $SE = .06$).

Table 71

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Statutory Duties and Responsibilities of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.12	0.12	2.19	0.65
Error	351	218.12	0.62		
C. Total	352	218.24			

Table 72

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("School Finance and Budget")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.97
Error	349	189.89	0.54		
C. Total	350	189.89			

Table 73

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Evaluation of Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.06	0.06	0.10	0.74
Error	349	230.28	0.65		
C. Total	350	230.35			

Table 74

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Law on Conducting School Board Meetings")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	3.69	3.69	5.51	0.01*
Error	347	232.75	0.67		
C. Total	348	236.45			

*p < .05

Table 75

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Ethics and Conflict of Interest")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.70	0.70	1.12	0.29
Error	350	220.06	0.62		
C. Total	351	220.76			

Table 76

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Communication Between Local School Board and Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.025	0.025	0.04	0.82
Error	352	188.09	0.53		
C. Total	353	188.12			

Table 77

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Communication Between Local School Board and District Staff")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	1.91	1.91	2.76	0.09
Error	348	241.42	0.69		
C. Total	349	243.34			

Table 78

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Student Achievement and Accountability Issues")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.92
Error	354	184.93	0.52		
C. Total	355	184.94			

Table 79

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.57	0.57	0.94	0.33
Error	349	212.28	0.60		
C. Total	350	212.84			

Table 80

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Strategic Planning")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.07	0.07	0.12	0.72
Error	352	202.18	0.57		
C. Total	353	202.25			

Table 81

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Team-Building Strategies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	1.91	1.91	3.01	0.08
Error	350	222.07	0.63		
C. Total	351	223.98			

Table 82

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Employment and Personnel Policies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	2.22	2.22	3.31	0.06
Error	347	232.85	0.67		
C. Total	348	235.07			

Table 83

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Decision-Making Process")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.87
Error	350	179.06	0.51		
C. Total	351	179.06			

Table 84

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Gender ("Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.08	0.08	0.18	0.67
Error	353	174.04	0.49		
C. Total	354	174.12			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 5 to determine differences in local school board member's perceptions about training topics (dependent variable) with regard to district size (independent variable) as reported in survey question 19. Survey question 5 asked local school board members to rate the level of importance of fourteen training topics that need more emphasis in future training sessions. The rating scale choices for survey question 5 were: very important, important, somewhat important, and least important. The training topics listed in question 5 were frequently discussed in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study. Survey question 19 asked local school board members to check the student enrollment of their district. The survey question choices were: fewer than 1,000 students, 1,000 to 4.999 students, 5,000 to 8,999 students, 9,000 to 13,999 students, 14,000 to 18,999 students, 19,000 to 23,999 students, and more than 24,000 students. The researchers used these district size ranges based on review of research in Chapter 2 of this study.

The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) in thirteen of the fourteen training topics listed in the survey question (Table 85-94). As shown in Table 95, a significance ($p<.05$) was found in local school board members' perceptions about training topic, "Team-Building Strategies" with regard to district size [$F(5,347, p = .00)$] Post analysis using the Tukey HSD

($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of group means. The Tukey HSD (Table 96) indicated a significance level of .03 for comparison of district size > 24,000 (M = 3.26, SE = .90) and district size 14,000 – 18,999 (M = 2.05, SE = .17). They Tukey HSD also indicated a significance level of .04 for comparison of district size > 24,000 (M = 3.26, SE = .90) and district size 1,000 – 4,999 (M = 2.92, SE = .06).

Table 85

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Statutory Duties and Responsibilities of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	1.63	0.32	0.52	0.75
Error	348	214.85	0.61		
C. Total	353	216.48			

Table 86

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("School Finance and Budget")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	3.24	0.64	1.20	0.30
Error	346	186.83	0.53		
C. Total	351	190.07			

Table 87

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Evaluation of Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	5.20	1.04	1.58	0.16
Error	346	227.23	0.65		
C. Total	351	232.44			

Table 88

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Law on Conducting School Board Meetings")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	0.68	0.13	0.20	0.96
Error	344	234.53	0.68		
C. Total	349	235.21			

Table 89

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Ethics and Conflict of Interest")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	5.22	1.04	1.67	0.13
Error	347	215.98	0.62		
C. Total	352	221.20			

Table 90

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Communication Between Local School Board and Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	2.17	0.43	0.81	0.53
Error	349	186.12	0.53		
C. Total	354	188.29			

Table 91

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Communication Between Local School Board and District Staff")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	7.69	1.53	2.22	0.05
Error	345	238.66	0.69		
C. Total	350	246.35			

Table 92

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Student Achievement and Accountability Issues")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	1.62	0.32	0.62	0.68
Error	351	183.68	0.52		
C. Total	356	185.31			

Table 93

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	1.32	0.26	0.43	0.82
Error	346	211.66	0.61		
C. Total	351	212.98			

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Table 94

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Strategic Planning")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	3.74	0.74	1.30	0.26
Error	349	200.37	0.57		
C. Total	354	204.12			

Table 95

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Team-Building Strategies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	9.66	1.93	3.12	0.00*
Error	347	214.32	0.61		
C. Total	352	223.98			

*p < .05

Table 96

Tukey HSD comparisons of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Team-Building Strategies")

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
> 24,000	14,000 – 18,999	3.26	2.65	.611	.03*
9,000-13.999	14,000 – 18,999	3.12	2.65	.470	.34
5,000-8,999	14,000 – 18,999	3.10	2.65	.452	.29
> 24,000	< 1,000	3.26	2.84	.412	.05
> 24,000	1,000 – 4,999	3.26	2.97	.334	.04*
1,000-4,999	14,000 – 18,999	2.97	2.65	.277	.67
9,000-13,999	< 1,000	3.12	2.84	.270	.71
5,000-8,999	< 1,000	3.10	2.84	.253	.64
< 1,000	14,000 – 18,999	2.84	2.65	.199	.92
9,000-13,999	1,000 – 4,999	3.12	2.97	.192	.86
5,000-8,999	1,000 – 4,999	3.10	2.97	.175	.81
> 24,000	5,000 – 8,999	3.26	3.10	.158	.91
> 24,000	9,000 – 13,999	3.26	3.12	.141	.97
1,000-4,999	< 1,000	2.97	2.84	.078	.98
9,000-13,999	5,000 – 8,999	3.12	3.10	.017	1.00

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 97

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Employment and Personnel Policies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	4.03	0.80	1.19	0.31
Error	344	232.26	0.67		
C. Total	349	236.29			

Table 98

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Decision-Making Process")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	2.80	0.56	1.10	0.35
Error	347	176.99	0.51		
C. Total	352	179.80			

Table 99

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – District size ("Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	1.36	0.27	0.55	0.73
Error	350	173.10	0.49		
C. Total	355	174.47			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 5 to determine differences in local school board members perceptions about training topics (dependent variable) with regard to whether the board member was elected or appointed (independent variable) in survey question 23. Survey question 5 asked local school board members to rate the level of importance of fourteen training topics that need more emphasis in future training sessions. The rating scale choices for survey question 5 were: very important, important, somewhat important, and least important. The training topics listed in question 5 were frequently discussed in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study. Survey question 21 asked local school board members to indicate how they were chosen to serve on the school board.

The ANOVA showed no significance difference ($p < .05$) in twelve of the fourteen training topics listed in the survey question (Table 100-107, Table 109-110, Table 112-113). As shown in Table 108, significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members' perceptions about training topic "Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent" [$F (2, 350) = 3.99$, $p = .01$. Post analysis was not conducted because there are only two groups represented in the independent variable: Elected ($M = 3.37$, $SE = .04$) and Appointed ($M = 3.66$, $SE = .18$)

As shown in Table 111, significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members' perceptions about training topic "Employment and Personnel Policies" [$F (2,348) = 3.41$, $p = .03$]. Post hoc analysis was not conducted because there are only two groups represented in the independent variable: Elected ($M = 2.90$, $SE = .04$) and Appointed ($M = 2.89$, $SE = .18$).

Table 100

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Statutory Duties and Responsibilities of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	2.72	1.36	2.22	0.10
Error	352	216.02	0.61		
C. Total	354	218.74			

Table 101

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("School Finance and Budget")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.82	0.41	0.76	0.46
Error	350	189.58	0.54		
C. Total	352	190.40			

Table 102

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Evaluation of the Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	2.06	1.03	1.56	0.20
Error	350	230.45	0.65		
C. Total	352	232.52			

Table 103

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Law on Conducting School Board Meetings")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	1.79	0.89	1.32	0.26
Error	348	234.69	0.67		
C. Total	350	236.48			

Table 104

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Ethics and Conflict of Interest")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	2.24	1.12	1.79	0.16
Error	351	219.39	0.62		
C. Total	353	221.64			

Table 105

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Communication Between Local School Board and Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	2.24	1.12	2.12	0.12
Error	353	186.38	0.52		
C. Total	355	188.63			

Table 106

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Communication Between Local School Board and District Staff")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	1.05	0.52	0.74	0.47
Error	349	245.84	0.70		
C. Total	351	246.89			

Table 107

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Student Achievement and Accountability Issues")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.88	0.44	0.84	0.42
Error	355	184.58	0.51		
C. Total	357	185.46			

Table 108

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	4.76	2.38	3.99	0.01*
Error	350	208.60	0.59		
C. Total	352	213.37			

*p < .05

Table 109

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Strategic Planning")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.99
Error	353	204.52	0.57		
C. Total	355	204.52			

Table 110

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Team-Building Strategies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.36	0.18	0.28	0.75
Error	351	224.60	0.63		
C. Total	353	224.97			

Table 111

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Employment and Personnel Policies")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	4.56	2.28	3.41	0.03*
Error	348	232.53	0.66		
C. Total	350	237.09			

*p < .05

Table 112

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Decision-Making Process")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	1.23	0.61	1.21	0.29
Error	351	179.24	0.51		
C. Total	353	180.48			

Table 113

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Importance of training topics by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.68	0.34	0.69	0.50
Error	354	173.96	0.49		
C. Total	356	174.64			

Further data analysis for research question 4 (*To what extent are there differences in local school board members perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?)* included survey question 12.

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 12 to determine differences in local school board member's perceptions about the effectiveness of various presentation formats (dependent variable) with regard to board members' length of service (independent variable) on the school board. Survey question 12 asked local school board members to rate the level of effectiveness of seven presentation formats. The rating scale choices for survey question 12 were: very effective, effective, somewhat effective, and least effective. The presentation formats listed in survey question 12 were frequently discussed in the researcher's review of research in Chapter 2 of this study. Survey question 19 asked local school board members how many years had they served on the school board. The survey question choices were: less than 2 years, 2-4 years, 4-6 years, 6-10 years, and more than 10 years.

The ANOVA showed no significance differences ($p < .05$) in six of the seven presentation formats listed in the survey question (Table 114-115, Table 118-121). As shown in Table 116, a significance ($p < .05$) was found local school board members perceptions about the level of effectiveness of presentation format "School Board Retreats" with regard to length of service on the school board [$F (4,288) = 2.64$, $p = .03$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of group means. While significance was found on the ANOVA, the Tukey HSD (Table 117) indicated no significance among comparisons of means. The closest significance level to .05 was found in the comparison of length of service > 10 years and length of service of 2-4 years at a p-value of .09.

Table 114

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("State Conference Large Group General Sessions")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	3.79	0.94	0.58	0.67
Error	351	570.06	1.62		
C. Total	355	573.85			

Table 115

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.30	0.57	1.11	0.29
Error	349	166.06	0.46		
C. Total	353	166.85			

Table 116

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("School Board Retreats")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	7.28	1.82	2.64	0.03*
Error	288	198.08	0.68		
C. Total	292	205.36			

*p < .05

Table 117

Tukey HSD comparisons of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("School Board Retreats")

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
> 10 years	2-4 years	3.55	3.11	.436	.09
> 10 years	< 2 years	3.55	3.16	.387	.79
> 10 years	4-6 years	3.55	3.21	.339	.13
6-10 years	2-4 years	3.39	3.11	.278	.58
6-10 years	< 2 years	3.39	3.16	.227	.96
6-10 years	4-6 years	3.39	3.21	.180	.79
> 10 years	6-10 years	3.55	3.39	.159	.67
4-6 years	2-4 years	3.21	3.11	.098	.98
< 2 years	2-4 years	3.16	3.11	.051	.99
4-6 years	< 2 years	3.21	3.16	.047	.99

Note: Although significance was shown in the ANOVA test, post hoc analysis with the Tukey HSD did not show any significant mean differences.

Table 118

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Webinars")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.37	0.59	0.82	0.51
Error	237	171.73	0.72		
C. Total	241	174.11			

Table 119

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("National Conferences")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	1.80	0.45	0.57	0.68
Error	259	195.76	0.78		
C. Total	253	197.57			

Table 120

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Online Classes")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	2.46	0.61	0.77	0.54
Error	149	118.76	0.79		
C. Total	153	121.22			

Table 121

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Length of service ("Regional Meetings")

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	5.94	1.48	2.23	0.06
Error	312	207.62	0.66		
C. Total	316	213.57			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 12 to determine differences in local school board member's perceptions about the effectiveness of various presentation formats with regard to board members' level of education (survey question 21). Survey question 12 asked local school board members to rate the level of effectiveness of seven presentation formats. The rating scale choices for survey question 12 were: very effective, effective, somewhat effective, and least effective. Survey question 21 asked local school board members to indicate their highest level of education. The choices for survey question 21 were: post-graduate college degree; graduate college degree; four-year college degree; some college or other post-secondary education; high school graduate; and did not graduate high school.

The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) in six of the seven presentation formats listed in the survey question (Table 122, Table 125-129). As shown in Table 123, a significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members perceptions about the effectiveness of presentation format, "State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions" with regard to board members' level of education [$F (4,340) = 2.88$, $p = .02$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of groups of means. The Tukey HSD (Table 124) indicated a significance level of .03 in the comparison of pairs Four Year Degree ($M = 3.69$, $SE = .06$) and Post Graduate Degree ($M = 3.41$, $SE = .07$).

Table 122

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("State Conference Large Group General Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	8.23	2.05	1.27	0.27
Error	351	565.61	1.61		
C. Total	355	573.85			

Table 123

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	5.31	1.32	2.88	0.02*
Error	340	160.88	0.46		
C. Total	353	166.20			

*p < .05

Table 124

Tukey HSD comparison of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions")

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
High School	Post Graduate	3.90	3.41	.480	.21
High School	Graduate	3.90	3.62	.275	.75
Four-Year College	Post Graduate	3.69	3.41	.274	.03*
Some College	Post Graduate	3.67	3.41	.257	.12
High School	Some College	3.90	3.67	.223	.86
High School	Four-Year College	3.90	3.69	.206	.88
Graduate	Post Graduate	3.62	3.41	.205	.30
Four-Year College	Graduate	3.69	3.62	.068	.96
Some College	Graduate	3.67	3.62	.051	.99
Four-Year College	Some College	3.69	3.67	.017	.99

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 125

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("School Board Retreats")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	2.84	0.72	1.01	0.40
Error	288	202.52	0.70		
C. Total	292	205.36			

Table 126

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("Webinars")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	0.47	0.11	0.16	0.95
Error	237	173.64	0.73		
C. Total	241	174.11			

Table 127

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("National Conferences")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	1.99	0.49	0.63	0.63
Error	249	195.58	0.78		
C. Total	253	197.57			

Table 128

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("Online Classes")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	1.85	0.46	0.57	0.87
Error	149	119.37	0.80		
C. Total	153	121.22			

Table 129

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Education level ("Regional Meetings")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	4.69	1.17	1.75	0.13
Error	312	208.88	0.66		
C. Total	316	213.57			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 12 to determine differences in local school board members' perceptions about the effectiveness of various presentation formats (dependent variable) with regard to board members' gender (independent variable) as reported in survey question 20. Survey question 12 asked local school board members to rate the level of effectiveness of seven presentation formats. The rating scale choices for survey question 12 were: very effective, effective, somewhat effective, and least effective. Survey question 20 asked local school board members to indicate their gender, male or female.

The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) in local school board members perceptions about the effectiveness level of the seven presentation formats with regard to gender of local school board members (Table 130-136).

Table 130

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Gender ("State Conference Large Group General Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.87	0.87	0.53	0.46
Error	352	572.91	1.62		
C. Total	353	573.78			

Table 131

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Gender ("State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.37	0.37	0.07	0.77
Error	350	165.85	0.47		
C. Total	351	165.89			

Table 132

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Gender ("School Board Retreats")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	1.16	1.16	1.70	0.19
Error	289	197.99	0.68		
C. Total	290	199.16			

Table 133

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Gender ("Webinars")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	2.47	2.47	3.45	0.06
Error	238	170.91	0.71		
C. Total	239	173.39			

Table 134

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Gender ("National Conferences")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.12	0.12	0.15	0.69
Error	250	195.73	0.78		
C. Total	251	195.85			

Table 135

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness level of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Gender ("Online Classes")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.98	0.98	1.25	0.26
Error	150	118.06	0.78		
C. Total	151	119.05			

Table 136

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Gender ("Regional Meetings")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.77
Error	313	212.46	0.67		
C. Total	314	212.52			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 12 to determine differences in local school board members' perceptions about the effectiveness of various presentation formats (dependent variable) with regard to district size (independent variable) as reported in survey question 19. Survey question 12 asked local school board members to rate the level of effectiveness of seven presentation formats. The rating scale choices for survey question 12 were very effective, effective, somewhat effective, and least effective. Survey question 19 asked local school board members to indicate the student enrollment of their school district. The choices for survey question 19 were: fewer than 1,000 students, 1,000 to 4,999 students, 5,000 to 8,999 students, 9,000 to 13,999 students, 14,000 to 18,999 students, 19,000 to 12,999 students, and more than 24,000 students.

The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p < .05$) in six of the seven presentation formats listed in the survey question (Table 137-141, Table 144). As shown in Table 142, a significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members perceptions about the effectiveness of presentation format, "Online Classes" with regard to board members' district size [$F (5,147) = 2.69$, $p = .02$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of group means. The Tukey HSD (Table 143) indicated a

significance level of .02 in the comparison of district size 9,000 – 13,999 (M = 3.08, SE = .24) and district size 14,000 – 18,999 (M = 2.09, SE = .24).

Table 137

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – District size ("State Conference Large Group Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	9.37	1.87	1.16	0.32
Error	349	563.79	1.61		
Total	354	573.17			

Table 138

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – District size ("State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	2.65	0.53	1.12	0.34
Error	347	163.39	0.47		
C. Total	352	166.05			

Table 139

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – District size ("School Board Retreats")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	0.56	0.11	0.15	0.97
Error	286	204.45	0.71		
C. Total	291	205.02			

Table 140

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – District size ("Webinars")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	6.13	1.22	1.74	0.12
Error	235	165.41	0.70		
C. Total	240	171.55			

Table 141

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – District size ("National Conference")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	7.66	1.53	2.00	0.07
Error	247	188.75	0.76		
C. Total	252	196.41			

Table 142

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – District size ("Online Classes")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	9.99	1.99	2.69	0.02*
Error	147	109.23	0.74		
C. Total	152	119.22			

*p < .05

Table 143

Tukey HSD comparison of all pairs for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness level of presentation formats by Independent Variable – District size (“Online Classes”)

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
9-000 – 13,999	14,000 – 18,999	3.08	2.09	.992	.07
9,000 – 13,999	5,000 – 8,999	3.08	2.09	.988	.02*
9,000 – 13,999	1,000 – 4,999	3.08	2.35	.723	.08
9,000 – 13,999	> 24,000	3.08	2.47	.607	.37
< 1,000	14,000 – 18,999	2.62	2.09	.534	.53
< 1,000	5,000 – 8,999	2.62	2.09	.529	.31
9,000 – 13,999	< 1,000	3.08	2.62	.458	.66
>24,000	14,000 – 18,999	2.47	2.09	.385	.83
> 24,000	5,000 – 8,999	2.47	2.09	.380	.70
1,000 – 4,999	14,000 – 18,999	2.35	2.09	.268	.93
< 1,000	1,000 – 4,999	2.62	2.35	.265	.79
1,000 – 4,999	5,000 – 8,999	2.35	2.09	.264	.82
<1,000	> 24,000	2.62	2.47	.148	.99
>24,000	1,000 – 4,999	2.47	2.35	.116	.99
5,000 – 8,999	14,000 – 18,999	2.09	2.09	.004	

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 144

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness level of presentation formats by Independent variable – District size (“Regional Meetings”) and district size

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	0.24	0.04	0.07	0.99
Error	310	212.80	0.68		
C. Total	315	213.04			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 12 to determine differences in local school board members’ perceptions about the effectiveness of various presentation formats (dependent variable) with regard to whether the board member was elected or appointed (independent variable) as reported in survey question 23. Survey question 12 asked local school board members to rate the level of effectiveness of seven presentation formats. The rating scale choices for survey question 12 were: very effective, effective, somewhat effective, and least effective. Survey question 23 asked local school board members to indicate how they were chosen to serve on the school board. The choices for survey question 23 were elected and appointed.

As shown in Table 145, significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members’ perceptions about the effectiveness of presentation format “State Conference Large Group General Sessions” [$F (2,253) = 38.56$; $p = .00$]. Post hoc analysis was not conducted because there are only two groups represented in this variable: Elected ($M = 3.12$, $SE = .06$) and Appointed ($M = 3.23$, $SE = .25$). The ANOVA showed no significant difference ($p < .05$) in local school board members’ perceptions about the level of effectiveness of six of the seven presentation formats (Table 146 – 151).

Table 145

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("State Conference Large Group General Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	102.90	51.45	38.56	0.00*
Error	353	470.94	1.33		
C. Total	355	573.85			

*p < .05

Table 146

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.70	0.35	0.74	0.47
Error	351	164.50	0.47		
C. Total	353	166.20			

Table 147

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness level of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("School Board Retreats")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	1.67	0.83	1.19	0.30
Error	290	203.69	0.70		
C. Total	292	205.36			

Table 148

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Webinars") and elected or appointed to school board

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	2.00	1.00	1.39	0.24
Error	239	172.11	0.72		
C. Total	241	174.11			

Table 149

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("National Conference")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.62	0.31	0.39	0.67
Error	251	196.95	0.78		
C. Total	253	197.57			

Table 150

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Online Classes") and elected or appointed to school board

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	1	1.04	1.04	1.32	0.25
Error	152	120.18	0.79		
C. Total	153	121.22			

Table 151

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable – Effectiveness of presentation formats by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed ("Regional Meeting")

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.42	0.21	0.31	0.72
Error	314	213.14	0.67		
C. Total	316	213.57			

The final data analysis for research question 4 (*To what extent are there differences in local school board members perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?)* included survey question 13.

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 13 to determine differences in local school board member's perceptions about the influence on training sessions on their performance (dependent variable) as board members with regard to board members' length of service (independent variable) on the school board as reported in survey question 22. Survey question 13 asked local school board members to indicate the extent to which their participation in training sessions improved their performance as a local school board member. The rating scale choices for survey question 13 were: greatly improved my performance, somewhat improved my performance, had little impact on my performance, and had no impact on my performance. Survey question 22 asked local school board members how many years had they served on the school board. The survey question choices were: less than 2 years, 2-4 years, 4-6 years, 6-10 years, and more than 10 years.

As shown in Table 152, a significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members' perceptions about the influence of training on their performance with regard to board members' length of service [$F(4,357) = 3.81$, $p = .00$]. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of group means. The Tukey HSD (Table 153) indicated a significance level of .01 in the length of service comparison pair of > 10 years ($M = 3.80$, $SE = .03$) and < 2 years ($M = 3.28$, $SE = .17$).

Table 152

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Influence of training on performance by Independent Variable – Length of service

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Length of Service	4	3.17	0.79	3.81	0.00*
Error	357	74.29	0.20		
C. Total	361	77.46			

*p < .05

Table 153

Tukey HSD comparison of all pairs for Dependent Variable - Influence of training on performance by Independent Variable – Length of service

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
> 10 years	< 2 years	3.80	3.28	.516	.02*
6-10 years	< 2 years	3.70	3.28	.418	.13
2-4 years	< 2 years	3.65	3.28	.370	.29
4-6 years	< 2 years	3.62	3.28	.336	.35
>10 years	4-6 years	3.80	3.62	.179	.08
>10 years	2-4 years	3.80	3.65	.145	.45
>10 years	6-10 years	3.80	3.70	.097	.46
6-10 years	4-6 years	3.70	3.62	.081	.84
6-10 years	2-4 years	3.70	3.65	.048	.98
2-4 years	4-6 years	3.65	3.62	.033	.99

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 13 to determine differences in local school board member's perceptions about the influence of training (dependent variable) on their performance with regard to board members' level of education (independent variable) as reported in question 21 on the local school board survey. Survey question 13 asked local school board members to indicate the extent to which their participation in training sessions improved their performance as a local school board member. The rating scale choices for survey question 13 were: greatly improved my performance, somewhat improved my performance, had little impact on my performance, and had no impact on my performance. Survey question 21 asked local school board

members to indicate their highest level of education. The choices were: post-graduate college degree, graduate college degree, some college or other post-secondary education, high school graduate, and did not graduate high school.

As shown in Table 154 a significance ($p < .05$) was found in local school board members' perceptions about the influence of training on performance level [$F(4,357) = 5.10$, $p = .00$] Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD ($p < .05$) was conducted to compare all possible pairs of group means. The Tukey HSD (Table 155) indicated a significance level of .00 in the pair comparisons of the following education levels: Some College (M = 3.84, SE = .05) and Post Graduate Degree (M = 3.56, SE = .04). The Tukey HSD indicated a significance level of .00 in the pair comparisons of the following education levels: Four Year Degree (M = 3.79, SE = .04) and Post Graduate Degree (M = 3.56, SE = .04).

Table 154

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Influence of training performance by Independent Variable – Education level

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Education Level	4	4.18	1.04	5.10	0.00*
Error	357	73.28	0.20		
C. Total	361	77.46			

Table 155

Tukey HSD comparison of all pairs for Dependent Variable - Influence of training on performance by Independent Variable – Education level

Level 1	-Level 2	Mean Level 1	-Mean Level 2	Mean Difference	p-Value (Sig.)
Some College	Post Graduate	3.84	3.56	.280	.00*
Four Year	Post Graduate	3.79	3.56	.232	.00*
Some College	High School Diploma	3.84	3.63	.206	.62
Graduate	Post Graduate	3.75	3.56	.190	.05
Four-Year	High School Diploma	3.79	3.63	.158	.80
Graduate	High School Diploma	3.75	3.63	.117	.93
Some College	Graduate	3.84	3.75	.089	.76
High School Diploma	Post Graduate	3.63	3.56	.073	.98
Some College	Four-Year	3.84	3.79	.048	.95
Four Year	Graduate	3.79	3.75	.041	.97

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 13 to determine differences in local school board members' perceptions about the influence of training (dependent variable) on their performance with regard to gender (independent variable) of local school board members as reported in question 20 on the local school board survey. Survey question 13 asked local school board members to indicate the extent to which their participation in training sessions improved their performance as a local school board member. The rating scale choices for survey question 13 were: greatly improved my performance, somewhat improved my performance, had little impact on my

performance, and had no impact on my performance. Survey question 20 asked local school board members to indicate gender by checking male or female.

As shown in Table 156, a significance level ($p < .05$) was found [$F (1, 358) = 5.71$, $p = .01$. Post hoc analysis was not conducted because there are only two groups in the variable: Female ($M = 3.78$, $SE = .03$) and Male ($M = 3.67$, $SE = .03$).

Table 156

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Influence training on performance by Independent Variable - Gender

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Gender	1	1.20	1.20	5.71	0.01*
Error	358	75.65	0.21		
C. Total	359	76.86			

*p < .05

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 13 to determine differences in local school board members' perceptions about the influence of training (dependent variable) on their performance with regard to board members district size (independent variable) as reported in question 19 on the local school board survey. Survey question 13 asked local school board members to indicate the extent to which their participation in training sessions improved their performance as a local school board member. The rating scale choices for survey question 13 were: greatly improved my performance, somewhat improved my performance, had little impact on my performance, and had no impact on my performance. Survey question 19 asked local school board members to indicate student enrollment of their districts. The choices were: fewer than 1,000 students, 1,000 to 4,999 students, 5,000 to 8,999 students, 9,000 to 13,999 students, 14,000 to 18,999 students, 19,000 to 23,999 students, and more than 24,000 students.

The ANOVA found no significance level ($p < .05$) in local school board member's perceptions about the influence of training on their performance with regard to district size (Table 157).

Table 157

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Influence of training on performance by Independent Variable – District size

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
District Size	5	1.11	0.22	1.03	0.39
Error	355	76.28	0.21		
C. Total	360	77.39			

An ANOVA was conducted on survey question 13 to determine differences in local school board members' perceptions about the influence of training (dependent variable) on their performance with regard to whether the board member was elected or appointed (independent variable) as reported in question 23 on the local school board survey. Survey question 13 asked local school board members to indicate the extent to which their participation in training sessions improved their performance as a local school board member. The rating scale choices for survey question 13 were: greatly improved my performance, somewhat improved my performance, had little impact on my performance, and had no impact on my performance. Survey question 23 asked local school board members to indicate whether they were elected or appointed to the school board.

The ANOVA found no significance level ($p < .05$) in local school board member's perceptions about the influence of training on their performance with regard to whether the board member was elected or appointed to the local school board (Table 155).

Table 158

Summary of ANOVA for Dependent Variable - Influence of training on performance by Independent Variable – Elected or appointed

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	p(F)
Elected or Appointed	2	0.10	0.05	0.23	0.79
Error	359	77.36	0.21		
C. Total	361	77.46			

Demographic Information of Local School Board Members

(Reported by Local School Board Members)

Table 159

District Enrollment

Range of Student Enrollment	Number of Districts (N=362)
<1,000	54
1,000 to 4,999	157
5,000 to 8,999	40
9,000 to 13,999	25
14,000 to 18,999	21
19,000 to 23,999	0
> 24,000	65

Table 160

Gender of Local School Board Members

Gender	Number of Local School Board Members (N=361)
Male	185
Female	176

Table 161

Education Level of Local School Board Members

Education Level	Number of Local School board Members N=363
Post-graduate College Degree	96
Graduate College Degree	73
Four-Year College Degree	113
Some College or Other Post-Secondary Education	70
High School Graduate	11
Did Not Graduate High School	0

Table 162

Length of Service on Local School Board

Years of Service	Number of Local School Board Members (N=363)
< 2 years	7
2-4 years	32
4-6 years	53
6-10 years	89
More than 10 years	182

Emergent Themes

Based on the results of the data collection and data analyses, five major themes were identified. First, the state mandates and requirements for local school board training have changed very little over the past few years. Second, local school board members indicated that training improves their performance on the school board. A third theme was that local school board members attend training whether it is mandated or not in their state. In terms of how training is provided, the fourth theme was that local school board members prefer small-group concurrent sessions, school board retreats, and regional meetings as presentation and training formats. Finally, there were no significant differences in local school board members' perceptions about training among states that mandate training with an enforcement provision, states that mandate training with no enforcement provision, and states that do not mandate training.

Summary

The response rate for the survey to the executive director of each state's school boards association of 84 percent provided a broad representation of mandates and requirements for local school board training across the United States. With a response rate of 37 percent from local school board members from 49 states, a representative cross-section of their perceptions about training were documented and reported. Additional discussion of the findings presented in this chapter, including comparison of findings to theory, will be reported in chapter five.

Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to investigate and report states' mandates and requirements for local school board training and to document characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members across the United States. This chapter is divided into six sections: a review of the study, summary of findings (including comparison of findings to theory), conclusions from the study, implications for practice, recommendations for further study, and reflections.

Review of Study

The study consisted of two phases that targeted two sample populations. Phase I included a survey designed for the executive director of each state's school boards association. Phase II of the study included a survey disseminated designed for local school members who served in leadership positions through their state's school boards association. The research questions for the study were:

1. What are the legal requirements regarding training for local school board members in your state?
2. What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e.: training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs)
3. To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that: (a) mandate training with an enforcement provision;

(b) mandate training with no enforcement provision; and (c) do not mandate training?

4. To what extent are there differences in local school board member's perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level; (c) gender; (d) district size; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?

The findings of this study were based on data collected through the use to two surveys to two different population samples. A survey was disseminated to the executive directors of each state's school boards association (Appendix A). A different survey instrument was disseminated to local school board members who served in leadership positions as identified through the state's school boards association website (Appendix B). The survey data from the executive directors was collected through an online survey using the Quintessential Instructional Archive (QUIA) and loaded in Microsoft Excel and SAS-JMP® statistical software SAS-JMP® statistical software for analysis.

The survey data from the local school board members was also collected through online survey using the Quintessential Instructional Archive (QUIA) and loaded in Microsoft Excel and SAS-JMP® statistical software SAS-JMP® statistical software for analysis. Postal mail was used to disseminate the survey to local school board members without an electronic mail address. Data from the surveys returned to the researcher through postal mail was added to the online data collected and entered into Microsoft Excel and loaded into SAS-JMP® for data analysis. Results from both survey instruments were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Phase I – Survey of Executive Directors

Research Question 1: *What are the legal requirements regarding training for local school board members in your state?*

Finding #1. Based on responses from 41 executive directors, 20 states mandate training and 21 states do not mandate training for local school board members. This finding was similar to data reported by the National School Boards Association (2008, 2010). The 2008 report from the National School Boards Association indicated that of 44 states, 20 states reported mandated training for local school board members and 24 states reported that training is not mandated. The 2010 report from the National School Boards Association, with 45 states responding, 25 states reported mandated training and 20 states reported that training is not mandated for local school board members (National School Boards Association, 2008, 2010).

Finding #2. The data indicate variation in requirements among states that do mandate training. Of the 20 states that reported mandated training for local school board members, 15 of those states mandate training for both new and veteran local school board members and five states mandate training for new board members only. These findings are consistent with the 2008 and 2010 reports from the National School Boards Association which found that six states mandated training for new school board members and 14 states required training for new and veteran school board members (National School Boards Association 2008, 2010). The study also found that 16 states require a minimum number of training hours for new and veteran school board members. No states reported fewer than five required training hours or more than 20 training hours. This finding supports the research. Carver (1997), Eadie (2005), and Walser (2009) emphasized training for new board members through a thorough orientation program for incoming board members and continued training for all board members.

Finding #3. Responses from the executive directors indicated that among states that mandate training, nine states have an enforcement provision written in the law and ten states do not have an enforcement provision written in the law. (One state did not respond to the survey question pertaining to an enforcement provision). The findings also indicated that a local school board member who did not comply with mandated training "may" or "could" be removed from office. The study from the National School Boards Association (2010) indicated similar findings with 11 states reporting an enforcement provision and with a wide variation of consequences for local school board members who failed to comply with the training mandate (National School Boards Association, 2010).

Research Question 2: *What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members across the United States? (i.e. training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs)*

Finding #4. **Training Topics.** Executive directors of each state's school boards association identified training topics that had been provided for local school board members. The five training topics that received the highest percentage of respondents (95 percent and above) were: statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board, school finance and budget, ethics and conflict of interest, communication and relationship with the superintendent, and employment and personnel policies.

Finding #5. **Providers of Training.** Executive directors in states that mandate training and states that do not mandate training reported very similar providers. The state association of school boards was identified as a training provider by each of the 41 executive directors that responded to the survey. Other providers of training identified by the executive directors were:

state department of education, universities or colleges, law firms, and state-specific organizations.

Phase II – Survey of Local School Board Members

Research Question 2: *What are the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members in your state? (i.e. training topics, providers of training, presentation format, number of training hours attended, and training needs)*

Finding #1. **Training Topics**. Topics that had been presented during training sessions, as reported by at least 85 percent of local school board members were: (a) statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board, (b) ethics and conflict of interest, (c) law on conducting school board meetings, (d) a three-way tie among school finance and budget, distinction between role of the local school board and role of the superintendent, and leadership and the role of the local school board, and (e) student achievement and accountability issues.

Finding #2. Training Topics. The findings suggest that training topics provided for local school board members are aligned with major roles and responsibilities. Among numerous researchers, Goodman and Zimmerman (2000) and Reimer (2008) emphasized the importance of tying training directly to key responsibilities of the local school board.

Finding #3. **Importance of Training Topics.** Local school board members rated eight topics as "very important" and in need of more emphasis. Fifty (50) percent of the local school board members responding rated eight training topics as "very important" and in need of more emphasis. The eight topics were: (a) student achievement and accountability issues, (b) school finance and budget, (c) leadership and the role of the school board, (d) statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board, (e) distinction between role of the school board and

role of the superintendent, (f) communication between school board and superintendent, (g) strategic planning, and (h) ethics and conflict of interest.

Finding #4. **Providers of Training.** Local school board members (99 percent) listed the state school board association as a provider of training. Law firms (72 percent), district superintendents (25 percent), and universities and colleges (7 percent) were also reported. Among "other providers" selected by 32 percent of local school board members, were the National School Boards Association, consultants and commercial vendors, and district staff.

Finding #5. **Presentation Format.** Local school board members reported experiences with each of the seven presentation formats listed in the survey question. Of the seven presentation formats listed, 93 percent of local school board members identified "state conference large group general sessions", 91 percent identified "state conference small group concurrent sessions; 84 percent identified "regional meetings", and 67 percent identified "retreats" as presentation formats that had been used during training. "Online classes" was identified by only 13 percent of local school board members, which could indicate a lack of exposure to using technology for training purposes.

Finding #6. **Effectiveness of Presentation Formats.** Local school board members indicated a preference for "state conference small group concurrent sessions" as a format for training. Based on responses from the survey, 70 percent of local school board members rated "state conference small group concurrent sessions" as "very effective"; 61 percent "school board retreats", and "regional meetings" with 47 percent. These findings are supported by several researchers who noted that a carefully designed retreat can be effective (Eadie, 2005) and that training should be provided in various modes and through a variety of interactive activities conducive for collegial learning (Butler, 1989).

Finding #7. **Number of Training Hours Attended**. Almost all of the local school board members (99 percent) responding to the survey indicated that they participate in training whether it is mandated or not in their states. Of the 365 local school board members, 361 reported participating in training during their tenure and 4 (1 percent) reported that they had not attended training.

Finding #8. Number of Training Hours Attended. Training hours attended by local school board members within the last 12 months ranged from 0-5 hours (5 percent) to more than 40 hours (31 percent). The number of training hours reported within the last 12 months was influenced by local school board members' length of service on the school board.

Finding #9. **Training Needs.** Local school board members participate in identifying training needs. Of the 359 local school board members responding to the survey question, 84 percent reported that they were involved in the selection of topics of training. The survey did not inquire about the process used to determine needs in the area of training topics. Fifty-eight percent of the local school board members reported that their school board participated in a board performance evaluation program. The findings further showed that 72 percent (of the 58 percent) reported that results of the board performance evaluation are used to identify areas of need for training. There is growing support for school board performance evaluation in the literature (Reimer, 2008; Land, 2002; Glass 2000.)

Research Question #3: *To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training in states that: (a) mandate training with an enforcement provision; (b) mandate training with no enforcement provision; and (c) do not mandate training?*

Finding #10. There were no differences found in local school board members' perception about the level of importance and need for more emphasis of training topics among states that mandate training with an enforcement provision, mandate training with no enforcement provision, and states that do not mandate training. Although findings indicate that 20 states mandate training and 21 states do not mandate training, 99 percent of local school board members from all states indicated that they participate in training whether it is mandated or not. This could account for the finding of no significant difference among the training topics.

Finding #11. Differences were found in local school board members' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of two presentation formats (webinars and online classes) among states that mandate training with an enforcement provision, states that mandate training with no enforcement provision, and states that do not mandate training. Based on the ANOVA, significance was found in two of the seven presentation formats. "Webinars" as a presentation format indicated a significance ($p = .00$). Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD showed a significance level of .00 between the comparison pairs Mandated Not Enforced ($M = 2.76$, $SE = .0$) and Not Mandated ($M = 2.33$, $SE = .09$). "Online Classes" as a presentation format indicated significance of .02 on the ANOVA**.** Post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD showed a significance level of .00 between the comparison pairs Mandated and Enforced ($M = 2.55$, $SE = .15$) and Not Mandated ($M = 2.10$, $SE = .13$).

Further analysis of data for presentation format "Webinars" showed 24 percent of local school board members from states where training is mandated and not enforced (N=50) and12 percent of local school board members from states where training is not mandated (N=33) rated this presentation format as "very effective". The analysis of data also indicated that 48 percent of school board members from states where training is mandated and not enforced and 54

percent of school board members from states where training is not mandated selected “effective” as a rating; 18 percent of school board members from states where training is mandated and not enforced and 30 percent of school board from states where training is not mandated selected “somewhat effective”; and 10 percent of school board members from states where training is mandated and four (4) percent of school board members from states where training is not mandated rated presentation format “Webinars” as “least effective”.

Further analysis of data for presentation format “Online Classes” showed six (6) percent of local school board members from states where training is mandated and not enforced (N=31) and 28 percent of local school board members from states where training is not mandated (N=21) rated this presentation format as “very effective”. The analysis of data also indicated that 48 percent of school board members from states where training is mandated and not enforced and 14 percent of school board members from states where training is not mandated selected “effective” as a rating; 32 percent of school board members from states where training is mandated and not enforced and 47 percent of school board from states where training is not mandated selected “somewhat effective”; and 13 percent of school board members from states where training is mandated and 10 percent of school board members from states where training is not mandated rated presentation format “Online Classes” as “least effective”.

It is important to note that local school board members’ responses to this question could have depended heavily on their experiences and exposure to the presentation formats in the selection list. There is a possibility that some local school board members have not had extensive experiences with presentation formats that are technology-based.

Finding #12. There were no differences found in local school board members’ perceptions about the influence of training on their performance among board members from

states that mandate training with an enforcement provision, mandate training with no enforcement provision, and states that do not mandate training. Descriptive statistics indicated a distribution of all local school board members' responses to survey question 13 as follows: of 364 local school board members responding, 267 (73 percent) indicated that training "greatly improved performance" and 92 (25%) indicated that training "somewhat improved performance". The survey question did not, however, inquire about details on how training improved performance.

Research Question #4: *To what extent are there differences in local school board members' perceptions about training with regard to: (a) length of service on the local school board; (b) education level of board members; (c) gender; (d) district enrollment; and (e) whether the board member was elected or appointed?*

Finding #13. A difference was found in the rating of the level of importance and need for more emphasis of one training topic with regard to board members' length of service. Of the fourteen training topics listed in survey question 5, the ANOVA indicated significance in one training topic: "Ethics and Conflict of Interest" ($p = .01$) among local school board members' length of service variable. The comparison pair using the Tukey HSD were local school board members with more than 10 years of service on the school board ($M = 3.42$, $SE = .05$) and local school board members with 2-4 years of service on the school board ($M = 2.93$, $SE = .14$).

Further analysis of data for training topic "Ethics and Conflict of Interest" showed 55 percent of local school board members with greater than 10 years of service on the board (N=179) and27 percent of local school board members with 2-4 years of service (N=30) rated this training topic as "very important". The analysis of data also indicated that 36 percent of school board members with greater than 10 years of service and 47 percent of school board

members with 2-4 years of service selected “important” as a rating; six percent of school board members with greater than 10 years of service and 13 percent of school board members with 2-4 years of service selected “somewhat important”; and three percent of school board members with greater than 10 years of service and 13 percent of school board members with 2-4 years of service rated training topic “Ethics and Conflict of Interest” as “least important”.

Finding #14. Differences were found in the ratings of the level of importance and need for more emphasis of two training topics with regard to local school board members’ level of education. Of the fourteen training topics listed in survey question 5, the ANOVA indicated significance in two training topics: “Employment and Personnel Policies” ($p = .03$) and “Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board” (p =, 04), among local school board members’ level of education variable. Although significance was shown on the ANOVA, post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD for training topic “Employment and Personnel Policies” did not show significance for any comparison pairs. There were no comparison pairs with a p-value close to the standard of $p < .05$ significance. The Tukey HSD for training topic “Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board”, comparison pairs that showed significance were education levels “Some College” ($M = 3.76$, $SE = .08$) and “Post Graduate Degree” ($M = 3.45$, $SE = .07$).

Further analysis of data for training topic “Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board” showed 81 percent of local school board members in the Some College group (N=68) and 61 percent of local school board members in the Post Graduate Degree group (N=87) rated this training topic as “very important”. The analysis of data also indicated that 13 percent of school board members in the Some College group and 27 percent of school board members in the Post Graduate Degree group selected “important” as a rating; four (4) percent of school board members in the Some College group and eight (8) percent of school board members in the

Post Graduate Degree group selected “somewhat important”; and one (1) percent of school board members in the Some College group and three (3) percent of school board members in the Post Graduate Degree group rated training topic “Leadership and the Role of the Local School Board” as “least important”.

Finding #15. A difference was found in the rating of the level of importance and need for more emphasis of one training topic with regard to the gender of local school board members. Of the fourteen training topics listed in survey question 5, the ANOVA showed significance on one topic: “Law on Conducting School Board Meetings” and the gender variable ($p = .01$).

Further analysis of data for training topic “Law on Conducting School Board Meetings” showed 35 percent of male school board members (N=76) and 36 percent of female school board (N=159) rated this training topic as “very important”. The analysis of data also indicated that 44 percent of male school board members and 48 percent of female selected “important” as a rating; 15 percent of male school board members and 13 percent of female school board members selected “somewhat important”; and five (5) percent of male school board members and two (two) percent of female school board members rated training topic “Law on Conducting School Board Meetings” as “least important”.

Finding #16. Differences were found in the ratings of the level of importance and need for more emphasis of one training topic with regard to local school board members’ district size in two comparison groups. Of the fourteen training topics listed in survey question 5, the ANOVA showed a significance level of .00 in the topic: “Team-Building Strategies”. The Tukey HSD found a significance level of .03 for comparison pairs of district size greater than 24,000 ($M = 3.26$, $SE = .90$) and district size 14,000 – 18,999 ($M = 2.05$, $SE = .17$). A

significance level of .04 was shown on the Tukey HSD for comparison pairs of district size greater than 24,000 (M = 3.26, SE .90) and district size 1,000 – 4,999 (M = 2.92, SE = .06).

Further analysis of comparison pair data for training topic “Team Building Strategies” showed 42 percent of school board members with a district size greater than 24,000 (N=60) and 15 percent of school board members with a district size of 14,000 – 18,999 (N=20) rated this training topic as “very important”. The analysis of data also indicated that 43 percent of school board members with a district size greater than 24,000 and 45 percent of school board members with a district size of 14,000 – 18,999 selected “important” as a rating; 13 percent of school board members with a district size greater than 24,000 and 30 percent of school board members with a district size of 14,000 – 18,999 selected “somewhat important”; and two (2) percent of school board members with a district size greater than 24,00 and 10 percent of school board members with a district size of 14,000 – 18,999 rated training topic ”Team Building Strategies” as “least important”.

Further analysis of data for district size comparison pair greater than 24,000 (N=60) and 1,000 – 4.999 (N=144) for training topic “Team Building Strategies” showed 42 percent of school board members with a district size greater than 24,000 (N=60) and 24 percent of school board members with a district size of 1,000 – 4,999 (N=144) rated this training topic as “very important”. The analysis of data also indicated that 43 percent of school board members with a district size greater than 24,000 and 44 percent of school board members with a district size of 1,000 – 4,999 selected “important” as a rating; 13 percent of school board members with a district size greater than 24,000 and 30 percent of school board members with a district size of 1,000 – 4,999 selected “somewhat important”; and two (2) percent of school board members

with a district size greater than 24,00 and two (2) percent of school board members with a district size of 1,000 – 4,999 rated training topic “Team Building Strategies” as “least important”.

Finding #17. Differences were found in the ratings of the level of importance and need for more emphasis of two training topics with regard to whether the local school board members was elected or appointed to the board. Of the fourteen training topics listed in survey question 5, the ANOVA showed a significance level of .01 in training topic “Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent” with regard to whether the school board member was elected or appointed to the board. The ANOVA also indicated a significance level with training topic “Employment and Personnel Policies” ($p = .03$).

Further analysis of data for training topic “Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent” showed 54% of elected school board members (N=332) and 55 percent of appointed school board members (N=20) rated this training topic as “very important”. The analysis of data also indicated that 35 percent of elected school board members and 30 percent of appointed school board members selected “important” as a rating; eight (8) percent of elected school board members and 15 percent of appointed school board members selected “somewhat important”; and three (3) percent of elected school board members and zero (0) percent of appointed school board members rated training topic “Distinction Between Role of the Local School Board and Role of the Superintendent” as “least important”.

Further analysis of data for training topic “Employment and Personnel Policies” showed 25 percent of elected school board members (N=321) and 18 percent of appointed school board members (N=22) rated this training topic as “very important”. The analysis of data also indicated that 47 percent of elected school board members and 45 percent of appointed school board members selected “important” as a rating; 23 percent of elected school board members and

27 percent of appointed school board members selected “somewhat important”; and five percent of elected school board members and nine (9) percent of appointed school board members rated training topic “Employment and Personnel Policies” as “least important”.

Finding #18. A difference was found in the rating of the level of effectiveness of one presentation format with regard to local school board members’ length of service on the school board. Of the seven presentation formats listed in survey question 12, the ANOVA indicated significance ($p = .03$) in one format: “School Board Retreats” with regard to the board members’ length of service on the board. While significance was shown in the ANOVA, post hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD did not show significance in any of the comparison pairs.

Finding #19. A difference was found in the rating of the level of effectiveness of one presentation format with regard to local school board members’ level of education. Of the seven presentation formats listed in survey question 12, the ANOVA indicated significance ($p = .02$) in one format: “State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions” with regard to the board members’ level of education. The Tukey HSD indicated a significance level of .03 in the comparison of pairs Four Year Degree ($M = 3.69$, $SE = .06$) and Post Graduate Degree ($M = 3.41$, $SE = .07$).

Further analysis of data for this comparison pair showed that for both groups, a greater percentage of school board members rated “State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions” as “very effective” than the other three ratings. Data analysis indicated that 84 percent of school board members with a Four Year Degree (N=108) rated “State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions” as a “very effective” presentation format while 61 percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree (N=89) responded with a rating of “very effective”. Data analysis further showed that 22 percent of school board members with a Four Year Degree and

30 percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree rated the presentation format as “effective” ; zero (0) percent of school board members with a Four Year Degree and five (5) percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree selected the “somewhat effective” rating; and zero (0) percent of school board members with a Four Year Degree and four (4) percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree selected “least effective” for presentation format “State Conference Small Group Concurrent Sessions”.

Finding #20. There were no differences found in the rating of the level of effectiveness of presentation formats with regard to gender of local school board members. The ANOVA showed a significance level of .06 for presentation format “Webinars”. Although this finding did not meet the $p < .05$ standard, it was close enough to mention in this section.

Finding #21. A difference was found in the rating of the level of effectiveness of one presentation format with regard to local school board members’ district size. Of the seven presentation formats listed in survey question 12, the ANOVA indicated a significance level of .01 for the presentation format “Online Classes” with regard to the district size variable. The Tukey HSD indicated a significance level of .02 in the comparison of district size 9,000 – 13,999 (M = 3.03, SE = .24) and district size 5,000 – 8,999 (M = 2.09, SE = 24).

Further analysis of data for this comparison pair indicated that 17 percent of school board members with a district size of 9,000 – 13,999 (N=12) and five (5) percent of school board members with a district size of 5,000 – 8,999 rated “Online Classes” as “very effective”. Data analysis further showed that five (5) percent of school board member with a district size of 9,000 – 13,999 and 33 percent of school board members with a district size of 5,000 – 8,999 selected the “effective” rating; 25 percent of school board members with a district size of 9,000 – 13,999 and 33 percent of school board members with a district size of 5,000 – 8,999 selected “somewhat

effective"; and zero (0) percent of school board members with a district size of 9,000 – 13,999 and 28 percent of school board members with a district size of 5,000 – 8,999 selected "least effective" as a rating for "Online Classes" as a presentation format.

Finding #22. A difference was found in the rating of the level of effectiveness of one presentation format with regard to whether the local school board members were elected or appointed to the school board. Of the seven presentation formats listed in survey question 12, the ANOVA indicated a significance level of .00 for the presentation format "State Conference Large Group General Sessions" with regard to whether the board member was elected or appointed. Further analysis of data indicated that 35 percent of elected school board members (N=329) and 50 percent of appointed school board members (N=20) selected "very effective" for this presentation format. Data analysis further showed that 46 percent of elected school board members and 40 percent of appointed school board members selected "effective"; 15 percent of elected school board members and 10 percent of appointed school board members selected "somewhat effective"; and four (4) percent of elected school board members and zero (0) percent of appointed school board members selected "least effective" as a rating for presentation format "State Conference Large Group General Sessions"

Finding #23. A difference was found in local school board members' perceptions about the influence of training on their performance as board members with regard to length of service on the school board. Survey question number 13 asked school board members to select the extent to which training had improved their performance with the following choices: greatly improved, somewhat improved, had little impact, and had no impact. The ANOVA indicated a significance level of .00 in local school board members' ratings. The Tukey HSD indicated a

significance level of .01 in the length of service comparison pairs greater than 10 years (M = 3.80, SE = .03) and length of service less than 2 years (M = 3.28, SE - .17).

Further analysis of data showed that 80 percent of school boards with greater than 10 years of service (N=177) on the board and 43 percent of board members with less than two years of service (N=7) selected "greatly improved". Data analysis further showed that 20 percent of school board members with greater than 10 years of service and 43 percent of school board members with less than two years of service selected "somewhat improved"; zero (0) percent of school board members with greater than 10 years of service and 14 percent of school board members with less than two years of service selected "had little impact"; and there were no school board members from either group that selected "had no impact".

Finding #24. A difference was found in local school board members' perceptions about the influence of training on their performance as board members with regard to level of education of board members. Survey question number 13 asked school board members to select the extent to which training had improved their performance with the following choices: greatly improved, somewhat improved, had little impact, and had no impact. The ANOVA indicated a significance level of .00 in local school board members' ratings. The Tukey HSD showed a significance level of .00 in the pair comparisons of Some College (M = 3.84, SE = .05) and Post Graduate Degree (M = 3.56, SE - .04). The Tukey HSD also showed a significance level of .00 in the pair comparisons of Four Year Degree (M = 3.79, SE = .04) and Post Graduate Degree (M = 3.56, SE = .04).

Further analysis of data showed 85 percent of local school board members with Some College (N=61) and 61 percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree (N=89) selected "greatly improved". Data analysis also indicated that 15 percent of school board

members with Some College and 38 percent of school board member with a Post Graduate Degree selected “somewhat improved”; zero (0) percent of school board members with Some College and one (1) percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree selected “had little impact”; and there were no school board members from either group that selected “had no impact” on their performance on the board.

Data analysis for the comparison pair, Four Year Degree (N=86) and Post Graduate Degree (N=89) also indicated differences. Eighty percent of school board members with a Four Year Degree and 61 percent of school board members a Post Graduate Degree selected “greatly improved; 20 percent of school board members with a Four Year Degree and 38 percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree selected “somewhat improved”; zero (0) percent of school board members with a Four Year Degree and 19 percent of school board members with a Post Graduate Degree selected “had little impact”; and there were no school board members from either group that selected “had no impact” on their performance on the board.

Finding #25. A difference was found in local school board members’ perceptions about the influence of training on their performance as board members with regard to gender of local school board members. Survey question number 13 asked school board members to select the extent to which training had improved their performance with the following choices: greatly improved, somewhat improved, had little impact, and had no impact. The ANOVA indicated a significance level of .01 in local school board members’ ratings. The mean for males was found to be 3.67 and mean for females was found to be 3.78.

Further analysis of dated showed 73 percent of male school board members (N=182) and 75 percent of female school board members (N-168) selected “greatly improved”. Data analysis

also indicated that 25 percent of males and 23 percent of females selected “somewhat improved”; one (1) percent of males and one (1) percent of females selected “had little impact”; and one (1) percent of males and zero (0) percent of females selected “had no impact”

Finding #26. There were no differences found in local school board members’ perceptions about the influence of training on their performance as board members with regard to local school board members’ district size. The ANOVA indicated no significance in local school board members’ ratings.

Finding #27. There were no differences found in local school board members’ perceptions about the influence of training on their performance as board members with regard to whether the board member was elected or appointed. The ANOVA indicated no significance in local school board members’ ratings. .

Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate and report states’ mandates and requirements for local school board training and to document the characteristics of training activities provided for local school board members across the United States. A critical component of the study was local school board members’ perceptions about training.

Based on the data analysis, there were minimal difference in local school board members’ perceptions about training topics, presentation formats, and the influence of training on board performance among states that mandate training with an enforcement provision, states that mandate training with no enforcement provision, and states that do not mandate training for local school board members. Analysis of data indicated that two independent variables, length of service on the school board and level of education of local school board members, showed differences in local school board members’ perceptions about training topics that need more

emphasis, level of effectiveness level of presentation formats, and the extent to which training has influenced their performance on the school board. Differences in local school board members' perceptions about training with regard to independent variables district size and whether the board member was elected or appointed were noted in training topics that need more emphasis and the level of effectiveness of various presentation formats. As an independent variable, gender was a factor in local school board members' perceptions in one dependent variable – training topics that need more emphasis.

Data collected through the local school board members' survey regarding the characteristics of training indicated a preference for small-group concurrent sessions as a presentation format. Regional meetings and school board retreats were also identified as effective formats for training.

The legal requirements for training of local school board members across the United States appeared to be similar to those reported in previous studies. Based on findings reported by 41 executive directors, 20 states mandate training and 21 states do not mandate training for local school board members. The 2008 report from the National School Boards Association indicated that of 44 states responding, 20 states reported mandated training for local school board members and 24 states reported that training is not mandated. The 2010 report from the National School Boards Association, with 45 states responding, 25 states reported mandated training and 20 states reported that training is not mandated for local school board members (National School Boards Association, 2008, 2010).

Conclusions from Study

The researcher expected to find more differences in local school board member's perceptions about training among states that mandate training with an enforcement provision,

mandate training without an enforcement provision, and states that do not mandate training. The lack of differences could be attributed to the finding that 99 percent of local school board members participate in training whether it is mandated or not in their state.

Data collected about how training is implemented indicated that local school board members prefer small group concurrent sessions at state conferences, school board retreats, and regional meetings. Research in the area of local school board training and professional development indicate that training is often most effective when participants have the opportunity to interact with the presenter and each other. Perhaps small group concurrent sessions at state conferences and regional meetings provide opportunities for more interaction. Research has also supported the importance of tailoring training and professional development to the needs of the participants. School board retreats that are carefully planned and implemented would provide the opportunity for focused training, especially in the areas of team-building and specific district concerns that are often difficult to address in state-level and regional training sessions and conferences.

The researcher did not expect to find such a large number of local school board members reporting that their boards participate in a school board performance evaluation program. Data analysis indicated that 58 percent of the local school board members served on school boards that participate in board evaluation programs. The findings further showed that 72 percent (of the 58 percent) reported that results of the board performance evaluation are used to identify areas of need for training.

Implications for Practice

Based on the findings of this study, there is a need to focus on the quality of training and how training for local school board members is delivered. Implications for practice include:

(1) Training sessions that are presented in small groups appear to be preferable at state-level conferences.

(2) The frequency of school board retreats and regional meetings could be examined to ensure that local school board members have the opportunity to focus on training needs and issues unique to their districts.

(3) Presentation formats such as webinars and online classes could also be considered as ways to provide training that could be a more efficient use of time and possibly more cost-effective.

(4) Providers of training for local school boards such as state school boards associations, universities and colleges, law firms, district level administrators and officials, and state departments of education should develop annual training programs for local school board members that are directly tailored to the needs of the school boards and that reflect research-based components of training and professional development.

Findings from the study appear to suggest that local school board members participated in training whether it was mandated in their states or not. The findings also seem to imply that more emphasis and attention could be placed on the quality of the training provided for local school board members.

Recommendations for Further Study

The comprehensive design of this study showed fewer findings than was expected by the researcher. Further research is recommended in the following areas:

(1) A broader study that would include all local school board members across the county. This study targeted a select group of local school board members who were identified

through a delimited population process. The target population of local school board members was limited to those who held leadership positions as identified through their respective state's school boards association web site.

(2) Further research to investigate how training influences a school board member's performance could be conducted through a qualitative research method, such as focus groups and interviews.

(3) Another area that could be considered for further research is the level of participation in training. Is there a difference in the level of participation in training from local school board members from paid versus unpaid boards? Research literature indicates that many local school board members receive no pay for their service.

Reflections

My interest in conducting this study was generated by my interest in the political and policy aspects of public education. I have served in various central office administration positions in several school divisions in Virginia as well as an administrator and specialist at the state education department. Local school boards have a tremendous responsibility for a large number of students and teachers and are charged with making critical decisions. Many of the decisions that school boards have to make require a high level of understanding about numerous topics that are often outside of the area of expertise of board members' background experiences. Throughout my career in public education, especially at the administrative level, I have been and continue to be extremely interested in how local school boards function, how decisions are made, and what types of preparation board members receive to effectively meet the challenges of a local school board.

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Appendix A

Survey Instrument For Executive Directors

www.quia.com

Name _____ **Date** _____

Executive Directors of State School Boards Association

This survey is designed to collect information for a dissertation study on training for local school members in each state.

1. Please check the name of your state.
   - Alabama
   - Alaska
   - Arizona
   - Arkansas
   - California
   - Colorado
   - Connecticut
   - Delaware
   - Florida
   - Georgia
   - Hawaii
   - Idaho
   - Illinois
   - Indiana
   - Iowa
   - Kansas
   - Kentucky
   - Louisiana
   - Maine
   - Maryland

- ○ Massachusetts
- ○ Michigan
- ○ Minnesota
- ○ Mississippi
- ○ Missouri
- ○ Montana
- ○ Nebraska
- ○ Nevada
- ○ New Hampshire
- ○ New Jersey
- ○ New Mexico
- ○ New York
- ○ North Carolina
- ○ North Dakota
- ○ Ohio
- ○ Oklahoma
- ○ Oregon
- ○ Pennsylvania
- ○ Rhode Island
- ○ South Carolina
- ○ South Dakota
- ○ Tennessee
- ○ Texas
- ○ Utah
- ○ Vermont
- ○ Virginia
- ○ Washington
- ○ West Virginia
- ○ Wisconsin
- ○ Wyoming

2. Is training for local school board members required by law in your state?
   - ○ Yes (If yes, answer questions 3-10, 13, and 14.)
   - ○ No (If no, answer questions 11-14.)
3. If local school board members are required by state law to participate in training, does the law apply to new and/or veteran local school board members?
   - ○ Law applies to both new and veteran local school board members.
   - ○ Law applies to new local school board members only.
   - ○ Law applies to veteran school board members only.
4. If local school board members are required by law to participate in training in your state, is there an enforcement provision included in the law?
   - ○ Yes
   - ○ No
5. If you answered "yes" to question number 4, briefly describe the enforcement provision in the space provided below. What happens to local school board members who do not comply with the law on required training?

6. If local school board members are required by state law to participate in training, please indicate whether there is a minimum number of training hours included in the law. Check all that apply.
   - ☐ Yes. My state requires a minimum number of training hours for new local school board members.
   - ☐ Yes. My state requires a minimum number of training hours for veteran local school board members.
   - ☐ No. My state does not require a minimum number of training hours for new local school board members.
   - ☐ No. My state does not require a minimum number of training hours for veteran local school board members.
7. If you answered "yes" to question number 6 for NEW local school board members, please indicate the range of the number of required training hours for NEW local school board members.
   - ○ 1-5 required hours of training for new local school board members
   - ○ 6-10 required hours for new local school board members
   - ○ 11-20 required hours for new local school board members
   - ○ More than 20 required hours for new local school board members
8. If you answered "yes" to question number 6 for VETERAN board members, please indicate the range of the number of required training hours for VETERAN local school board members.

- ○ 1-5 required hours of training for veteran local school board members
- ○ 6-10 required hours for veteran local school board members
- ○ 11-20 required hours for veteran local school board members
- ○ More than 20 required hours for veteran local school board members

9. If training for local school board members is required in your state, who provides the training? Check all that apply.
   - ☐ State Association of School Boards
   - ☐ State Department of Education
   - ☐ Universities or Colleges
   - ☐ Law Firms
   - ☐ Other Providers
10. If you checked "Other Providers" in question number 9, please list those providers in the space provided below.

11. If training for local school board members IS NOT REQUIRED IN YOUR STATE but you are aware of training opportunities, please list the providers of the training.
    - ☐ State Association of School Boards
    - ☐ State Department of Education
    - ☐ Universities or Colleges
    - ☐ Law Firms
    - ☐ Other Providers
12. If training for local school board members IS NOT REQUIRED IN YOUR STATE and you checked "Other Providers" in question number 11, please list the other providers in the space provided below.

13. Topics and Areas of Training: If local school board members in your state participate in training (whether it is required by law or not), please check the topics or areas of training that have been provided.
    - ☐ Statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board
    - ☐ School finance and budget
    - ☐ Evaluation of superintendent
    - ☐ Laws on conducting local school board meetings
    - ☐ Ethics and conflict of interest

- ☐ Communication and relationship with superintendent
- ☐ Communication with school district staff
- ☐ Student achievement and accountability issues
- ☐ Strategic planning
- ☐ Team-building activities
- ☐ Decision-making strategies
- ☐ Student and staff safety
- ☐ Employment and personnel policies
- ☐ Leadership and the role of the local school board
- ☐ Delineation between role of the local school board and role of the superintendent
- ☐ Other topics or areas of training

14. If you checked "Other topics or areas of training" in question number 13, please list the other topics or areas of training in the space provided below.

Appendix B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR LOCAL SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

www.quia.com

Name _____ **Date** _____

Survey for Local School Board Members

This purpose of this survey is to collect information about training for local school board members across the United States. Local school board members who serve in leadership positions through their state's school boards association are the target population for this survey.

1. What is the name of your state?
   - ○ Alabama
   - ○ Alaska
   - ○ Arizona
   - ○ Arkansas
   - ○ California
   - ○ Colorado
   - ○ Connecticut
   - ○ Delaware
   - ○ Florida
   - ○ Georgia
   - ○ Hawaii
   - ○ Idaho
   - ○ Illinois
   - ○ Indiana
   - ○ Iowa
   - ○ Kansas
   - ○ Kentucky
   - ○ Louisiana
   - ○ Maine

- ○ Maryland
- ○ Massachusetts
- ○ Michigan
- ○ Minnesota
- ○ Mississippi
- ○ Missouri
- ○ Montana
- ○ Nebraska
- ○ Nevada
- ○ New Hampshire
- ○ New Jersey
- ○ New Mexico
- ○ New York
- ○ North Carolina
- ○ North Dakota
- ○ Ohio
- ○ Oklahoma
- ○ Oregon
- ○ Pennsylvania
- ○ Rhode Island
- ○ South Carolina
- ○ South Dakota
- ○ Tennessee
- ○ Texas
- ○ Utah
- ○ Vermont
- ○ Virginia
- ○ Washington
- ○ West Virginia
- ○ Wisconsin

- ○ Wyoming

2. Have you attended training sessions for new and/or veteran local school board members during your tenure?
   - ○ Yes
   - ○ No
3. If you participated in training (whether it is required by law or not in your state) please check the topics or areas of training that have been presented during your attendance.
   - ☐ Statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board
   - ☐ School finance and budget
   - ☐ Evaluation of superintendent
   - ☐ Law on conducting school board meetings
   - ☐ Ethics and conflict of interest
   - ☐ Communication between local school board and superintendent
   - ☐ Communication between local school board and district staff
   - ☐ Student achievement and accountability issues
   - ☐ Distinction between role of the local school board and role of the superintendent
   - ☐ Strategic planning
   - ☐ Team-building strategies
   - ☐ Employment and personnel policies
   - ☐ Decision-making strategies
   - ☐ Leadership and the role of the local school board
   - ☐ Other topics
4. If you checked "Other topics" in question number 3, please list the other topics or areas of training that have been presented during your attendance in the space provided below.

5. Considering level of importance, which training topics do you feel need more emphasis in future training sessions for local school board members?
   1=Very Important; 2= Important; 3=Somewhat Important; 4=Least Important

	1	2	3	4
Statutory duties and responsibilities of the local school board	○	○	○	○
School finance and budget	○	○	○	○
Evaluation of superintendent	○	○	○	○

Law on conducting school board meetings	○	○	○	○
Ethics and conflict of interest	○	○	○	○
Communication between local school board and superintendent	○	○	○	○
Communication between local school board and district staff	○	○	○	○
Student achievement and accountability issues	○	○	○	○
Distinction between role of the local school board and role of the superintendent	○	○	○	○
Strategic planning	○	○	○	○
Team-building strategies	○	○	○	○
Employment and personnel policies	○	○	○	○
Decision-making process	○	○	○	○
Leadership and the role of the local school board	○	○	○	○

6. Are there other training topics that you think need more emphasis in future training sessions for local school board members? If yes, please list those topics in the space provided below.

7. Approximately how many hours of training did you attend in the last 12 months?
   - ○ 0-5 hours
   - ○ 6-10 hours
   - ○ 11-20 hours
   - ○ 21-30 hours
   - ○ 31-40 hours
   - ○ More than 40 hours
8. Who has provided the training sessions that you have attended during your tenure as a local school board member?
   - ☐ State Association of School boards
   - ☐ State Department of Education
   - ☐ Universities or Colleges
   - ☐ Law Firms
   - ☐ Superintendent
   - ☐ Other Providers
9. If you checked "Other Providers" in question #8, please list the other training providers

in the space provided below.

10. Based on your participation in training for local school board members, which presentation formats have been used in the sessions that you have attended? Please check all that apply.
    - ☐ State conference large group general sessions
    - ☐ State conference small group concurrent sessions
    - ☐ School board retreats
    - ☐ Webinars
    - ☐ National conferences
    - ☐ Online classes
    - ☐ Regional meetings
    - ☐ Other presentation formats
11. If you checked "Other presentation formats" in question #10, please list the other formats that have been used in sessions that you have attended in the space provided below.

12. Based on your participation in training activities, how would rate the level of effectiveness of the presentation formats listed in question #10?
    1=Very Effective; 2=Effective; 3=Somewhat Effective; 4=Least effective

	1	2	3	4
State conference large general sessions	○	○	○	○
State conference small group concurrent sessions	○	○	○	○
School board retreats	○	○	○	○
Webinars	○	○	○	○
National conferences	○	○	○	○
Online classes	○	○	○	○
Regional meetings	○	○	○	○

13. Have the training sessions improved your performance as a local school board member? Please read each statement below and check the one response that best completes the sentence.

    "The training that I have attended has...
    - ○ greatly improved my performance as a local school board member.

- ○ somewhat improved my performance as a local school board member.
- ○ had little impact on my performance as a local school board member.
- ○ had no impact on my performance as a local school board member.

14. Are the topics provided for training selected based on suggestions from local school board members?
    - ○ Yes
    - ○ No
15. Does your local school board participate in a board performance evaluation program?
    - ○ Yes
    - ○ No
16. If your school board participates in a board performance evaluation program, how is the evaluation conducted? Please check all that apply.
    - ☐ Self-evaluation (Board members evaluate their own performance)
    - ☐ Board evaluation conducted by an external group or agency
    - ☐ Board evaluation by an internal group (such as district administrators)
17. If your school board participates in a performance evaluation program, are the results of the evaluation used to identify areas of need for board member(s) training?
    - ○ Yes
    - ○ No
18. If your school board does NOT participate in a performance evaluation program, do you think that a board evaluation program would be beneficial?
    - ○ Yes
    - ○ No
19. What is the student enrollment of your school district?
    - ○ Fewer than 1,000 students
    - ○ 1,000 to 4,999 students
    - ○ 5,000 to 8,999 students
    - ○ 9,000 to 13,999 students
    - ○ 14,000 to 18,999 students
    - ○ 19,000 to 23,999 students
    - ○ More than 24,000 students
20. What is your gender?
    - ○ Male

- ○ Female

21. What is your highest level of education:
    - ○ Post-graduate college degree
    - ○ Graduate college degree
    - ○ Four year college degree
    - ○ Some college or other post-secondary education
    - ○ High school graduate
    - ○ Did not graduate high school
22. How many years have you served as a local school board member?
    - ○ Less than 2 years
    - ○ 2-4 years
    - ○ 4-6 years
    - ○ 6-10 years
    - ○ More than 10 years
23. How were you chosen to serve as a local school board members?
    - ○ Elected
    - ○ Appointed

Appendix C

Electronic Mail Announcement of Upcoming Survey – Executive Directors

Subject: Upcoming Survey

Dear Executive Director:

My name is Dianne Pollard and I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The focus of my dissertation topic is training for local school board members across the United States.

You will receive a brief survey that is designed to collect information from the executive director of the school board association of each state. The survey will be sent to you electronically within the next seven days with instructions for completing it online.

Thank you in advance for your participation. Your leadership and expertise are vital to this important research.

Appendix D

Electronic Mail Message and Post Card Message – Local School Board Members

Electronic Mail Message

Subject: Upcoming Survey

My name is Dianne Pollard and I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The focus of my dissertation topic is training for local school board members across the United States.

You will receive a survey that is designed to collect information from local school board members who serve in leadership positions through the state's school board association. Your name was obtained from the school boards association website in your state.

The survey will be sent to you electronically within the next seven days with instructions for completing it online. Thank you in advance for your participation. Your leadership and expertise are vital to this important research.

Sincerely,
Dianne B. Pollard
Doctoral Candidate, Virginia Tech
(804) 543-3919

Postcard Message

Subject: Upcoming Survey

My name is Dianne Pollard and I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The focus of my dissertation topic is training for local school board members across the United States.

You will receive a survey that is designed to collect information from local school board members who serve in leadership positions through the state's school board association. Your name was obtained from the school boards association website in your state.

I was unable to find an email address for you on the school boards association website or your school district website. The survey and a cover letter will be sent to you by postal mail in the next few days.

Thank you in advance for your participation. Your leadership and expertise are vital to this important research.

Appendix E
Cover Letter for Executive Directors

Dear Executive Director:

My name is Dianne Pollard and I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. In addition, I am currently serving as the Director of Secondary Education for Isle of Wight County Public Schools in Smithfield, Virginia.

I am conducting a national study on training programs and activities for local school board members. This study consists of two phases: (1) a survey to be completed by the executive director of each state's school boards association; and (2) a survey to be completed by local school board members.

My purpose for writing you is to seek your participation in the first phase of my study: a survey for executive directors of each state's school boards association. The results of the study will provide information of interest to state school boards associations, policymakers, local school board members, practicing and aspiring superintendents, and providers of training. The survey results will be tracked and compiled by state for the purpose of analyzing the data and reporting results in the dissertation.

For your convenience, you may complete the survey online at http://www.quia.com/sv/529354.html . The survey consists of fourteen (14) questions and should take you about 10 minutes to complete.

The success of this study depends on your timely participation. Therefore, I would like to thank you in advance for your participation and submission of the completed survey by Monday, June 6, 2011.If you would like a copy of the results of the survey, please feel free to contact me at dpollard0516@gmail.com or by telephone at (804) 543-3919.

Thanks again for taking time out of your busy schedules to assist with this important research.

Sincerely,
Dianne B. Pollard
7323 Longview Drive
Quinton, Virginia 23141

Appendix F
Cover Letter – Local School Board Members – Postal Mail

Dear Board Member:

My name is Dianne Pollard and I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. In addition, I am currently serving as the Director of Secondary Education for Isle of Wight County Public Schools in Smithfield, Virginia. This letter is a follow up to the post card that was mailed to you in October.

I am conducting a national study on training programs and activities for local school board members across the United States. This study consists of two phases: (1) a survey to be completed by the executive director of each state's school boards association; and (2) a survey to be completed by local school board members.

My purpose for writing you is to seek your participation in the second phase of my research study by completing a survey that requests your viewpoint about training activities and programs for local school board members. The survey is designed to collect information from local school board members who serve in leadership positions through the state's school boards association. Your name was obtained from the school boards association website in your state.

Your responses to the survey questions will be kept strictly confidential. As such, no individual responses will be identified when analyzing the data or during the reporting of results. The survey results will be tracked and compiled by state for the purpose of analyzing and reporting the data in the dissertation. The results of this important study will provide information of interest to state school boards associations, policymakers, local school board members, practicing and aspiring superintendents, and providers of training.

For your convenience, you may complete the survey online at
http://www.quia.com/sv/529819.html .
You may also complete the enclosed hard copy of the survey and return it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. The survey consists of twenty-three (23) questions and should take you about 15 minutes to complete.

The success of this study depends on your timely participation. Therefore, I would like to thank you in advance for your participation and submission of the completed survey by December 15, 2011. If you have any questions about the survey, please feel free to contact me at dpollard0516@gmail.com or by telephone at (804) 543-3919.

Thanks again for taking the time out of your busy schedule to assist with this important research.

Sincerely,

Dianne B. Pollard

Appendix G
Cover Letter for Local School Board Members – Electronic Mail

Dear Board Member:

My name is Dianne Pollard and I am currently a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. In addition, I am currently serving as the Director of Secondary Education for Isle of Wight County Public Schools in Smithfield, Virginia.

The focus of my dissertation topic is training for local school board members across the United States. My purpose for writing you is to seek your participation in my dissertation research study by completing a survey that requests your viewpoint about training activities and programs for local school board members. The survey is designed to collect information from local school board members who serve in leadership positions through the state's school board association. Your name was obtained from the school boards association website in your state.

Each survey has been coded for tracking purposes only, and the coding will be destroyed once the research process is completed and/or the survey responses are received. Your responses to the survey questions will be kept strictly confidential. As such, no individual responses will be identified when analyzing the data or during the reporting of results.

The results of this important study will provide information of interest to state school boards associations, policymakers, local school board members, practicing and aspiring superintendents, and providers of training.

For your convenience, you may complete the survey online at (website address) by (date). The success of this study depends on your timely participation. Therefore, I would like to thank you in advance for your participation.

If you have any questions or comments concerning the survey or the research, please do not hesitate to call me at (804) 543-3919 or email to dpollard0516@gmail.com.

Thanks again for taking time out of your busy schedule to assist me in this research study.

Sincerely,
Dianne B. Pollard
Doctoral Candidate

Appendix H
Letter of Participation – Survey Validation – Executive Directors

Name and Address

Dear _____:

My name is Dianne B. Pollard and I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. In addition, I am currently serving as the Director of Secondary Education for Isle of Wight County Public Schools in Smithfield, Virginia.

As part of the requirements for my dissertation, I will be conducting a national study on training programs and activities for local school boards. This study consists of two phases: (1) a survey to be completed by the executive director of each state's school boards association; and (2) a survey to be completed by local school board members.

My purpose for writing you is to seek your participation in the first phase of my study, which includes in a pilot test of the survey that will be sent to the executive director of each state's school boards association. The purpose of the validation process is to determine the reliability and validity of the survey instrument. Your responses to the enclosed survey will not be used in the study but will serve a valuable purpose in validating the instrument.

Please complete the enclosed survey and return to me in the enclosed, self-addressed envelope no later than Friday, March 25, 2010. If it is more convenient, you may scan the survey after its completion and send to my email address at dpollard0516@gmail.com.

Thank you for assisting with the validation of my survey instrument. Please feel free to contact me at (804) 543-3919 or through email at the address above.

.

Sincerely,
Dianne B. Pollard
Doctoral Candidate

Encl: Survey

Appendix I
Letter Of Participation – Survey Validation – Local School Board Members

Address

Dear _____:

My name is Dianne Pollard and I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. In addition, I am currently serving as the Director of Secondary Education for Isle of Wight County Public Schools in Smithfield, Virginia.

As part of the requirements for my dissertation, I will be conducting a national study on training programs and activities for local school boards. This study consists of two phases: (1) a survey to be completed by the executive director of each state's school boards association; and (2) a survey to be completed by local school board members.

My purpose for writing you is to seek your participation in the second phase of my study, which includes a pilot test of the survey that will be sent to selected local school board members in each state. The purpose of the validation process is to determine the reliability and validity of the survey instrument. Your responses to the enclosed survey will not be used in the study. However, as a former school board member, your input will serve a valuable purpose in validating the survey instrument.

Please complete the enclosed survey and return to me in the enclosed, self-addressed envelope no later than Monday, April 11, 2011. If it is more convenient, you may scan the survey after its completion and send to my email address at dpollard0516@gmail.com.

Thank you for assisting with the validation of my survey instrument. Please feel free to contact me at (804) 543-3919 or through email at the address above.

.

Sincerely,

Dianne B. Pollard
Doctoral Candidate, Virginia Tech

Encl: Survey

Appendix J
Summary of Survey Validation – Executive Directors

Survey Validation Participants:

1 Retired Division Superintendent
1 High School Principal
1 Retired Assistant Superintendent for Administration
2 Administrative Interns
3 Central Office Administrators

KEY

Research Questions

1 = What are the requirements for training of local school board members in each state?
2 = What are the topics or areas of training provided for local school board members in each state?
3 = Who provides the training for local school board members in each state?

Association Between Survey Items and Research Questions

1 = Very weakly associated with research question
2 = Weakly associated with research question
3 = Associated with research question
4 = Strongly associated with research question
5 = Very strongly associated with research question

Clarity of Survey Items

1 = Very difficult to understand
2 = Difficult to understand
3 = Somewhat easy to understand
4 = Easy to understand
5 = Very easy to understand

	Percent of Participants Responding to Key		
	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	**ASSOCIATION**	**CLARITY**
1. Is training for local school board members required by state law?	100% - Question 1	87.5% - 5 12.5% - 4	75% - 5 25% - 4
2. If local school board members are required by state law to participate in training, does the law apply to new and veteran local school board members?	100% - Question 1	75% - 5 25% - 4	75% - 5 25% - 4
3. If local school board members are required by state law to participate in training, is there an enforcement provision written in the law?	100% - Question 1	50% - 5 50% - 4	75% - 5 25% - 4
4. If local school board members are required by state law to participate in training, please indicate whether there is a minimum number of training hours included in the law.	100% - Question 1	75% - 5 25% - 4	87.5% - 5 12.5% - 4
5. If training for local school board members is required in your state, who provides the training? Check all that apply.	100% - Question 3	100% - 5	100% - 5
6a.. If training for local school board members is not required in your state, does the state association of school boards provide training opportunities? 6b. If you are aware of training opportunities provided in your state, please list the training providers	87.5% - Question 3 12.5% - Question 2	62.5% - 4 37.5% - 5	75% - 5 25% - 4
7. Areas of Training: If local school board members in your participate in training (whether it is required by law or not), please check the topics or areas of training that you know have been provided.	100% - Question 2	100% - 5	87.5% - 5 12.5% - 3

Appendix K

Summary of Survey Validation – Local School Board Members

Survey Validation Participants:

3 Local School Board Members
1 Principal
1 Central Office Administrator

KEY

Research Questions

1 = What are the training needs of local school board members?
2= What presentation formats have been used to provide training for local school board members?
3= Which topics or areas of training have been included in sessions that you have attended?
4 = Who provides the training for local school board members.

Association Between Survey Items and Research Questions	**Clarity of Survey Items**
1 = Very weakly associated with research question	1 = Very difficult to understand
2 = Weakly associated with research question	2 = Difficult to understand
3 = Associated with research question	3 = Somewhat easy to understand
4 = Strongly associated with research question	4 = Easy to understand
5 = Very strongly associated with research question	5 = Very easy to understand

	Percent of Participants Responding to Key		
	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	**ASSOCIATION**	**CLARITY**
1. Have you attended training sessions for new and/or veteran local school board members during your tenure? _____YES (If yes, complete the entire survey.) _____NO (*If no, skip to number 13 and complete the demographic information)*	4.4,1,4,,4 Question 4 = 80%	3,1,3,5,4 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 80%	4,1,3,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%
2. If you have participated in training (whether it is required by law or not in your state), please check the topics or areas of training that have been presented during your attendance _____Statutory duties and responsibilities of local school board _____School finance and budget _____Evaluation of superintendent _____Law on conducting school board meetings _____Ethics and conflict of interest _____(Communication with superintendent, staff, community _____Student achievement issues _____Distinction between role of local school board and role of superintendent _____(Strategic planning _____Team-building _____ Decision-making _____Special education _____Student and staff safety _____Employment and personnel _____Leadership and the role of the local school board _____OtherTopics_____ ____	3,3,3,3,3 Question 3 = 100%	5,5,4,5,4 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 100%	5,5,5,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 100%

	Percent of Participants Responding to Key		
	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	**ASSOCIATION**	**CLARITY**
3. Rank the top five (5) topics, with 5 being highest in importance, that you feel need more emphasis in future training sessions. _____Statutory duties and responsibilities of local school board _____School finance and budget _____Evaluation of superintendent _____Law on conducting school board meetings _____Ethics and conflict of interest _____(Communication with superintendent, staff, community _____Student achievement issues _____Distinction between role of local school board and role of superintendent _____(Strategic planning _____Team-building _____ Decision-making _____Special education _____Student and staff safety _____Employment and personnel _____Leadership and the role of the local school board _____Other Topics_____	3,1,3, 1,3 Question 3 = 80%	5,4,5,5,5 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 100%	5,5,5,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 100%

	Percent of Participants Responding to Key		
	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	**ASSOCIATION**	**CLARITY**
4. Approximately how many hours of training sessions did you attend in the last 12 months? _____0-5 _____6-10 _____11-20 _____21-30 _____31-40 _____More than 41 hours	3,1,1,1,2 Question 1 = 80%	4,1,4,5,4 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 80%	5,1,4,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%
5. Who has provided the training session(s) that you have attended during your tenure? Check all that apply. _____State Association of School Boards _____State Department of Education _____Universities/Colleges _____Law Firms _____Superintendent _____Other Providers:_____	4,4,4, 4,4 Question 4 = 100%	5,5,5,5,4 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 100%	5,5,5,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 100%
6. Based on your participation in training, what presentation format(s) were used in sessions that you have attended? Please check all that apply. _____(a) Statewide conferences – large group general sessions with general topics _____(b) Statewide conferences – concurrent small group sessions _____(c) School Board Retreats _____(d) Webinars _____(e) Online classes _____(f) National conferences _____(g) Regional meetings _____(h) Other:_____	2,2,2,2,2 Question 2 = 100%	5,5,5,5,5 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 100%	5,5,5,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 100%

	Percent of Participants Responding to Key		
	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	**ASSOCIATION**	**CLARITY**
7. Which presentation format(s) that you checked in survey item number 6 above did you find most effective? Please write the letter of the survey item in number 6 that corresponds to your answer. _____Most Effective _____Very effective _____Effective _____Least effective	3,2,2,2,2 Question 2 = 80%	4,1,5,4,3 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 80%	5,5,5,5,4 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 100%
8. Has the training session that you have attended improved your performance as a school board member? Please read the statement below and check the one response that best completes the sentence. The training sessions that I have attended have _____greatly improved my performance as a local school board member. _____somewhat improved my performance as a local school board member. _____had little impact on my performance as a local school board member. _____had no impact on my performance as a local school board member	1,1,1,1,1 Question 1 = 100%	3,1,4,3,4 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 80%	4,1,5,5,4 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%
9. Are the topics provided during trainings sessions selected based on suggestions from local school board members? _____YES _____NO	1,1,1,1,1 Question 1 = 100%	4,3,4,4,4 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 100%	4,2,5,5,4 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%

	Percent of Participants Responding to Key		
	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	**ASSOCIATION**	**CLARITY**
10. Are conferences, meetings, and other training activities announced in a timely fashion? _____YES _____NO	4,1,4,2,4 Question 4 = 60% Question 2 = 20% Question 1 = 20%	1,1,4,2,4 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 40%	4,1,4,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%
11. Have the location(s) for training sessions been convenient for you? _____YES _____NO	2,2,4,1,2 Question 2 = 60% Question 4 = 20% Question 1 = 20%	2,1,4,2,3 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 20%	4,1,5,5 ,4 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%
12. Have the times for training sessions been convenient for you? _____YES _____NO	4,2,4,1,2 Question 4 = 40% Question 2 = 40% Question 1 = 20%	3,1,4,2,3 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 60%	4,1,5,5,4 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%
13a. Does your local school board participate in a performance evaluation program? _____YES _____NO 13b. If your board participates in a performance evaluation, how is the evaluation conducted? Please check your answer(s). _____Self-evaluation (Board members evaluate and assess their own performance) _____Evaluation by an external group or agency _____Evaluation by an internal group (such as administrators) 13c. If your board participates in a performance evaluation program, are the results of the evaluation used to identify areas where a board member(s) may need training? _____YES _____NO 13d. If your board does not participate in a performance evaluation program, do you think this is a good idea to implement? _____YES _____NO	1,3,1,1,1 Question 1 = 80%	3,1,5,3,3 Associated to Very Strongly Associated (3-5) = 80%	5,1,5,5,5 Somewhat Easy to Very Easy to Understand (3-5) = 80%

Appendix L
Institutional Review Board Approval Letter

VirginiaTech

Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
2000 Kraft Drive, Suite 2000 (0497)
Blacksburg, Virginia 24060
540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959
e-mail irb@vt.edu
Website: www.irb.vt.edu

MEMORANDUM

DATE: March 4, 2011

TO: Travis W. Twiford, Dianne Pollard

FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires October 26, 2013)

PROTOCOL TITLE: Survey of School Board Members

IRB NUMBER: 11-229

Effective March 3, 2011, the Virginia Tech IRB PAM, Andrea Nash, approved the new protocol for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm (please review before the commencement of your research).

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:
Approved as: **Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.101(b) category(ies) 2**
Protocol Approval Date: **3/3/2011**
Protocol Expiration Date: **NA**
Continuing Review Due Date*: **NA**
*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:
Per federally regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals / work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

Appendix M

Institutional Review Board Training Certificate

VIRGINIATECHVIRGINIATECHVIRGINIATECHVIRGINIATECH

Certificate of Completion

This certifies that

Dianne Pollard

Has completed

Training in Human Subjects Protection

On the following topics:

Historical Basis for Regulating Human Subjects Research

The Belmont Report

Federal and Virginia Tech Regulatory Entities, Policies and Procedures

on

June 3, 2009

David Moore, IRB Chair

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