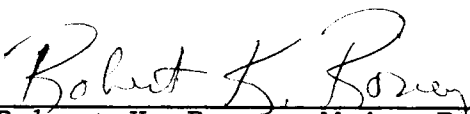
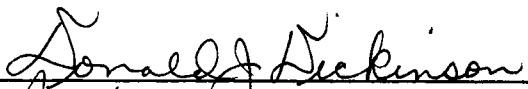
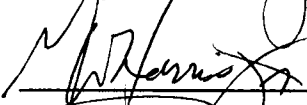
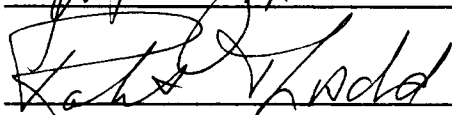


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by William Joseph Dycus entitled "The Impact of Local School Board Actions on School Achievement in Selected Tennessee Elementary School Districts: Implications for Educational Planners." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision.


Robert K. Roney, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:


Vice Provost
and Dean of The Graduate School

THE IMPACT OF LOCAL SCHOOL BOARD ACTIONS ON ACHIEVEMENT
IN SELECTED TENNESSEE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
DISTRICTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR
EDUCATIONAL PLANNERS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Education
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

William Joseph Dycus

December 1986

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DEDICATION

My family, Sarah, Norma, and Daniel contributed the most to this study. They allowed me to continue it virtually uninterrupted for over one year of their lives.

My parents provided the excellent basic education and sense of security needed to complete this task. My good teachers expanded on these experiences through formal instruction.

Carl and Thelma Boynton and Joe Sherlin have served as my mentors through the process of learning about the realities of Tennessee's local school boards, politics, and schools. They represent the best and have instilled in me the need to achieve represented by this study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The assistance of Dan Tollett and Don McAlister of the Tennessee School Board Association and the local district superintendents and school board members from whom the data were collected made this study possible. Andy Holt provided the researcher with a knowledge of the history of school boards which would have been impossible without his work. Edell Hearn's dissertation was also very helpful in referencing historical documents.

The individuals under whose direction this study was conducted each provided unique insights which enlightened the researcher's path. Professor Roney and Professor Ladd provided assistance which was especially helpful.

ABSTRACT

The steady erosion of local school board control over local school systems coupled with the sparsity of research on the role of the school board in developing effective school systems has created an urgent need for answers to basic questions. School board members need to know what actions they can take to improve the effectiveness of their districts. In addressing the role of the state in school reform, state officials need to know if there are any actions of local school boards associated with system effectiveness?

After adjusting the spring 1984 Stanford Achievement Test scores of 97 Tennessee school systems for the effect of home socioeconomic status, as reflected in the percentage of students in each system participating in the free and reduced priced lunch program, the seven highest achieving or more effective systems and the seven lowest achieving or less effective systems were selected for further investigation. Upon surveying these systems using criteria suggested by the literature on effective schools, several findings produced statistically significant differences between the two groups.

The results suggest that the effectiveness of the school districts studied was related to the quality of school system leadership. School board member background, election method, superintendent selection processes, and

superintendent pay were related to system effectiveness. Effective systems were evaluated by the school board. School boards actions indicative of a high value for education were associated with system effectiveness. The financial status of the school system was robustly associated with system effectiveness. High instructional expenditures, low transportation expenditures, and high levels of local government revenue receipt were associated with the effective districts. Areas of future research were suggested.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
A. General Introduction	1
B. Problem	2
C. Purpose	4
D. Importance of the Study	4
E. Assumptions	5
F. Limitations	6
G. Delimitation	7
H. Definition of Terms	8
I. Question	9
J. Procedures	10
K. Organization of the Study	14
II. A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH .	16
A. Current Status	17
B. History	21
C. Recommendations for School Boards	74
III. FINDINGS	87
A. Introduction	87
B. Demographic Findings	88
C. Board Operations	101
D. Instruction	103
E. Personnel	107
F. Student Services	114
IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION	116
A. Survey and Statistical Data	116
B. Observations	123
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS . .	131
A. Summary	131
B. Conclusions	133
C. Recommendations	134

REFERENCES	137
APPENDICES	143
APPENDIX A. STUDENT EXEMPTION FROM TESTING . . .	144
APPENDIX B. INCOME ELIGIBILITY GUIDELINES . . .	147
APPENDIX C. NELSON AND CRUM STUDY	149
APPENDIX D. CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM	153
APPENDIX E. CORRELATION PLOT	161
APPENDIX F. TSBA ENDORSEMENT	163
APPENDIX G. EVALUATION LAWS AND REGULATIONS . . .	165
APPENDIX H. SUPERINTENDENT DEMOGRAPHICS	177
APPENDIX I. SCHOOL BOARD DEMOGRAPHICS	179
APPENDIX J. SCHOOL SYSTEM EXPENDITURES	181
APPENDIX K. SCHOOL SYSTEM REVENUES	183
VITA	185

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Salaries of superintendents by less effective and more effective groups	90
2. Place of superintendent high school graduation by effectiveness group.	91
3. Method of selecting superintendent by effectiveness group	92
4. Occupations of school board members by effectiveness group	94
5. College education of board members by effectiveness group	96
6. Method of electing school board members by effectiveness group	97
7. Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) accreditation by effectiveness group .	98
8. Financial profiles of effectiveness groups .	99
9. Number of instructional days beyond the state minimum by effectiveness group	102
10. School board evaluation of school system by effectiveness group	104
11. Method of teacher job description specification by effectiveness group	109
12. Certified personnel evaluation models by effectiveness group	111
13. Superintendent and school board member attendance of national conferences by effectiveness group	113
14. Correlation plot	161

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Tennessee public education has changed steadily throughout its 190 year history. The normal process of gradual "evolution" has been periodically punctuated with politically designed interventions to meet the various publicly perceived educational crises. As the intensity of public review of education decreased at the end of each of these crises, "natural selection" took over as the fittest of the new ideas survived and were integrated into the common fabric of public education.

The presence of various types of crises in Tennessee education are evident in the legislation passed in the periods surrounding (1) 1838 - creating the public schools, (2) 1854 - taxing to support the schools, (3) 1870 - designing the basis of current public schools, (4) 1905 - campaigning to bring schools to rural Tennessee, (5) 1925 - establishing a strong state governance of public education, (6) 1955 - establishing the basis for the rights of teachers, and (7) 1970 - establishing public education resources for the nonacademic student. The decline in public satisfaction with the schools during the decade of

the 1970's (Gallup, 1985) created the climate for yet another round of reform, the effective schools movement.

The effective schools literature had an important impact on the schools of Tennessee. The literature was translated into a state reform movement which included State Department of Education generated lists of "effective" behaviors and state-wide job descriptions for teachers, principals, and instructional supervisors. The focus of the associated effective schools research was on the classroom level and on the building level.

Some authorities were calling for less authority at the local school board level. The general historical trend was to increase state control of education through progressively more precisely defined legislation. Some effective schools literature had suggested decentralized educational decision making. The extreme of this trend could be represented by the proposal of United States Secretary of Education William Bennett to move toward educational vouchers. These trends, both of which called for a decrease in local board control of education, were founded on authoritative insights and very little research.

B. PROBLEM

Nationally, 38 percent of all citizens were willing to increase funding for education and 43 percent gave their

public schools a grade of A or B (Gallup, 1985). The school board member interested in improving the schools seemed to be faced with two major concerns which must be addressed: (1) current discontent with the services that schools provide, and (2) a general lack of willingness to increase school taxes. The issue of improving the school program as efficiently as possible is the focus of this study.

The "effective schools" literature, while offering some suggestions for low cost school improvement, provided few researched suggestions to the local school board. National reports were the primary source of information to which a board could go for expert advice on the improvement of the local school, and these were based on marginal research at best.

During the 1984-85 school year, Tennessee began implementation of its own "Better Schools Program" as defined by the Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984 (CERA). As this study was nearing completion in 1986, the program seemed headed for the exacting public evaluation only a gubernatorial election can provide. While the program addressed the roles of all school people below the superintendent, it had done little to assist the local school board in its efforts to improve the schools. The program generated the system report card whereby systems

and their publics could compare themselves to other systems in the state and to their own history. As the report card was not adjusted for factors beyond the board's control, it was of limited utility. Up to this point, the program had reduced local board discretion and increased state control of education.

C. PURPOSE

This study provided local school boards with an overview of local practices associated with system effectiveness at the elementary school level which they could implement in their efforts to improve local schools. A simple statistical method by which school system effectiveness can be evaluated was developed and discussed. The study touched on variables beyond the control of the local school board in an effort to facilitate the clarification of roles between local and nonlocal education agencies.

D. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Knowledge of instructional program actions taken by local school boards and their superintendents in effective school districts could assist boards and superintendents in less effective schools to take positive steps to improve the instructional program in their home district. This

knowledge could also help state officials and state organizations determine their proper role in enhancing Tennessee's public schools.

E. ASSUMPTIONS

This study was based upon the following assumptions:

1. The local school board policies and minutes accurately reflected the local board's actions in the area of instruction.

2. The state-mandated Stanford Achievement Test administered in April 1985 produced valid measures of academic achievement which can be accurately used to compare school systems.

3. The percentage of students eating lunch at free or reduced prices was a valid indicator of student population socioeconomic standing. The difference between the free and reduced price lunch eligible population, and the free and reduced price lunch participating population, was assumed to be constant across the state. The current practice of targeting various federal programs for the disadvantaged based on the free and reduced lunch rate added validity to this assumption.

F. LIMITATIONS

The role of the local school board changed as a result of CERA and the associated State Department of Education actions. The unusually destabilized, formative condition of local boards and the fact that effective schools are built over long periods of time may have made the actions of effective boards and ineffective boards less distinguishable than would normally be the case.

The policies and minutes of local school boards were summaries of what actually took place at the meetings. Informal board action may have been seriously obscured by the time they appeared in official documents. The way the board performed various actions may have had as much effect on the school system as the fact that the actions took place.

The differences between the seven most effective systems in the population and seven least effective systems in the population may have been caused by factors correlated with board actions and/or achievement. The study was designed to determine possible board actions associated with system effectiveness, not to prove cause and effect.

Systems were excluded from the study if they did not have a K-12 service continuum in April 1985. A preliminary review of the free and reduced price lunch data revealed

that the percentage of low income children varies from grade to grade, generally being higher in the primary grades and lower in the secondary grades. It should be noted that only 97 of Tennessee's 142 public school districts were included in the original population.

Some of the students within the selected school systems were excluded from the achievement test data used in this study. State guidelines pertaining to the mandated testing program excluded from the system results student who were absent, students who received four or more hours per day of special education, and students whose multidisciplinary team specifically deemed it in the best interest of the child not to be tested (See Appendix A).

Eligibility standards for free and reduced price school lunches are listed in Appendix B. Students who may have been eligible for free or reduced lunches but who did not apply were not included in the free and reduced lunch data which were used as an indicator of home poverty level. Similarly, fraudulently completed free and reduced price lunch forms could have effected the number of free and reduced price lunches for any given system.

G. DELIMITATION

The school districts studied were selected based on their effectiveness difference. The effectiveness

difference was designed partially to correct the system achievement scores for the effect of the student home socioeconomic status. Systems whose effectiveness differences placed them in the top or bottom seven districts in the district pool were studied in depth using the content analysis procedure outlined below.

H. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Composite achievement score was the achievement score taken to represent the achievement level of the school system. The system percentile scores reported in "Tennessee Student Test Results 1984-85" were converted to national curve equivalent scores (NCE's). The science and social studies subtests NCE's were averaged by grade level to yield a single science NCE. The reading, math, language, and science NCE's for each grade level were averaged to yield a grade by system composite achievement score. These grade by system composite achievement scores were weighted using the number of students taking the test at that grade and then averaged to yield the weighted average NCE for the system. The system weighted average NCE's were then converted to "z" scores, the composite achievement score.

Effectiveness difference was the difference between the predicted composite achievement score and the composite achievement score.

Predicted composite achievement score. School system free and reduced lunch percentages and system composite achievement scores were correlated with the resulting Spearman r of .55. School system composite achievement scores were then predicted based on the percentage of free and reduced lunches served on an average day.

Primary board policies were the official policies included in the policy manual of the system as required by state law.

The school board was the body of elected or appointed lay persons responsible for the operation of the local school system as defined in Tennessee Code Annotated 49-2, Part 2 (1983).

School board minutes were the official written reports of board meetings as approved by the board and recorded by the board secretary.

I. QUESTION

What were the differences, if any, between the actions of the group of school boards with high effectiveness scores and the actions of the group of school boards with low effectiveness scores?

J. PROCEDURES

Instrumentation

The Stanford Achievement Test and free and reduced lunch data were used to select the sample of 14 systems from the 97 Tennessee school systems with K-12 programs. Achievement test data was an indirect indicator of actual achievement, but it was the best indicator the researcher had. The Congressional Budget Office (1986) noted:

Although popular accounts often treat test scores as synonymous with educational achievement, the two are in fact very different. In most cases, tests are not direct and comprehensive measures of educational achievement. Rather they are proxies, or substitutes, for such ideal but generally unobtainable measures, varying markedly in how much they vary from the ideal. (p. 12)

While using achievement test data to compare individual students with themselves or their peers has built in problems, comparing test results across different populations is even more difficult. The report notes that using tests to compare districts is complicated by another underlying problem:

. . . that extraneous variation in test scores (for example, that reflecting disparities in student's backgrounds) is confounded with relevant variation (such as that attributable to differences in school effectiveness). (p. 25)

The study included an attempt to partially correct for "extraneous variation" as mentioned above by taking into account the socioeconomic background of the student as

reflected in the free and reduced price lunch data. In his interpretation of his study of the American high school, TheodoreSizer noted:

Among schools there was one important difference which followed from a single variable only. The social class of the student body It got so that I could say with some justification to school principals, "Tell me about the incomes of your students' families and I'll describe to you your school." (1985, p. 6)

Correcting for free and reduced lunch data left primarily "relevant variation" as a basis for the selection of school systems for inclusion in the study sample.

A content analysis review form was constructed to provide a standardized method of analyzing the board policies. The Nelson and Crum study form and their hypothesized characteristics of good board policy (Appendix C) served as the base upon which the content analysis form for this study was built. The form used in this study (Appendix D) reflected the viewpoints discussed in Chapter 2 of this study as well as those of Nelson and Crum.

Sample Selection

The Tennessee Department of Education provided Stanford Achievement Test data for grades 2, 5, and 7 from the state-wide testing program conducted in April, 1985. The State Department of Education also provided a free and reduced lunch summary for the State and each school system in the State. A correlation coefficient was calculated and

plotted (See Appendix E) using the local system composite achievement z scores and the local system free and reduced price lunches z scores. The seven systems with the highest effectiveness differences and the seven systems with the lowest effectiveness differences were studied using a content analysis of school board policies. The sample included the following effectiveness differences for the corresponding systems:

<u>Less effective</u>		<u>More effective</u>	
A(1)	-2.158	A(2)	2.122
B(1)	-1.812	B(2)	1.688
C(1)	-1.799	C(2)	1.652
D(1)	-1.455	D(2)	1.550
E(1)	-1.310	E(2)	1.522
F(1)	-1.269	F(2)	1.510
G(1)	-1.199	G(2)	1.453

Method

Dan Tollett, Director of the Tennessee School Boards Association (TSBA) reviewed the study design and provided a letter of endorsement for the study to be used in soliciting the participation of the various superintendents (See Appendix F). The letter was also available for the superintendent to use in explaining the study to the school board.

Board policies, board minutes, and comments covering fiscal year 1985 were collected. The person or persons in charge of developing board policy in each system was interviewed using the content analysis form. The interview, policies, and minutes from each system were reviewed and rated using the content analysis form.

The inter-rater reliability of each item in the content analysis form was checked by randomly selecting five of the fourteen systems studied for a repeat analysis using an expert in the area of local board policy. Only the non-demographic and non-quantitative items were included in this component of the study. Don McAlister, TSBA Assistant Executive Director and TSBA staff specialist in local school board policy analyzed the policies and minutes of the five systems selected at random. All policy items were rated the same by Don McAlister and the author and were therefore included in the study at this stage. The superintendents interviewed suggested that a demographic item regarding annual expenditures for board expenses was vague. Upon their comments, that item was eliminated from the reported results of the study. There was no reliability check on the interviews.

Significant frequency differences between the two groups on any item or logical cluster of items were reported if significant differences reached the .90 level

of confidence. Yates chi square formula for small N's was used for the tests of the statistical significance of differences between the groups on individual items (Ferguson, 1976). Fisher's exact probability tests were calculated for all significant chi squares to give more accurate probability information.

K. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 has outlined the problem, purposes, importance, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study. Definitions of terms and procedures used in the research are also found in this chapter.

Chapter II covers the development of Tennessee's public schools in general and the development of the local school board's role in the schools in particular. The trend away from local school board control of education is discussed. The research and expert opinions pertaining to the board role in the effective schools movement are presented.

Chapter III is used to report the findings of this study and Chapter IV provides an interpretation of the findings. Various figures and tables in these chapters and in the appendices at the end of the study serve to clarify the findings. A discussion of informal observations

gathered during the course of the study is located at the end of Chapter IV.

Chapter V serves as a conclusion to the study. Findings are summarized and conclusions based upon these findings are made. Recommendations are offered to local school boards, state education officials, and future researchers.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

This chapter placed the study into context. The school reform movement of the early 1980's generated several reports. The general theme of the reports was that reform was best staged at the local school level. Reports further suggested that the nation was implementing change from the state level rather than from the local school system level. Tennessee, recognizing the state responsibility to be the primary provider of education, raised minimum standards for schools, increased state school programs, and put into place a career ladder. All of these actions tended to refocus school authority from the local system to the state level.

A historical review of the Tennessee education legislation was included in the study to place the status of schools and local boards of education in historical context. The review showed that the trend toward greater state control of education in less local control of education was established under the first constitution and steadily continued at least through 1985, when this study was initiated.

Finally, the recommendations of various experts to local school boards was reviewed to demonstrate some

rationale for the topics included in the study. The behavior of school boards that was related to system effectiveness was found be somewhat researched in a study done by Nelson and Crum (1984) under the direction of United States Secretary of Education Terrel Bell. The review included various reports of the period that also addressed, though often tangentially, areas of school board responsibility.

A. CURRENT STATUS

Local Control

The issue of the relative authority and responsibility that local, state, and federal governments have with regard to the operation of the public schools predates the establishment of the State of Tennessee. Throughout over two centuries of discussion, the specific issues have changed, but the basic debates have remained (Alexander, 1980, chaps. 3, 4, 5; Hearn, 1959, chap. 1; Strayer, Engelhardt, McGaughy, Alexander, Mort, Hart, and Swift, 1925, chap. 1). The following review of the current discussion over which level of government is in charge of what aspects of the public school system reveals that the debate continues with traditional fervor.

Board role. Little research has been conducted concerning the roles of superintendents or the roles of

local school board members in developing effective school districts (Cubban, 1984, Hallinger, Murphy, and Mesa, 1986). Former United States Department of Education Secretary Terrel Bell said:

There is no governing body in all of our American society that is of more critical importance to the future of this nation than the local school board. (Nelson and Crum, 1983)

Tucker and Zeigler (1980) conducted an in-depth study of a small number of school boards. They noted that the central office staff, more significantly the superintendent, dominated the setting of the local board agenda. In essence the superintendent was usually responsible for writing board policy. The board typically made the policy official. Boards had considerably more power to influence the schools than they typically were willing to exert. They relied upon the professional educators to resolve most issues. Tucker and Zeigler put forth a view which suggested that there was little point in trying to make boards more effective and which implied that change efforts should have focused on the local school administrators. This was what done in the educational reform movement of the early 1980's. The question remained, however, what could a board do to increase school system effectiveness?

National views. The control of the public schools seems to have shifted. Michael Kirst, professor at Stanford University, said, "If the drift from local to state control over the past twenty-five years continues for the next twenty-five years, then I think you'll see a drastic erosion of local control." He insisted that local school authorities would have to deal competently with disadvantaged minorities and adopt high academic standards to halt this drift away from local control (Chion-Kenny, 1985). The notion of shifting control was not new. Two decades ago, Dykes (1965) described the situation:

Today local control as a principle of public education is up for questioning Ineffective leadership from the local level has created a belief. . . that local control constitutes a serious obstacle to educational progress. (p. 254)

Actions aimed at decreasing federal funding and regulations, and increasing public demand for better schools characterized President Reagan's tenure in office through 1986 date. Various reports such as A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform successfully increased public demand for excellence in education. Former United States Department of Education Secretary, Terrel Bell outlined President Reagan's goals for education which included ". . . to strengthen local and state control of education and to reduce dramatically the federal responsibility" Reagan wants to introduce laws to

"increase competition" and "expand parental choice" in the public and private education system (Bell, 1986, p. 488). Secretary of Education William Bennett (1985) confirmed that the federal role in local education matters would continue to decrease in an effort to increase autonomy of the state and local government.

David Gardner, former chairman of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, joined former Secretary Bell at a commemoration of the third anniversary of A Nation At Risk in 1986. Gardner and others at the meeting suggested that the next stage of educational reform "must include greater involvement by local boards of education and greater direction from the federal government" (Rothman, 1986).

State views. Shortly before the temporary failure of the 1983 attempt by Tennessee Governor Alexander to bring about state legislated school reform, a state-wide survey revealed that fifty-eight percent of the public favored a tax increase if the increase would improve education (Hancock, 1983). In 1984, the legislature passed the "Comprehensive Education Reform Act" (CERA) putting into law the ten points of Governor Alexander's "Better Schools Program" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1984, chap. 7). CERA addressed the areas of curriculum, teacher training, teacher and administrator evaluation, and student computer

literacy. In 1985 Alexander proposed that local community advisory committees be appointed to study the local schools as a part of the Homecoming '86 activities, a state-wide community based campaign to promote the state patriotism of Tennesseans and tourism. These committees, funded through a state grant program and appointed by the local board, were designed to evaluate the local school system. Evaluation of the school system is a function assigned to the local superintendent and board by statute (Tennessee Code Annotated, 1985, 49-2-203(2), 49-2-301(7)). These state government actions were but steps in the journey leading from Tennessee's first constitution in 1796 to the time of this study, 1986. Local control of education steadily gave way to greater state control for one hundred ninety years.

B. HISTORY

This study includes an investigation into the historic roles of the school board and the evolution of the Tennessee system of public education. Perhaps a historic perspective will assist in developing an understanding of the local school board roles of 1986. The function of the local board of education is based on the tradition of placing government close to the people.

The Franklin Constitution. The role of the school board in instructional matters predates the establishment of this country. In 1642, the establishment of the Boston School Board marked the beginning of a representative body to govern the schools (Cubberley, 1922). Hearn noted that an interest in education was present in Tennessee prior to the 1796 constitution. The Franklin Constitution provided in section 32 that before 1787, the legislature would provide a university near the center of the state to be funded through survey fees, inspection fees, and various transportation fees. The rejected constitution also provided:

And if experience shall make it appear to be useful to the interest of learning in this State, a Grammar School shall be erected in each county, and such sums paid by the public as shall enable the trustees to employ a master or masters of approved morals and abilities. (Hearn, 1959, p. 14)

The 1796 Tennessee Constitution. Tennessee's first constitution would see the creation of schools for paupers, the creation of school boards, and education encouraged for the general population. Tennessee was a frontier state during this period. Citizens were more concerned with day-to-day survival than with lofty ideas of public education. This was the age of the self-made, self-taught person. Education served the state by developing a few talented students with financial support into leaders. The common

person needed little education to labor in the frontier economy.

The proposed Franklin Constitution was rejected in favor of a basic duplicate of the 1776 Constitution of North Carolina. Tennessee was to develop a system of education from the college downward rather than beginning with an elementary public school system and working toward public colleges. The northeastern states' idea that it was possible to educate the masses did not seem feasible, if indeed desirable to the Tennessee lawmakers of the late 1790's. (Hearn, 1959, chap. 2)

By contrast, in 1796, Thomas Jefferson's proposal to the Virginia Legislature specified the role of the local school board in instructional matters. His proposal included provisions for the curriculum to be furnished by the scholars at William and Mary University and monitored by the local school board members. Instructional improvement was a main concern for local board members (Alexander, 1980, chap. 1). The future of the democracy hinged on their actions.

The Compact of 1806, an agreement between the federal government and the governments of Tennessee and North Carolina provided school lands. These lands were to be sold by the state for two dollars per acre providing a school fund for the purpose of establishing academies in

each county. Many frontiersmen had already settled a large portion of these lands and laid claim to them. Their families had earned ownership of the land by suffering the hazards of the wilderness compounded by Indian warfare. The government request that they additionally pay money for this land did not seem just to the frontiersmen and they refused to pay into the school fund. Consequently, little was accomplished with this effort to establish a system of education below the college level. (White, 1929, chap. 2)

The War of 1812 motivated the Tennessee General Assembly of 1815 to pass a law providing for the education of orphaned children at public expense. In 1817 and in 1819 laws were passed to separate the common school funds from the academy funds and collect the funds provided for by the Act of 1806 (Hearn, 1959).

In 1821, legislation was passed that provided for common school funds to be given to the county court appointed board of school trustees. The trustees were to "superintend" the schools (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1821). The Fifteenth General Assembly enacted a law which provided that school boards of five members would be elected by the each county commission in 1825. The school boards were to oversee the spending of state monies for the education for the poor, either by establishing schools for the poor or by

paying tuition for poor students to attend private schools (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1823, chap. 49).

In 1829 popularly elected school boards were legislatively prescribed to "induce all children under age 15 to be sent to school." They were to set school tuition, set the school term, employ teachers, and "judge qualifications, capacity and character" of teachers (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1829, chap. 107). The supervision of the instructional program was not provided for in this law.

By 1832 the legislature had provided for the establishment of district school trustees and a "board of common school commissioners for each county" elected by the chairmen of the several districts' trustees. A small county school office staff could be elected by the county board. The central functions of the county board seems to have been collecting funds for the establishment and operation of the schools and managing the school lands. It is interesting to note that these common school commissioners were required to make a \$1000 bond before taking office and have their solvency reviewed by the county commission annually (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1831, chaps. 15, 16). This requirement would have restricted the office to only the wealthy - people who could afford to have their children educated in the private schools of the period.

Holt (1938, chap. 1) noted that during this period, control of the common school was in the hands of the affluent "Bourbons", or land holders, of the old south. Education for the masses would not be a practical reality until the common farmer gained control of the public school over 50 years later.

The 1834 Tennessee Constitution. The 1834 revisions to the Tennessee Constitution (ratified in 1835) came about as a result of several concerns. The new constitution was a checkpoint the state passed in the transition from a frontier state to an antebellum state. The 1796 Constitution allowed all free adult males to vote. The 1834 Constitution excluded the approximately 1000 free black males from voting and peacetime military duty. The 1834 constitution provided for county government to be elected from the local populace rather than appointed by state government. The amendments removed property qualifications for candidates for governor and the General Assembly. Duels were outlawed. The amendments provided for three distinct branches of state government, removing control over the judiciary from the legislature and setting up a three member supreme court. (Goodspeed, 1887, p. 223-227).

Governor William Carroll, a former steamboat owner, served the longest of any Tennessee governor, 12 years

before he lost in 1835. He undoubtedly had an influence on the 1835 constitution. Governor Carroll succeeded in reforming the state treasury, setting up a perpetual common school fund based on bank stock purchased through the sale and rental of school lands. The fund was to be overseen by a state board of commissioners appointed by the legislature. In the 1830's popular support for a property tax based on the relative value of the land rather than a flat tax rate based on simple acreage produced related legislation. The criminal justice system underwent reform as the state began building prisons and doing away with some of the harsher criminal penalties. (Crawford, Pickle, and Smith, 1984, chaps. 7, 8, and 9; Hearn, 1959)

The 1834 Constitution recognized and encouraged education with the following resolution:

Knowledge, learning and virtue, being essential to the preservation of republican institutions, and the diffusion of the opportunities and advantages of education throughout the different options of the state, being highly conducive to the promotion of this end, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly in all future periods of this Government, to cherish literature and science. (Hearn, 1959)

In 1835 the position of State Superintendent of Public Instruction was created and Robert H. McEwen named to the post by the legislature. In 1843, an act was passed to abolish the position in 1844. Before the position was repealed, McEwen publicly stated that he suspected

widespread misuse of the state school fund. White suggested that the failure of the school funds to reach the classroom could have been related to the fact that there were no paid administrators. The main obstacle to the common schools of antebellum Tennessee seems to have been a lack of adequate funding (White, 1929, chap. 2). Evidence that many communities did not avail themselves of the legislated school program is seen in the frequent legislative provisions for establishing a school district.

The legislature of 1839 passed "An act to re-enact and amend 'An act to establish a system of Common Schools in the State of Tennessee,' passed January 24, 1838." While the 1938 act was the act which established the Tennessee system of common schools, the 1839 act was the actual legal basis of education until the new constitution was adopted in 1870. The 1839 act authorized the district school commissioners to consolidate districts, set tuition, and obtain fuel provisions from families with scholars. The district commissioners were allowed to elect one of their own body to serve as treasurer and one to serve as clerk. A more affordable \$250 bond was required of the treasurer. The commissioners were compensated for their work through exemptions from road work and peace time military duty. They were to deliver to the county court clerk an annual report which included (1) a census of the white children in

their district between the ages of 6 and 16, (2) the pupils served and duration of the school year, and (3) an accounting of the district school funds. The county court clerk compiled the reports and sent them to the state superintendent and to the county court. Children were allowed to attend public school until age 21. Section 26 of the act outlined the other duties of the commissioners:

- I. To apply for and receive from the county trustee all monies apportioned or collected for the use of schools in their district.
- II. To have the custody and keeping of the district school house or houses.
- III. To contract with and employ all teachers in the district, and pay their wages out of the monies which shall come into their hands from the country [sic] trustee or from any other source.
- IV. To visit the common school or schools in their district at least once in three months, and oftener 4[sic] if they shall deem it necessary.
- V. At such visitation to examine into the state and condition of such school, both as respects the progress of the scholars in learning and the good order of the school.
- VI. To give their advice and direction to the teacher of such school regarding the government thereof and the course of studies to be pursued therein.
- VII. To dismiss any teacher for incompetency, improper conduct, or inattention to his duties.
- VIII. To exempt from the payment of the wages of the teachers such indigent persons within the district as they shall think proper.
- IX. To certify such exemptions, and deliver the certificates thereof to the clerk of the district, to be kept on file in his office.
- X. To ascertain, by examination of the school lists kept by the teachers, the number of days for which each person not so exempted shall be liable to pay for instruction, and the amount payable by each person.
- XI. To make out a rate bill containing the names of such person so liable and the amount for which he is liable, and annex thereto authority for the collection thereof.

XII. To choose a district clerk. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1839, chap. 38)

In 1843 the common school commissioners were given the power to "dismiss from the school any scholar for refractory or disorderly conduct" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1843, chap. 165). In 1851, district commissioners were "authorized to employ Female teachers. . . who shall be paid in the same manner as other teachers. . . ." (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1851, chap. 150).

In 1854 Governor Johnson endorsed landmark legislation which restored the office of state superintendent and more importantly, established the first taxes for the support of the public schools - a property tax and a poll tax. This legislation also provided for the local county court to levy taxes to support the schools as long as the local levy did not exceed the state levy. (White, 1929, chap. 3)

The year 1856 saw legislation enacted which provided for county school commissioners to be elected by the county court. The county school commissioners were to examine all applicants for teaching positions in the county. A county teacher's certificate was awarded to those who demonstrated competence to teach in the schools. The district common school commissioners were prohibited from hiring any noncertified teacher. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1856, chap. 114)

The twenty year period before the Civil War saw a growing grassroots interest in education in Tennessee. Academies and colleges were created and thrived during this period. The fruits of knowledge were seen as appropriate, not only for the aristocratic, but, also for the growing middle class. As the masses gained greater control of the legislature, real tax support and a substantial state bureaucracy was created. (White, 1929, chap. 3)

The Postwar Period. Governor William Brownlow came to office in April 1865 and presided over the process Tennessee had to go through to regain representation in national government. History records that he supported punishment of all who had supported the Confederacy and took steps to exclude former confederate supporters from even voting. His actions probably did little to heal the political wounds of the war (Crawford, Pickle, and Smith, 1984, chap. 14). The "Reconstructionist Legislature" of 1867 passed the "Free School Bill" which provided for a county school superintendent, elected by the boards of education of the several civil districts in each county (Hearn, 1959, chap. 2). The duty of examining teacher applicants and awarding certificates to competent examinees was assigned to the county superintendent. The 1867 law provided that every district should provide for pupil instruction in orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic,

geography, grammar, and the constitutions of Tennessee and the United States. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1866-67, chaps. 27, 29).

Governor DeWitt Senter came to office in 1869 and effectively dealt with the schism that had plagued Tennessee since the war. In January 1870, a constitutional convention was assembled to revise the state constitution. State loans to private cooperations were prohibited, slavery abolished, and the power of the executive branch curtailed, possibly as a result of perceived abuses of the office under Brownlow. The Thirty-Sixth General Assembly repealed the 1867 school law and respecified the role of the local school commissioner very similarly to the way prescribed in the school law of 1839. They stated that the district school commissioners as a group constituted the county board of education (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1870, chap. 64).

The General Assembly of 1873 passed the law that was to establish and maintain a system of public schools in Tennessee (Hearn, 1959, chap. 2). The act included most of the components of the 1867 law. The law provided for the election of the county superintendent by the county court. The qualified voters of each school district were to elect three district directors. The directors were legislated the following duties:

1. To visit the schools from time to time
2. To employ and dismiss teachers
3. To explain and enforce school law
4. To dismiss (suspend and expel) pupils
5. To use school funds in the best interests of the schools
6. To keep white and colored school monies separate
7. To report to the county superintendent
8. To make contracts on consolidation
9. To assure the teaching of the minimum curriculum which included orthography, reading, writing arithmetic, grammar, geography, elementary Tennessee geology, and U. S. history. (Goodspeed, 1887)

Agriculture was added the legislated curriculum in the Public Acts of 1879 (chap. 132).

The 1891 legislature established primary (grades 1-5) and secondary (grades 1-8) schools, provided for taxes to be collected to support the secondary schools, and mandated primary schools be made available. They required that the newly designed position of school director (replacing the common school district commissioner) be "able to read intelligently and write legibly." The district directors had the additional role of selecting from two state-provided curriculums and thereby classifying the schools in the district as secondary or primary. The legislature added to the public school curriculum vocal music and public speaking. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1891, chaps. 35, 132, 146, 166)

In 1895, instruction in hygiene, physiology, and the effects of drugs including narcotics, alcohol, and tobacco

was mandated (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1895, chap. 180). The state government of 1899 created a state textbook commission to select books for use in the schools. This legislature also passed a law marking the establishment of elected county boards for high schools, establishing the trend toward county unified districts in the next century. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1899, chap. 279)

Holt noted that Tennessee's lack of reform during the period of 1873 to 1902 was due to several factors. The postwar depression was temporarily broken in 1869 with a series of good crop years. There was a national period of prosperity during the early 1870's. Six months after the 1873 school bill was passed, a serious financial panic swept the nation, leaving Southern states with a large war debt and little way to pay it off. Southern farmers had expanded their operations during the boom of the late 60's and early '70's only to have their operations threatened by low yields and low prices during the late 1870's. During the period from 1873 to 1885, farm land prices fell 29 percent and did not begin to recover until the 1890's. The 1890's saw another crisis in farm values, prices again tumbling 12 percent in the six years following 1892. The new century brought good news to the Tennessee farmer with the doubling of the value of farm products between 1890 and

1900. From 1899 to 1902, Tennessee farm land values increased 10 percent. (Holt, 1938, chap. 1)

The Educational Campaigns of 1901-1913. State superintendents, county superintendents, teachers, and university faculty combined forces to mount one of the most successful educational campaigns Tennessee has seen. Holt credited P. P. Claxton, and state superintendents Mynder, Brister, and Jones with the state-wide organizational efforts that led to passage of the many education laws of the period, in particular the 1909 law. The educational campaigns of this period biennially visited most, if not all, counties in Tennessee. The education rallies were held during political campaign months and usually had attendances which exceeded the political rallies. These campaigners seemed to have the correct formula for educational change at that time. (Holt, 1938)

In 1903, the Baxter Bill was passed and thereby established coextensive school district and civil district boundaries, resulting in a drastic reduction of the number of school districts in the state. Representative Austin Peay and Senator Hammill introduced a law originally designed for state-wide application which provided that the office of district director in Montgomery County be abolished and replaced by a county board of education. The

Romine Bill was successful in increasing the state allocation for education. (Holt, 1938, chap. 6)

The Tollett Bill was passed in 1905 providing the first funding equalization legislation. The 1907 Chestnutt Bill increased funding for education \$50,000. In 1907 the County School Board bill passed forcing all but eight counties to change to the new system of governance and further reducing the number of districts the state had to administer. (Holt, 1938, chap. 6)

The 1909 legislative agenda for education was set in the last days of the 1907 session when Henry Horton introduced a bill written by P. P. Claxton. By the end of the 1909 session, the legislature had enacted laws that provided that one-fourth of the state's gross receipts would be appropriated to the general education fund on a semiannual basis. Sixty-one percent was to be apportioned to the counties based on scholastic population. Ten percent was to be used for equalization. Eight percent was to assist in the effort to establish high schools. One percent was to be used to establish school libraries. All systems receiving funds had to submit itemized statements to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. (Holt, 1938, chap. 6; Hearn, 1959, chap. 2).

In 1909 legislation was passed which marked the beginning of the role of the State Board of Education in

public schools. Up to this time they had primarily been used to oversee the normal school. The Act of 1909 gave the board the power to employ a high school supervisor, license high school teachers, regulate the administration of the high school fund, classify high schools, and prescribe the minimum high school curriculum. (Hearn, 1959, chap. 3; Public Acts of Tennessee, 1909, chap. 264).

In 1913 the Public School Officers Association wrote five bills for the legislature to consider; all passed. The general school fund was increased from one-fourth of the state coffers to one-third. Eighty days of school attendance were required of all children between the ages of eight and fourteen. County school boards were authorized to consolidate schools and provide pupil transportation (Holt, 1938, chap. 6). The 1913 legislature removed the certification of teachers from the county superintendent and set up a uniform method for examining and certifying teachers. This marked the beginning of required professional preparation of teachers (White, p. 154).

In 1915 Bible was added to the prescribed curriculum (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1915, chap. 102). In 1917 a law was passed which specified that elementary schools were to teach orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, Tennessee history, United States history,

physiology, hygiene, vocal music, drug education, and such other subjects as the local board might see fit to add. Prior to this, schools teaching non-legislated subjects were required to charge tuition (Hearn, 1959, chap. 3). The legislation passed that year also included:

. . . the board of education or school board of any town, city, county, or district shall have the power to establish what shall be known as "A Public School Teacher's Retirement Fund." (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1917, chap. 76)

The Course of Study for Elementary Grades was prepared by 1921 to provide teachers with guidance in the methods, materials, and extracurricular programs available for the elementary school child. This was significant in that it was the first State Department publication designed to improve classroom instruction. (Holt, 1938, chap. 11)

The echoes of the great educational campaigns continued into the 1920's as planks of the original platforms continued to be enacted. In 1921, counties participating in the equalizing fund were required to levy an elementary school tax of thirty cents on the one hundred dollar assessed property value and maintain a 100 day school year. The county elementary and secondary school boards were combined to form one county board of education and the county superintendent was designated as its secretary. The state provided matching money to increase the county superintendent's salary by \$1000. The state

apportionment of school funds was based on the average daily attendance. (Holt, chap. 11)

The curriculum was expanded in 1921 to include forestry and plant life as pertained to the species in the state (Tennessee Public Acts, 1921, chap. 157). In 1923, the legislature added physical education to the elementary and secondary school curricula, leaving the local board to determine the amount of physical education the students needed (Tennessee Public Acts, 1923, chap. 61).

The General Education Act of 1925. Education was determined to be a state function rather than a local one in State v. Meador (153 Tenn 634, 637). Governor Austin Peay reorganized the state government in 1923 and participated in the enactment of the first recodification of all applicable state school laws into the General Education Act of 1925. The new law empowered local boards of education with the duty to "manage and control" the public schools, a responsibility that is seen in the current Tennessee Code Annotated (1985, 49-2-214, Public Acts of Tennessee, 1925, chap. 115). Perhaps this is the most powerful and often utilized legal responsibility of the local school board. The law provided for the board to be elected by the county court except in counties where the board was already elected by popular vote. Since then, private acts have been passed allowing many additional

boards to be elected by popular vote. Children who desired to be excused from the compulsory attendance law were required to have their case brought to the local board of education. Reasons a child could be excused included (1) parent inability to provide adequate clothing, (2) student lack of suitable mental or physical condition for schooling, (3) lack of public transportation to school if the school was more than three miles from the student's residence, and (4) proof that a student had completed eighth grade. The act allowed boards to hire attendance officers to enforce this aspect of their responsibility. The local board was to provide books for students who could not afford them. The act included provisions for the county boards to establish truancy schools in cities having 10,000 or more students between ages 6 and 16 to serve students who were "habitual truants" or "incorrigible, vicious, or immoral or who habitually wander or loiter about without lawful employment". The local board determined which school a student would attend within the legally prescribed separation of black and white scholars. The act mandated that the local boards conduct a biennial census of all children between the ages of 6 and 18. The local board was given authority to establish pupil transportation for all students who lived more than two miles from the school "by the nearest accessible route". A \$500 bond was required of

persons providing the transportation, and they were exempted from transportation privilege taxes. The law prohibited local boards of education from hiring anyone to care for students who was not born in the United States. Teachers of white students additionally had to be Caucasian, have spoken English since childhood, and have had English speaking parents. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1925, chap. 115)

The 1925 legislature prescribed that the curriculum would include instruction in Bible, reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, grammar, geography, Tennessee history, American history, health, physical education, vocal music, and art. The curriculum was to be divided into eight grades of one year's work each as outlined by the commissioner of education. To counties which would (1) levy a fifty cents elementary tax rate, (2) provide for the election of county superintendents by the board, and (3) base all student grade level promotions on examinations, the new law guaranteed adequate funds to cover the expense of paying teachers according to the pay schedule set by the State Board of Education for an extend school term of eight months. The new law further standardized teacher and county superintendent certification and strengthened teacher preservice training. In 1925 there were no requirements for city or special district superintendents,

although private acts had created several such districts. A state school architect was included in the provisions of the act. Despite the famous "Monkey Law" that was included, Holt (1938, chap. 13) ranked the law among the few great educational acts in Tennessee history. (Hearn, 1959, chaps. 2, 3; Public Acts of Tennessee, 1925, chap. 115).

The Depression Years. In 1929 local boards of education were directed to provide for instruction "in the purposes and methods of displaying the American flag. . ." (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1929, chap. 83). The 1931 legislature enacted permissive provisions for two types of high schools, junior highs and senior highs. Courses were to be adopted by the local board of education upon the recommendation of the local superintendent (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1931, chap. 71).

The legislature of 1933, in the grips of the depression, slashed education funding. Teachers from some counties had their pay delayed for several months. The legislature passed a law providing for (1) a bond issue from which \$8,000,000 would be used to pay overdue school funds to counties, (2) a comprehensive study of education in Tennessee, and (3) a provision to deliver the school funds to the local system on a monthly rather than a semiannual basis (Holt, 1938, chap. 16). The legislature

of 1933 also added safety education to the school curriculum. Hearn (1959, chap. 3) noted that in general, black teachers and administrators of 1933 had more college training than their white counterparts.

The study commissioned by the 1933 General Assembly was reported in 1935. The commission recommended removing the responsibility for the teacher retirement fund from the local district and giving it to the state. They noted that the legislature had determined the course of study in the public schools without a well-developed plan. They found that textbooks were badly outdated. Copyrights on both geography texts in use at the time were found to be over 14 years old. While 90 percent of the students leaving eighth grade went on to high school, half did not complete their secondary education. This was the beginning of a period which would see the legislature delegate more authority to the State Board of Education and the State Department of Education. Partially as a result of this study, free textbooks were given to students in grades 1, 2, and 3 in 1939. (Hearn, 1959, chaps. 3, 4, 5)

The '40's and '50's. A law allowing boards of education to operate preschool programs was passed in 1945 making way for required kindergarten programs forty years later (Public Acts of Tennessee, chap. 101). Other durable legislation from 1945 included the establishment of a

state-wide retirement system for educators (chap. 29). Local legislative bodies were given permission to borrow money to increase teachers salaries in 1947 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1947, chap. 1). The 75th General Assembly authorized a new equalization formula that increased the state and local incomes of school districts (Tennessee Department of Education, 1968).

In 1951 the tenure law was passed and included permanent and temporary tenure (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1951, chap. 76). The tenure law required the local board to meet certain due process requirements when firing a teacher. Also enacted in 1951 was the bill giving the State Board of Education authority to determine school curriculum as a part of its rule-making function (chap. 119). Local boards were legislatively mandated to establish the 175 day school year with 10 days of paid teacher vacation, 10 days of inservice, and 5 ". . . other days as designated by the local board of education" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1951, chap. 14)

The 1953 Public Acts of Tennessee required boards to have open meetings when taking action that directly or indirectly involved spending public funds. The boards were allowed to hold executive sessions with this act, provided they took no financially related actions (chap. 119). The 1953 legislature authorized the formation of the Tennessee

School Boards Association to accomplish the following goals:

1. To work for the general advancement and improvement of public education in Tennessee, and for the most efficient and effective organization of the public schools.
2. To gather and circulate information on school activities and affairs.
3. To provide the General Assembly of Tennessee with pertinent information incident to the passage of educational legislation.
4. To cooperate with other organizations and agencies such as the Tennessee Education Association, Tennessee Congress of Parents and Teachers and others interested in the problems of public education. (chap. 119)

The Tennessee School Boards Association has been helpful to local boards of education. Its orientation textbooks, meetings, and periodical publications have been instrumental in training school board members in the functions of their office. The legislature of 1953 also changed the school census requirement from every two years to every four years (chap. 183). Chapter 35 provided five million dollars for free textbooks to be used in grades 1 through 12 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1953). Education of the handicapped was expanded when the Education Department replaced the Health Department as the primary service provider by 1953 (Hearn, 1959, chap. 7). Hearn additionally noted that by 1957, 907 teachers of the handicapped were employed by local boards of education.

A study published in 1957 included the following recommendations:

1. County, city and special district boards of education should be composed of seven lay members, elected at large in nonpartisan popular elections to serve for staggered terms of six years.
2. Local school board members should possess definite qualifications. Local school board members should be: (a) of good report in their communities; (b) love children; (c) have considerable natural ability and breadth of understanding of civil and social institutions; (d) be old enough to have experienced judgement and at the same time be amenable to change; and (e) be free from obligations to any special interest group that would conflict with the best interest of the children.
3. The compensation of local school board members should be set by the local fiscal body on the basis of a per diem of not less than \$6.00 nor more than \$10.00 and reimbursement for actual expenses while on official school board business.
4. Local school boards should hold regularly scheduled open monthly meetings at a time and place determined by the board and publicly announced well in advance.
5. Each school board should develop clear and adequate written policies for the operation of the school system and should carefully define the duties and responsibilities of members of the board and of its executive officer--the superintendent of schools.
6. The local board of education should select its executive officer--the superintendent of schools. Legislation authorizing each county board of education to select its executive officer should be enacted. In the event that such an act is held unconstitutional, immediate steps should be taken to inaugurate a constitutional revision. (Public Education Grades 1 through 12 in Tennessee, 1957, cited in Hearn, 1959, pp. 155, 156)

The 1957 legislature enacted laws authorizing the local boards to provide separate schools for boys and girls, and giving boards final authority in assigning pupils (Public Acts of Tennessee, chap. 98). The Public Acts of 1959 gave local boards authority to enforce the compulsory attendance law. Hearn (1959) noted that the

legislature had given local boards of education numerous and comprehensive powers. He suggested that this tendency to invest a large amount of final authority to the boards reflected Tennesseans' faith in a ". . . democratic concept of government"(p. 157). Chapter 121 passed in 1959 upgraded the certification requirements for county superintendents and placed the first certification requirements on city superintendents.

The Status of Tennessee Education in the 1960's

The 60's were overseen by Governors Ellington and Clement. The 60's were a time of change in education as Tennessee educators struggled to deal with the new horizons typified by desegregation, the Sputnik challenge, and the new concept of teacher professionalism as defined by the tenure law. The period was a time of changing roles for Tennessee at large. Increasing relative wealth, industrialization, and new roles for minorities in the work force demanded changes in the way the typical Tennessean saw himself and his government.

In 1960, for the first time, the majority of Tennessee's population lived in cities and towns of 2,500 or larger, signaling a change from the rural lifestyle. While during the '50's Tennessee had seen a growth in population of 8 percent, roughly half the national rate; during the '60's, the rate increased to 10 percent, over

three-fourths the national growth rate. The decade saw Tennessee stop its downward spiral from 5 percent of the 1830 national population and stabilize at 2 percent of the national population (Vickers, 1984).

The 1960 Tennessee per capita personal income was \$1,575, 71 percent of the national average. In 1970 the Tennessee per capita personal income had almost doubled and was at 78 percent of the national average. The percentage of Tennesseans in poverty was 39 percent in 1959, almost double the national rate of 22 percent. By 1969, 22 percent of Tennesseans were in poverty, compared to 14 percent nationally. Tennessee, like other states in the southeast, was enjoying a new era of prosperity (Vickers, 1984).

The 1960's were good to education in financial terms. In 1960 735,660 children were in average daily attendance in Tennessee's public schools. In 1970 there were 836,010 in average daily attendance, a 27 percent increase. Federal education aid to Tennessee increased ninefold, from \$11 million to \$99 million. Largely as a result of a special legislative session called by Governor Clement in 1966, the state appropriations for education during the decade increased from \$149 million (32 percent of the total state budget) to \$524 million (43 percent of the state budget). Funding for education stayed ahead of increasing

attendance and inflation. State and federal allocations for 1970 were over five times the 1960 allocations. Total Tennessee expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance increased from \$279 to \$609, (218 percent). During the same period the value of a dollar decreased 24 cents (Vickers, 1984).

The state allocation for local systems was calculated in the 1960's as it had been for years. The appropriation bill of 1961 (Public Acts of Tennessee, chap. 5) included an equalization fund based on the local county's standing relative to the state totals in the following areas:

1. Motor vehicle registration payments,
2. The value of farm products sold,
3. The number of non-government workers employed,
4. The total retail sales tax collected, and
5. Property value.

Anderson county was specifically exempt from receiving state money based on this formula. Anderson county includes the city of Oak Ridge where various federally sponsored nuclear research facilities and manufactures are located. It is among the wealthiest areas of the state. The commissioner was to determine Anderson counties funding individually "to assure equity."

What did the education funds buy? Chapter 5 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1961) included provisions for a 175 day

instructional year with 10 days for inservice, 10 days for vacation, and 5 "other" days (typically sick days). Of 97.3 million dollars in the total education budget, .7 million dollars was set aside for special education including home and hospital services. Roughly \$3.00 per child was set aside for textbook purchases. In an early experiment with merit pay for teachers, ten thousand dollars was designated for inservice training and for the establishment of "salary differentials for superior teachers." Before 1961 bond money was divided between county and city governments based on scholastic population. Chapter 269 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1961) specified that these funds would be divided based on average daily attendance.

By the end of the decade the number of teachers in Tennessee had increased by 35 percent and produced a lower student to teacher ratio (Vickers, 1984). In 1961 teacher base salary, based on a bachelor's degree and no experience was set at \$2750 (Public Acts of Tennessee, Chapter 5). Governor Clement called the "Second Extraordinary Session" in 1966 and among other things, teachers salaries were raised roughly one-third with the minimum salary set at \$4,100. The average teacher salary increased over 45 percent during the last five years of the decade, standing at \$7,187 in 1970. Chapter 420 increased allowable sick

leave accumulation from 60 to 80 days and made it possible to transfer sick leave from system to system if both systems agreed (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1968).

Chapter 303 set into motion a program that by 1968 changed the minimum September 1 enrollment age from five years nine months to five years eleven months (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1965). One should note that there was no state kindergarten program at that time and that this law pertained to first grade enrollment. Chapter 489 of 1968 did away with the quadrennial census of the scholastic population, making average daily attendance the official indicator of scholastic population.

Chapter 237 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1967) repealed the "Monkey Law" passed under Governor Peay and legislatively legalized the teaching of evolution. Chapter 304 made it unlawful to teach sex education unless the curriculum had been approved by the local and state boards of education or the instruction was a part of a biology, physiology, health, physical education, or home economics course being taught in a high school (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1969).

The stage was set for Chapter 839 in 1972 when the 1969 legislature defined "exceptional children". They included all children of school age through age 21 and deaf children down to age 3. They included physically handicapped as

well as "psychologically exceptional" in the definition. Tennessee's passage of this act was extremely progressive as the federal government did not come to grips with education of the handicapped until the passage of P. L. 94-142 in 1976, seven years later.

Chapter 223 made it a felony for any non-student to encourage a riot at any school. Chapter 130 made it a misdemeanor for an student caretaker in a public school to fail to disclose any prior criminal records or any prior dismissal for cause (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1969).

The Memphis garbage worker's strike and the assassination of Dr. Martin Luther King in 1968 brought public attention to the racial conflict that existed in parts of the state. The following riots in Memphis, Chattanooga, and Nashville polarized the white majority with respect to appropriate solutions to the racial discord. The Civil Rights Act of 1964, related executive orders, and federal adjudication prescribed many of the solutions at the local school level. For the first time black students had a chance to receive at least comparable benefits from the educational system.

At what cost to local system autonomy did these advances come? Along with the ninefold increase in federal aid to Tennessee education came increased federal regulation of education. All black schools and the

practice of busing black students to schools beyond the county in order to minimize the local school's black population was stopped. The local board was forced to adopt system-wide salary schedules as a requirement to receive certain federal money. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the accompanying executive orders made it illegal for local boards to discriminate on the basis of race in hiring and promotion. The 60's included a trend which made it illegal for local school boards to discriminate openly on the basis of race.

Local municipal boards of education were forced to hire state approved superintendents with the passage of legislation in 1961 (Tennessee Public Acts, Chap. 59). County superintendents had a certification requirement dating back to the 1950's. The elected superintendent's term was set at four years and the law specified that a candidate must be certified by the State Board of Education before being placed on the ballot (Public Acts of Tennessee, Chap. 57, 1969). Chapter 182 (1961) set forth guidelines for the county court and local board of education to follow when replacing a superintendent who became "incapacitated" while in office. Chapter 113 (1961) prohibited the establishment of more elementary special or city school districts and made it possible for the state board of education to specify minimum conditions under

which a non-county school district could be established. Chapter 137 (1961) established minimum average daily attendance rates that a new junior or senior high school must have to be established. Chapter 226 directed the local board to keep a permanent teacher record, required that the teacher have access to the record, extended the mandatory retirement age from 60 to 65, and specified penalties and conditions for a teacher breaking a contract with a board. In 1965, Chapter 175 was passed requiring board to get bids for any construction contract over \$10,000. In 1967 court decisions led the legislature to pass Chapter 252 to remedy violations of the "one man, one vote" principle.

The 1970's

The legislators of the 1970's undertook to pass laws which resulted in a significant change in almost all areas of education. With Governor Winfield Dunn, they passed a comprehensive vocational act in 1971, a comprehensive special education act in 1972, and funded kindergartens in 1973. The "Education Professional Negotiations Act" was passed under Governor Ray Blanton in 1978. Teacher benefits were increased and the tenure law was clarified. An attempt was made to decrease the federally guaranteed rights of minorities by prohibiting bussing to establish racial balance.

Chapter 207 (1971) stated that no child could be bused on the basis of that child's race, color, creed, or nation of origin. Chapter 567 (1972) also was designed to derail racial bussing. It gave the governor permission to withhold the transportation funds of any system that bussed children for the purposes of achieving racial balance. Both of these acts became law without the governor's signature and surprisingly continued as state laws through 1985, the time of this study (Tennessee Code Annotated, 1985, 49-6-2101).

The relationships which exist between local boards and teachers were addressed several times in the '70's Chapter 49 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1971) set April 15 as the date by which teachers who are not reelected for the next year, must be notified in writing by the superintendent. This law also included provisions stating that no teacher could continue to be employed full-time after July 1 following that teacher's seventieth birthday. Teachers could continue to work as substitutes as long as they were able. Chapter 128 (1971) increased the maximum amount of sick leave teachers could accumulate from 80 days to 120 days. By 1975 sick leave was "cumulative for all earned days not used." (Tennessee Code Annotated, 1977, 49-1314). Teachers also had the right to use up to 30 days of sick leave for maternity purposes after June 30, 1974.

The "Minimum Kindergarten Program Law" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1973, chap 193) set up the Tennessee noncompulsory kindergarten program. This permissive legislation provided state funds for capital outlay and teachers salaries for kindergartens. It carried with it restrictions as to the kindergarten school day, term, and student age. This act did little to restrict the functions of the local school board, rather it provided them with opportunities to expand their program through increased state support. In 1979, however, the legislature saw fit to amend the 1973 act:

Each school system operating an elementary school program shall make the minimum kindergarten program available to any student eligible to attend. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1979, chap. 244).

Chapter 839 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1972) was one of the most significant laws enacted in the 1970's. It included most of the components of the federal handicapped education act, passed four years later. Under Chapter 839, the state began to channel increasingly large amounts of money to the local system specifically for the purpose of educating handicapped students. By the end of the 1980-81 school year the total annual state expenditures for the education of the handicapped had exceeded 95.6 million dollars.

Chapter 839, together with the federal education of the handicapped legislation such as P.L. 94-142, established a continuum of special education services for students with specified educational handicaps. The resulting regulations defined the conditions which had to be present in a student for the student to be handicapped. The regulations provided clear guidelines as to how the assessment was to be done and who had the special skills to do the assessments. Incidents may be found where as many as eight psycho-educational evaluations were being performed by State Department of Education psychologists in one day prior to the passage of Chapter 839. By contrast the average yearly number of child studies done by each member of the National Association of School Psychologist in 1984 was approximately 80 (National Association of School Psychologists, 1985). The regulations required that each child have an individualized program that was appropriate to meet his needs as defined by a team of educational specialists, teachers, parents and an administrator. Should the parent disagree with the local school system over the services the system was providing to meet their child's needs, they had legal recourse through the courts or through due process procedures included in the laws. The due process procedures essentially made the individual parents of each handicapped child the

enforcement agent of the legislation, arming them with federally trained advocates.

The handicapped education laws put the local school systems in a situation where they could be faced with having to provide services they could not fund. Unlike the later passed P. L. 94-142 and laws in other states designed from P. L. 94-142, the pioneering authors of Chapter 839 had in mind more than "appropriate" services for the handicapped:

It is the policy of this state to provide, and to require school districts to provide, as an integral part of free public education, special education services sufficient to meet the needs and maximize the capabilities of handicapped children. The timely implementation of this policy to the end that all handicapped children actually receive the special education services necessary to their proper development is declared to be an integral part of the policy of this state. This section applies to all handicapped children regardless of the schools, institutions or programs by which such children are served. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1972, chap. 839)

Local systems now had to provide educational and related services, as defined by the child's multi-disciplinary team, state appointed due process officials, or state and federal courts. The lack of full funding by the state and federal governments had little or no impact on the level of services the local system had to provide. The situation was especially critical in small systems where one student with expensive needs could cost the system tens of thousands of dollars each year, leaving little in the way

of local funds for other areas. To further complicate the matter for local school boards, neither the state nor the federal government has ever provided full funding of their respective handicapped education legislation. This left local districts the task of paying for the difference between the cost of services mandated by law and the federal and state appropriations. Fortunately, the State Department of Education was willing to step in with special appropriations whenever a local school system seemed in trouble because of a high cost student service. While the handicapped education laws have helped handicapped students and their parents, there is little doubt that these laws have taken away some of the autonomy local school boards once exercised.

While area vocational schools were authorized in 1947 (Public Acts of Tennessee, chap. 98), the vocational education as we know it today began with the establishment of area vocational-technical and regional technical schools in the 1960's (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1963, Chap. 229). These school were established under the State Board of Vocational Education to provide services to post-secondary students, as well as part of the high school population. The vocational education programs for secondary students were increased through the passage of various acts during the 1970's (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1973, chap. 278;

1975, chap. 260; 1977, chaps. 241, 245, and 247; 1978, chap. 572; and 1979, chap. 178). The increased emphasis on vocational education took community interest and students away from the academic program. While this change in emphasis probably helped some students, it decreased the funds available for academic secondary education by reducing the student enrollment in "academic" courses. This decrease was especially noticeable in small high schools where course offerings were limited even before the special attention was given to vocational education of the 1970's. The emphasis on vocational education in the high school had some impact on elementary education. Wheeler Elementary School in Bledsoe County, for example, used federal grants to furnish a typing lab, a photography lab, a ceramics lab, and a woodworking lab in a school of only 350 K-8 students. The principal commented that children needed to see a direct relationship between what they were being taught in books and concrete, work-like, applications (Boynton, 1977). The vocational laws of the decade, while creating opportunities for local boards of education by providing state and federal funds, did little to limit their authority.

The handicapped education laws and the vocational laws were implemented through several different types of local system action. While most systems in middle and west

Tennessee implemented the handicapped legislation either independently or through contracts with various existing agencies, districts in east Tennessee utilized the provisions of the "Educational Cooperation Act" to generate three educational cooperatives (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1970, chap. 511). While the range of educational functions of these cooperatives varied, all were instrumental in bringing about the effective implementation of the federal and state handicapped education laws. Some small rural systems across the state also used the provisions of this act to deal with the problem of implementing the vocational education laws of the period. Systems tended to reduce the role of the cooperative in favor of local control in the latter part of the 70's and early '80's. The increasing stability of the handicapped education regulations and the decreasing emphasis on vocational education undoubtedly have played a role in this trend. The "Educational Cooperative Act" continues to be an important piece of legislation which can repeatedly serve the schools, especially in periods of change.

Local board autonomy in its method of operation decreased in the 1970's. Laws were passed which prescribed that local school boards publish and distribute an "official operating policy pamphlet . . . updated annually . . . (and) filed with the state commissioner of

education" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1970, chap. 522; 1974, chap. 654). Annual audits of schools accounts were mandated (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1972 chap. 601). Boards were required to send a copy of the minutes of each meeting of the board of education to the president of each local education association and to negotiate with teacher unions (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1978, chap. 570). The board was directed to add to the superintendent's responsibility of tentatively assigning teachers, the duty to "assign teacher aides . . ." pending the meeting and approval of the board of education (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1979, chap. 99). The board was authorized to employ legal counsel except in cases where the district legislative body had already hired a willing lawyer for the local board of education (Tennessee Public Acts, 1977, chap. 243).

The funding formulae that had served to determine local school system allocations from the state for decades were abandoned and simpler formulae were adopted in the "The Tennessee Education Finance Act of 1977" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1977, chap. 289). The new formula for the instructional program was based on the total value of property in the county relative to the total value of property in the state. The new formula put all systems on an equalization basis by providing that:

(h) The total Tennessee foundation program funding shall be the sum of the total funding for each LEA. This total amount shall be funded ninety percent (90%) by the state from state revenues and ten percent (10%) by the LEA's from local revenues. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1977, chap. 289)

The new formula for transportation was based on the average number of students daily transported more than 1.5 miles (60 percent) and on the ratio of the land area of the county to the land area of the state (40 percent). This provided additional money to rural districts. While it is difficult to estimate the effect these actions had on the local school board, at least they made the state education funding formulae understandable and thereby increased the probability that it would be seen as fair by local officials.

In the personnel arena, local boards were authorized to provide employee insurance, setting the stage for a partially state funded insurance plan to be passed in 1986 (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1973, chap. 386; 1986). The "Education Professional Negotiations Act" was passed in 1978. Its stated purpose was:

To legitimate rights and obligations of boards of education and their professional employees and establish procedures governing relationships between them which are designed to meet the special requirements and needs of public education. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1978, chap. 570).

The act provided teachers' organizations with the right to negotiate with local school boards and took away any right

they might have had to disrupt educational services. Boards of education in Tennessee do not raise funds for education (Tennessee Code Annotated, 49-201). This lack of school board authority over local funding restricted the constructive range of negotiations in Tennessee. While the "Professional Negotiations Act of 1978" only required that local school boards be available to negotiate in good faith, it placed local boards in a position where they could readily surrender much of their decision-making autonomy to the local union contract. By creating an environment where contracts could be negotiated if the teachers desired, the law undoubtedly had the long term effect of reducing the overall authority of the local board of education.

The "School Discipline Act" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1979, chap. 131) mandated that each local board of education adopt rules and regulations to govern corporal punishment in its schools. For some schools, this meant that a record of each punishment would be kept and that an adult witness would always be used.

Tennesseans' purchasing power increased by 54 percent during the decade of the 1970's. There were 5.4 percent fewer Tennesseans living in poverty in 1979 than there were in 1969. Nationally the poverty rate was reduced by 1.2 percent for the same period. Tennessee per capita income

as a percent of United States per capita income increased from 79 percent to 81 percent during the period. The trend for Tennesseans to become more urban slowed as there was a 1 percent increase in the percentage of the total population living in urban areas. The median educational level of Tennesseans as a percentage of the median educational level of the nation is correlated .88 with the Tennesseans' per capita personal income as a percentage of the national per capita personal income for the years 1960, 1970, and 1980. (Vickers, 1984)

As in previous decades, a good overall state economy from 1970 to 1980 was translated into a good period for education. Corrected for inflation, total expenditures for education during the decade increased by 7 percent, while per pupil ADA expenditures increased 36 percent. For the years 1960, 1970, and 1980, the median number of years of education completed by Tennesseans were 8.8, 10.6. and 12.2 respectively. For comparison, the national numbers for the same periods were 10.6, 12.1, and 12.5. Perhaps the increased staff and funds had a role in decreasing the educational background gap between Tennesseans and their fellow Americans. (Vickers, 1984)

The decade of the 1970's saw a 2 percent decrease in the school population, even with the addition of 59,000 kindergarten students and unknown numbers of handicapped

students brought into public education through the provisions of the handicapped legislation of the period. By the end of the decade the total school enrollment stood at 899,000. In the same period the number of teachers increased by 21 percent. The average student load per teacher dropped from 20 to 16 during the period providing teachers with better working conditions. However, part of the difference was paid for out of teacher earnings as teachers experienced a 6 percent drop in purchasing power during the same period. (Vickers, 1984)

The Educational Agenda of Governor Lamar Alexander

Education seemed to be a low state priority during the first three years of Governor Alexander's first term (1979-1983). The focus of the administration seemed to be on getting new industry into the state. During Alexander's second term, however, sweeping educational reform legislation was passed.

State legislators required the State Board of Education to develop and administer a proficiency testing system to determine student achievement in math and language arts. They additionally specified that the awarding of a "full" high school diploma was to be contingent upon the student passing the high school proficiency test. A "certificate indicating attendance or

less-than-satisfactory performance" was to be awarded those who completed their course work but failed to pass the test. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1981, Chap, 164)

School security and student control were subjects of legislative solutions during the period. Local boards of education were directed to formulate a "code of acceptable behavior and discipline to apply to the students" and direct superintendent and principals of the district to administer the code (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1981, chap. 163). The legislature specified the areas to be addressed in the code and that administrators were to apply the code uniformly across the district. They further mandated that the code "be posted at each school . . . as notice to the students, teachers and (administrators). . . ." The "School Security Act of 1981" (Chap. 368) was passed to address the issues of student possession of drugs or weapons on school campuses. The local board of education, in conjunction with local law enforcement agencies, was mandated to maintain a program of principal training in the provisions of the act and local procedures for enforcing the act. Additionally, the local board was to notify local parents of the provisions of the act. (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1982, chap. 794)

The categories of socially maladjusted, functionally retarded, and pregnant were deleted from the provisions of

the handicapped education law (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1981, chap. 281). Concerns about the legality of the definitions of these handicaps, coupled with ever larger numbers of children gaining access to special education services and due process rights, undoubtedly had an influence on these decisions.

The discretionary powers of the local board of education were expanded to include the power to establish a minimum attendance requirement for passing a course and the power to give probationary teachers notice of the reasons for which they were not rehired. If the board elected to give the teacher such notice, they had to allow the teacher to have a hearing to determine the validity of the reasons given.

The 1984 General Assembly enacted several laws which have changed the operation of the schools. At the state level they changed the role of the Commissioner of Education, removing some rule-making authority and defining the Commissioner's role as administering the rules and policies of the State Board of Education. The State Board of Education was given more rule and policy-making, authority as well as responsibility for designing policies and rules for implementing the Comprehensive Educational Reform Act of 1984 (CERA). The legislature created the

State Certification Commission to assist the State Board of Education in promulgating rules and implementing the career ladder component of CERA. They additionally authorized the State Board of Education to employ an executive director and staff.

In order to be sure that the reforms were results oriented, the legislature set forth the following elementary school goals to be attained by April 1, 1989:

- (a) . . . (1) A fifty percent (50%) reduction in the number of teachers who leave teaching service for reasons of job dissatisfaction. . . .
- (3) The elimination of waivers for teaching outside area of specialty. . . .
- (6) A fifteen percent (15%) increase in the number of students mastering each skill in reading and mathematics as measured on the basic skills criterion referenced tests in grades three (3), six (6) and eight (8). . . .
- (b) . . . [T]hat nationally normed achievement tests be selected for administration at three grade levels in the 1984-85 school year and that within five years, the state-wide average test scores achieved on such tests by Tennessee students be higher than the national average for comparable grade groups in each subject.
- (c) . . . [T]hat the State Board of Education develop other measurable goals and/or benchmarks and submit same to the special joint committee of the general assembly. . . . (Public Acts of Tennessee, chap.6)

Directly legislated improvements in education included Chapter 829, which by the 1986-87 school year was to have provided funds to furnish one aide for every 75 students in average daily attendance in grades 1, 2, and 3. Class size waivers were limited to ten percent above the legislated class size (chap. 6). Chapter 988 provided that the

computation of local funds for education be calculated based on a more current estimate of property value than had been done in the past. Chapter 7 provided that career ladder supplements would be paid to the local system directly and not included in the regular Tennessee Foundation Funds. Chapter 7 also provided for a loan program designed to increase the number of available math and science teachers. Chapter 6 provided for full-time elementary guidance counselors to be hired. Chapter 870 increased the minimum kindergarten enrollment age by one month. Over a 13 year period, this action would raise the age of the average Tennessee student by one month. By 1989 one could reasonably expect the increased mental age of the students in second grade to raise second grade achievement test scores several percentiles, possibly even above the national average. Chapter 7 of the Tennessee Public Acts of 1984, extended the school term from 175 days to 180 days in accordance with the recommendations of the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). While increasing the school term, the legislature cut in half the amount of time teachers are annually required to spend in inservice activities, an action contrary to the recommendations of the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). Teachers were given an inadequately

funded duty-free lunch period and an unfunded planning period in the same legislation.

Local boards were given responsibility to recommend to the State Certification Commission local teachers for Probationary, Apprentice, and Career I certificates. The local boards were required to implement a standard evaluation system for all local career ladder evaluations. The evaluation plan for use at the local level was legislatively prescribed to include certain minimum components (Appendix G). Local boards had the options of adopting the model developed by the State Department of Education or approving a locally developed system and submitting it for approval by the State Board of Education. School systems were mandated to dismiss teachers without pre-career ladder certificates if they did not meet the levels of performance outlined in the state-approved evaluation procedure.

The legislation provided that career level II and III teachers "be subject to assignment by the system superintendent to work with special needs students". The local superintendent was required to devise a plan for using the upper level teachers and submit the plan to the local board for approval. The local plan then had to be approved by the State Department of Education. The local system was not given authority to dismiss previously hired

teachers and replace them with more highly certified career ladder teachers. Boards were allowed to offer contracts extending to the full term of the career ladder certificate (five years) to career ladder II and III teachers. While teachers were given the option to work 10, 11, or 12 months if holding the highest level certificate, principals on the career ladder were mandated to work minimum terms based on the level of the ladder they were on. Principals at the highest career level were permitted to enter into employment contracts for up to five years. Boards were required to define assistant principal roles within the limit of the law in order for their assistant principals to be candidates for the career ladder monetary incentives.

Other provisions of the 1984 General Assembly included Chapter 595 which provided that:

All cities or special school districts having a total population of less than five thousand (5000) are hereby required to make their (textbook) adoption as a part of and in cooperation with the county unit in which the city or special district is located" (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1984, chap. 595).

The legislature gave permission to local boards to establish alternative schools for students who have been suspended or expelled from the regular school program. The final decision regarding student removal from the alternative school was left with the chief administrator of

the alternative school (Public Acts of Tennessee, 1984, chap. 5).

Summary of Tennessee's Educational Legislative History

In 190 years Tennessee has taken major steps in improving its public education system. The first constitution moved from no public elementary schools to pauper schools with little governance. The move from civil district elementary schools with boards elected by civil district to county wide elementary systems with boards appointed or elected from the county at large took nearly a century. The first half of this century was dominated by less legislative control of education and more control by the Commissioner of Education, the State Board of Education, and possibly by the local boards of education. The 1984 General Assembly increased the state role in education and decreased the local role. While local lay control of education decreased, the principle of lay control of education was maintained by increasing the resources and functions of the State Board of Education. The General Assembly increased basic funding for education from both local and state coffers and promised to continue to increase the state share of the expense.

C. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOL BOARDS

As the new equilibrium of state and local power was established through clarifying amendments to CERA, the issue of the local school board's role in developing the local school needed to be addressed. Many experts offered advice to local school board members seeking role clarification in wake of the Tennessee school reform. A careful search of the literature revealed that little of this expert advice was based on anything more than experience and conjecture. Because new roles of the local board were being established, research was needed to enlighten the path board members were traveling. To have board members travel the course without such knowledge would be to subject the schools to the painful, sometimes injurious tempering that only the heated rhetoric of politically motivated reform can muster.

Two major studies have produced the main body of recent suggestions for schools boards in need of improving the schools they oversee. Both studies were conducted under the direction of former United States Secretary of Education Terrel Bell. The National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE) was created in 1981 and generated its report, A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform in April, 1983. Nelson and Crum

conducted a national survey of school board policies and also issued a report in 1983.

The NCEE study was based on expert testimony and commissioned papers, not directly on research. The report included no listing of sources other than the listings of the commissioned papers and hearings. The Commission was composed of a variety of professionals ranging from a public school classroom teacher to the president of Yale University.

Nelson and Crum (1983) studied the role of the local school board in developing a good district. Regional United States Department of Education staff reviewed the policy manuals of 130 school districts from across the nation (Nelson, 1983). The questionnaire completed by the regional staff on each system included questions addressing fourteen specific areas. In the process of conducting and analyzing the policies of the local districts, regional study directors synthesized forty-six items they believed to enhance education. They found wide variance by region in the occurrence of these items. One region report noted that all of the items were found in at least one policy. Another region found that 30 of the 46 items were not located in any policy manual. Based on their study, Nelson and Crum offered several recommendations to boards. The authors noted that board members ". . . really are committed

to excellence in our public schools. However, they are not sure how to get the job done." (Nelson and Crum, p. 13).

Goals and philosophy. Goals are important to any organization. They are the foundation upon which the organization is built. Thomas Watson (1963) of IBM perhaps said it best:

. . . [A]ny organization, in order to survive and achieve success, must have a set of beliefs upon which it premise all its policies and actions [T]he single most important factor in corporate success is faithful adherence to those beliefs [I]f an organization is to meet the challenge of a changing world, it must be prepared to change everything about itself but these beliefs [T]he basic philosophy spirit and drive of an organization has far more to do with its achievements than do technological or economic resources, organizational structure, innovation, and timing." (p. 5)

A statement of philosophy is generally thought to be an essential component of a good board policy manual. A National School Boards Association survey of local board chairpersons from 810 United States districts (1981) suggested that this was a common role of the local board. The authors of the report suggested that the local board should assess what the community wants of its schools through a survey and develop a philosophy and goals based on the ideas expressed by the community. After the goals are set, enabling policies should be developed by the board. Only about five percent of the boards surveyed used formal needs assessments as a first or second source of

information. Ingrassia (1982) and Goodlad (1983) suggested the importance of input from teachers in framing educational philosophy and goals.

Hallinger, Murphy, and Mesa (1986) referred to the philosophy as "a district mission statement." They suggested that after the district mission statement is developed each school should be asked to develop a school goal statement. A "clear school mission", they insisted, is an important common characteristic of an effective school. After the district has helped the school define its "mission" (they gave the example "improvement of student achievement") the district should expect the school to develop about six school-wide goals from multiple data sources.

Ted Comstock, president of the National School Boards Association stated that local boards ". . . have absolute protection from an erosion of local control if school boards assume the responsibility with which they are invested." He suggested that local school boards should quickly take comprehensive measures to meet the concerns of the local citizens in the areas of curriculum, attendance regulations, and quality administrator selection (Chion-Kenney, 1985).

The American Association of School Administrators-National School Boards Association Joint Committee (1980)

suggested that board performance and goals be evaluated and reset each year. Crew (1975) and Gains (1978) also noted the importance of stating a philosophy and setting goals with which to measure educational progress. Nelson and Crum (1983) found the statement of educational philosophy and provision for education evaluation to be agreed-upon priorities for local school boards as set by a survey of United States Department of Education staff. They also found that all of the district policies they studied included a statement of educational philosophy. Edmonds (1982) suggested that one problem with some school's philosophy or goals is not their exclusion from the policy manual but that they are not known by all of the members (students and staff) of the organization. Rosenthal and Jacobson's classic 1968 study and more recent replications of it in both school and industry underline the importance of high expectations for students (Raudenbush, 1984).

Tennessee lengthened the school term in 1984-85 in accordance to suggestions by the NCEE. Local board members had to address their personal goals, as well as goals for their system when the legislature gave them permission to pay employees at the original 200 day salary and only work them 195 days. Some districts adopted the full 180 day school term; some elected to take a spring holiday and use the minimum 175 instructional days. Such actions

communicate the basic philosophy of the school system louder than proclamations flung toward the press during elections.

Hallinger, Murphy, and Mesa commented on the proper action of districts in promoting student opportunity to learn:

First, the total number of days in the school year should be protected against further erosion. The district office is the appropriate protector of this unit of instructional time since it is responsible, in most cases, for collective bargaining. Second, the total time of the school day also needs to be protected against shortening. Third, minimum amounts of time allocated for reading and math instruction can be set at the district level. Fourth, the district office can define minimum expectations and guidelines for the amount and type on homework to be given at different levels of schooling. Fifth, the district office can make principals aware of the importance of protecting instructional time from interruptions by public address announcement, office requests and tardy students.

They suggest that by developing policies which maximized learning opportunities for students, the board communicated higher expectations for the students and the school system.

It was interesting that at the same time that Tennessee increased student opportunities to learn through the extended school year, they violated the NCEE recommendation for schools to provide more time for teachers to study the curriculum and plan. This, however, was partially corrected by later legislative action. By the end of the 1986 legislative session the legislature compensated for this indiscretion toward teachers by

authorizing funds for elementary guidance counselors, mandating that teachers have duty free lunch periods, setting up a plan to increase mandatory music, art and physical education time for students, and mandating minimum amounts of planning each teacher was to receive while students were at school. (Tennessee Code Annotated, 1985, 49-1-302, 49-6-3). They did not address the issue of extending the school day to preserve current levels of student time in the basic academic curriculum. They apparently preferred to leave such issues in the hands of any local boards that might have the combination of missionary zeal and appreciation of the effective schools literature which was needed to preserve academic learning opportunities for students.

Well-developed goals can be readily analyzed and converted into measurable objectives and enabling policy. The absence of formal, written goals creates a void into which conflicting special interest group agendas creep, replacing the proper agenda of the organization with their objectives. Because special interest groups within the organization seldom have unitary goals, the organization becomes inefficient at attaining even the special interest group goals. An efficient school system must have well-developed, consistently-followed, and regularly-reviewed goals which reflect the public's purposes for creating and

maintaining the schools. The instructional program is the primary reason for the existence of the local board (Cubberley, 1922; Dykes, p. 13, 1965).

Curriculum and instructional practices. Murphy, Mesa, and Hallinger (1984) offered their suggestions for creating effective school districts based on a cite-less synthesis of research, national reports, and examples from effective school districts. They suggested that a district should clearly define its academic goals and develop consistency in the instructional practices and curriculum across the system. Experts in the areas of curriculum and instruction should be developed and maintained as site managers. Accountability of personnel for reaching and maintaining the district-prescribed level of excellence was suggested to be essential in achieving high student outcomes.

Effective schools emphasize the importance of basic skills mastery as goals. Goals must determine standards for promotion, as well as for curriculum, to avoid being a confusing facade. Promotions standards, standards for teacher performance in school, and standards for student performance in school communicate the true goals of the school system far clearer than a policy manual can. Principals and other administrators are the primary communicators of school philosophy and goals in most situations. Research has repeatedly pointed to the

importance of a strong instructional leader in the effective school (Edmonds, 1982).

The NCEE (1983) specified that the elementary curriculum should form a foundation for later study in English language skills, arithmetic and problem solving skills, science, social studies, foreign language, and the arts. Notably absent from this agenda are pre-vocational training, computer literacy, values education, and physical education.

The NCEE (1983) specified that instruction should be based on the principles of mastery learning, especially in the basics. Bloom (1984) and Walberg (1984) furthered this recommendation, suggesting that the technique of teaching to mastery is almost as effective in increasing learning as is one to one instruction.

Pupil policy. The NCEE (1983) stated that schools should develop more precise assessment techniques for use in determining student and school progress. They called for higher expectations of the students, as well as of the school. Social promotion was discouraged in favor of homogeneous grouping by mastery level. They suggested that grades should be strict indicators of competence. Tests for students moving from one level to the next should certify student mastery of prerequisite skills and identify those in need of remediation or acceleration. Nelson and

Crum (1983) suggested that competency examinations should be passed by graduating students. Wynn (1981) noted that more effective schools tended to retain and remediate more students than did underachieving schools. Tennessee has in place a high school proficiency test which potential graduates are required to pass in order to receive a regular high school diploma. The NCEE promoted the idea of retaining students who do not achieve a basic mastery of the core curriculum. Bloom (1984) noted that learner mastery of a skill before moving to another skill resulted in faster learning of the new material as well as better retention of the mastered material. Understanding of a unit of learning at less than the mastery level will lead to proactive inhibition later. Crew (1975) described the district-wide innovations that took place in Baltimore City Public Schools that resulted in increased achievement. He noted that they used criterion-referenced tests to identify students with less than mastery of basic academic skills. These students were then retained and/or assigned tasks to further encourage skill mastery.

Nelson and Crum (1983) recommended programs designed to call attention to excellent students. Erickson (1983) noted the importance of boards having a time in each meeting devoted to calling attention to a successful aspect of the schools.

The NCEE (1983) advocated setting strict behavioral expectancies for students and removing violators to other placements which feature programs designed specifically for this population. This would allow normal children to assume a faster academic pace. Edmonds (1982), McCormack-Larkin and Kritek (1982), and Murphy, Weil, Hallinger, and Mitman (1982) addressed expectations as communicated through standards for performance. Often the students who need time on task most are most often tardy or absent from the class. This observation prompted some districts to adopt tough attendance policies as well as to consider alternatives to suspensions and expulsions such as alternative schools and in-school suspensions. Wynn (1981) noted that staffs and students of effective schools had a good understanding of the limits for behavior and that limits were consistently enforced. Staffs saw enforcement of the rules as their duty regardless of their setting. Good schools tended periodically to review and revise student behavior policies. They also provided the students with current copies of school regulations.

Edmonds defined the effective school in terms of the progress of the lowest achieving quartile of the students relative to the highest quartile of students. Achievement was measured in terms of mastery of the basic skills curriculum, as well as standardized achievement test.

Edmonds stated that effective schools monitored programs, as well as students, utilizing standardized tests (1982).

Time and Teacher Workload. Longer school days and terms, as well as more effective use of classroom time were, promoted by the NCEE. They suggested that instructional time could be enhanced by relieving the administrative burden of teachers and letting them concentrate on instruction. They concluded that teachers need an eleven month contract in order to allow adequate time to study the curriculum and plan for the suggested 200 to 220 day school term. Both the NCEE and the Crum and Nelson studies suggested that local schools should set aside more time for the basics.

Staff development. The NCEE called on the state and local governments to increase teacher pay and install merit pay plans. They suggested that teachers should be at least partially evaluated by peers who really know what is appropriate for the classroom and can offer concrete suggestions for improvement. Nelson and Crum recommended that boards give careful consideration to recruitment, selection, and development of teachers. They suggested that the board initiate activities designed to recognize teacher excellence.

Other recommendations. Nelson and Crum advocated that community and industrial partnerships in education should be forged. They also suggested that the effectiveness of counseling programs, extracurricular activities, and extended hours of library operation should be evaluated.

Chapter Summary

This chapter looked at the availability of resources for local Tennessee school boards interested in improving their systems. Following the passage of CERA the board had less control of the local system than at any time in the 190 year history of public education in Tennessee. Indications suggested that this trend would continue and possibly accelerate unless local school boards exerted their power and established better practices from the district level.

There was no shortage of advice for local school boards interested in improvement. Various reports, generated by private and public sectors addressed "the effective schools movement." A careful review of these reports suggested that they were based upon scant research with district or local school boards. This chapter outlined a statement of need for this study and defined the scope of the survey to be used.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS

A. INTRODUCTION

At the time of this study, little research had been conducted that addressed the question: What behaviors of local school boards are associated with the effectiveness of the system's elementary school program? State legislative trends suggested a path of increasing state control of education, partially as a result of public dissatisfaction with the educational status quo of the 1970's and early 1980's. Federal reports suggested greater building level control of education to be a desired goal. Various expert recommendations offered local school boards an almost endless list of suggestions which may or may not have been associated with district effectiveness.

This study was conducted to provide data on the association between local school board practices and school system effectiveness at the elementary level in the 1984-85 school year. Although it was realized that education changes rapidly, it was hoped that the insights gained from the study of a limited number of systems in one year might provide help to other systems in Tennessee in following years. These insights, if achieved, should assist local

school systems, future researchers, and state education officials in developing effective elementary schools.

Because of requests from several of the local school system superintendents involved, the findings are reported in a form that conceals the identities of the systems studied. Frequently this involved using rounding of numbers or using averages with ranges.

While each survey item will be mentioned in this chapter, only those which seemed to be promising targets for further research are discussed in detail and displayed in graphic form. Some information included in the appendices includes system codes. The first element of the code, a letter, indicates the relative distance the system was from the regression line (See Appendix E). The second element of the code, a numeral, indicates the group, more (2) or less (1) effective, the system was in. The systems with A's were the farthest from the regression line in their respective groups and the systems with G's were nearest the regression line in their groups. A copy of the survey instrument used can be found in Appendix D.

B. DEMOGRAPHIC FINDINGS

Superintendents

The 1984-85 mean salary of the superintendents of effective districts was \$46,148 as compared to a mean

salary of \$30,010 in the less effective districts (Figure 1, also Appendix H). The superintendent salaries ranged from \$25,000 to \$61,000, both of these extremes being in the more effective system group. Three of the seven superintendents in the more effective districts had doctoral degrees and four had Master's degrees. One of these Master's level superintendents had completed his doctoral course work and was writing his dissertation. Three of the superintendents in the less effective districts had Educational Specialist degrees and four had Master's degrees. Two of the superintendents in the seven effective districts graduated from high school in that district. All of the superintendents of the less effective districts graduated from the same district they were managing (Figure 2). One superintendent from the effective group was elected. All of the superintendents from the less effective group were elected (Figure 3).

Two of the superintendents in the less effective districts stated they sometimes did not make recommendations to the board. One suggested that he delegated this task to a committee designed to handle student conduct proceedings unless the committee failed to recommend. The other superintendent stated that he did not recommend when he "knew" the board would overrule his personnel recommendation. All the other superintendents

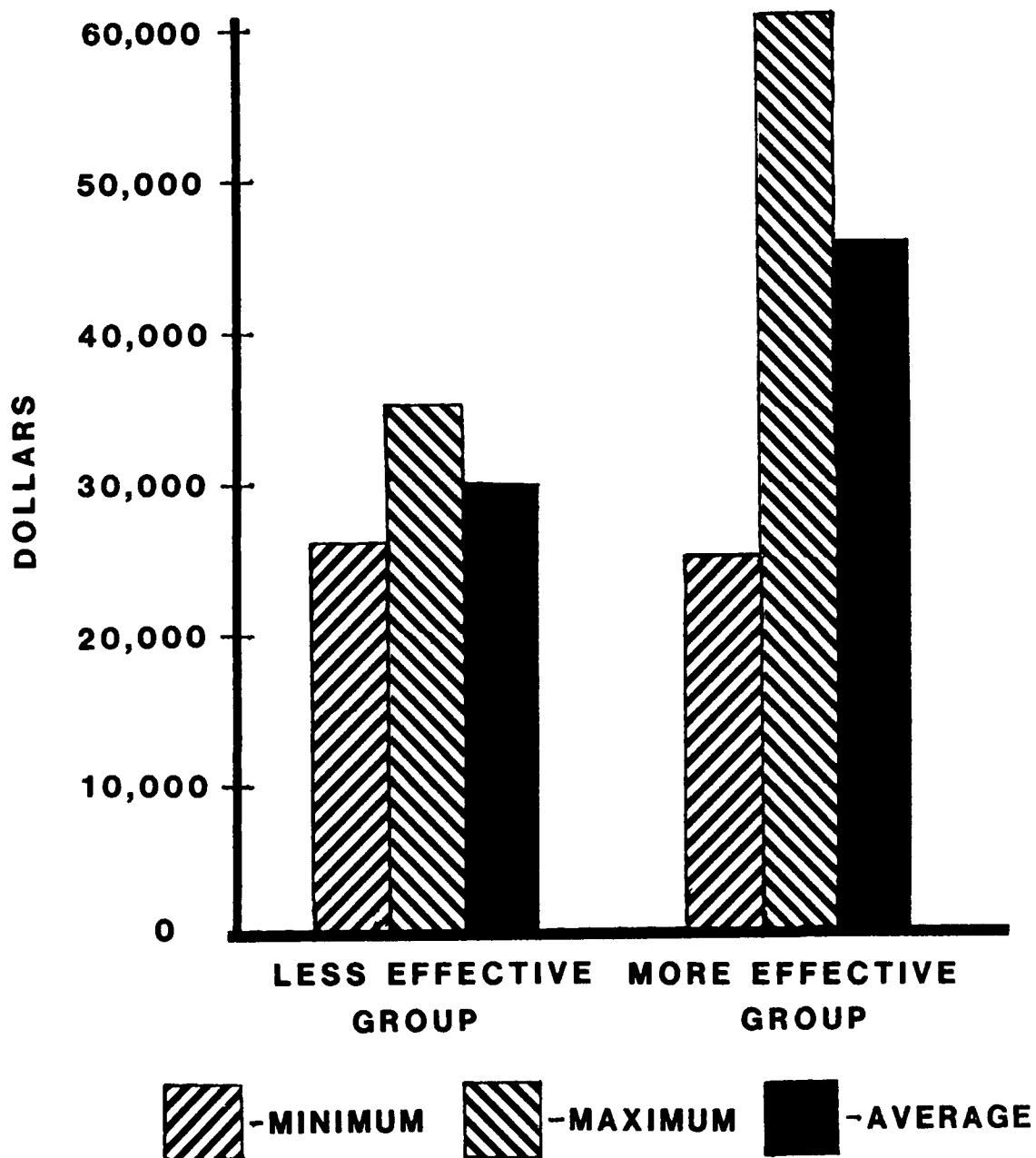


Figure 1. Salaries of superintendents by less effective and more effective groups.

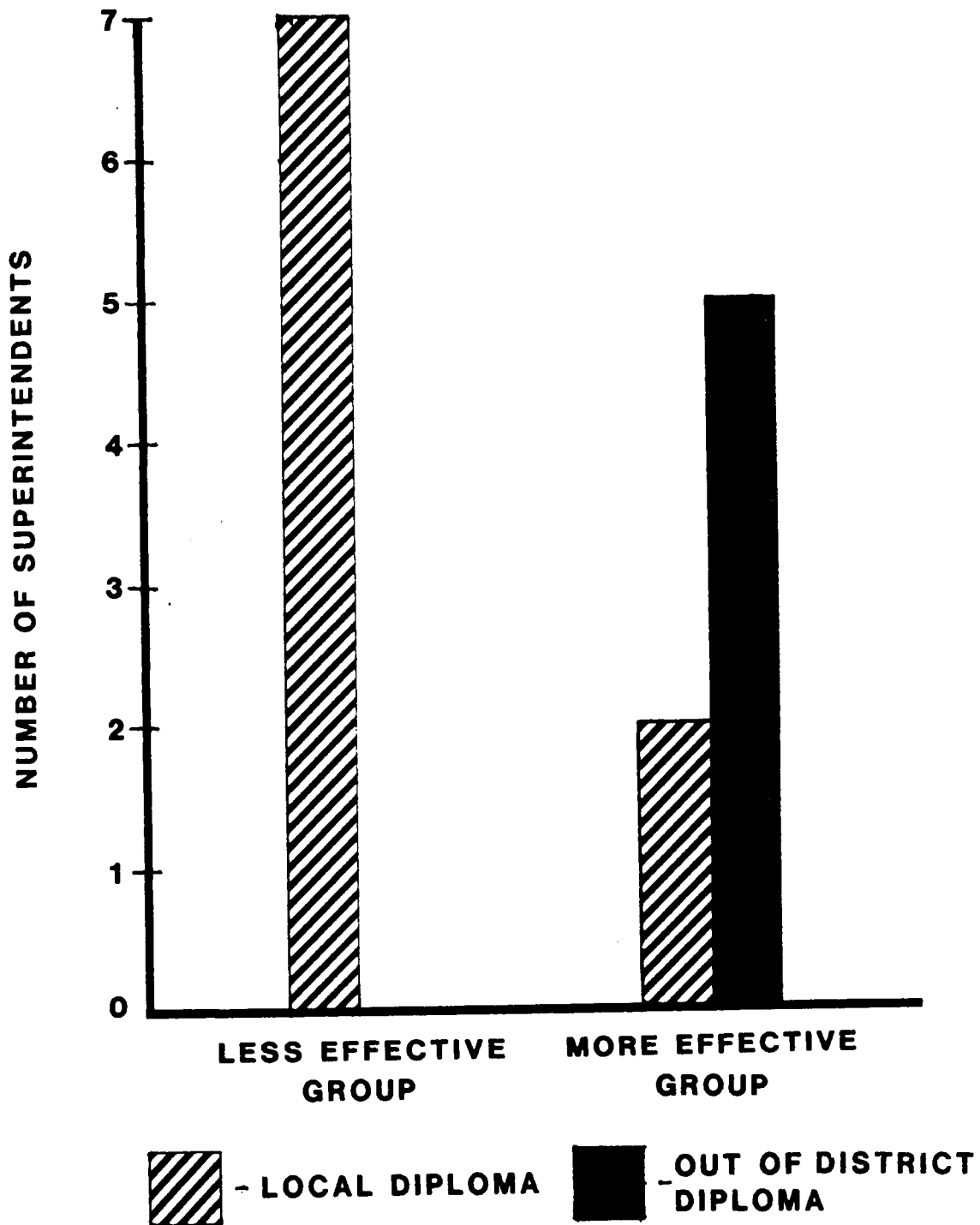


Figure 2. Place of superintendent high school graduation by effectiveness group.

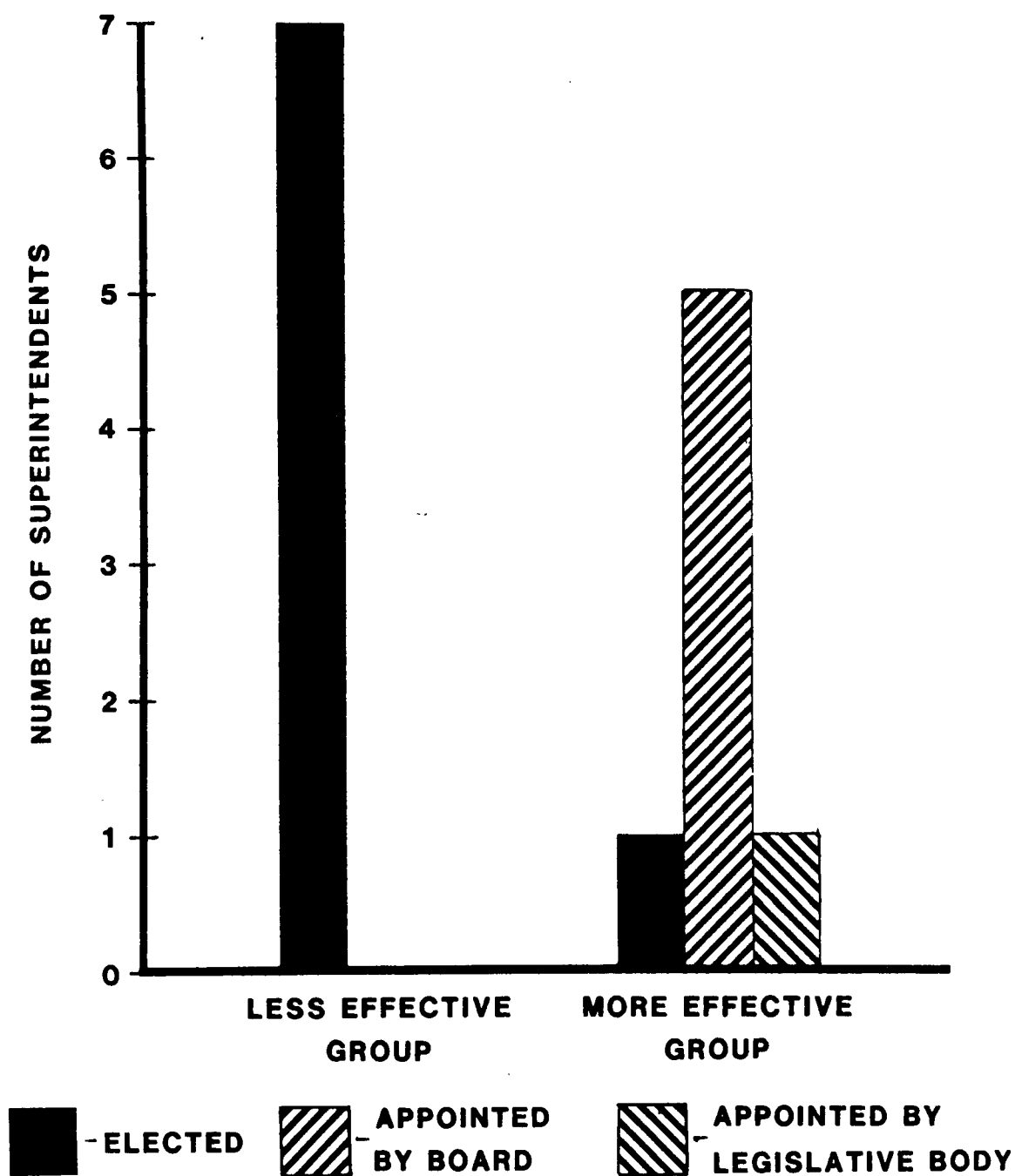


Figure 3. Method of selecting superintendent by effectiveness group.

recommended in all areas at all times. Two superintendents in effective districts and three superintendents in less effective districts saw their board take action contrary to their recommendations. Two superintendents of effective districts noted that they made the decision on who to hire without real board input. One stated he had negotiated this when he came to the system, the other stated that the city charter gave him authority to hire personnel.

Boards of Education

Of the thirty-six people on the boards of the effective districts, nine were working in education or had worked in education. Additionally, one farmer/board member had a Master's degree in educational administration and one former school custodian was a board member. Only three of the 48 board members from less effective districts had similar professional education credentials. Two (4 percent) of the board members from less effective districts were full-time homemakers (Figure 4). The interviews suggested that a number of these were wives of physicians, corporate executives, etcetera. Data on board member spouse occupations were not systematically collected. Seven (19 percent) of the board members from effective districts were full-time homemakers. Eight (22 percent) of the board members from effective districts had no college training. The majority (60 percent) of the board members

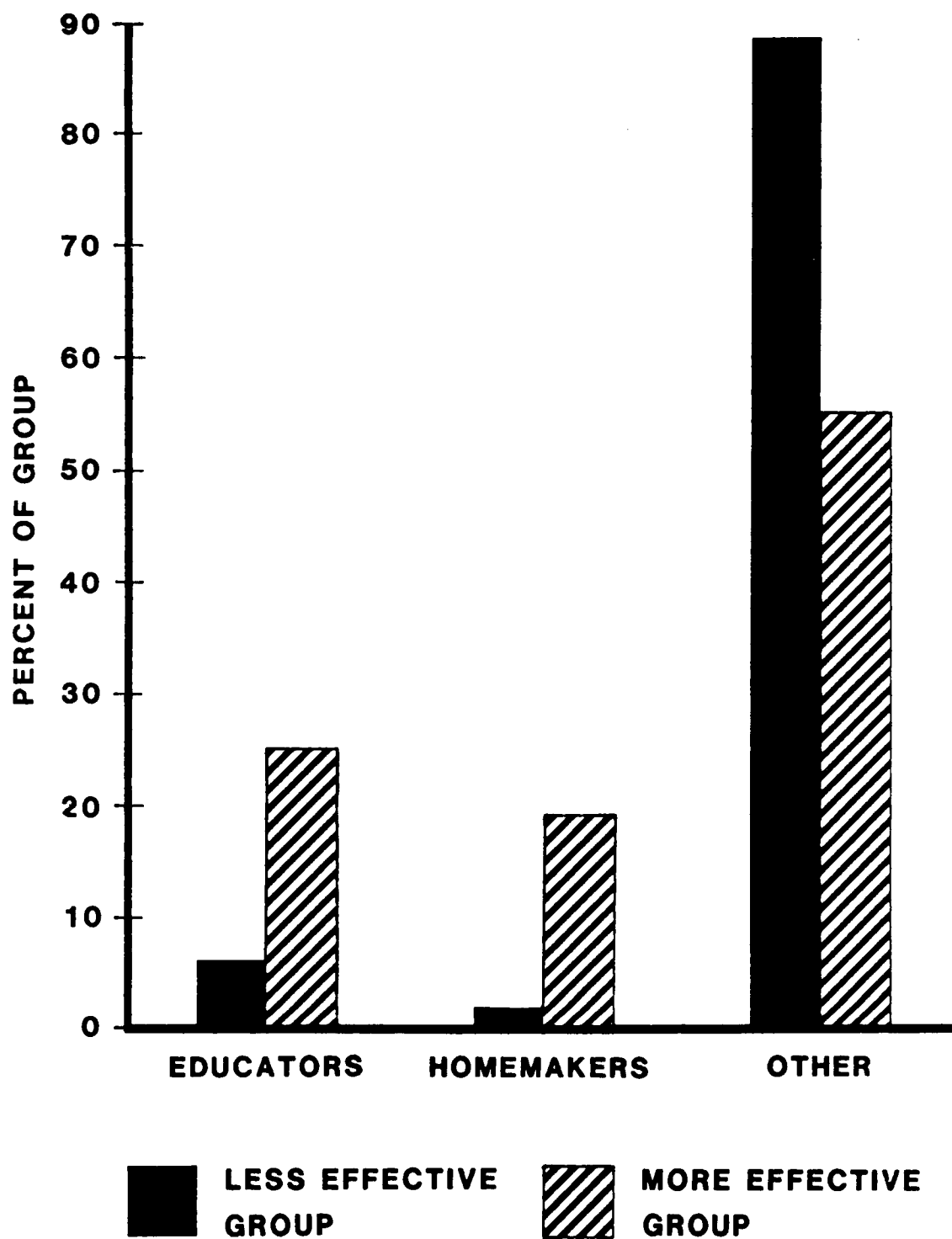


Figure 4. Occupations of school board members by effectiveness group.

from less effective districts had no college training (Figure 5). Nineteen percent of the board members from effective districts did not graduate from high school in that district. Similarly, 16 percent of the board members from less effective districts did not graduate from that district. Five of the seven boards of effective districts were elected at large (Appendix I). All of the seven less effective districts' boards were elected by district (Figure 6). The seven districts which made up the more effective group averaged having five board members (one had 4 and one had 7). The less effective districts had boards ranging in size from five to eleven, averaging seven members.

School Systems

Five of the seven effective districts had Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) accredited elementary schools. None of the seven less effective districts had accredited elementary schools though most had accredited high schools (Figure 7).

Significant differences between the financial profiles of the groups were found (Appendix J, Figure 8). The average per pupil expenditure for instruction in the effective districts was \$1671. Per pupil expenditures for instruction in the effective districts ranged from \$1300 in district B(2) to \$2400 in district A(2). Per pupil

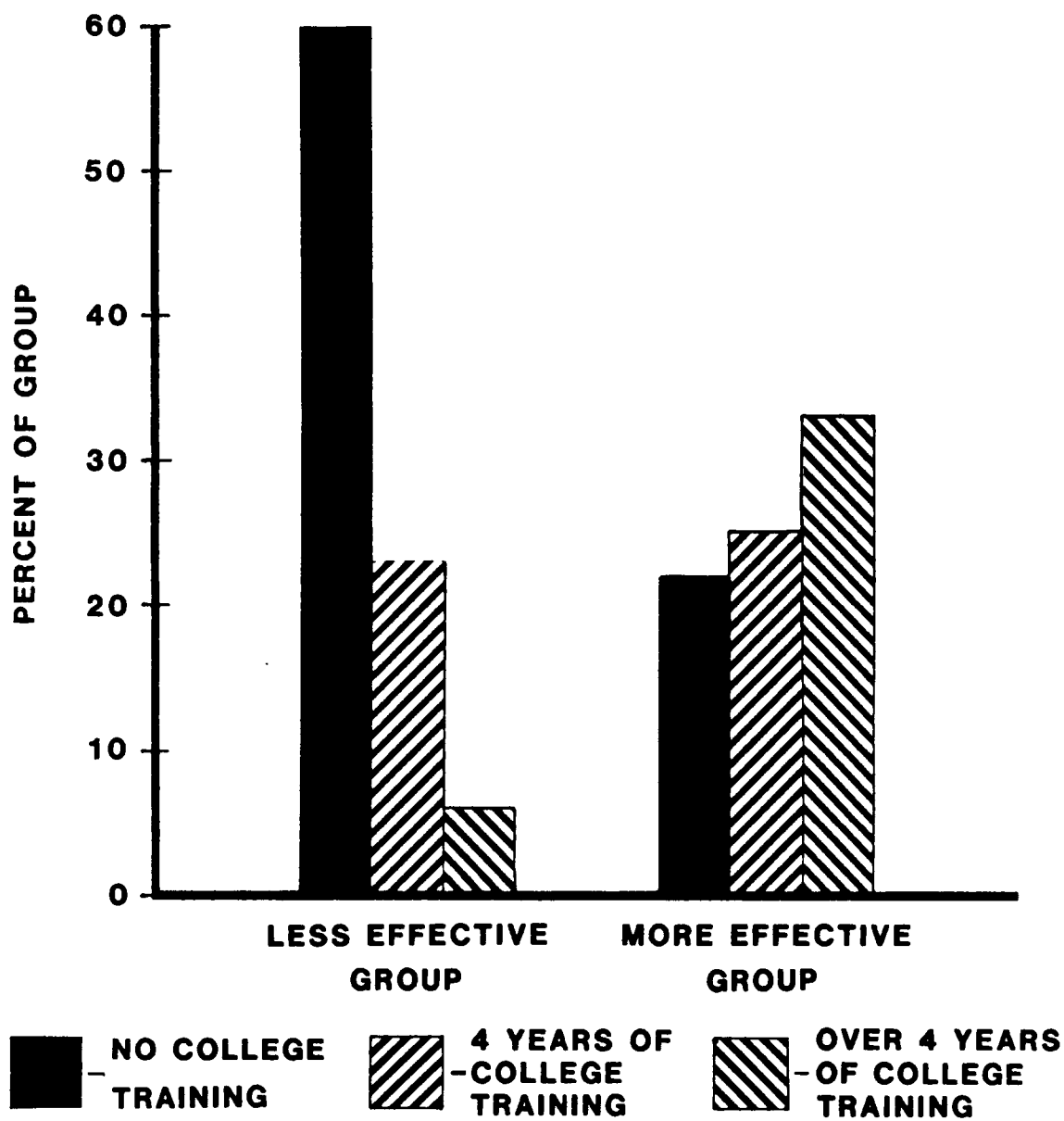


Figure 5. College education of board members by effectiveness group.

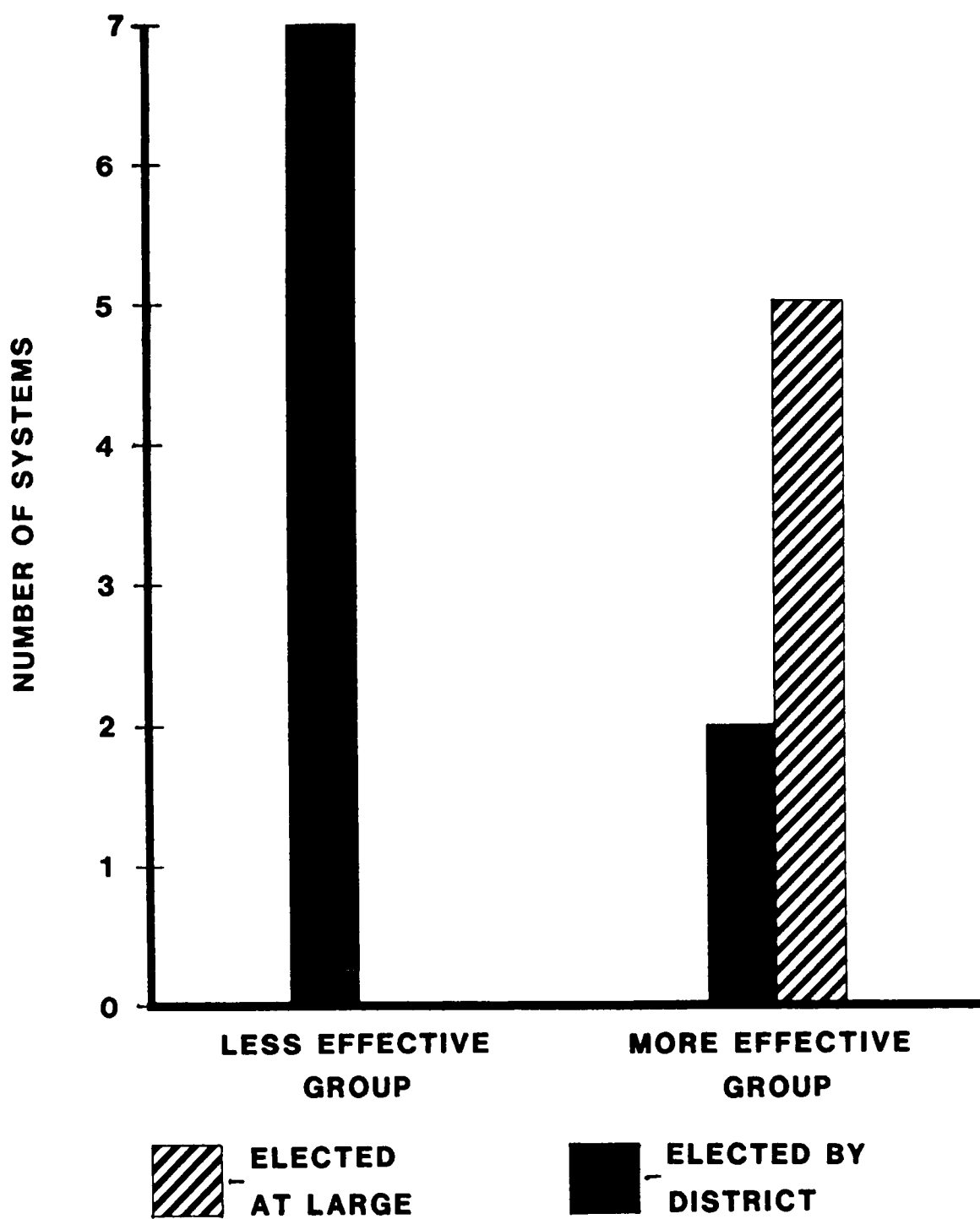


Figure 6. Method of electing school board members by effectiveness group.

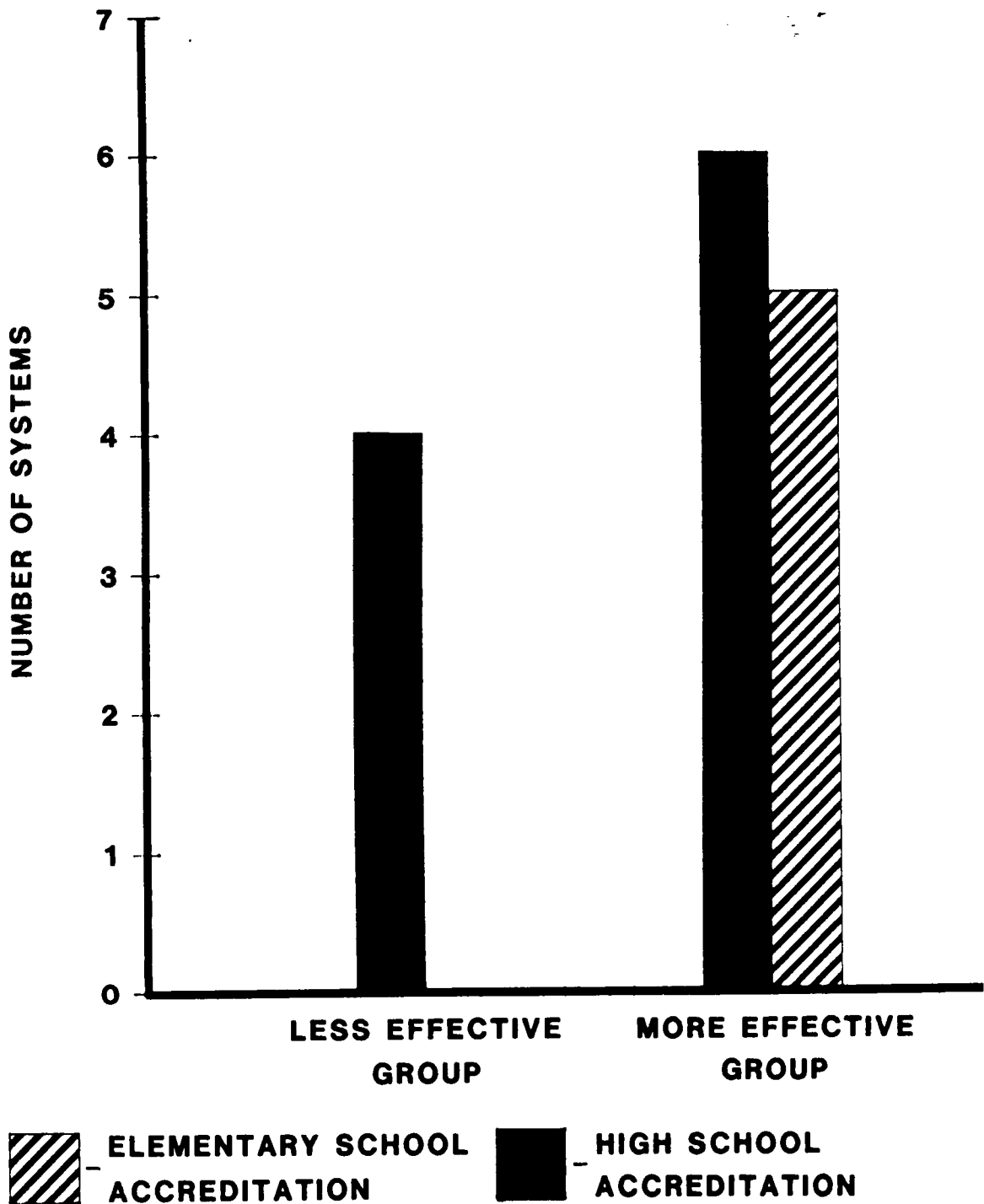


Figure 7. Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) accreditation by effectiveness group.

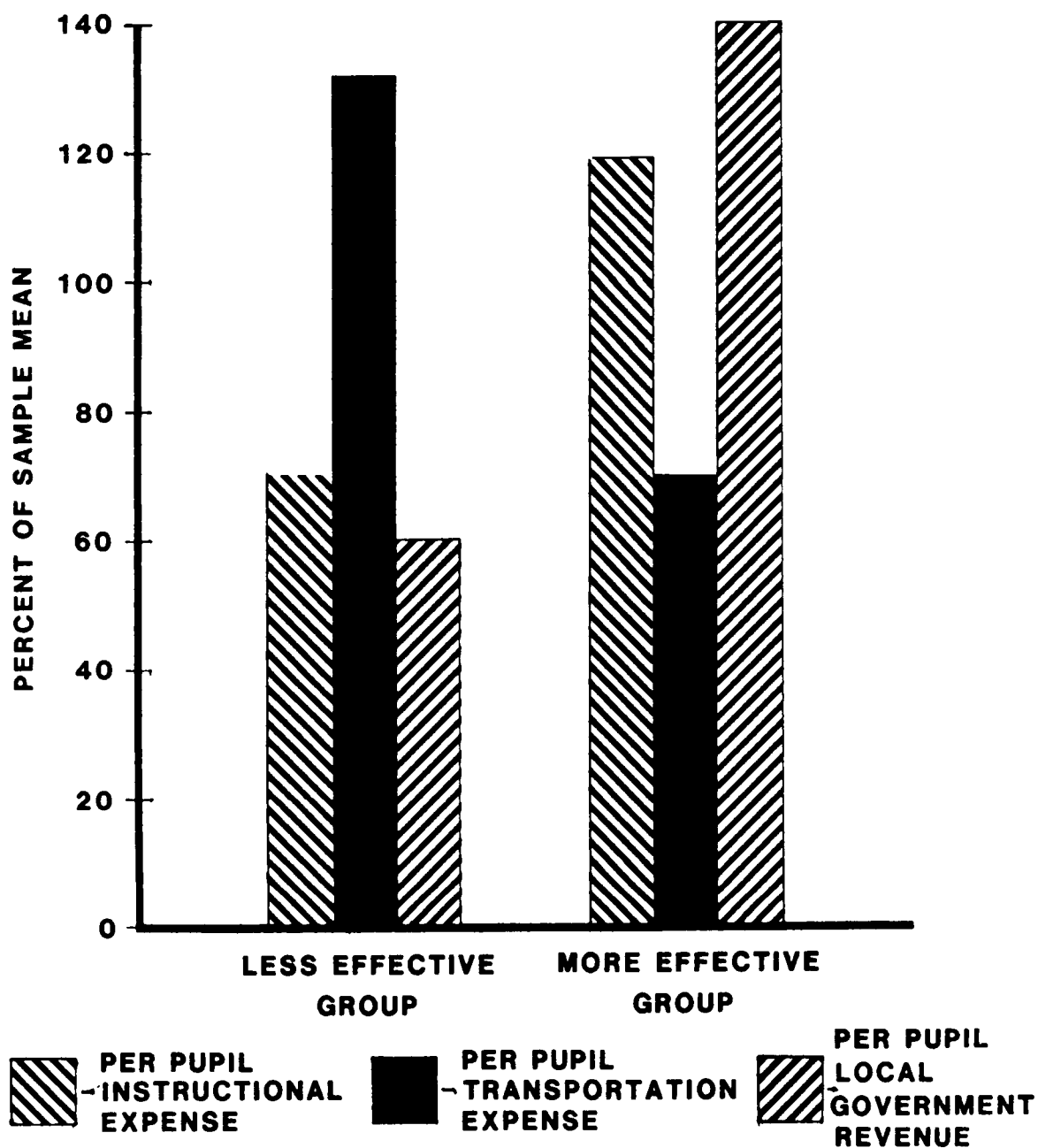


Figure 8. Financial profiles of effectiveness groups.

expenditures for instruction in the less effective districts ranged from \$1000 in district D(1) to \$1300 in district E(1) and averaged \$1134.

The average per pupil expenditure for administration in the effective districts was \$56 with a range from \$40 in district C(2) to \$80 in district A(2). The less effective districts varied from \$30 in district F(1) to \$65 in district B(1), averaging \$44.

The average per pupil expenditure for transportation in the effective group ranged from \$0 in district D(2) to \$150 in district B(2) with an average of \$66. The less effective group averaged \$128 with a range from \$110 in districts A(1) and F(1) to \$170 in district C(1).

The effective districts averaged getting \$971 from the state while the less effective districts received \$1005 in state aide per pupil in average daily attendance (Appendix K). The state grants to the effective districts ranged from \$840 for district C(2) to \$1100 for district A(2).

Local dollars for education in the effective districts averaged \$1438. The less effective districts managed to collect \$615 per pupil from local government sources.

Four of the effective districts and six of the less effective districts had waivers for oversize elementary classes. The sample mean ratio of system total number of elementary students to total number of teachers of 19.16:1

was exceeded by two effective districts and five less effective districts.

C. BOARD OPERATIONS

Formal Goals

Four of the more effective systems and three of the less effective systems had board adopted goals in their policy manuals. Six systems from each group reportedly had written goals.

Implied Goals

In the process of designing the study, the researcher found the importance of the local school board's nonpublic goals or "real" mission to be of interest. The survey included an item regarding the length of the school term in an effort to measure the implied goals of the board. The more effective districts went an average of 4.4 days beyond the minimum school year (range from 0 days to 6 days), with all but one system going at least five extra days. The less effective school districts went an average of .9 days beyond the minimum school year (range from 0 to 5 days), with only one system going as many as 5 extra days (Figure 9).

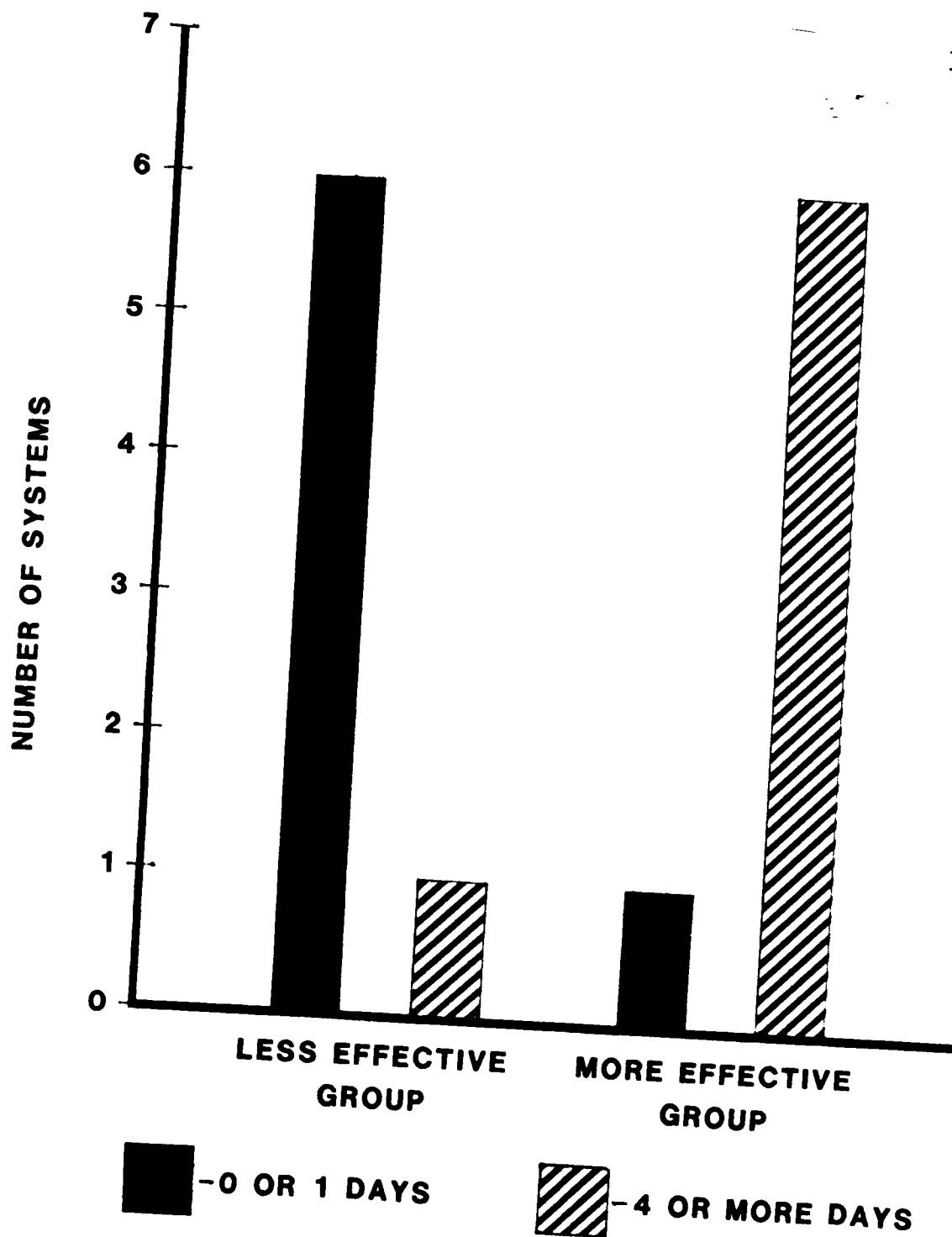


Figure 9. Number of instructional days beyond the state minimum by effectiveness group.

Plans

None of the systems surveyed had measurable objectives recorded in their policies or minutes. Three systems from each group reported having administratively developed objectives.

One item asked if the system had a method of evaluating the system's progress. Five of the effective districts reported a formal procedure either through the interview or in a board policy. An additional effective district had such a report in the minutes. One of the less effective districts reported that no such action took place. Later examination of this system's policy revealed mention of such a process. Another less effective system had a policy which concurred with the superintendent's report. After weighing whether or not evaluation was occurring before the board, the researcher judged that it was occurring in six of the effective districts and in one of the less effective districts (Figure 10).

D. INSTRUCTION

The instructional program was seldom mentioned in the minutes of the systems studied. Only two of the systems surveyed did not exceed the state minimum Stanford

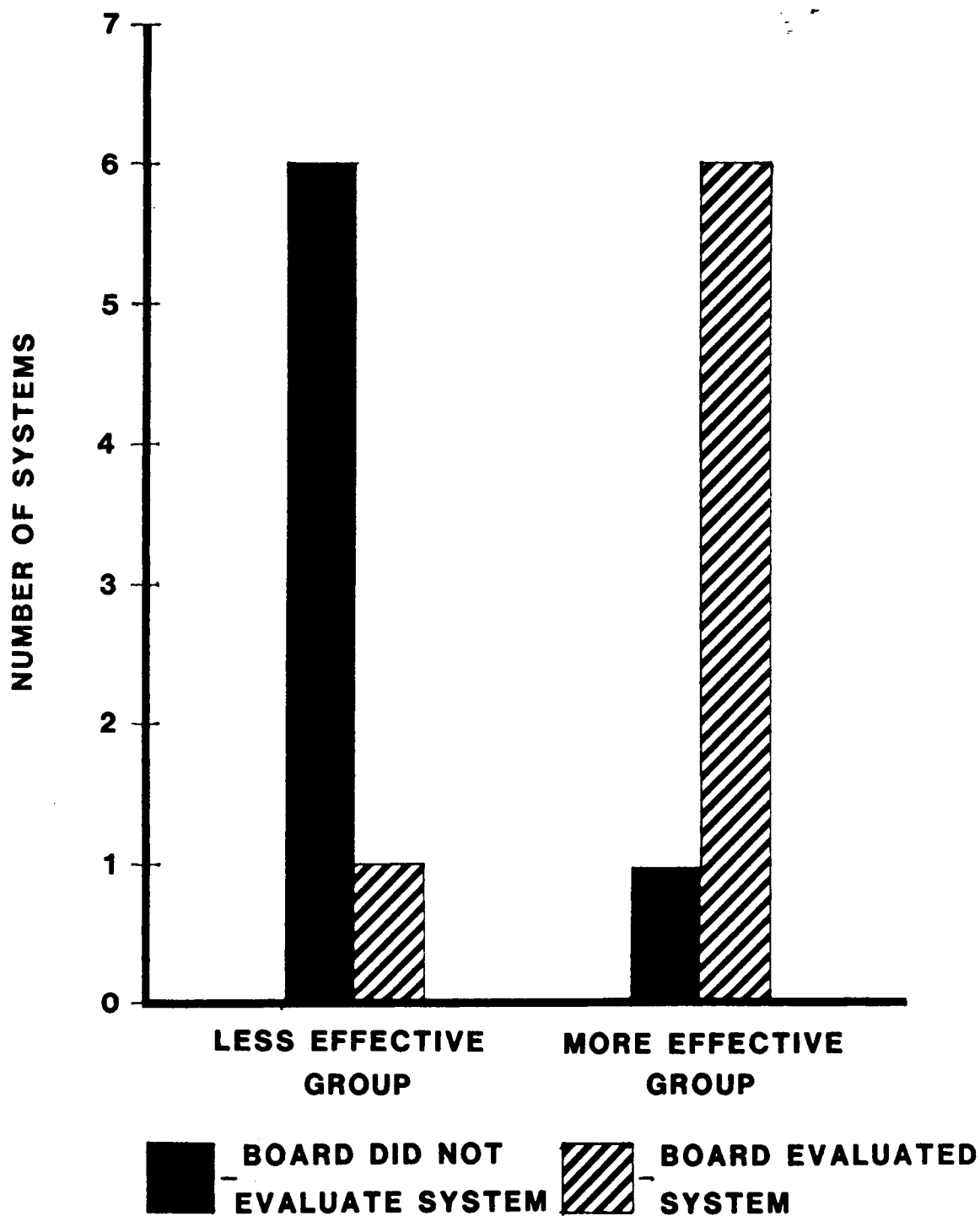


Figure 10. School board evaluation of school system by effectiveness group.

Achievement testing program (for grades 2, 5, and 7) - they were among the less effective districts.

While all of the systems reported that they followed a curriculum, only one, from the effective group, had a policy specifying the curriculum. Three of the effective districts reported following a curriculum which had been locally developed. All of the less effective districts followed the state-developed curriculum for elementary schools.

Three of the effective districts and one of the less effective districts had a policy on student awards. Half of the superintendents reported writing congratulatory letters to elementary students who achieved some academic distinction. Three of the effective districts had awards other than superintendent letters. The types of academic awards programs included banquets, system-wide honor rolls, and board resolutions. Two effective and two less effective districts reported the granting of superintendent letters or board resolutions for nonacademic achievements.

No policies on locally funded remedial or gifted programs were located. Five of the effective districts and two of the less effective districts were reported to have local programs for gifted students. Three of the effective districts and none of the less effective districts had some type of local remedial program beyond that provided by the

federal government through Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981. These remedial programs typically consisted of teacher pairing, homogeneous grouping and other low-cost approaches.

Five of the effective districts had paid music staff delivering music programs to all elementary students. Three of the less effective districts had similar programs.

Five of the effective districts and two of the less effective districts reported having book censorship policies in place. Six of the effective group and four of the less effective group reported annually reviewing library circulation.

Four of the effective districts and one of the less effective districts were reported to have curriculum research projects in place. The effective systems averaged having twice as many locally purchased instructional computers per child enrolled as the less effective schools.

One effective district and three less effective districts had policies calling for teacher centers or media centers. Three of the effective districts and four of the less effective districts reported having teacher/media centers and/or had policies calling for such a center. One of the less effective districts did not provide local money for building level teaching supplies.

Three of the effective districts and one of the less effective districts had policies which partially controlled religion being taught in the schools. Six of the less effective districts and five of effective districts had policies restricting the school's athletic program. It was interesting to note that two of the six superintendents from the less effective districts above reported that no local policy or rule existed which would limit the academic program. Only one system dismissed school for students to attend an athletic program. It was from the less effective group.

Three of the effective districts and four of the less effective districts had policies pertaining to elementary school fund raising. The survey revealed that one effective district and five less effective districts reported the use of door-to-door selling by elementary students to raise funds for building level expenses. Three of the effective districts and six of the less effective districts reported using festivals to raise school funds.

E. PERSONNEL

Job descriptions found in policies varied in their degree of detail. Three of the less effective districts and none of the effective districts included in their policies general descriptions of the tasks an instructional

aide was expected to perform. Five of the effective districts reported that the aide's job description was administratively written and not a part of the policy.

Job descriptions for teachers were included in the policies of two effective districts and all of the less effective districts (Figure 11). All districts reported having job descriptions for teachers, principals, and the superintendent. Job descriptions for principals were found in all of the policy manuals from the less effective districts and in three policy manuals from the effective districts. All of the less effective districts had a job description for the superintendent. Superintendent job descriptions were found in five policy manuals from effective districts. Five manuals from less effective districts included a description of the supervisor's job. Two manuals from effective districts included job descriptions for supervisors. In general, effective districts put fewer job descriptions in their policy manuals, leaving this personnel function to the administration.

While the tenure law provides a basic code of conduct and appeal process for teachers, four of the effective group and three of the less effective group included a

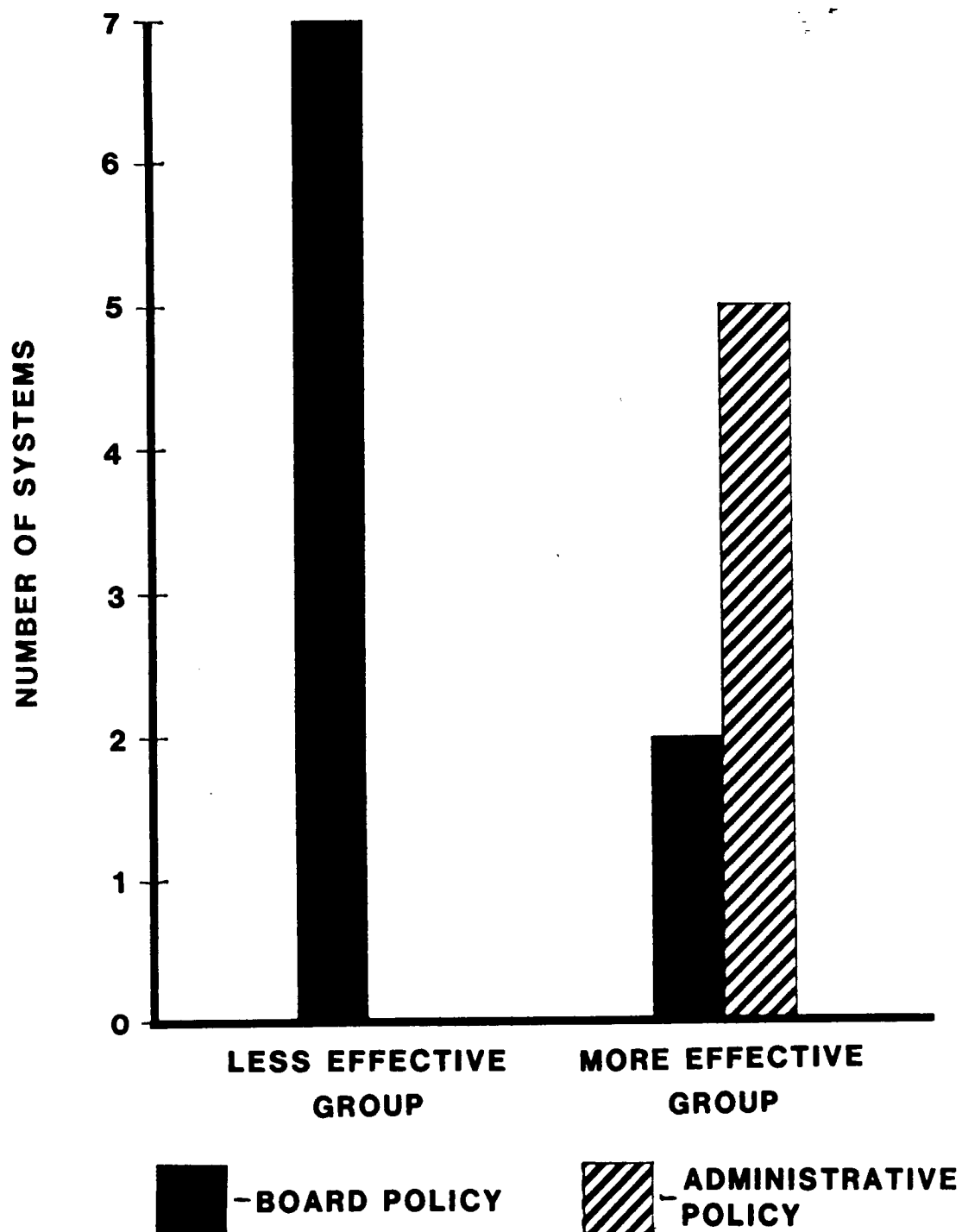


Figure 11. Method of teacher job description specification by effectiveness group.

teacher conduct code in their policies. Five systems in each group had policies or guidelines describing the appeal process for teachers' problems. Four effective systems and three less effective systems had employee layoff and/or promotion policies.

Personnel evaluation is an important function of any organization. While all systems had provisions for the evaluation of teachers, three less effective and four effective districts had a board-adopted policy on teacher evaluation. Four of the effective districts utilized a local model for teacher evaluation. All other systems used the state model for teacher evaluation (Figure 12). Six of the effective districts and two of the less effective districts had written provisions for the evaluation of principals and supervisors. All of the superintendents from the less effective districts and one of the superintendents from the effective districts were evaluated "by the people" through elections. All of the appointed superintendents reported that they were periodically evaluated by the board. One of this group reported a "Management By Objectives" (MBO) evaluation procedure was used to evaluate him and the system simultaneously.

Inservice is an integral part of any system's effort to maintain a modern educational program. No system surveyed had a policy on inservice for instructional aides

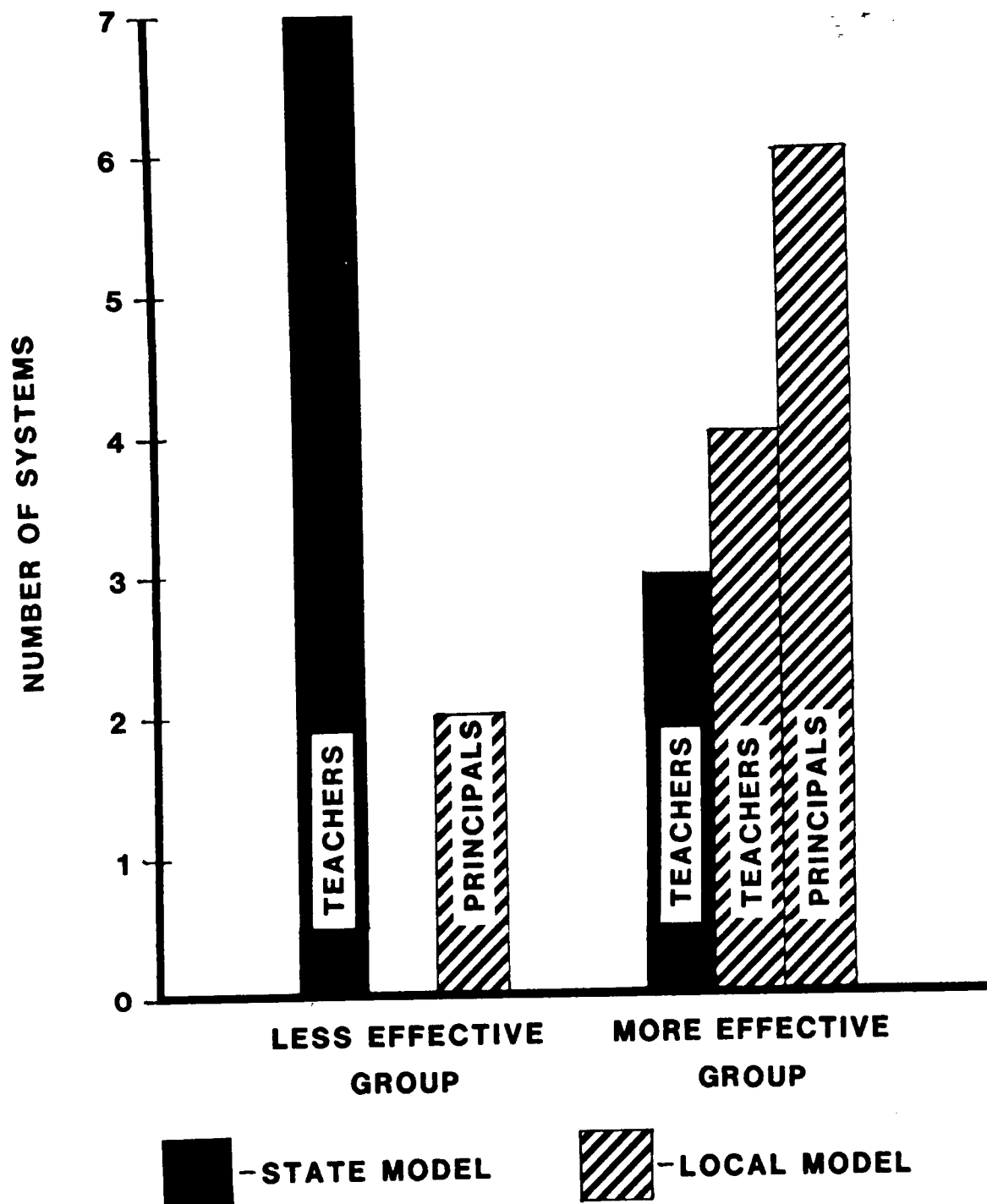


Figure 12. Certified personnel evaluation models by effectiveness group.

or substitute teachers. Two effective and three less effective districts had inservice for substitute teachers during the 1984-'85 school year. At least one of the effective districts has had substitute teacher inservice since then. There was a reported plan to conduct such inservice every two or three years in some systems. All but two districts, one from each group, had inservice for instructional aides. Two more effective systems and one less effective system had policies on teacher inservice. Four systems from each group paid at least a portion of the expenses teachers incurred in attending workshops selected by the teacher. Three of the effective districts had inservice for principals outside that for teachers; two of these were retreats. Only the superintendents from four of the effective districts attended national meetings of organizations such as American Association of School Administrators (AASA), National School Boards Association (NSBA), and a conference at a university. All superintendents participated in state meetings such those offered by Tennessee Organization of School Superintendents (TOSS), Tennessee Superintendents Study Council, and Tennessee School Boards Association (TSBA) (Figure 13). Unlike their less effective counterparts, five

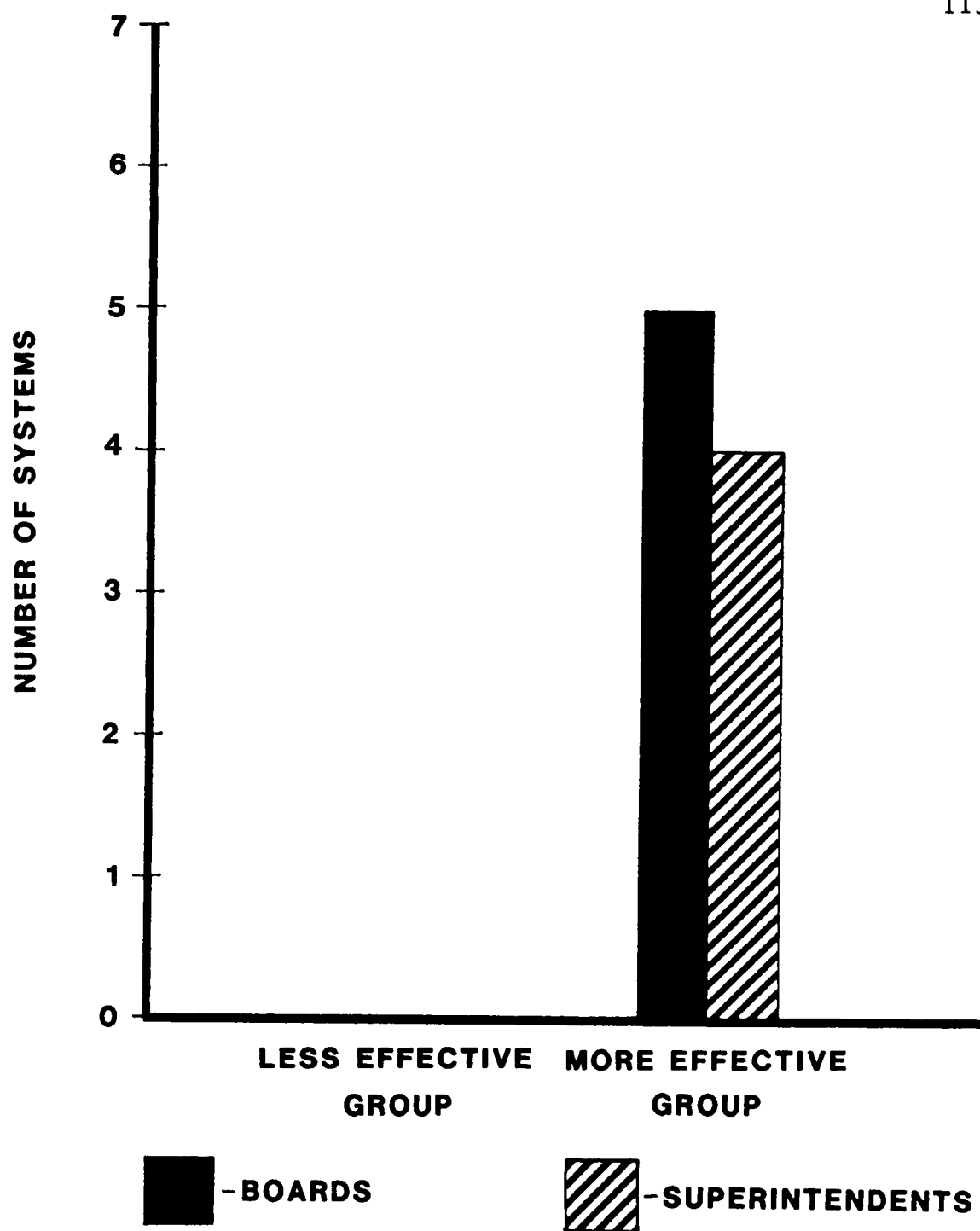


Figure 13. Superintendent and school board member attendance of national conferences effectiveness group

of the effective districts reported sending members to NSBA. All boards participated to some degree in TSBA activities.

F. STUDENT SERVICES

Two systems from each group had elementary students in an alternative school for behavior/social control. All but two systems from the less effective group reported having provisions for in-school suspension. Four of the effective districts used policy to define student rights. Three less effective districts used policy and three used administrative guidelines to define student rights. The rights listed in board policy manuals ranged from a restating of constitutional rights, to a vaguely defined right to an education, to rights under state laws pertaining to student suspension. Five systems from each group reported having written procedures for student appeals to the board. All of the effective districts and five of the less effective districts had a student attendance code in the policies. One system, a system in the less effective group, reportedly had no student attendance guidelines. Five effective systems and six less effective systems reported having promotion codes. Six systems from each group reported having dress codes.

Policies and guidelines requiring parent conferences for students who had behavior difficulties were generally drawn from the state law on the matter. Five systems from each group required parent conferences for students at risk of retention. Four of the effective systems and six of the less effective systems reported having policies or guidelines encouraging parent volunteers. Four effective systems and six less effective systems did not have a list of parent rights in guideline or policy form.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. SURVEY AND STATISTICAL DATA

Demographic Data

The statistically significant findings of this study are displayed in the figures included Chapter III. Table 1 includes the significant demographic items with their respective chi squares.

The superintendent. The superintendent's salary, place of high school graduation, and method of selection, were associated with the district's effectiveness (Appendix H). Superintendents in effective districts averaged making 54 percent more, excluding fringe benefits, than their counterparts in less effective districts. Some of the extra money spent in superintendent's salaries in effective districts seemed to be have been spent on hiring more highly credentialed people as all three doctorate level superintendents were found in the effective group of systems. The data also suggested that hiring a person not from the local community was significantly associated with effectiveness. Appointed superintendents were associated with effective districts.

Table 1
Chi Square Analysis for
Significant Demographic Items
($p < .10$)

Item	More Effective Group (N = 7)	Less Effective Group (N = 7)	Chi Square (Yates) (df = 1)	Prob- ability (Fisher)
Above Average Superintendent Salary (State Mean = \$34,626)	4	0	3.15	.029
Non-local Superintendent's High School Diploma	5	0	4.98	.021
Non-elected Superintendent	6	0	7.29	.005
Board elected at large	5	0	4.98	.021
Portion of Board Group with Education Background	11/36	3/48	7.09	<.01 *
Portion of Board Group Full-time Homemakers	7/36	2/48	3.54	<.10 *
Portion of Board with College Training	28/36	20/48	9.53	<.01 *
SACS Accreditation of Elementary School(s)	4	0	3.15	.070
Below Average Per Pupil Transportation Expenditures (State Mean = \$99)	6	0	7.29	.005
Above Average Per Pupil Instructional Expenditures (State Mean = \$1418)	4	0	3.15	.070
Above Average Local Government Revenue Per Pupil (State Mean = \$1039)	5	0	4.98	.021

* From chi square tables.

The school board. The boards of effective districts were significantly different from their counterparts in the way they were elected, their college experience, their size and their professions (Appendix I). Boards elected at large and boards with members professionally trained as educators or formally employed in education were associated with system effectiveness. Board members who were full-time homemakers were also associated with system effectiveness. School board members of effective districts tend to have higher amounts of college education than their counterparts in less effective districts.

The school system. Southern Association of Colleges and Schools accreditation of elementary schools was associated with effectiveness. Accreditation of high schools was not.

Transportation costs were significantly higher in the less effective districts than in the effective districts (Appendix J). This reflected the rural nature of the less effective districts in relation to the effective districts. There was no significant difference in administrative costs per pupil between the groups. Instructional expenditures per pupil were significantly higher in the more effective group.

No significant difference was found in the number of state or federal dollars received per child between the two

groups (Appendix K). Three of the effective districts and six of the less effective districts received more state dollars for education than the state mean. Three of the effective and one of the less effective districts exceeded the state mean number of federal dollars received per child. Significantly, all of the less effective and only two of the effective districts were below the sample average in local dollars expended per pupil. It can easily be seen that the location of a Tennessean's home within the state has a great deal to do with the amount of money invested in his education. System B(2) showed that it may be possible to overcome some of the tendency toward system ineffectiveness associated with severe shortages of local funds.

Board Operations

There were seven significant findings in this area. Chapter III contains figures for these items. Table 2 includes statistical details for these findings.

Goals. School boards are the public's voice in the education system. They set the philosophy and goals of the system. In the sample of systems studied, the stating of a philosophy of education in the board policy was neither positively nor negatively associated with system effectiveness. Similarly, the presence of goals in the

Table 2
Chi Square Analysis for Significant
Board Operations Items
($p < .10$)

Item	More Effective Group (N = 7)	Less Effective Group (N = 7)	Chi Square (Yates) (df = 1)	Prob- ability (Fisher)
Systems with 180 or More Instructional Days	6	1	4.57	.029
Board Evaluation of System	6	1	4.57	.029
No Teacher Job Description in Board Policy Manual	5	0	4.98	.021
No Principal Job Description in Policy Manual	4	0	3.15	.070
Local Model for Teacher Evaluation	4	0	3.15	.070
Superintendent Attendance at National Meetings or a University Conference	4	0	3.15	.070
Board Member(s) Attendance at NSBA Conference	5	0	4.98	.021

policy manual was not associated with the degree of system effectiveness.

Item 43 asked about the number of days school was in session during the 1984-85 school year. The researcher doubted that the addition of five days beyond the required 175 would permit the delivery of a quantity of instruction which would, in itself, produce a significant difference in such a small survey. This item was included as an attempt to measure the boards' hidden agendas or value systems. If they valued instructional time, they would not permit teachers to take a paid holiday in lieu of instruction. The difference between the two groups on the item proved to be statistically significant.

School boards are responsible for monitoring the progress of the school system. One way to do this is to have the administration develop strategic or long-term plans to meet the system's goals. Then the board can require an evaluation to occur to evaluate system progress toward these goals. There was no statistically significant difference between the effective and less effective districts on the measures of system-wide planning. There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups of systems in their evaluation of the system.

Instruction

No significant differences were noted between the groups on individual questions pertaining to the instructional program. Teachers centers and/or media centers were not found to be significantly related to system effectiveness. While not statistically significant, the less effective systems had greater relative emphasis on this component.

The survey revealed that one effective district and five less effective districts reported the use of door-to-door selling by elementary students to raise funds for building level expenses. This did not produce a statistically significant difference though it did seem to offer an explanation as to how the less effective school systems, which were generally from less affluent communities, raised additional funds for education.

Personnel

Less effective school districts were more prone to include job descriptions in the board policy than the effective districts. The effective districts tended to have job descriptions administratively written. The difference in the method of specifying teacher job descriptions produced a significant statistical finding. A similar finding was noted for principals. In general,

effective districts tended to include fewer job descriptions in the policy manuals.

A statistically significant difference between the two groups of systems was found in how they evaluate teachers. The more effective districts tended to use a local evaluation model, whereas the less effective districts tended to rely on the state model.

There were no significant findings regarding teacher inservice. The tendency for superintendents from effective districts to attend national meetings was statistically significant. A similar tendency for boards from effective districts to attend national meetings was also statistically significant.

Pupil Services

No statistically significant differences were found between the two groups on survey items involving pupil services.

B. OBSERVATIONS

Superintendents

Because the study was designed to study school boards, not superintendents, a well planned, in-depth assessment of superintendents was not conducted. The analysis of superintendent behavior was based upon the researcher's impressions and recollections. The behavior of the

superintendent seemed to be among the best indicators of the system's effectiveness found during the study.

The difference between the verbal skills of the effective districts' superintendents and the ineffective districts' superintendents, as demonstrated in the interviews, was beyond the researcher's expectations. All but two of the superintendents of the less effective districts seemed to lack the ability to express themselves clearly and concisely. All of the superintendents of the effective districts interviewed demonstrated this ability. (One superintendent's assistant and several assistant superintendents in one effective district were interviewed because the superintendent proved inaccessible. The three assistant superintendents demonstrated good verbal skills.) All of the superintendents of the effective districts and the two verbal superintendents of the ineffective districts managed to establish rapport with the researcher almost instantly.

All of the superintendents of the effective districts except one (the elected one) demonstrated a good knowledge of their board policy and accessed it readily. Two of the superintendents of the ineffective districts seemed to search for the board policy before locating it.

A number of the elected superintendents seemed to make statements about their school system's operations which

were contrary to their school board policies as read by this researcher. For example, two superintendents noted that their systems did not have policies which placed limits on the athletic programs. Examination of the policies revealed that such policies were "on the books", though possibly not in daily application. Policy manuals should be used cautiously, if at all, in attempts to assess the functional policies of districts with elected superintendents.

System Programs

Of the effective districts, four included at least one presentation on the curriculum at the board meetings of the year studied. None of the minutes or superintendents from the less effective districts mentioned such presentations. Two of the superintendents from the effective districts noted that a segment on some aspect of the instructional program was included in every board meeting.

More local personnel evaluation instrument development and more local curriculum development was reported to occur in the effective districts than in the less effective districts. Some of the superintendents in systems that had in place local evaluation models and local curriculum suggested that "Basic Skills First," the state's curriculum system, had hindered their system's development. The superintendents from effective districts and ineffective

districts without such local curriculum applauded the state's help.

One effective and three less effective districts had K-12 student populations below 2000. Clearly such systems do not have the personnel to devote to such undertakings as comprehensive curriculum development and personnel evaluation model development. They must rely on the state to furnish them with models.

A general tendency for effective systems to have more diverse programs designed to serve a wide range of student ability level was noted. More standardized testing, curriculum research projects, and system-wide student awards programs were reported in the effective group than in the less effective group.

Districts

While none of the effective districts had schools with grade arrangements that would require split grades, an enrollment of less than 140 pupils in a K-6 school and an enrollment of less than 100 pupils in a 1-8 school were found in two of the less effective districts. Six of the superintendents from less effective districts spontaneously mentioned difficulties stemming from having teaching principals and/or stemming from inability to consolidate small schools. At least one system's consolidation problem seemed to be related to the topography of the district.

While one effective district seemed to be having consolidation difficulties, they were going through the process.

Boards

One superintendent of a less effective district commented that working with the board was tough. Each board member had his own elementary school in his own district to promote. The only time the board members seemed to cooperate was when an outsider such as himself took a controversial position or when the high school their elementary district fed was involved. The superintendent went on to elaborate for about thirty minutes on various battles that had ripped through the school board process. The battles also could be traced readily in the board minutes.

The State

A consistent observation was made by the superintendents from the less effective group and the superintendent of the poorest, most rural, and smallest school system in the effective group. Basic Skills First, Computer Skills Next, and primary aides obtained through CERA had helped their systems. Most of this group also voiced support for the career ladder because it raised teacher salaries.

The superintendents from the effective group seemed mixed in their perceptions of how CERA had helped their systems. There seemed to be mild support for the programs, though some disliked having to get state approval to continue to operate their locally developed curricula and teacher evaluation models.

Methodology

The methodology used in this study can be improved. As discussed earlier, it seems as though the almost endless variety of school arrangements in the state provides the researcher with as many design problems to overcome. This study hopefully presents a beginning to the understanding of what school boards and their superintendents can do from the system level to promote positive change in the academic environment.

Because the study was original in scope, the design was kept as simple as possible. Only one factor, free and reduced lunch data, was used to load the regression line. Hopefully, other studies will be conducted using other factors such as annual instructional and administrative dollars spent per child, the ratio between the system's ability to pay and its taxation level, and the educational level of the home. Eventually a regression line or curve should be developed which will assist districts in determining not only what to do, but when to do it.

Recently, Gifford and Stoddart (1986) completed a study of New York City public elementary schools using a "value-added" method of determining school effectiveness. They contended that the regression method produces false-positives by over identifying schools with high academic achievement and schools with unstable programs as "effective". The regression method also reportedly results in false-negatives by excluding schools where slow steady progress is being made. The use of the "value-added" method for identifying effective schools overcomes these problems.

The use of the "value-added" method may have limitations if tests are not properly selected, however. Keeping the tests comparable from year to year by using the same test would work except that students and teachers may learn the content of the test, artificially inflating scores and lowering the validity of the test over time. Tennessee's decision to distribute Stanford objectives and compare systems annually in a widely released report undoubtedly may make its program susceptible to such distortion. Obviously, such inflation could not be assumed to be constant across school systems and provides the future researcher with a significant obstacle.

One possible solution to the problem of artificial test score inflation is annually revising and equating the

tests used for state-wide comparisons. While this would perpetually make test scores comparable, it seems unlikely that this will take place because of the expense associated with such an undertaking.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. SUMMARY

After adjusting the achievement test scores of 97 Tennessee school systems for the effect of home socioeconomic status as reflected in the percentage of students in each system participating in the free and reduced priced lunch program, the seven highest achieving or more effective systems and the seven lowest achieving or less effective systems were selected for further investigation. Upon surveying these systems using criteria suggested by the literature on effective schools, several findings produced statistically significant differences between the two groups.

Superintendents

Effective school systems tended to have superintendents who:

1. were appointed by the local school board;
2. did not graduate from high school in the district they were managing;
3. were paid more than their counterparts in the less effective districts.

School Boards

The school boards associated with system effectiveness tended to have the following characteristics:

1. a high number of members with college training;
2. a high number of members with special training in education or experience in public education;
3. at-large election;
4. a high proportion of members who were full-time homemakers;
5. resolve to protect the length of the school year;
6. formal evaluation of the school system;
7. absence of teacher and principal job descriptions in the policy manual;
8. National School Boards Association conferences attendance.

School Systems

Characteristics associated with school system effectiveness were:

1. high instructional expenditures per pupil;
2. high local government revenues per pupil;
3. low local transportation expenditures per pupil;
4. Southern Association of Colleges and Schools accreditation of elementary schools.
5. a local model for teacher evaluation.

B. CONCLUSIONS

The effectiveness of the school system was associated with the quality of the school system's leadership. The type of superintendent and the superintendent's background were related to the effectiveness of the system. The school board's background was likewise related to the effectiveness of the system. The boards of effective districts used a different group of techniques to oversee their school systems. Their actions suggested that they valued education. In selecting superintendents, they appeared to seek out well-trained, verbal individuals to function as chief executive officers of their school systems. While the boards of the more effective districts left many details to discretion of their superintendents, these boards maintained and exerted control of the school system by appointing the superintendents and regularly evaluating both the superintendents and the school systems.

The financial status of the school system was robustly associated with the effectiveness of the system. There seemed to be an effect of wealth and instructional expenditures on the effectiveness of school systems which has not been documented in the literature to date. State published statistical summaries do not reflect the magnitude of this effect unless the data are recalculated to take into account other variables.

C. RECOMMENDATIONS

The State

The state has primary responsibility to provide an adequate public education for its citizens. In an effort to address this role, it should undertake the following:

1. An investigation of the relationship between tax ability and tax effort at the local district level should be conducted. Are current levels of funding for transportation and equalization adequate to provide the quality of education Tennesseans will need to be productive citizens? How much should the state allow a child to be penalized or rewarded because of where his parents happen to live?

2. Legislation to assure minimum qualifications of school board members should be enacted. This study demonstrated a strong relationship between the effectiveness of the school system and the education of the board members. Consideration should be given to requiring a school board member to have a regular high school diploma or a GED diploma in order to qualify as a candidate for office.

3. Legislative consideration of the merits of at-large elections for school board members should be undertaken.

4. If the legislature takes measures to upgrade the qualifications of school board members, they should consider utilizing school board appointments rather than elections to select superintendents. Provisions for the superintendent to be selected from beyond the local school district should be made.

The Local School Board

Local school boards interested in the effectiveness of their school districts should consider ways to demonstrate the board's value for education. Evaluate the school system in a public manner. Pay administrators well and recruit them from beyond the local district. Provide for the continued development of the superintendent by encouraging attendance of national meetings. Provide for the development of the school board through state and national conferences.

The board should not attempt to include all things in the policy manual. An informal policy to recruit and retain a good superintendent to attend to the details of the school system may be appropriate.

Future Researchers

This study has but scratched the surface of the investigation that needs to be done into the effect that various system-wide roles have of school system

effectiveness. Future research into the characteristics of superintendents of effective school districts and into techniques that might assess these characteristics prior to selection of the person for the superintendency is urgently needed. The proper relative roles of state and local government in providing education funds requires further research on the relationships between local government tax capacity, taxation level, and system effectiveness. Better techniques for correcting achievement data for the effect of student socioeconomic status need to be investigated.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

STUDENT EXEMPTION FROM TESTING



TENNESSEE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
DIVISION OF SPECIAL PROGRAMS
 132 CORDELL HULL BUILDING
 NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE 37219

MEMORANDUM

TO: Superintendents/Directors of Schools
 Special Education Supervisors

FROM: JoLeta Reynolds, Assistant Commissioner
 Joy McLarty, Assistant Commissioner *J.M.*

DATE: April 2, 1985

SUBJECT: State Mandated Testing Relative to Special Education Students

A memorandum from the Commissioner was sent to Superintendents on February 20, 1985, outlining the policies on testing students for State Mandated Testing Programs. These policies concerning special education students read as follows:

	High School Proficiency Test	Stanford Achievement Test and Basic Skills First Test
Special Education Students	• Test at the discretion of the M-Team	• All gifted and Option of Service 1-6: Test unless M-Team decides otherwise. • Option of Service 7-9 (except Gifted): Do not test unless decided by M-Team. • Option of Service 10: Up to M-Team.

Since the dissemination of the January 20 memorandum, questions have arisen regarding the testing of special education students with the Stanford Achievement Test and Basic Skills First Test. To clarify the issue, we must remember that a handicapped student's M-Team should make the decision as to whether or not the student should take the state mandated tests. This issue should ordinarily be discussed during the annual review of the student's IEP. The M-Team's decision should be stated in the IEP.

The statements listed above for the Stanford Achievement Test and the Basic Skills First Test are intended to give some guidance for this year's testing, since it may be impossible to actually bring all members of the M-Team together in time for this year's testing. All M-Teams should meet and consider the matter prior to the tests which will be given during the 1985-86 school year.

Page 2.

Memo: Superintendents/Directors of Schools
Special Education Supervisors
Reynolds and McLarty
April 2, 1985

It is also important to remember that modifications (Braille, large-print, extension time, etc.) may be necessary, depending upon the student's handicap. These must also be specified by the M-Team in the student's IEP.

In determining which students should be tested, you may wish to consider the following questions:

- (1) Will the test results be useful or informative?
- (2) Will the experience of taking the test be helpful or harmful to the student?

If the results will be useful or the experience beneficial, you should seriously consider including the student in the testing program. Remember to code on the answer sheet that this is a special education student so that the scores will not be included in summaries of scores for non-handicapped students.

If you have questions regarding Special Education, please feel free to call Dr. JoLeta Reynolds at (615) 741-2851. Questions regarding the testing program should be directed to Dr. Joy McLarty at (615) 741-0725.

JR:JM:AL

cc: Administrative Staff
District Facilitators

APPENDIX B

INCOME ELIGIBILITY GUIDELINES

INCOME ELIGIBILITY GUIDELINES FREE/REDUCED PRICE MEALS

(Effective from July 1, 1984 to June 30, 1986)

<u>HOUSEHOLD SIZE</u>	<u>YEARLY INCOME</u>
1	9,213
2	12,432
3	15,651
4	18,870
5	22,089
6	25,308
7	28,527
8	31,746

For each additional member, add 3,219

Taken from Sweetwater City Schools, Application Card For
Free Or Reduced Price Meals - School Year 1984-85.

APPENDIX C

NELSON AND CRUM STUDY

**EXHIBIT I
TABULATION OF RESPONSES**

**SURVEY OF RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOL BOARD POLICIES AND PROCEDURES
IN THE TEN REGIONAL AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES**

After reviewing policies and procedures of school districts willing to participate in the study, please answer the following questions:

1. Are school board policies reviewed regularly as to content and timeliness? Yes 81% No 19%*
2. Please respond to the following:
 - a. Does the school board policy designate the amount of time devoted to instruction in the basic skills? Yes 47% No 53%
 - b. Do school board policies establish the amount of time to be used as released time for teacher conferences? (Parent teacher, supervisory etc.) Yes 58% No 42%
 - c. Do the school board policies specify an amount of time authorized for teacher preparation? Yes 45% No 55%
3. Do policies provide opportunities for parents to become involved in discussing school policy? Yes 99% No 1%
4. Do school board policies provide opportunities for the local school district to involve business, industry, etc., in the development of instructional policies? Yes 78% No 22%
5. Do school board policies provide for the curriculum to include new technology concepts such as computer training?
 - a. At the elementary level? Yes 51% No 49%
 - b. At the intermediate level? Yes 49% No 51%
 - c. At the high school level? Yes 54% No 46%
 - d. In the event technological concepts include computer training, is hands-on-time included? Yes 43% No 47%
6. Does the local district have requirements for high school graduation that exceed state requirements? Yes 61% No 39%
 - a. Are students required to pass competency based examinations prior to graduation? Yes 60% No 40%
 - b. Do students receive a diploma or certificate of attendance at graduation? Diploma 95% Certificate of Attendance 26%
7. Please respond to the following:
 - a. Are the school libraries open during the entire school year? Yes 69% No 31%
 - b. Do students have library privileges through the last day of school? Yes 56% No 44%
 - c. Are the school libraries open evenings? Yes 10% No 90%
 - d. Are the school libraries open on Saturday? Yes 3% No 97%
 - e. Are the school libraries open during the summer? Yes 24% No 76%

8. Please respond to the following:
- Do the school board policies provide for released time activities-- sports, outings, clubs, assemblies, job fairs, etc? (Exclude religion.) Yes 79% No 21%
 - Approximately how many school days are granted per student for released time activities during a year? ** days.
9. Do school board policies make provisions for administering a standardized testing program? Yes 84% No 16%
- At the elementary level? Yes 77% No 23%
 - At the intermediate level? Yes 76% No 24%
 - At the high school level? Yes 77% No 23%
10. Please respond to the following:
- Do school board policies recognize and reward teaching excellence? Yes 35% No 65%
 - Do school board policies provide financial incentives for teaching excellence? Yes 15% No 85%
 - Do school board policies provide for awarding certificates, letters of commendation, plaques, etc., for teaching excellence? Yes 27% No 73%
11. Please respond to the following:
- Do school board policies provide a system of recognition for student scholastic achievement? Yes 69% No 31%
 - Are students honored at recognition ceremonies, awards banquets, graduations? Yes 72% No 28%
 - Is it a board policy to award certificates, letters of commendation, plaques? Yes 57% No 43%
 - Is it a board policy to award scholarships? Yes 21% No 79%
 - Are honor rolls published in local newspapers? Yes 57% No 43%
12. Do school board policies require additional teacher competency based examinations or qualifications beyond state certification requirements? Yes 16% No 84%
13. Do school board policies require in-service training or professional development? Yes 75% No 25%
14. Do school board policies make provision for counseling in the following areas:
- Career Education orientation? Yes 74% No 26%
 - Opportunity for job preparation training? Yes 71% No 29%
 - Work experience training? Yes 69% No 31%

*Percentages shown are the tabulated responses, expressed as percentages, of the policies reviewed.

**The answer was found in one policy manual in one region.

ITEMS THAT ENHANCE THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION

During the review of 130 school board policy manuals by the 10 regional office staffs of the Department of Education, 46 items were identified by the local study directors as policies which contribute in providing a quality educational program. The list of items follows:

1. Contains a philosophy of education statement.
2. Provides climate and environment for instruction.
3. Provides adequate facilities.
4. Provides continuous evaluation of instructional program.
5. Provides specific goals for instruction.
6. Utilizes public participation in policy development.
7. Encourages curriculum research.
8. Provides for continuous appraisal of teachers and administrators.
9. Provides for professional growth plan for each teacher.
10. Provides teacher aids.
11. Provides a policy on homework.
12. Requires teacher consultation with parents on achievement test results.
13. Permits acceleration of students.
14. Provides a professional library.
15. Provides strong developmental and remedial programs.
16. Provides a "gifted student" program.
17. Specifies manageable class size and provides classroom space.
18. Maintains Instructional Media Center.
19. Provides specialized services for students.
20. Recognizes college placement programs.
21. States student's rights of inquiry and responsibilities.
22. Provides specifics for student discipline, conduct, and dress.
23. Recognizes the rights of parents.
24. Encourages and maintains volunteer program.
25. Provides funds for implementation of innovative programs.
26. Provides time, opportunity and resources for research and development.
27. Protects school work year....time on task.
28. Defines church-state relationship.
29. Provides a video cassette enrichment program.
30. Assists in directing areas to be emphasized at in-service training programs.
31. Controls the athletic program.
32. Provides for use of testing program results.
33. Provides for sabbatical leave.
34. Makes sincere effort to recruit qualified teachers.
35. Provides for sick leave.
36. Adopts standards of state and regional accrediting associations.
37. Provides salary schedule that attracts and holds outstanding teachers.
38. Provides freedom for administrators to administer.
39. Provides funds at building level for instructional material not readily available from central supply.
40. Encourages new training concepts.
41. Stipulates provisions for competency testing.
42. Provides homebound and hospitalized instruction.
43. Designates course examination procedures.
44. Establishes standards to develop quality writing skills.
45. Provides alternative education programs.
46. Sponsors curriculum development programs.

APPENDIX D

CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM

CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM

Use data from the 84-85 school year.

Demographic data

1. By what means was the superintendent elected?
(a) popular vote (b) school board (c) legislative body
(d) other _____
2. By what means were board members elected?
(a) popular vote (b) school board (c) legislative body
(d) other _____
3. How many members were on the board? _____
4. What were the regular occupations of the board members?
(a) _____ (b) _____
(c) _____ (d) _____
(e) _____ (f) _____
(g) _____ (h) _____
5. What was the degree status of the superintendent? _____
6. Where did the superintendent graduate from high school?
(a) this county (b) Tennessee (c) Southeast U. S.
(d) other _____
7. Record the highest grade completed for each board member. (MA=6, EdS=7, PhD=8)
(a) _____ (b) _____ (c) _____ (d) _____
(e) _____ (f) _____ (g) _____ (h) _____
8. Where did the board members graduate from high school or complete their non-college public education?
(a) this county (b) Tennessee (c) Southeast U. S.
(d) other
(a) _____ (b) _____ (c) _____ (d) _____
(e) _____ (f) _____ (g) _____ (h) _____
9. What was the salary of the superintendent? _____
10. What was the expenditure for board expenses? _____

Board policy

Use the following code to rate each item: P - In a policy approved by the board; M - Mentioned by the board; I - In place through administrative policy; N - No.

1. Did the system have a written philosophy of education statement?
2. Did the system have written instructional goals?
3. Did the system have written, measurable, instructional objectives?
4. Did the system have written provisions for public participation in policy development?
5. Did the system have job descriptions for the following jobs?
 - _____ Aides
 - _____ Teachers
 - _____ Principals
 - _____ Supervisors
 - _____ Superintendent(s)
6. Did the system have written provisions for the evaluation of teachers? Describe.

7. Did the system have written provisions for the evaluation of principals? Describe.

8. Did the system have written provisions for the evaluation of supervisors? Describe.

9. Did the system have written provisions for the evaluation of superintendents? Describe.

10. Did the system have a method of evaluating the system's progress? Describe.

11. Did the system have a written plan for the system-wide administration of the following types of tests? List the grades at which each were given.

_____ Scholastic ability (I.Q.)
 _____ Criterion referenced basic skills
 _____ Standardized achievement tests
 _____ Sensory screening (vision or hearing)

12. Did the system have a board approved elementary curriculum in the following areas? Where did they get each curriculum?

_____ Reading _____
 _____ Math _____
 _____ English _____
 _____ Spelling _____
 _____ Writing _____
 _____ Science _____
 _____ Social science _____
 _____ Health _____
 _____ Physical education _____
 _____ Music _____
 _____ Art _____
 _____ Special education _____
 _____ Gifted education _____
 _____ Pre-vocational or remedial education _____

13. Describe the system's role in academic awards programs.
14. Describe the system's role in non-academic awards programs.
15. Describe the system's role in awards programs for teachers.
16. Did the system offer a local (not state special education funded) gifted program?

17. Did the system offer a non-federally funded remedial program?
18. Did the system offer an elementary music program?
To all students?
19. What was the relationship between any CAI program and the board?
20. Did the system review the usage rate and/or number of computers available for instruction? How many computers were available for CAI which were not purchased through the CSN program?
21. Did the system have a written policy on library book censorship?
22. Did the system review the number of library books are in the elementary schools per child?
23. Did the system review the library book circulation rate?
24. Did the system have a long term plan for each of the following areas? What was it duration?

_____ Facilities	_____
_____ Curriculum development	_____
_____ Staffing	_____
_____ Transportation	_____
_____ Food services	_____
_____ Special programs	_____

25. Did the system have any curriculum research projects?
26. Describe system provisions for inservice education (local, state, and national meetings), and educational leave in the following areas.

_____ Substitutes	_____
_____ Aides	_____
_____ Teachers	_____
_____ Principals	_____
_____ Superintendent(s)	_____
_____ Board	_____

27. Did the system have a policy on homebound students?
28. Did the system have any elementary students in an alternative school for behavior/social control.
29. Did the system have provisions for in-school suspension?
30. Did the system have provisions encouraging parent volunteers?
31. Did the system require parent-teacher conferences in any of the following areas?
- _____ Behavior/social student control
- _____ Student retention
- _____ Other (describe) _____
32. Did the system have written guidelines which recognize the general rights of all parents?
33. Did the system have written guidelines which recognize the general rights of all students?
34. Did the system provide a written process with which one could appeal the decisions of a principal or the superintendent in student matters?
35. Did the system provide a written process with which one could appeal the decisions of a principal or the superintendent in teacher matters?
36. Did the system have a written student attendance code?
37. Did the system have a written student promotion code?
38. Did the system have a written student conduct code?
39. Did the system have a written student dress code?
40. Did the system have a written teacher conduct code?
41. Did the system have a written employee promotion/lay-off code?
42. Did the system maintain a "Teacher Center"? Describe its function.
43. Was there a written statement which addresses the number of instructional days which were in the school year? How many days were in the instructional year?

44. Was there a written statement which addresses the number of hours included in the instructional day? How many hours were in the instructional day?
45. Was the number of hours the schools are open after and before classes addressed in a written statement? How many non-instructional hours are the school open?
46. Had the system defined the church state relationship in a written statement.
47. Did the system address the control of the athletic program in written form?
48. Was school dismissed in order for elementary students to attend a athletic program?
49. Was the issue of having elementary children to sell products "door-to-door" to support the school addressed by the system in a written statement?
Were children allowed to do "door-to-door" selling to support the school?
50. Did the system use a written statement to address the issue of "festivals" to support the school?
Are "festivals" used to support the schools?
51. Did the system provide local funds for building level teaching supplies?

The following items require yes-no or quantitative responses.

1. How many times and in what areas did the superintendent fail to make a recommendation to the board?

☐ Personnel
☐ Contracted services
☐ Capital outlay
☐ Student conduct
☐ Fiscal receipts
☐ Union items
☐ Instructional programming

2. How many times did the board not follow the superintendent's recommendation in the following areas?
- _____ Personnel
 - _____ Contracted services
 - _____ Capital outlay
 - _____ Student conduct
 - _____ Fiscal receipts
 - _____ Union items
 - _____ Instructional programming
3. How many teacher aides does the board locally fund? _____
4. How many teachers does the board locally fund? _____
Classroom teachers - (ADA/22) (from Wheatley from Shore)
5. Is the school system accredited by SACS? _____
7. What percent of the teachers applied for the Career Ladder Program? _____
8. What percent of the administrators applied for the Career Ladder Program? _____
9. How many waivers for oversized classes did the system use?

APPENDIX E

CORRELATION PLOT

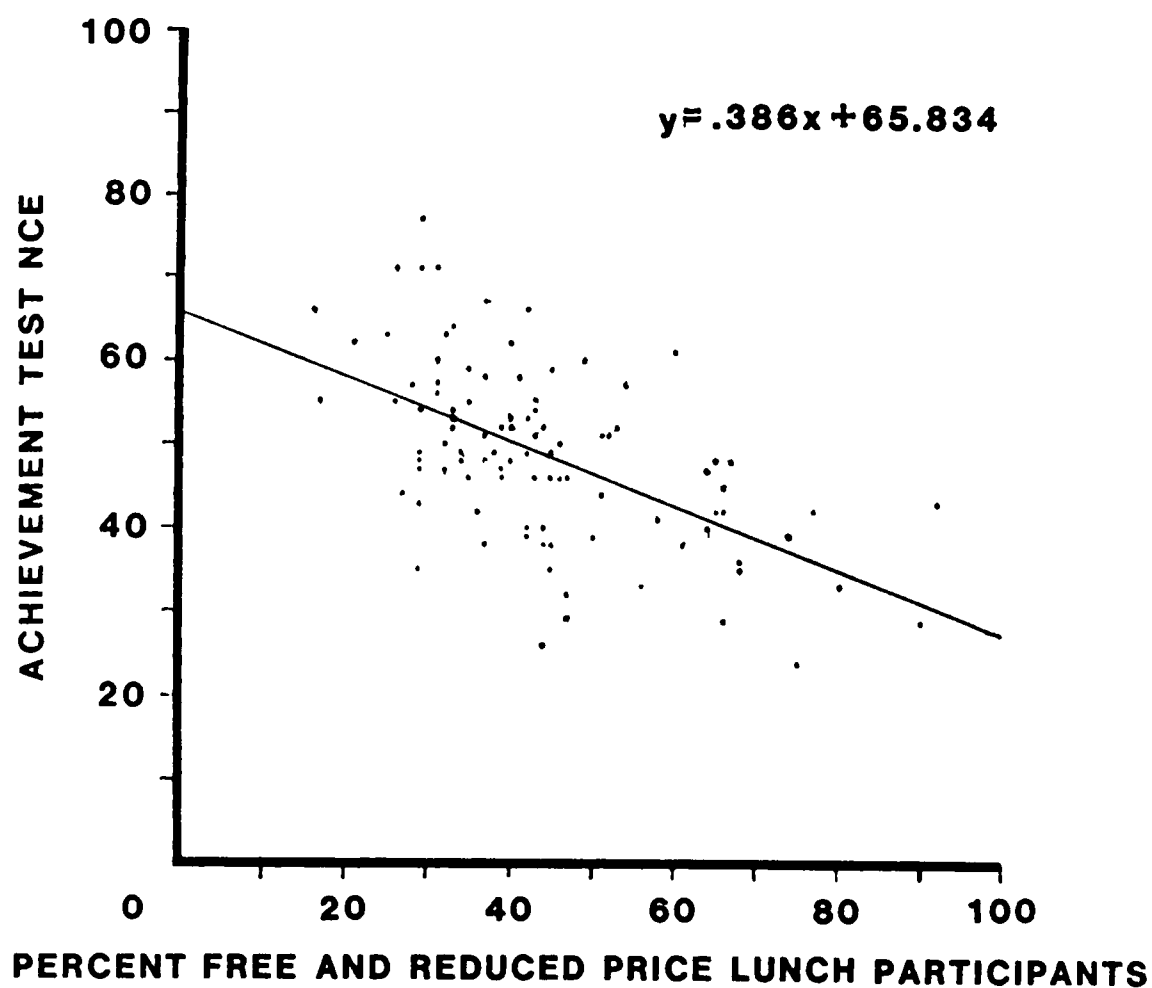


Figure 14. Correlation plot.

APPENDIX F

TSBA ENDORSEMENT

**TENNESSEE SCHOOL BOARDS ASSOCIATION**

500 13th Avenue, North
Nashville, Tennessee 37203
615/251-1518

May 5, 1986

MEMO: Selected School Board Chairmen and Superintendents
REGARDING: Participation in a Research Project

Mr. William Dycus is undertaking a significant research project which could provide local school boards with answers to some previously unaddressed questions. His study will examine the impact of local school board policies on school achievement in selected Tennessee elementary school districts and identify implications for educational planners.

I have carefully examined his prospectus for this study. I believe that the results will be of great interest to you and will be very useful to your board as well as other school boards in Tennessee. It could be somewhat threatening to have a researcher examine the amount and kind of local school board behavior found to be associated with effectiveness of the school district, but he has promised anonymity of participating school districts.

I hope that you will give him your full cooperation in this effort. We hope to be able to publish some of the more significant results of the study when he has completed it.

Sincerely,

Daniel J. Tollett
Executive Director

DJT/dlt

APPENDIX G

EVALUATION LAWS AND REGULATIONS

Comprehensive Education Reform Act

Sections 27 through 30 : Evaluation

SECTION 27. (a) All teachers certified after the effective date of this act as probationary, apprentice, or career level I teachers and all current teachers who choose to participate in the new career teacher program as career level I teachers shall be evaluated in accordance with one of the following procedures:

(1) an evaluation process, including procedures, criteria and instruments, used and developed by a local education agency, that has been validated and approved by the State Board of Education in accordance with the standards and criteria provided for in this act; or

(2) the standard evaluation process developed by the State Certification Commission and approved by the State Board of Education for use by a local education agency with the approval of the State Board of Education; or

(3) where a local education agency has chosen not to or has failed to implement any evaluation process meeting the approval of the State Certification Commission as provided for in this act, the standard evaluation process developed by the State Certification Commission and approved by the State Board of Education, being administered under the State Certification Commission.

(b) All persons certified as career level II or career level III teachers after the effective date of this act, including present teachers who choose to participate in the new career teacher program, shall be evaluated in accordance with the process approved by the State Board of Education upon recommendation of the State Certification Commission.

(c) Advancement from one career level to another shall be awarded by the State Board of Education as provided for in this chapter.

(d) These evaluations shall be part of a teacher's permanent record.

SECTION 28. (a) (1) The initial certificate for career level I, career level II, and career level III teachers shall be valid for five (5) years and shall be renewable for additional periods of five (5) years. .

(2) The certificate for a probationary teacher shall be for one (1) year and shall not be renewable. The certificate for the apprentice teacher shall be valid for three (3) years and shall not be renewable. Notwithstanding the provisions of this subdivision or act regarding the non-renewability of probationary and apprentice teacher certificates, if a teacher is denied certification as a career level I teacher at the end of the fourth year of employment, that teacher may begin as a probationary teacher in another school system, and upon request, shall receive new probationary and apprentice teacher certificates.

(b) In addition to the other requirements provided for herein, a teacher with a bachelor's degree only shall complete one (1) academic course as part of the certification renewal process each five (5) years. Credit shall be granted only for upper division level courses in the respective areas of certification which are completed with an attained 3.0 grade point average (on a four (4) point grading system). A teacher may complete upper division courses in another subject if they are taken with the goal of broadening the areas of certification. When necessary, a local education agency shall adjust the work schedule of a career level II or career level III teacher employed under an eleven (11) or twelve (12) month contract to enable the teacher to complete the upper division courses required by this section. A person employed to teach a vocational or other course where a college degree is not required shall not be required to complete the upper level courses provided for herein, but the State Certification Commission, with the approval of the State Board of Education, shall devise comparable and appropriate advanced training requirements for the advancement of such teachers in the career ladder program.

(c) Any apprentice or career level I teacher found not to meet minimum competency standards under the evaluation process set out in Section 30 (j) shall either be dismissed, have dismissal action brought under the tenure law, be given a six (6) school month period in which to improve, or be given non-state funded local employment, as set out in Section 30 (j) (4) and (5).

If the teacher is provided with an improvement plan and under Section 30 (j) (5) is still found not to meet minimum competency standards, the teacher shall be subject to the actions specified in Section 30 (j) (5) and (6). However, an apprentice teacher who is required to be dismissed, or the local education agency employing such teacher, or both, may appeal to the State Board of Education under the provisions of Section 9, and a career level I teacher who is not recertified or the local education agency employing the teacher, or both, may appeal to the State Board of Education the decision not to recertify under the provisions of Section 9.

If a request for review is filed with the State Board of Education, any termination of the payment of the salary supplement the teacher is already receiving shall be deferred in accordance with Section 9 pending the State Board of Education's final determination of the request for review.

If the State Board of Education determines that the person seeking review is qualified to receive the certificate being applied for, the Board shall issue the proper certificate and, thereafter, the person shall receive the proper salary supplement in accordance with the provisions of this act.

If the State Board of Education determines that the person seeking review is not qualified to receive the certificate being applied for, the Board shall issue the person any other certificate to which the person may be entitled under the provisions of this act and thereafter, such person shall receive the salary supplement to which he is entitled.

(d) Any teacher holding a career level II teacher certificate whose certificate is not renewed in due course because of the teacher's failure to meet the relevant certification standards shall, at the expiration of the career level II teacher's certificate and if minimum competency standards are met, be issued a career level I teacher certificate that shall be valid for five (5) years and shall be subject to renewal in the same manner as other career level I teacher certificates.

(e) Any teacher holding a career level III teacher certificate whose certificate is not renewed in due course because of the teacher's failure to meet the relevant certification standards shall, at the expiration of such certificate and if minimum competency standards are met, be issued a career level II teacher certificate that shall be valid for five (5) years and shall be subject to renewal in the same manner as other such certificates.

(f) Any career level certificate may be extended by the State Board of Education for a period of time not to exceed one (1) year if a person's illness, disability or family hardship prevents the completion of the evaluation for the purpose of recertification.

SECTION 29. (a) The minimum criteria for the evaluation of probationary, apprentice, and career level I teachers by the local education agencies shall be established by the State Certification Commission and approved by the State Board of Education. The criteria shall include, but not be limited to: (1) classroom or position observation and assessment; (2) review of evaluations; (3) personal interview; (4) examination of in-service and professional development activities undertaken by the applicant; and (5) other appropriate criteria.

(b) The criteria for the evaluation of career level II and III teachers which are to be used by the Regional Commissions and State Certification Commission shall include, but not be limited to, the following: (1) classroom or position observation and assessment by a team of properly trained career level III teachers or career level II principals or supervisors in grades K through 12 from outside the applicant's school system; or professionally qualified evaluators; (2) review of evaluations by principals, supervisors and others in authority; (3) personal interview; (4) examination of inservice and professional development activities undertaken by the applicant; and (5) other appropriate criteria.

SECTION 30. (a) The procedural rules for the evaluation of teachers which are to be used by the local education agencies, Regional Commissions and the State Certification Commission shall be designed to assure a fair and meaningful evaluation of a teacher's development, growth and performance in the teaching profession. These rules shall be developed in consultation with local school administrators, and teachers, and the education committees of the Senate and House of Representatives.

(b) The procedural rules shall include:

(1) A pre-evaluation interview which includes the identification of performance goals for the teacher, based on the actual subjects to be taught and specific performance criteria as defined in Section 29; such pre-evaluation interview shall be conducted prior to each evaluation required by this section;

(2) Multiple observations in a variety of teaching or supervisory situations;

(3) Review of indicators of student progress, where applicable;

(4) A formal written evaluation which includes the subjects taught and the performance criteria;

(5) A post-evaluation interview in which the specific results of the evaluation are discussed with the teacher, and a written program of assistance for improvement, if needed, is established; and

(6) An opportunity for the teacher to respond, in writing, to the written evaluation with the response to be attached to the evaluation.

(c) The procedural rules shall include the opportunity for multiple evaluations of apprentice teachers. The performance of all apprentice teachers shall be evaluated at least once a year or at more frequent intervals in the discretion of the local education agency employing the apprentice teacher. These evaluations shall be conducted using procedures, criteria and instruments approved by the State Board of Education and shall specifically identify any deficiencies of such teacher and shall include a specific, individual plan of suggested improvements to correct any such deficiencies.

(d) The procedural rules shall include the opportunity for multiple evaluations of all teachers holding certificates other than an apprentice teacher's certificate. The performance of all teachers other than apprentice teachers shall be evaluated at least two (2) times between the time their certificate is issued or renewed and the certificate's expiration date and may be evaluated at more frequent intervals by the local education agency using procedures and evaluation criteria promulgated by the State Board of Education, on recommendation of the State Certification Commission. The scheduling of such evaluations shall be determined in accordance with the evaluation plan adopted by the local education agency and approved by the State Board of Education.

(e) Nothing in the evaluation procedure mandated by this section shall require a decision by a local education agency to grant tenure or continued employment from year to year during the one (1) year probationary teacher period or the three (3) year apprentice teacher period.

(f) Evaluations conducted pursuant to this section shall be open for inspection by the teacher, principal, or local education agency or their designated representatives.

(g) At least one (1) evaluating teacher shall be from the general grade area or subject area as the teacher being evaluated.

(h) Upon being informed of the composition of the evaluating team, the teacher being evaluated shall be entitled to request that one member of the team be removed and that the Commission name a new member.

(i) Applicants for an apprentice teacher certificate and applicants for a career level I teacher certificate or the renewal thereof shall be evaluated by the local education agencies in accordance with an approved locally developed evaluation plan or the standard evaluation plan or the standard evaluation process approved by the State Board of Education. The local education agency's evaluations and recommendations shall be forwarded to the State Certification Commission for review and approval. The applicants for the career level I certificate shall not receive the certificate until the State Board of Education determines that the applicant meets all qualifications and issues the certificate. The State Board of Education shall issue the apprentice teacher certificate based on the recommendation of the local education agency.

(j) (1) In addition to the local evaluation of apprentice and career level I teachers, a state-conducted evaluation shall be completed in the last year of validity of the certificate held by an apprentice teacher, who applies for a career level I certificate or a career level I teacher who applies for recertification. This evaluation shall consist of a meeting with the principal of the school to receive and discuss the local evaluation and recommendations and an interview with the teacher and may include classroom observations and evaluations and such other matters as the State Certification Commission may determine to be proper.

(2) In the event that the state-conducted evaluation determines that the local evaluation is accurate, a recommendation shall be made by the State Certification Commission in accordance with the procedures set out in this act to approve the apprentice or career level I certificate application.

(3) If there is a disagreement between the local evaluation and the state-conducted evaluation, the Regional Commission having jurisdiction over the local education agency in which the teacher is employed shall promptly assign a full evaluation team to evaluate the teacher using the standard evaluation process adopted by the State Board of Education upon the recommendation of the State Certification Commission.

(4) If the evaluation team finds the teacher to be deficient in the requirements for certification or recertification, it shall inform the Regional Commission and the local education agency. The local education agency shall then develop an individualized plan to improve that teacher's skills to the minimum standard within six (6) school months.

(5) At the conclusion of six (6) school months, the State Certification Commission shall provide for the re-evaluation of the teacher using the standard evaluation process.

(A) In the case of an apprentice teacher applying to be a career level I teacher, if this evaluation is negative, the local education agency must dismiss the teacher and no further state or local funds shall be expended for the employment of that person.

(B) In the case of a career level I teacher applying for recertification, the local education agency may:

(1) take action under the tenure law to dismiss the teacher,
or

(2) grant local employment to the teacher. If the local education agency chooses to grant local employment to the teacher, no state funds shall be expended for the employment of that teacher in any local education agency. Further, the teacher's certificate shall not be re-issued by the State Board of Education, but rather the teacher shall be issued a permit authorizing the teacher to teach only in the local education agency by which the teacher is currently employed. For the purposes of Tennessee Code Annotated, Section 49-5-602(11), a person possessing such a permit shall be considered a professional employee within that local education agency only.

Provided, however, teachers employed and certified prior to the effective date of this act, who became certified as a career level I teacher, may exercise their option pursuant to Section 7 to renew the certificate previously issued by the State Board of Education and no minimum foundation funds allocated to that teacher shall be withheld by the Commissioner of Education. Provided, however, nothing herein shall be construed to limit or prevent a local education agency from dismissing a teacher pursuant to Tennessee Code Annotated, Title 49, Chapter 5, Part 5.

(6) If the local education agency continues to employ such a teacher, state funds may be restored only if the teacher improves performance to the level necessary for recertification as a career level I teacher. No funds withheld during the period of deficiency shall be restored.

(7) If a local education agency desires assistance from the state in evaluating apprentice teachers during the first or second year of the apprentice period, such request shall be made in writing to the State Certification Commission. Such evaluations shall be used for identification of specific deficiencies and shall include specific recommendations to the teacher for improvement to correct any such deficiency. If an apprentice teacher believes that the local evaluation process has been unfair, the apprentice teacher may request in writing a state-conducted evaluation. The results of such an evaluation shall be available to the local education agency and the apprentice teacher initiating the request.

Provided, that nothing herein shall be construed to require the State Certification Commission or the Regional Commissions to conduct such evaluations, if in the judgment of the respective commissions such evaluations are unnecessary or would impose an undue burden on the committee.

SECTION 31. (a) Any duly certified career level I teacher shall be employed for ten (10) months. A career level I teacher shall perform those duties prescribed by the local education agency and such additional duties as may be provided for in Section 34.

(b) A duly certified career level I teacher who has met the standards for certification established by the State Board of Education, on the recommendation of the State Certification Commission, and who is employed as such by a local education agency shall receive a one thousand dollar (\$1,000) salary supplement in addition to any other compensation to which the teacher may be entitled.

(c) For school years beginning after the 1984-1985 school year, the State Certification Commission shall establish, with the approval of the State Board of Education, the deadline by which all requirements for certification shall be met.

SECTION 32. (a) Any duly certified career level II teacher paid as such shall be employed for not less than ten (10) nor more than eleven (11) months and shall perform additional duties prescribed by the local education agency from a list of activities approved by the Commissioner of Education. A career level II teacher shall perform those duties prescribed by the local education agency and such other additional duties as may be provided for in Section 34. Upon receiving a career level II teacher certificate, a teacher shall choose either a ten (10) month or eleven (11) month contract. If the teacher chooses an eleven (11) month contract, that teacher may receive either the full amount of the eleven (11) month supplement, if that teacher's services are required during the eleventh (11th) month, or that part of the supplement paid for outstanding performance, if the services of that teacher are not required during the eleventh (11th) month. The amount received by the teacher shall be determined by the needs of the local education agency for teachers during the eleventh (11th) month.

(b) (1) Career level II teachers who are employed as such by a local education agency under a ten (10) month contract shall receive a two thousand dollar (\$2,000) salary supplement in addition to any other compensation to which the teacher may be entitled.

**GUIDELINES FOR
LOCAL EVALUATION SYSTEM**

(Effective 1985-86)

The guidelines which follow in this paper are for the establishment of an evaluation system for Probationary, Apprentice or Career Level I teachers. The evaluation is intended to be conducted by Tennessee local school system personnel in accordance with the Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984. Implementation of an approved evaluation system developed from these guidelines will meet the requirements for evaluating teachers holding Probationary, Apprentice, or Career Level I teaching certificates. School systems should not assume that these guidelines will be appropriate for development of evaluation plans for assessing all certificated personnel in accordance with Sections 93 and 94 of the Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984. Guidelines for addressing that evaluation will be developed at a later date.

I. CONTENT (Domains of Competence)

Teachers at the first three levels of the Career Teacher Ladder (Probationary, Apprentice, and Career Level I) shall be evaluated using the same domains of competence established for teachers at the higher levels (Career Level II and Career Level III). The same domains of competence shall be used since (1) research has shown that consistent demonstration of those competencies promotes student achievement; and (2) Probationary, Apprentice, and Career Level I teachers who wish to remain in the teaching profession shall be expected to evidence those competencies at progressively higher levels as they move up the career ladder. The domains of competence and indicators which shall be used are:

- Prepares for instruction effectively
 - establishes appropriate instructional goals and related objectives consistent with the curriculum;
 - prepares instructional plans and materials incorporating principles of effective instruction;
 - creates, selects or modifies instructional plans and materials to accommodate learner instructional levels
- Uses teaching strategies and procedures appropriate to the content, objectives and learners
 - provides a clear description of the learning task and its content;
 - monitors learner understanding and reteaches as necessary;
 - provides learners appropriate practice and review;
 - establishes and maintains learner involvement in the learning task
- Uses evaluation to improve instruction
 - uses information about learner performance to improve the instructional process;

- reports learner status and progress to learners and their parents
- Manages classroom activities effectively
 - establishes and maintains appropriate learner behavior;
 - establishes and maintains a classroom climate conducive to learning;
 - makes effective use of classroom resources (e.g., personnel, time, materials, facilities)
- Establishes and maintains a professional leadership role
 - improves professional skills and knowledge;
 - takes a leadership role in improving education;
 - (Screening only) performs professional responsibilities efficiently
- Communicates effectively
 - writes clearly and correctly;
 - communicates oral information effectively
 - reads professionally relevant literature/materials with comprehension

II. PROCESS

The local education agency (LEA) evaluation process shall incorporate principles similar to those used for the State evaluation. Listed below are minimum process elements which shall be used by LEAs as guidelines in developing local evaluation systems.

- A. Local evaluation systems shall provide for evaluation by at least three persons: the school principal, at least one evaluating teacher from the general grade or subject area as the teacher being evaluated, and a third person to be designated by the school system.
- B. Upon being informed of the composition of the evaluating team, the teacher being evaluated shall be entitled to request that one member of the team be removed and that the school system name a new member. The school principal shall not be removed.
- C. Local evaluation systems shall use objective, behaviorally-based instrumentation.

The LEA shall select or develop instruments and procedures for their use which address the competencies and indicators listed in Section I above and are related to effective classroom performance. Once these instruments and procedures are selected or developed, the LEA shall be responsible for their fair and objective implementation.

- Q. Local evaluation systems shall use multiple data sources which include, but are not limited to:
- portfolio of professionally related materials (to consist of a minimum of a lesson plan and unit plan for the current teaching assignment)
 - classroom or position observations and assessment
 - review of previous evaluations
 - personal interview
 - examination of inservice and professional development activities undertaken by the teacher
 - review of indicators of student progress, where applicable
- E. The local evaluation system shall include multiple observations with pre- and post-observation conferences.

Each Probationary and Apprentice teacher, as part of the required yearly evaluation, shall be observed at least three times. Career Level I teachers, as part of the two required evaluations, shall be observed at least three times per evaluation. Each member of the three-member team shall observe on separate occasions and shall conduct pre- and post-observation conferences.

In the pre-observation conference, the teacher and team member shall discuss the lesson or activity to be observed and identify its objectives, content, and context.

After each observation, the member of the evaluation team shall meet with the teacher being evaluated to share information from the evaluation and suggest means of improvement. At this time, the teacher being evaluated shall be allowed to supply new or revised information and shall have an opportunity to respond, in writing, to the written evaluation with the responses attached to the evaluation. Each post-observation conference will identify areas of strengths and areas of weakness, and outline activities which will help in correcting the identified weakness.

- F. The local evaluation system shall include provision for appropriate, objective, and equitable procedures for recommendation for advancement from Probationary to Apprentice and from Apprentice to Career Level I certifications. The Department will issue guidelines which will include suggested methods for determining Career Ladder status.
- G. The local evaluation system shall contain provision for annual evaluation of the system itself, and for making any revisions in the system suggested by the evaluation.

**Guidelines for Local Evaluation Plans
Fast Track Option, 1984-85**

1. The evaluation plan must address the competencies and indicators in the first four domains of the teacher evaluation system.

Domains of Competence

- I. Prepares for instruction effectively
 - A. Establishes appropriate instructional goals and related objectives consistent with the curriculum
 - B. Prepares instructional plans and materials incorporating principles of effective instruction
 - C. Creates, selects or modifies instructional plans and materials to accommodate learner instructional levels
 - II. Uses teaching strategies and procedures appropriate to the content, objectives and learners
 - A. Provides a clear description of the learning task and its content
 - B. Monitors learner understanding and reteaches as necessary
 - C. Provides learners appropriate practice and review
 - D. Establishes and maintains learner involvement in the learning task
 - III. Uses evaluation to improve instruction
 - A. Uses information about learner performance to improve the instructional process
 - B. Reports learner status and progress to learners and their parents
 - IV. Manages classroom activities effectively
 - A. Establishes and maintains appropriate learner behavior
 - B. Establishes and maintains a classroom climate conducive to learning
 - C. Makes effective use of classroom resources (e.g. personnel, time, materials, facilities)
2. Observations with pre- and post-conferences will be required. Planning can be assessed during the pre-conference. Feedback to teachers will include at least one area of strength and one area for improvement.
 3. Observations shall be multiple, three (3) if the local plan is approved by November 15; two observations if approved after November 15. One observation must be by the building principal or by the building level decision maker; observations must be done by professionally qualified personnel such as, but not limited to, assistant principals or supervisors.

Guidelines, 1984-85 (cont.)

Page 2

4. Persons using the evaluation system must have instruction in the use of the system. School systems should submit, along with their evaluation instrumentation, a description, outline, or manual for their training program.
5. Teachers must be provided a written statement listing areas needing improvement. The primary responsibility for completing the improvement plan will rest with the teacher, with the system having the responsibility of assisting the teacher.

Local evaluation plans meeting these minimum requirements will be recommended to the State Board of Education for approval. LEA's should review their teacher evaluation procedures which are presently on file with the State Department of Education. If these procedures do not meet the guidelines stated above, revisions or a new plan for compliance with the fast track option should be submitted. The Department will provide technical assistance upon request. (Guidelines for evaluation of administrators and supervisors will be provided at a later date.)

Please submit revisions or new plans by July 2, 1984 to:

Career Ladder LEA Evaluation Plans
Tennessee Department of Education
112 Cordell Hull Building
Nashville, TN 37219-5338

APPENDIX H

SUPERINTENDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

SUPERINTENDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

<u>SYSTEM</u>	<u>SALARY*</u>	<u>EDUCATION</u>	<u>HOME H.S.</u>	<u>SELECTION</u>
Less Effective Group				
A(1)	\$28,000	EdS	in district	elected
B(1)	\$30,000	EdS	in district	elected
C(1)	\$26,000	MA	in district	elected
D(1)	\$28,000	EdS	in district	elected
E(1)	\$35,000	MA	in district	elected
F(1)	\$29,000	MA	in district	elected
G(1)	\$34,000	MA	in district	elected
Mean(1)	\$30,010			
More Effective Group				
A(2)	\$50,000	PhD	out of dist.	appointed
B(2)	\$25,000	MA	in district	elected
C(2)	\$60,000	MA	in district	appointed
D(2)	\$38,000	MA	out of dist.	appointed
E(2)	\$46,000	EdD	out of dist.	appointed
F(2)	\$61,000	EdD	out of dist.	appointed
G(2)	\$43,000	MA	out of dist.	appointed
Mean(2)	\$46,148			

State Mean \$34,626

* System numbers rounded to the nearest thousand.

Source: Notes from meeting with Anna Blackmon, Tennessee Department of Education, July 7, 1986.

APPENDIX I

SCHOOL BOARD DEMOGRAPHICS

SCHOOL BOARD DEMOGRAPHICS

<u>SYSTEM</u>	<u>AVERAGE COLLEGE EDUCATION*</u>	<u>NUMBER OF MEMBERS</u>	<u>ELECTION</u>
Less Effective Group			
A(1)	4 yrs.	5	by district
B(1)	2 yrs.	5	by district
C(1)	1 yr.	7	by district
D(1)	2 yrs.	6	by district
E(1)	1 yr.	11	by district
F(1)	2 yrs.	7	by district
G(1)	1 yr.	7	by district
More Effective Group			
A(2)	4 yrs.	5	system-wide
B(2)	1 yr.	5	by district
C(2)	5 yrs.	7	by district
D(2)	3 yrs.	5	system-wide
E(2)	3 yrs.	5	system-wide
F(2)	6 yrs.	5	system-wide
G(2)	4 yrs.	5	system-wide

* Rounded to the nearest year.

APPENDIX J

SCHOOL SYSTEM EXPENDITURES

SCHOOL SYSTEM EXPENDITURES

DOLLARS PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE

<u>SCHOOL SYSTEM</u>	<u>ADA</u>	<u>INSTRUCTIONAL</u>	<u>ADMINISTRATIVE</u>	<u>TRANSPORTATION</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Less Effective Group					
A(1)	1500	\$1200	\$35	\$110	\$1700
B(1)	1000	\$1200	\$65	\$130	\$1700
C(1)	2200	\$1100	\$35	\$170	\$1700
D(1)	800	\$1000	\$55	\$130	\$1600
E(1)	2700	\$1300	\$45	\$120	\$1900
F(1)	3400	\$1200	\$30	\$110	\$1700
G(1)	2900	\$1100	\$45	\$140	\$2100
Mean(1)	2071	\$1134	\$44	\$128	\$1765
More Effective Group					
A(2)	4200	\$2400	\$80	\$ 70	\$3400
B(2)	700	\$1300	\$70	\$150	\$2000
C(2)	27300	\$1300	\$40	\$ 80	\$1800
D(2)	2200	\$1300	\$45	\$ 0	\$1900
E(2)	2200	\$1700	\$60	\$ 40	\$2500
F(2)	4700	\$2200	\$60	\$ 70	\$3000
G(2)	2900	\$1600	\$45	\$ 50	\$2100
Mean(1)	6040	\$1671	\$56	\$ 66	\$2395
State Means	5384	\$1418	\$48	\$ 99	\$2111

System numbers are rounded.

Source: Notes from meeting with Anna Blackmon, Tennessee Department of Education, July 7, 1986.

APPENDIX K

SCHOOL SYSTEM REVENUES

SCHOOL SYSTEM REVENUES

PER PUPIL ADA

<u>SYSTEM</u>	<u>STATE</u>	<u>FEDERAL</u>	<u>NON-LOCAL</u>	<u>LOCAL</u>
Less Effective Group				
A(1)	\$ 990	\$200	\$1200	\$ 720
B(1)	\$1120	\$180	\$1320	\$ 860
C(1)	\$ 940	\$290	\$1220	\$ 470
D(1)	\$1010	\$200	\$1210	\$ 480
E(1)	\$ 970	\$220	\$1190	\$ 760
F(1)	\$ 980	\$210	\$1190	\$ 580
G(1)	\$1030	\$440	\$1470	\$ 450
Mean(1)	\$1005	\$251	\$1256	\$ 615
More Effective Group				
A(2)	\$1100	\$240	\$1340	\$2640
B(2)	\$1080	\$360	\$1440	\$ 600
C(2)	\$ 840	\$120	\$ 950	\$1020
D(2)	\$ 900	\$160	\$1060	\$1140
E(2)	\$ 940	\$230	\$1180	\$1420
F(2)	\$1020	\$220	\$1240	\$2130
G(2)	\$ 910	\$150	\$1060	\$1110
Mean(2)	\$ 971	\$211	\$1182	\$1438
State Mean	\$957	\$240	\$1197	\$1039

*System amounts are rounded to nearest 10. Columns and rows will not total due to rounding errors.

Source: Notes from meeting with Anna Blackmon, Tennessee Department of Education, July 7, 1986.

VITA

William Joseph Dycus was born in Lafayette, Tennessee on November 29, 1954. He attended Willette Elementary in Macon County and graduated from Jackson County High School in 1972. He attended Tennessee Technological University, receiving a Bachelor of Science degree in Secondary Education with a minor in Mathematics in 1975 and a Master of Arts Degree in Educational and Counseling Psychology in 1977. He was licensed by the Tennessee Board of Healing Arts as a Psychological Examiner in 1979. In December 1986 William completed the Doctor of Education program in Educational Administration and Supervision at the University of Tennessee, minoring in Business Management and Educational and Counseling Psychology.

He was employed as an elementary school teacher in Jackson County in 1975. He worked as a school psychologist, special school principal, and adult education teacher in Bledsoe County Schools from July 1976 to August 1979. The school psychology career was continued until 1984 in the Blount County Schools. He served as Supervisor of Education in the Sweetwater City School System from June 1984 through the completion of his program at the University of Tennessee.

He has a wife, Sarah, a daughter, Norma, and a son, Daniel.