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ABSTRACT

Excessive centralized control begets uniformity, which denies local need and school uniqueness. Further, control, order, and supervision create impassivity and work against autonomy. The decentralization of authority to lower echelons more familiar with local needs may provide a more relevant administration that encourages local initiatives; school and education development are facilitated when the administration caters to local and school needs. To probe the system of educational administration in Korea and to present measures for assisting with the realization of school-centered administration in the country, in June and July 1986, questionnaires were mailed to 500 supervisors and administrators working for the provincial boards of education, 750 teachers, and 150 administrators of the country offices of education from 13 provinces and cities. Additionally, a literature review on the topic was conducted and seminars were held to open the process of study to a wide range of input. Suggestions generated by the findings include minimizing evaluations and inspections by administrative authorities to encourage self-evaluation by the schools' operation evaluation committees, liberalizing control over financial matters, and automating administrative tasks so teachers and administrators are able to devote more time and effort to the improvement of professional competency. (54 references) (KM)

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A STUDY ON THE AUTONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Project Director
Chung Chan-young, Ph. D.

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Regular Report 86-21

A STUDY ON THE AUTONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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PREFACE

Korean Educational Development Institute was commissioned, in January 6, 1986, by the Presidential Education Reform Committee to undertake a study on the autonomization of educational administration. This study examined how educational administration has changed with a particular concern for the degree of autonomy in operational matters, and projected, on this basis, its future prospects. A new frame of reference was established by analyzing the systems of educational administration in several major advanced countries to gain insights into ways to promote the autonomy of educational administration.

By conceptualizing the autonomy of educational administration, criteria were established for the analysis of the current status of educational administration. Against this criteria major problems were identified and new needs were assessed. A comprehensive analysis of numerous factors provided basic directions to guide a changing process to the autonomy of educational administration. Specific measures were presented to provide a critical path to defined changes.

One of the reasons for giving importance to the autonomy of educational administration is that the centralized authority of the national government has produced uniformed control, defying the compelling mandate to heed diverse local needs. The result was an increased dependence of the local authorities and schools on orders and directions from the higher authorities, which stripped them of an autonomous, creative approach to problems.

A conclusion drawn from this study is that the autonomy of the local administrative authorities and schools should be enlarged. Their autonomy

should be promoted along the democratization of decision-making, professionalization of administrative personnel and rationalization of educational financing.

Having presented some measures to bring about the reform of educational administration, it is to be hoped that this study will be a new stimulus to a collaborative attempt of all concerned people to provide a new milestone in the annals of educational development.

To the professionals, administrators, and teachers who have contributed to this study, we owe our gratitude for their patience with this demanding work. Their interest and professional assistance are very much appreciated.

Shin Se-ho, Ph.D.
President
Korean Educational Development Institute

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I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the rationales and purposes of the study, research questions, methodologies and limitations of the study.

1. THE RATIONALE FOR AND THE PURPOSE OF STUDY

Autonomy denotes self-decision-making and self-control, free of intervention from outside, and is accompanied with a sense of responsibility. It also has a premise that autonomous actions are guided by rationality, as it is emphasized as a quality of democratic citizenship.

The school is an aggregation of learners with diverse interests and potentials, who await to be tapped by teachers. Teachers initiate a wide variety of experiences beckoning learners to participate, with a view to helping them grow into an autonomous person. The uniqueness of school sets out cries for autonomy, diversity and creativity.

Educational administration is a consistent effort to help teachers perform educational functions effectively. Put in other words, it sets its eye on effective support for educational activities, and its principles are founded on diversity, creativity and professionalism. It may be worthwhile to examine why autonomy, among others, assumes an important dimension of educational administration.

First; a centralized control, when carried to an excessive degree, begets uniformity which defies local needs and school uniqueness. The effectiveness of administration is neutralized by repeated cycles of trial and error in the absence of criteria. The decentralization of authority to lower echelons, which are more familiar with local needs, may provide a more relevant administration encouraging local initiatives and morale-boosting. Second; control, order and supervision create dependency and impassivity which work against autonomy and creativity. Third; educational professionalism and democratic citizenship are fostered in the climate of the

school which supports autonomous thinking. Autonomy should be built into every act of educational practice.

The most prominent feature of educational administration is that the authority to make major decisions is concentrated on the top echelon of administration hierarchy, with the relative shrinkage of latitude for autonomous acts on the part of local administrative authorities and schools regarding matters pertaining to their concern. Uniformity and rigidity are ubiquitous in the selection and organization of learners, the organization and operation of curriculum, guidance, supervision, and financing. The development of school and education is facilitated when its administration caters to local and school needs. All of these cry out for autonomy in school.

Against this background, this study attempts to diagnose the existing system of educational administration, identify its problems and explore ways to the autonomy of educational administration which maximizes the outcome of education. This study sets forth the following to be accomplished.

- (1) To conceptualize the autonomy of educational administration, establish criteria for guiding change to it, and develop a model autonomy.
- (2) To evaluate the existing system of educational administration against the criteria and identify obstacles to the realization of educational autonomy.
- (3) To present the ways toward the development of school centered administration in anticipation of the forth-coming implementation of local autonomy.

2. TARGETED AREAS OF INQUIRY

In accordance with the articulated goals of this study, the areas of inquiry are identified as follows:

A. Criteria for Autonomy and Autonomy Model

Efforts are made to conceptualize the autonomy of educational administration, identify areas yet to be autonomized, and establish criteria which explain qualifiers for an administrative model. Going a step further, the roles of school principals are identified.

B. Development Pattern of Educational Administration

A review of how educational administration has developed on the central, local and school levels is supposed to point to its future pattern of development. At this stage, the administrative instances of foreign schools are presented as a stimulus to think about the administrative system relevant to our situation.

C. Obstacles to the Autonomy of Educational Administration

Obstacles to the autonomy of educational administration are identified in three dimensions; legal provision, administrative system itself and environment.

D. Ways to the Autonomy of Educational Administration

Ways to realize the defined autonomy of educational administration are explored for consideration of their applicability to school centered administration.

3. METHOD AND PROCEDURE

A. Method

1) Review of Literature, data and Information

To define the autonomy of educational administration and establish

principles, criteria and a model, earlier studies and relevant materials were reviewed. Educational laws, administrative orders, and regulations of administrative authorities were also reviewed to identify obstacles to the autonomy of educational administration.

2) Reference to Administrative Systems in Other Countries

The U.S.A., Britain, and Japan were included in the study. Their systems of educational administration are expected to provide some useful insights into a model relevant to Korea. Reference to foreign materials bearing on related topics covered selection of students, curriculum, recruitment of teachers, supervision and financing.

3) Questionnaire Survey

With regard to the autonomy of educational administration, efforts were made to solicit opinions of teachers, principals (including vice principals), supervisors, researchers and administrators. Questionnaires were constructed in three kinds designed for teachers, principals and administrators. They included questions about the degree of participation in decision-making, support from administrative authorities, the delegation of authority to principals and obstacles to autonomizing educational administration.

The survey was conducted from June 23 to July 5, 1986 and invited the participation of 1,400 selected by multi-stage-stratified sampling from 13 provinces and cities. The sampled group consists of 500 supervisors and administrators working for the provincial boards of education, 750 teachers, 150 administrators of the country offices of education.

4) Consultation Committee

To ensure an added objectivity and rationality of major decision-making for study, a consultation committee was formed, comprised of teachers and scholars. The committee served as an advisory group in defining study objectives the contents and method of the study and

Table 1-1 Contents of Questionnaires

Areas	Variables	Number of Questions	
		Teachers	Administrators
Personal backgrounds	Working Institute, position, type of sch. foundation, locality	4	4
Operational mode	sch. operation plan,	2	2
	curriculum operation	3	3
	school and class operat.	5	5
	guidance	4	4
	In-service training	1	1
Openness of ed. administration climate	school operation	5	5
	supervision	3	3
	parents, community	1	1
	personnel admin.	1	1
Decentralization	Personnel, admin.		3
	guidance		
Delegation of authority to board of ed.	Materials & equip't		
	School oper.		5
Systematising of ed. admin. affairs	Delegated to the dist. office of ed.		
	personnel admin.		9
	teacher training		
	financing of pub. sch.		
	sch. operation Guidance, financing		6
Others yet to be delegated	Delegated to sch. principal		
	Personnel admin.		10
	financing, guidance school oper., facilities		
Laws, regulations		Rules limiting autonomy	Rules limiting autonomy
Others		Obstacles Suggestions	Obstacles Suggestions

Table 1-2 Participants in Questionnaire Survey and Respondents

Classification	Rate of return (%)	Elementary sch.	Middle sch.	High sch.	Provincial boards	County office
Total	62.6	300	300	300	200	300
Teachers	66.0	150	150			
Principals	64.7	100	100	100		
Clerk personnel	49.3	50	50	50		
Supervisors	62.4				200	300

constructing questions needed to conduct an opinion survey. Seminars were held, which brought together scholars and teachers in a collaborative attempt to discuss problems and find ways out of them.

5) Interview

Interviews were conducted with teachers, principals and supervisors to have an in-depth analysis of problems, cognizant of the limited probe inherent in the questionnaire survey. The KEDI researchers paid visits to schools, the provincial boards of education and the district offices of education. A total of 105 have been interviewed.

B. Study Procedure

The procedure of the study is described in Figure I-1.

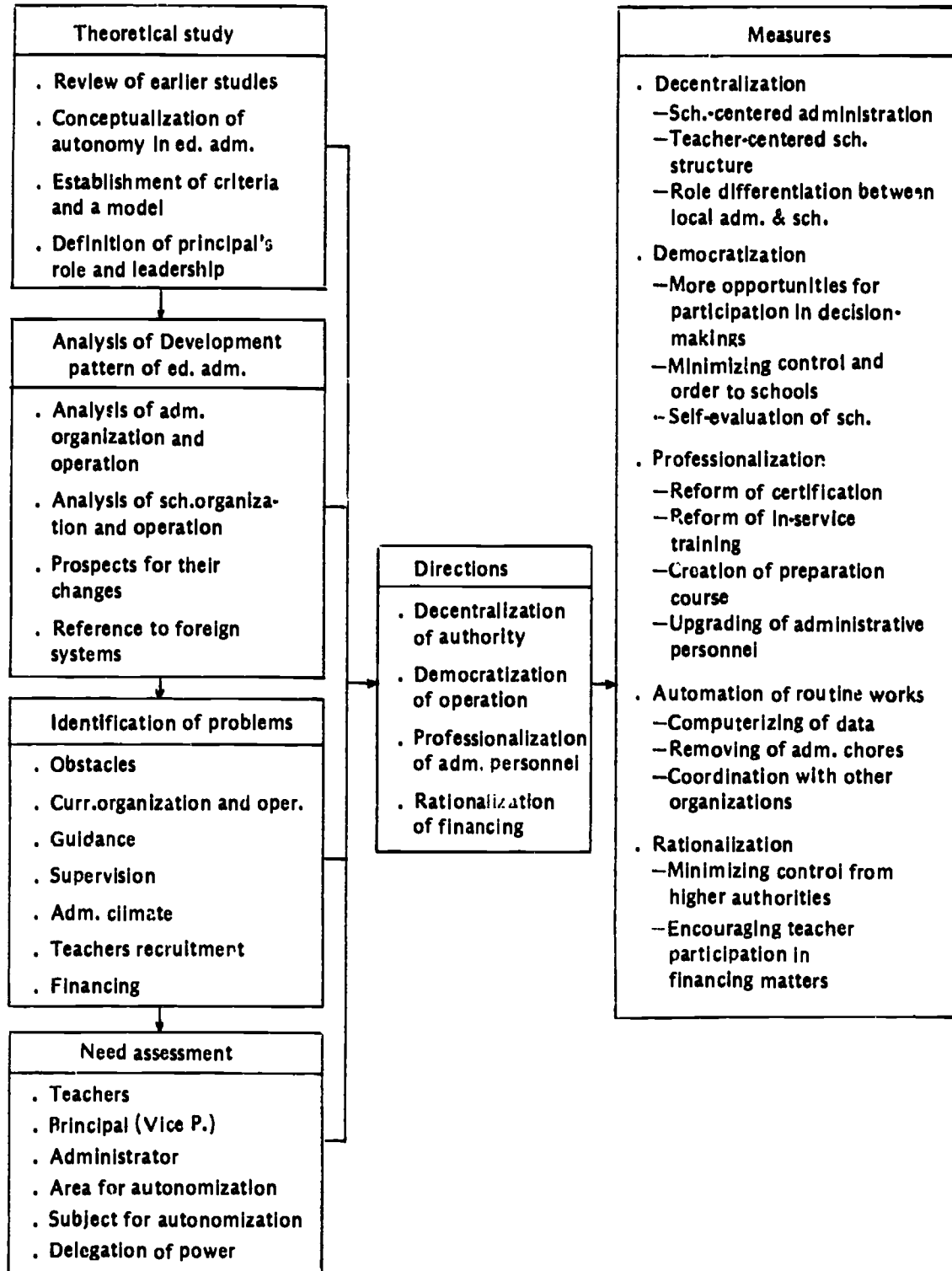
C. Study Schedule

The time span of the study may be classified into several stages.

1) Research planning

- o Setting forth basic directions and preparation of study plan (Jan. 1986 - May 1986).

Figure I-1 Procedure of Study



- o Review of study plan drawing on resource people (March, 1986).

2) Examination of present system and identification of problems

- o Examining the present system of educational administration and identification of problems (Jan. – June 1986).
- o Conducting surveys to sound out opinions of teachers and administrators (June – July, 1986).
- o Construction of questionnaires (May – June 1986).
- o Conducting survey (June – July 1986).
- o Collation and analysis of responses (July 1986).

3) Reference to foreign systems of educational administration (June 1986)

- o Collation and analysis of data (May -- August 1986).

4) Exploration of ways to the realization of autonomy

- o Review of materials (July – August 1986).
- o Review of suggestions (July 19, 1986).
- o Seminar to refine the suggestions (September 12, 1986).
- o Modification of suggestions (Sept. 1986).

4. LIMITS OF STUDY

Since this study purports to explore an administrative system which encourages the autonomy of school and class, the local system of educational administration is its central concern. Therefore, higher education is outside the purview of this study. The central system of educational administration also received a passing treatment.

II. THEORETICAL BASE FOR THE AUTONOMIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

This chapter discusses the concept and principles of educational administration and defines the autonomization of educational administration. On the basis of the defined concept of educational administration, efforts are made to establish criteria for a model which reflects a full degree of autonomy in educational administration. In this connection, the role of school principal is defined, which befits the administrative leadership in school administration.

1. AUTONOMIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A. Educational Administration

The concept of educational administration differs from person to person depending on the point of view which one holds. This section discusses five different views, namely; i) a means and service; ii) an administrative process; iii) a social process; iv) part of general administration, v) and a collaborative effort.

1) *Means and Service*

Educational administration is a means or service which marshals, organizes, and provides personnel and material resources to achieve the goal of education.¹⁾ Kim Jong Chul defines it as a social, public and systematic effort to provide personnel and material conditions, supervision and guidance, which are directed toward a common set of educational goals.²⁾ A.B. Moehlman views instruction as the final goal of education, to which organization and administration are subservient.³⁾ R.F. Campbell strikes a consonant chord by holding administration responsible for coordinating personnel resources in a way that assists in the achievement of instructional goal.⁴⁾

1) This view is endorsed by Kim Jong-chul, A.B. Moehlman, and R.F. Campbell.

2) Kim Jong-chul, *New Course on Educational Administration*, Seyoungsah, 1985, p.33.

3) A.B. Moehlman, *School Administration* (New York: Hognton Mifflin Co. 1951), p. 4.

4) R.F. Campbell et al., *Introduction to Education* (Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1966), p. 83.

2) Administrative Process

Administration is defined as a process of taking appropriate actions to achieve the goal of an organization. T.B. Sears was the first to admit educational administration as a process which comprises planning, organizing, coordination and control, and his view was further qualified and refined by R.T. Gregg, Newman and Sumer, and Johnson. R.T. Gregg defined educational administration as the process of integrating human efforts and utilizing resources in the same way as facilitating the development of human quality.⁵⁾ The implication of this assertion is that educational administration is not only concerned for the growth of learners but for the qualitative growth of teachers. According to S.T. Knezevich, educational administration is a process of understanding, maintaining, controlling, systematising, and developing the organizational structure of personnel and material resources in a way that serves the organizational goal.⁶⁾ This concept suggests that educational administration he provided in specific reference to the organizational goal, and policy measures and plans laid out in view of their consistency with it. This concept views school administration as a systematic effort to organize resources, personnel and material, allocate and coordinate them with a view to achieving the organizational goal.

3) Social Process

Getzels explains educational administration in a social process,⁷⁾ which consists of nomothetic and ideographic dimensions. The former includes sociological terms—organization, role, expectation, etc. The latter abounds in psychological terms—individual, personality, desire, etc. The definition

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- 5) R.T. Gregg, "Administration," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3rd ed. (New York: Macmillan). pp. 19-24.
 - 6) S.J. Knezevich, *Administration of Public Education* (New York: Harper & Row Publisher, 1975), p. 29.
 - 7) J.W. Getzels, J.M. Lipham and R.F. Campbell, *Educational Administration as a Social Process* (New York: Harper & Row, 1986); J.W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," A.W. Halpin, *Administration Theory in Education* (New York: The Macmillan Co. 1967), pp. 150-165.

of educational administration in social process directs attention to interactions among variables in the two dimensions, individual perceptions, consistency of opinions between different echelons of administration, conflict between individual and organizational goals, and leadership pattern, which are the overriding concerns of administrators in school and educational organization. By putting emphasis on the leadership of the school principal, the organizational structure of school, and conflict among teachers, it advocates the autonomy of school in management and operation.

4) *Part of General Administration*

Educational administration is considered in the context of general administration pertaining to the executive branch, in contrast with the parliamentary and judiciary branches. According to Paik Hyun-ki, viewing it as part of general administration reflects primary concern for the interpretation of laws and legal provisions. Educational administration is one component of interior affairs together with police administration.⁸⁾ This view implicates the subservient status of educational administration to general administration and is blamed as a factor working against the autonomy of educational administration.

5) *Collaborative Effort*

D. Waldo puts forth a new concept of administration which defines it as a collective cooperation of constituents with a high degree of rationality directed toward the achievement of an organizational goal. Applied to education, it is a collaborative attempt of all constituents to provide an appropriate organizational structure suited to the conditional requirements to achieve the objectives of class instruction.⁹⁾ The appropriateness of organizational structure is ensured by harmonizing the inter-relationship

8) Paik Hyun-ki, *New Educational Administration*, Eulyoo Munwhasah, 1964, p. 15.

9) Textbook Compilation Committee of Teacher's Colleges, *School Administration*, Kyoyuk Chulpansah, 1970, p. 15.

of components in an organic system. It is important to create an autonomous, human climate as a means to effect cooperation of constituents of an organization.

In the foregoing, discussion was carried on the five different points of view of educational administration. These can be classified according to whether it is regarding or for education. The former is concerned with the interpretation and implementation of laws and regulations, which invites authoritarian leadership and forced obedience on the part of lower levels of administration hierarchy. Such an administrative pattern is far from encouraging local initiatives which lead to the higher professionalism of administrative personnel.

This study opts for 'administration for education' which interpretes administration as a public, systematic and social effort to marshal and organize personnel and material resources and to provide a necessary condition for the accomplishment of educational goals. This concepts holds administration authorities responsible for providing services which help school achieve educational goals. A narrow view of educational administration limits it to school administration where the role of the principal is magnified; he is expected to set up goals, provide resources, create a supporting climate, evaluate the efficacy of support, eliminate conflicts among teachers in order to increase the effectiveness of school activities.¹⁰⁾

The school administration is a cooperative service of concerned people to provide a rational means to the achievement of educational goals. The school takes responsibility to provide alternative environments which befit the diverse needs of students. Under no circumstance should the functions of school be influenced by motives other than the needs of students. So as far as administration is concerned, the school should be guaranteed protection from intervention from higher administration authorities and a full degree of autonomy to take appropriate actions dictated by the goals at which the school aiming.

10) Kim Yoon-tai, *Educational Administration and Management*, Baeyungsah, 1986, pp. 10-11.

Whether it is a broad or a narrow connotation, the common denominator of educational administration in a new concept is a tendency toward the democratization of decision-making process and the creation of humane relation among teachers. The amity and morale of the teachers are the primary concern of democratic administration as the key to encourage their initiatives and spontaneous service. Their voices should be heard in the process of major decision-makings.

B. The Principles of Educational Administration

In order for educational administration to sense and adapt to social transformation, the rapid growth of school population, curriculum reform, and the increasing demand for educational financing, it is essential that educational administration develop into a dynamic status ready to float with the changing stream. It may be worthwhile to establish some principles which enable educational administration to effectively support the achievement of educational goals.

First; autonomy raises the efficacy of educational administration in a school or an administration organization. It denotes willingness and ability to establish criteria, make decisions related to self-governing, implement decisions, and to be responsible for consequences arising from them. It signals warning against an excessive control by the central government and endorsement for the decentralization of authority which ensures a greater latitude of self-governing on the part of local administration units and schools.

The major features of open system are diversity and creativity. These qualities are developed when an organization is guaranteed a full degree of autonomy.

Second; democracy ensures the fairness of decision-making through the wide participation of concerned people. It works against the dogmatic use of power by the person to whom authority is delegated. The head of an organization makes a point of drawing on a group of resource people regarding professional matters. Likewise, the principal seeks the opinions

of teachers or a consultation committee before final decisions are made. One-sided order or control is giving way to cooperation based on the understanding of others, and this forms a unique strength of the democratic process of decision-making. There are some instances where the democratic principle is inconsistent with the principle of efficiency, but the former may be considered as sharing the same vein with autonomy.

Third; another principle concerns the efficiency of administration. By efficiency it means an effort to maximize the outcome of education with the minimum input of resources. This is what is called 'social efficiency.' In view of the necessity of constantly reestablishing goals to encourage change and development, efficiency may denote an attempt to reach the maximum attainment of goal.

Fourth; educational policies are considered in terms of their relevancy to the given goal. This means that the concept of relevancy does not allow for distance between means and goal. As mentioned earlier, educational administration is a means subservient to goal, and the relevancy of means to the goal is what administration is concerned about. In other words the goal of educational administration lies in raising the outcome of learning and instruction.

Fifth; stability applies to educational policies, for they are supposed to show a consistent direction toward the given goal. The lack of stability brings forth departure from the consistent flow of stream and sets back a march toward the given goal.

Besides, there are more principles we can name, like rationality, legitimacy and professionalism. Among the foregoing principles, some conflicts exist. What is acceptable by one principle goes against the other principle. A case in point is the relationship of potential conflict between democracy and efficiency. An ideal model of educational administration requires skills to strike a balance that minimizes conflicts and maximizes mutual reinforcement among the principles.

C. Autonomization of Educational Administration

It may be worthwhile to see what autonomy in general means before its concept is examined with specific reference to education. Autonomy means self-determination, self-control, and willingness to comply with self-imposed norms and rules. It is an antithesis to dependence on others, subject to order and control by others. While the former is concerned for self-motivated action, with a sense of responsibility for its consequences, the latter is conscious of forces from outside as a motive for actions.

Autonomization denotes a deliberate attempt to bring changes directed toward autonomy. It is directed toward the realization of autonomy. The former refers to individual and collective efforts to increase the degree of autonomy to its fulfilled status, and the process of moving toward autonomy consists of a series of changes. There are two qualifiers for autonomization; one is directed toward a goal, and the other is future-oriented.¹¹⁾

The term 'autonomy' finds its true meaning in relation to a group, an organization, a state or a community. But it does not always lose its meaning, when applied to individuals. Autonomy in individual terms, means one's determination not to allow oneself dominated by external control or will.¹²⁾

Going back to the organizational goal, reference is made to the goal of the school, that is, to produce useful members of society in politics, economy, culture, and other spheres of life. Curriculum is introduced as the vehicle for the goal, and objectives are established in more specific terms by grade level, by semester and by unit. The administrator finds his role in the provision of structure, facilities, teachers, equipment and resources in an appropriate mix of them to achieve educational goals. It goes without saying that the school should be protected from external

11) Kim Jong-chul, the Meaning and Practice of Autonomization, *New Education* (Saekyoyuk), 1985, pp. 22-23.

12) Lee Don-hee, *Introduction to Educational Philosophy*, Bak-yung Sah, 1980, pp. 147-148.

intervention and control, if it is to perform these functions. Yoon Hyung-won further qualifies the autonomization of educational administration by trying to standardize it based on intellectual autonomy, moral autonomy and emotional autonomy. Viewed in this vein, the autonomization of school functions is nothing but an ethics which compels school's concern for rationality, legitimacy, creativity.¹³⁾

One of the reasons for the growing importance of autonomization is related to the unique goal of education.¹⁴⁾ The character of a person, which is supposed to be cultivated by education, may differ depending on social norms and values. In view of the fundamental features of the contemporary world, which cut across cultural differences, autonomy appears to be an essential quality of man, which gives a sense of right direction in the confusing welter of changes.¹⁴⁾ Creativity, inquiry, applicability and adaptability are developed in a climate which ensures the autonomy of individual learners.

Second, the explosive growth of knowledge complicates the process of education and necessitates a high degree of professionalism to deal with the complicated problems resulting from it. They defy solution by laymen with dilettant interest; they succumb only to professional educators equipped with expertise and wisdom. Their professionalism is enhanced, when they are given an autonomous climate free of intervention from outside.¹⁵⁾

Third, autonomy means the political neutrality of education, as provided by the Constitution. Autonomy should be respected in all aspects of education, notably in the organization and operation of curriculum, as a guardian against political pressures.

13) Yoon Hyung-won, "Autonomization of School Administration System," Presented to a seminar on the qualitative improvement of elementary and secondary education, Korean Educational Development Institute, 1983, pp. 229-230.

14) Brian Crittenden, "Autonomy as an Aim of Education," *Ethics and Educational Policy*, ed. by Kenneth A. Strike and Kiera Egan (Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1978) pp. 106-108.

15) Richard H. Hall, *Organizations, Structure and Process* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1972), pp. 183-189.

Fourth, autonomy is justified by the weight given to education as the cornerstone of nation-building. Education is a sanctum not to be encroached upon by any external forces. If education loses sight of its direction, it darkens the prospects of the nation's future, for incapacitated education saps the energy of nation for growth. The Constitution¹⁶⁾ and the laws pertaining to local autonomy are the protector of education from factional strife and political hassles.

It was earlier mentioned that autonomy itself was the goal of education, and the autonomously motivated man is what education is concerned about. Such a view of education is distinguished from the one considered as a means. The latter applies to the operational aspect of education, suggesting that all functions related to system operation be autonomized.¹⁷⁾

The autonomy of school can be considered in two ways. The first concern is with the autonomy of organization, which means freedom to make decisions regarding the operation of organization. In the operation of school, supervision, curriculum operation, teaching method, guidance, teacher recruitment and personnel management, facilities, and financing should be heeded with a full degree of autonomy. The degree of autonomy may vary with the kind and the level of school. For instance, the autonomy of public schools may have to be defined in consideration of the government support in distinction from private schools. Even among public schools, primary school is distinguished from high school in terms of the degree of autonomy.

Second, autonomy is concerned with the freedom of individual learners and teachers to make decisions regarding matters pertaining to their concerns. The latitude of decision-making is determined by many factors like the unique climate of school, principal's leadership style, and willingness of individuals to be self-dependent and responsible for the consequences of one's decisions.¹⁸⁾

16) Article 29-4 of the Constitution and Article 4 of Education Law.

17) The Presidential Education Reform Committee, *Basic Directions of Educational Reform*, 1986, pp. 61-66.

18) Kim Jong-chul, *Ibid*, p. 23.

In summary, the autonomization of educational administration is the collaborative attempt of constituents to bring about changes that lead to greater latitude of self determination regarding the operation of organization and of implementing the decisions. The premises of autonomization are that the constituents are professional and able to make informed decisions and conscious of self-responsibility for consequences arising from the decisions.

There are some points to be borne in mind in relation to the autonomization of educational administration. The goal of education—to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes—in a way the life-long process of charting one's path for the future and seeking the meaning of one's life. This process consists of a multitude of decision-makings which lead to self-realization. The autonomization of educational administration is justified by the mandate that the process of decision-making for self-realization should not be interrupted by external motives and pressures. Second, the individualistic goal of education is tempered by the normative dimension of education which expresses as much concern for the greater good of organization or state. Third, the fact that education is a public service points to the necessity of taking into account the external forces of education (politics, religion, etc.), the adopted principle of public education (equal opportunities for education), operational mode of educational system (teacher's quality, the size of educational expenditure, etc.), for the autonomization of educational administration is impossible in separation from the reality surrounding education.

2. CRITERIA FOR THE AUTONOMIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A. Autonomy Model and Criteria

The units of educational administration are considered in four layers, with the Ministry of Education on the top, provincial (or municipal) boards

of education, county offices of education and schools on the lowest level. The personnel associated with administration are administrators at the administrative authorities (supervisor, administrative staff, and general service personnel), school administrators (principals and vice principals), teachers, students, parents, regional communities, and social and political organizations.

The system of educational administration consists of a wide range of components. Prominent among those subject to autonomization are the selection of students for entrance (distribution of school districts, entrance examination, placement), recruitment of teachers (selection, appointment, placement, transfer), organization and operation of curriculum (selection and organization of contents, teaching-learning, evaluation), guidance (in- and off-campus guidance, collaboration with home and society), facilities (building, land space, construction), and financing (budget planning and allocation).

Having identified the areas of concern for autonomization, the logical step is to establish criteria to assess the current status of autonomy in these areas. Criteria were established to address (1) decentralization of power, (2) democratization of decision-making, (3) professionalization of administrative personnel, and (4) rationalization of financing.

First, decentralization is an antonym to concentration, which indicates the position of power on the spectrum toward administration units on local levels. It may be considered in two ways. One connotes administrative terms, which mean the division of power to several units, whereby one is checked by and balanced with others. On the other side, it means the shift of power gravity toward local administration units. Put in other words, decentralization is equated with giving autonomy to local administration units. What is meant by decentralization here has the premise that local autonomy will be implemented in the end.

Decentralization involves redistribution of power and responsibility among administration units, with the resultant alteration of vertical and horizontal relations among them and the increased latitude of self-determination on the local levels. In this sense, autonomy presupposes that

each unit is capable of running itself with a high degree of professionalism.¹⁹⁾

Second, democratization of decision-making refers to the way in which the concerned people participate in the process of decision-making. It is manifested in the extent to which the process is open to opinions of all of the people concerned and the degree of rationality of decisions made as the result of opening the process. The democratic process of decision-making is viable in a school which produces the principal's democratic leadership, where professional competency prevails over authoritarianism in school administration.

While the decentralization of power sets off institutional and structural changes into motion, democratization alters operational mode. Whatever the structural change might be, the effect of decentralization is not linked to the outcome of education, unless it is accompanied by the change of operational mode.

Third, professionalization of administrative personnel raises the efficacy of support to schools, and the school-centered management calls upon the principal to raise his professional competency and leadership skill in response to new needs.

The professionalism of administrative personnel is the key factor to determine the efficiency of administration. Whatever power structure and institutional and operational setups might be, it is knowledge, skill and attitude that work green fingers for the efficiency of administration.

Finally, educational financing is an economic act of securing necessary resources, providing and managing them in accordance with the dictates of the goal. As other economic activities are justified by the rationality of spending resources in anticipation of what comes out of it, the rationality of educational financing is not so much associated with how to secure resources as how to allocate the limited resources among competing demands.

19) Kim Chang-geol, "Decentralization of Educational Administration Structure," Presented for seminar hosted by Korean Educational Development Institute, 1986.

The sources of revenue include the national treasury, transfers from local autonomous bodies, properties of corporations (which school owns), and tuition/fees. The revenue coming from these sources fall far short of actual requirements, and educational financing is highly centralized, with a relative shrinkage of autonomy on the part of local governments and schools. Therefore, this study focuses its attention on the status of educational financing at the local governments and schools, with particular concern for the degree of autonomy and the rationality spending and how they affect the achievement of the goal.

The established criteria will make it possible to conduct an in-depth analysis of the autonomized status of educational administration in selection and screening process, personnel management, curriculum, guidance, supervision, and financing.

Besides the foregoing criteria, we can think of other criteria, viz., the optimal delegation of authority, open climate, and the objectivity of evaluation. Since this study is primarily concerned with the autonomy of educational administration, it limits itself to the criteria which are closely related with the autonomy of educational administration.

1) Organization and Operation of Curriculum

Autonomy in the organization and operation of curriculum means the degree of freedom given to school in taking spontaneous and creative actions regarding what and how to teach.²⁰⁾ In other words, the point is whether the school is authorized to initiate actions on its own needs or obligated to implement orders from higher authorities. J. Egglestone put forth the following model to show the position of authority over a spectrum between passive and spontaneous participation, which changes with the target group.

According to the model, employers, parents, students and pressure groups are most active in influencing the organization and operation of

20) Kwak Byung-sun, "Autonomy in the Organization and Operation of Curriculum," *New Education* (Sae Kyo Yuk), 1985 pp. 45-46.

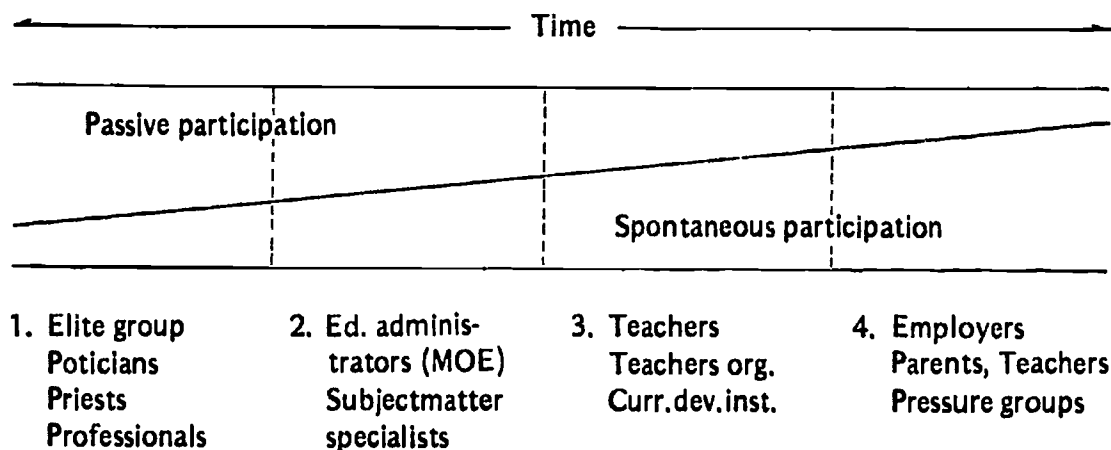


Figure II-1 Changing Pattern of Authority in Curriculum Development and Operation

curriculum. Teachers, teacher organizations and curriculum development institutes are also actively involved in it, though their activity is not so much intensive as the former. Elite and professional groups and the administrators of MOE have shown the tendency of passive participation.

A review of the changing pattern of authority in the past shows a tendency toward spontaneous participation with a greater latitude of discretion. The changing pattern of authority resembles those of social power and control and, for this reason, the degree of autonomy in curriculum provides a clue to the pattern of polity and social structure.

The present system of organizing and operating curriculum shows the centralization of authority at the top level of administration, and the pressing task is to allow and encourage each school to make decisions for itself and to open the process of organizing curriculum to the lay public, while ensuring the freedom of teachers to teach with the textbooks and materials of their choice.

21) Egglestone, John, *The Sociology of the School Curriculum* (Rotledge & Kegan Paul, 1977), p. 47.

By contrast, U.S.A., West Germany, and United Kingdom show a fairly decentralized pattern of curriculum development and operation, where the school and teachers have a greater latitude of discretion, with the process of decision-making open to the lay public. There is an institutional arrangement which allows each school to organize curriculum, create or abolish programs and select textbooks and materials to serve its unique needs.²²⁾

2) Guidance

Guidance is the centerpiece of school education, together with the instruction of subject matter. Since it requires a highly tailored care with the full grasping of individual needs and problems, guidance is a unique area of concern, which legitimizes teacher's claim for monopoly, not to be interfered by principals or vice principals. Guidance presupposes that teachers should be professionally competent and have an appropriate attitude to provide individualized guidance.

Autonomy in guidance has a direct bearing on the cultivation of a desirable character, which is one of the goals that the school aims at, and it is the prerequisite for the autonomy of school and teachers.²³⁾

Guidance begins with the understanding of individual learners which leads to the establishment of a relation binding a teacher with a learner in a genuinely human concern. It goes beyond the bound of understanding personal problems to establish a common bond of empathy touching the depth of one's inner being. Teachers should be lenient toward misbehaviors or misconducts of students with a sympathetic understanding of internal motives, which may invite inquiry into background variables. Proper guidance does not exist without an sympathetic understanding of others. A common bond of empathy is an essential element of a teacher-student relation.

It is important that teachers should be relieved of the heavy load of

22) Kwak Byung-sun, *Ibid.*, 1985, pp. 48-49.

23) Park Sang-soo, "Autonomization of Guidance," *New Education* (Sae Kyo Yuk), 1985, p. 59.

teaching and given time and conditions to work for self-perfection and to cultivate the required qualities.

3) *Supervision*

Supervision is a confluence of guidance, advice, coordination, informational and other services, which purport to enhance the professionalism of teachers and the rationality of curriculum and school management.²⁴⁾ It means the service of supervisors at administration authorities, directed toward schools.

In recent years, supervisory services gained momentum with the initiatives of experienced teachers within schools to help teachers in raising the quality of instruction. Therefore, supervisors at administration authorities focus on encouraging school initiatives to ensure the higher professionalism of teaching, operation and management. The autonomy of supervision finds its true meaning when the principal-or teacher-initiated supervision prevails in school in a way that facilitates self-directed development.²⁵⁾

4) *Personnel Management*

The major factors of system management are money, materials and men. Among these, men appears to be the most important variable which accounts for the successful operation of a system. The school system is no exception.

Personnel management is largely concerned with the development of human resources, which deals with recruitment, professional development and morale of teachers in school. The administrative authorities are responsible for personnel management to the extent that involves the employment, placement and transfer of teachers and administrators for school. In the case of private school, it is left to the discretion of the school owner or the principal.

24) Yoon Jung-II, *Study for the Improvement of Supervisory and Administrative System*, KEDI Report, No. 82-22, 1982, p. 22.

25) Allan Gluthorn, *Differentiated Supervision*, ASCD, 1984, pp. 46-58.

Since teachers, among others, are the major determinant of education quality, how to recruit teachers and how to provide conditions for the continual growth of professional competency are the overriding concern of personnel management. Autonomy in personnel management not only enlarges the local agency's and principal's latitude of discretion but enables them to make informed decisions, because of their familiarity with teachers. There is a great deal of rationality to decision-making based on personal variables—such as the amount of in-service training, the quality of performances, credits, etc. Autonomy also ensures that local needs are reflected in the placement of teachers.

5) Educational Financing

Educational financing is an act of securing necessary funds for education, managing and using them to achieve the defined goal of education. As in other economic activities, educational financing seeks to ensure the efficiency of monetary inputs.

The same concept applies to school financing. The first step is to secure necessary funds to support school's activities, and the next step is concerned with how to ensure the rationality of spending which is heightened when school is given the authority to initiate creative actions regarding financial matters. Within the framework of limited funds, school priority activities to be financed, establishes principles of spending that enable school administrators to make informed decisions to ensure the rationality of financing. The expenditure component of learning-teaching is the centerpiece of school financing. The following diagram explains what is involved in the autonomizing of educational financing.

B. Indices for the Autonomization of Educational Administration

As mentioned earlier, the autonomization of educational administration is assessed by establishing criteria, consisting of (1) decentralization of power, (2) democratization of operation, (3) professionalization of administrative personnel, and (4) rationalization of financing. Under each

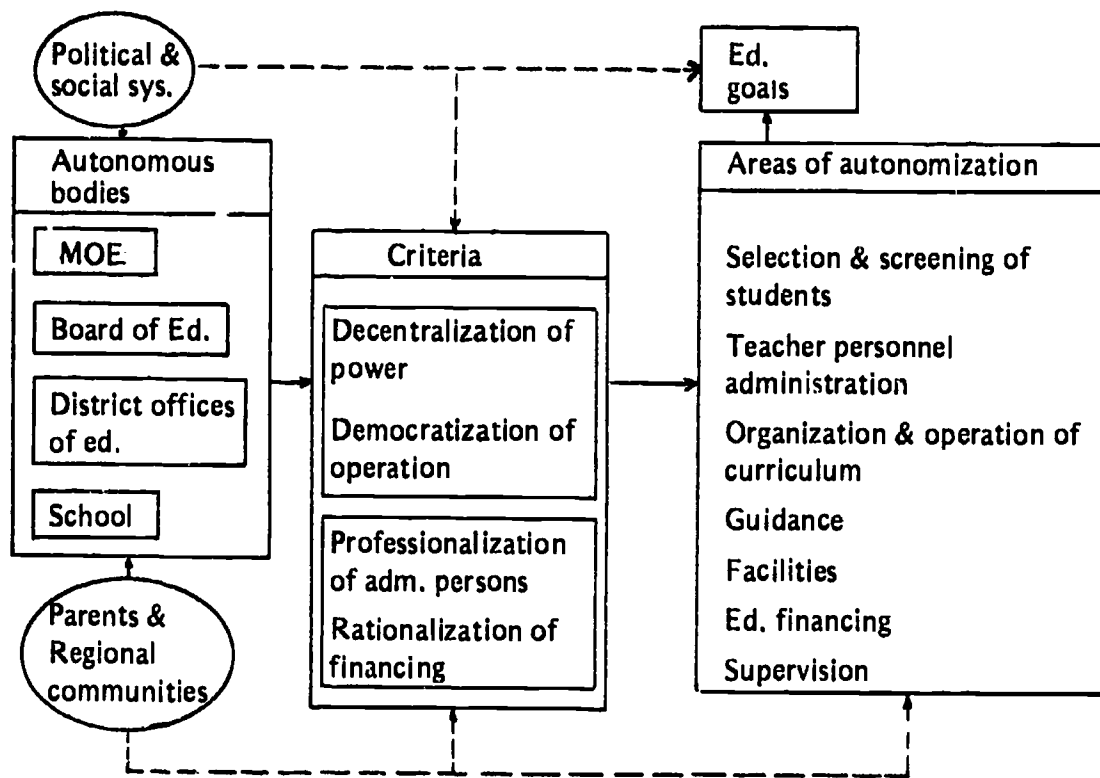


Figure II-2 Criteria for Autonomy of Education

criterion, indices are established to indicate the current status of automization. These indices are expected to provide an analytical look into the present system of educational administration.

3. THE ROLES AND LEADERSHIP OF THE PRINCIPAL

A. Roles

The school organization comprises two dimensions. One is the division of labor based on a cobweb of cooperative relations among the constituents of the organization, and the other is the placement of personnel, the combination of which is directed toward the formal goal of school education.

Table II-1 Criteria and Indices of Autonomization

Criteria	Indices
o Decentralization of power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Delegation of authority to lower levels of adm. units - Organization for encouragement & support in instructional affairs - Articulation of responsibilities through task analysis - Overlapping and distribution of similar works
o Democratization of operation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Administrator's and principal's leadership - Participation of teachers in decision-makings - Establishment of self-evaluation system
o Professionalization of administrative personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The degree of teacher's professionalism - Recruitment of administrators & teachers - The amount of in-service training - The degree of administrator's professionalism
o Rationalization of financing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Obtaining funds and rationalizing the allocation of funds - Self-sufficiency of financing - Rationalization of sch. budgeting - Opening the process of budgeting

The formal goal of school education is to produce a man of intelligence, virtue, and physical ability, and this presupposes an attempt to assist in the dramatising of individual potential toward self-realization. The achievement of this goal requires cooperative efforts of all constituents, and the man who plans, makes decisions, coordinates and controls to make the cooperative effort more effective and contributing to the goal is the principal.²⁶⁾

26) Kim Jong-chul, "Role and Function of the Principal," *New Education* (Sae Kyo Yuk), 1984, p. 51.

From the viewpoint of school management, the principal's status and functions are an important variable, which accounts for his leadership. As the representative of an administrative unit, the principal is the guardian of laws and a progressive, creative manager.

Article 75 of Education Law defines the principal's roles as composed of leading and supervising teachers and administrative personnel and educating students. His roles in relation to teachers and students are intended to raise the outcome of education. The principal is a manager responsible for planning, controlling, and encouraging organizational behaviors, an advisor with regard to the instruction of subject matters, and the facilitator of school-community collaboration. He is loaded with double imperatives coming from administrative and instructional systems. The variables for the principal's role and leadership are the size, the quality level, the location and the unique needs of school, its relations with other schools and its environment.

J.M. Limphan divides the principal's roles into (1) instructional program, (2) student administration, (3) recruitment of teachers and personnel management, (4) financing, facilities, and management, and (5) school-community relation.²⁷⁾

In view of its emphasis on class- or school-centered management, this study defines the principal as (1) a planner and a decision-maker regarding school education, (2) a practitioner of school operation, (3) a controller and evaluator of school operation (4) a supervisor helping teachers enhance their professionalism and (5) a coordinator with parents and regional community.²⁸⁾

First, planning and decision-making are the primary functions of the principal, which apply to curriculum operation, teacher recruitment and personnel management, guidance, and facilities and financing. The present

27) James M. Limphan & J.A. Hoch, *Principalship: Foundations and Functions* (New York: Harper & Row Publishers), 1984.

28) Kim Jong-chul, *ibid.*, pp. 52-55.

system of education limits the authority of teachers to be autonomous. However, planning and decision-making are teacher's prerogatives to be given visibility in their relation with administrative personnel.

Second, as the manager, the principal leads the performance of instruction and operational works, including division of work, communication with people representing all levels of hierarchy, ironing-out of different opinions, control and guidance. He is required to have human relation skill and an ability to make professional judgements of administrative works.

Third, the principal is required to evaluate the effectiveness and the relevance of administration and instruction to the goal of school education, redirect and control deviations from the path to the goal. Control and direction are not so much the decrying and discredit of teachers as respect for their opinions and encouragement to their creative initiatives.

The outcome of education should be open to evaluation not only by teachers but by parents and the lay public. An evaluation and control mechanism for education should be the common concern of all. Going a step further, it should try to accommodate a broad base of opinions and provide feedback to school education.

Fourth, the principal plays important roles in facilitating and supporting school-initiated supervision and guidance to enhance the professionalism of teachers. Clinical teaching, micro teaching and other innovative teaching methods deserve attention for introduction to teachers. The man responsible for supervision in school should be innovative-minded and keep themselves updated on the advancing frontiers of teaching.

Finally, the principal plays important roles as the facilitator and coordinator to effect collaboration with parents and regional communities. While the school accommodates a broad base of opinions from outside, it should serve the educational needs of communities as the agent for community development. By employing resource persons from outside and qualified teachers, it can provide programs for adults in the context of life-long education.

As the required qualities of the principal to perform these functions, Kim Yung-don lists a strong sense of commitment to education with a sagacious outlook on it, democratic-mindedness, health, a desirable character, erudition and professional skills.²⁹⁾ Besides, the principal should be spontaneous and active, motivated for self-improvement, and conscious of his responsibility as the pace-setter of innovation. School administration often begets a tendency to confuse it with propensity to foster the principal's dogmatic and authoritarian leadership. So far as the autonomy of school entails democratization of operation, it is continually checked by the collective force of constituents. The principal's decisions percolated through a democratic process are most contributive to the outcome of education.

B. Leadership of the Principal

Leadership in general terms is defined as a skill of setting off individuals and an organization into motion.³⁰⁾ By analogy, we can define the principal's leadership as a skill of guiding the activities of the school and its constituents toward the goal of school education. The principal's leadership, viewed as a process, can be explained in a flow chart.

The foregoing flow chart is the modification of Keith Davis' model which befits the school organization. The ideal and goal of school education turn into specific accomplishments when the process of achievement is mediated by the principal's leadership. And this leadership is influenced by the organizational pattern of teachers and social environment (higher administration authorities, parents, demands of regional communities, etc.) Teacher's morale is boosted up when the principal exercises a leadership that ensures the harmony of teacher's attitude with school situation and this, in turn, facilitates the attainment of the goal. Leader-

29) Kim Yung-don, "Quality and Leadership of the Principal," *New Education* (Sae Kyo Yuk), 1984, pp. 56-59.

30) Park Dong-suh, *Korean Administration*, Bupmun Sah, Seoul 1978, p. 457.

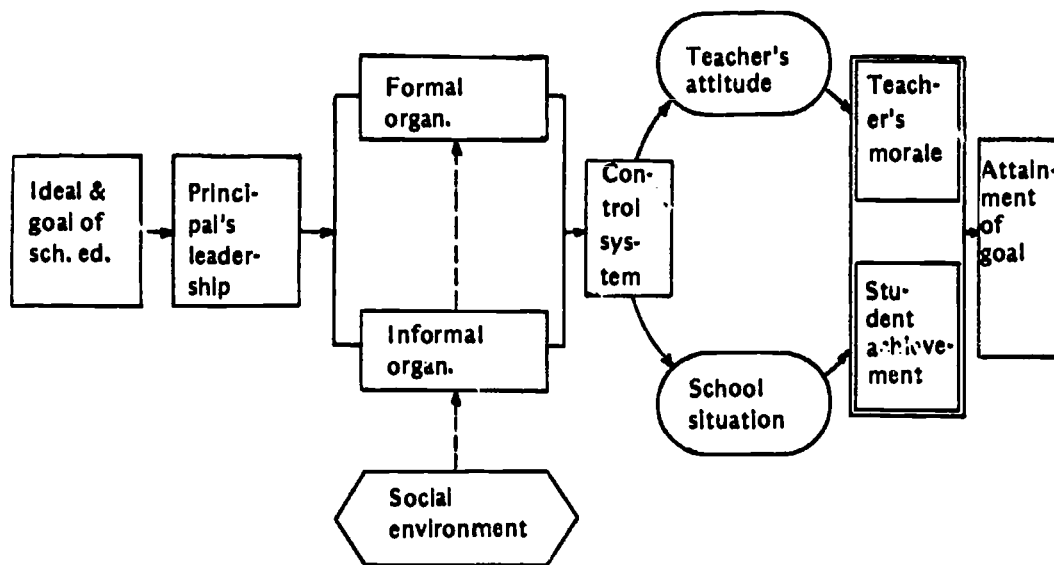


Figure 11-3 Basic Model of Leadership Process

ship breaks down into various patterns, and R. White's model emphasizing an autonomous climate is the subject of attention in this study.

White's model of democratic leadership argues that decision-making is the joint responsibility of the leader and the constituents of an organization and that the implementation of decisions is based on their initiatives and spontaneous participation. Such a leadership naturally calls for objective criteria for the judgment of its result.³¹⁾

The following compares a democratic leadership with authoritarian leadership in terms of teacher's latitude of discretion.³²⁾

Between the two extreme democratic and authoritarian leaderships, there are numerous leadership styles with different proportions of the two, forming a continuum leading to the two extremes. As one goes to the left,

31) Ralph White and Ronald Lippitt, "Leader Behavior and Member Reaction In Three Social Climate," In Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, eds, *Group Dynamics* (New York: Harper & Row, 1968), p. 319.

32) Robert Tannenbaum and R.H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," *Harvard Business Review* (May-June, 1978), p. 167.

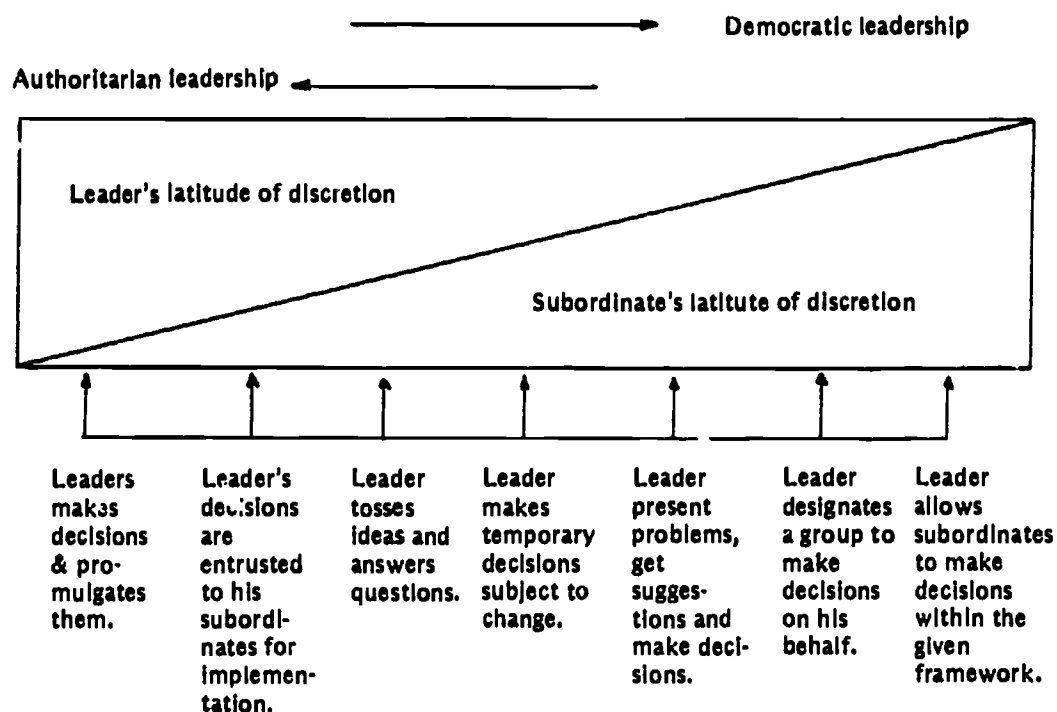


Figure II-4 Continuum of Leader Behaviors

authoritarian leadership gains prevalence, and going to the right gives dominance to democratic leadership. What is expected in relation to the autonomy of school administration is the principal's leadership tilted in favor of democratic style, encouraging teachers to initiate actions. The success of school administration rests with the principal's willingness to move to the right on the leadership continuum.

The autonomy of school administration under the democratic leadership of principal not necessarily negates the continuum of hierarchical levels leading up to the provincial boards of education and the Ministry of Education. Therefore, the autonomy of school is based on adherence to the existing order and creative response to calls for the delegation of authority to lower levels, which enable teachers to set forth goals, select materials, explore new methods of teaching and take responsibility for the result of initiative actions.

The autonomy of school administration also attaches importance to the school's relation with parents, regional communities and interest groups, and this concern is related with the teacher's claim to be protected from interventions from outside.

III. DEVELOPMENT PATTERN OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

This chapter reviews how educational administration in Korea has developed. The bodies responsible for educational administration consist of three layers; the Ministry of Education on the central level, the boards of education in province or special city, and the offices of education on the county level. Review of organizational changes that have been made will provide a pattern of development giving clues to the future development of educational administration.

Based on the identified pattern of change, an attempt is made to envision the desired direction of development in anticipation of the forthcoming implementation of local autonomy. In the final section, reference is made to the educational administration systems of the United States, the United Kingdom and Japan, hopefully to provide useful insights into the model of educational administration in the future.

1. ORGANIZATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN KOREA

A. Central Organization

The central organization of educational administration is the Ministry of Education. But it is not that the Ministry of Education is exclusively responsible for education to the virtual exclusion of other organizations. In a broader sense, the central organizations include the Presidential Office and the Prime Minister's Office.

Article 29 of Government Organization Law defines the Ministry's functions, inter alia, i) to administer matters pertaining to education, science, and physical education, ii) to compile and authorize textbooks, and iii) to support and supervise administrative and financial aspects of all local education administrative organizations. The Minister of Education, as a member of the Cabinet, formulates educational policies, makes decisions regarding major issues of education, enacts provisions needed for the implementation of policies, supervises and controls its subordinate organizations.

The administrative personnel on the central level divide into three levels, top level administrators, middle level administrators and low level administrators.³³⁾ The top level administrators are actual policy makers including the President, Prime Minister, the Minister, assistant ministers, Mayor of Seoul Special City, governors, mayors of equivalent cities, assistant

33) Kim Chang-geol, *Educational Administration*, Seoul, Bakmungak, 1985, pp. 220-221.

governors, and the staff members of the Presidential Office with equivalent ranks thereto.

The middle level administrators take the responsibility to implement policies, supervise and direct personnel in the performance of their responsibilities. Therefore, they are required to acquire professional skills of performing their responsibilities. Directors of bureau and divisions and section chiefs fall in this category. Within the framework of policies, laws and decisions, they are responsible for sectoral planning, establishing criteria for the performance of tasks, effecting cooperation and providing necessary conditions for performance.

The lower level administrators perform routine works under the direction of middle level administrators. Their performances are directed by laws, regulations and criteria.

The Ministry of Education has undergone many organizational changes, but the change which took place with the advent of the Fifth Republic in November 1981 was the first to scale down the central government. The earlier organization of the Ministry included the Office of Planning and Management, the Office of Supervision and Textbook Compilation, and the Office of Educational Policy, six bureaus, namely of Common Education, Higher Education, Teacher Education, Social and Vocational Education, Physical and International Education, and Educational Facilities. Under the bureau level, there were 16 officers in charge of professional matters and 26 divisions. With the establishment of the Ministry of Sports in March 1982 the Bureau of Physical Education was transferred out, and International Education integrated with Teacher Education to form a new bureau. This organizational change trimmed the Ministry to five bureaus and 23 divisions. Instead, the number of officers in charge of special matters increased to 9 and again to 21, indicating an attempt to raise the professionalism of educational administration. The recent change added two divisions to bring a total of 25. In sum, the top layer of central educational administration is departmentalized by function and the lower layer by area. But this distinction does not apply to all bureaus, since some of them reflect the combination of the two from the top down.

With its organization fit to deal with diverse functions, the Ministry of Education exercises a vast authority on its subordinate agencies, coming from its commitment to educational planning, policy formulation, establishment of criteria for curriculum and guidance, employment of teachers and administrators, and financing.³⁴⁾

Due to the recent outcry for school-centered administration, some of these functions in part were delegated to lower administration authorities. Nonetheless, the Ministry retains the heritage of centralized authority tinged with greater concern for rigid planning and management. The resultant dominance of control thickened the bureaucratic layer which stifled professional concern for educational characteristics. The Ministry lacks the professional function relying on professional committees and supervisory staff.

B. Local Educational Administration

The local educational administrative bodies are responsible for the administration of matters pertaining to elementary and secondary education, which reflects the local needs of education. For the administration of local education, they lay out a regional plan of educational development, intake a broad base of opinions, and make informed decisions based on the opinions. Administrative support and supervisory guidance are, therefore, the major responsibilities of local administrative bodies.

Among the local autonomous bodies responsible for educational administration, the board of education exists in each province or special city of its equivalent. The office of education in each county represents the lowest body of educational administration. Between the two the district office of education exists, corresponding to the district of general administration in Seoul and Pusan. It represents the intermediate level of local educational administration.

34) Kim Jong-chul, *New Educational Administration*, Seyung Sah, 1985, p. 135.

1) Board of Education

The board of education is a local autonomous body overseeing matters related to local education, sciences, technology, and cultural and liberal arts. A board of education consists of seven members, and five of them elected by the local assembly. By the profile of the board members, it is readily noticed that the board itself is an assembly which makes decisions regarding educational issues, and its executive functions are directed by the superintendent.

Establishing direct contacts with principals and teachers are the supervisors within the Bureau of School Affairs. The climate of the school is largely determined by how these personnel provide supervisory guidance to schools.

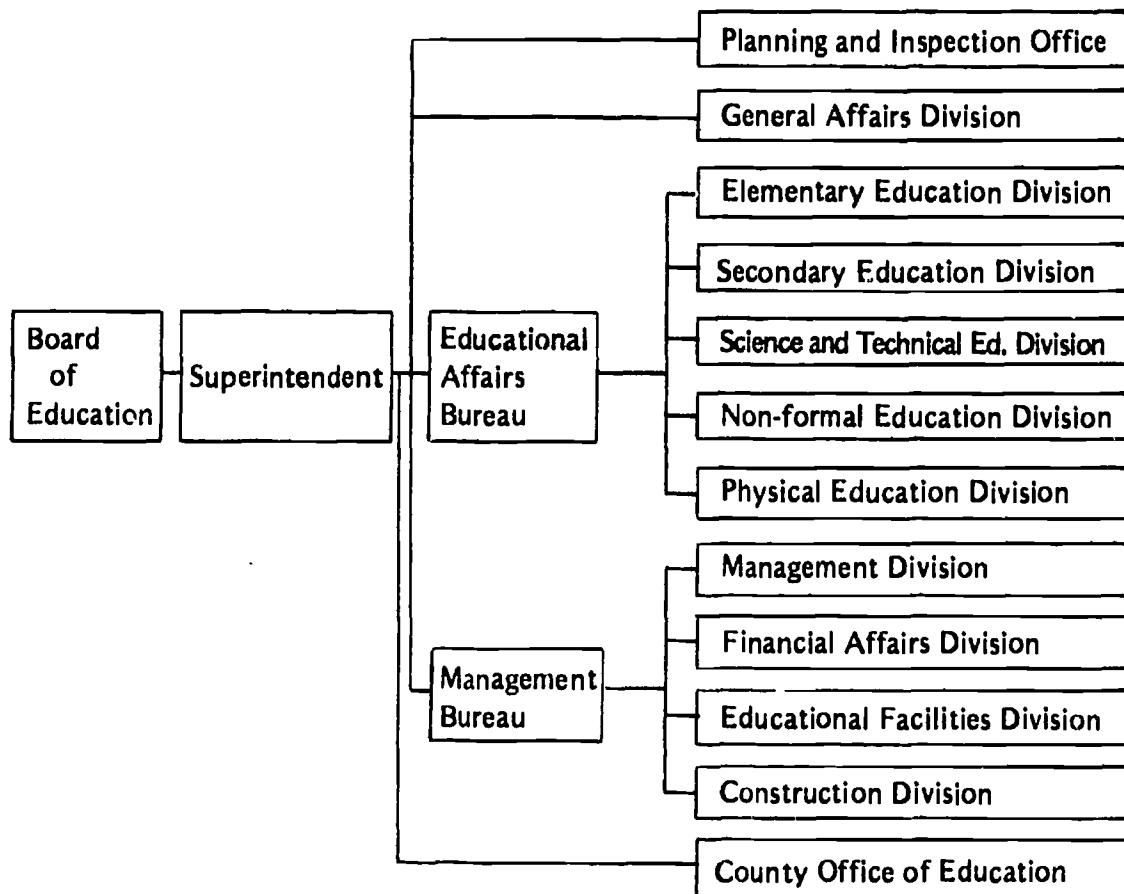


Figure III-1 Organizations of the Board of Education

As subsidiary organizations of the board of education, there are Education Research Center, Science Education Center, and a library to cater to specific needs of the schools. Article 24 of Education Law stipulates the functions of the board of education and the office of education, but there is no provision which provides functional distinction between the two.

The office of education consists of School Affairs Division and Management Division. The former focuses on supervisory guidance and support for primary and middle schools, while the latter manages facilities and financing affairs. In the special cities of Seoul and Pusan, the metropolitan boards of education are assisted by the district offices of education which represent the intermediate level of educational administration.

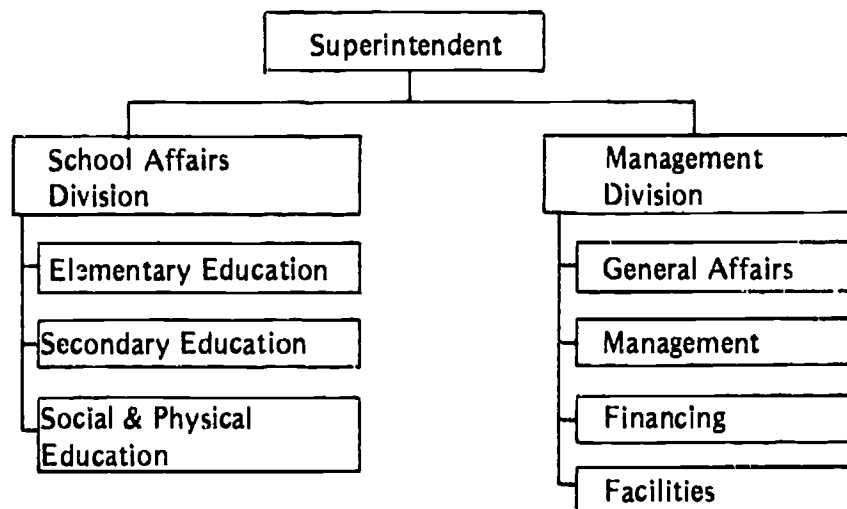


Figure III-2 Organization of the Office of Education

The present organizational arrangements of administration have the following problems.³⁵⁾

The first problem comes, among others, from the centralization of power, with the frequent use of authoritarian control on the lower level bodies of educational administration. The lack of autonomy increased financial dependence on the central government.

35) Shin Joong-shik, Kang Young-sam, *Educational Administration and Educational Management*, Seoul: Kyoyuk Chulpansah, 1985, pp. 53-54.

Second, educational administration is weak in the function of support and encouragement, with insufficient support for compulsory education. Administrators tend to put emphasis on management skill, which gives dominance to general administration with the relative shrinkage of supervisory guidance for education on the scene. The fact that administration is not divided into specific functions in the face of new educational needs also accounts for the lack of support.

Third, the planning of administrative bodies on the local level is far from catering to the local needs of education. The strength of local administration lies in a timely response to emerging needs in policy formulation, curriculum and guidance, and it is ensured by planning for changes. Within the board of education, the office of planning and inspection is responsible for regional planning of education, and the problems is that the planning section is staffed by one middle level administrator. Further, his function of planning is limited by the organizational arrangement that places the financial function of local education in the Management Bureau. The planner, being a general administrator in most cases, has little understanding of education on the scene, and this stymies his effort to plan and coordinate with educators. In the absence of a person in charge of planning at the Office of Education in county, the professionalism of planning is lost. Both the board of education and the office of education show uniform patterns of organization, leaving little room for flexibility depending on the size and uniqueness of local areas under their jurisdiction. In terms of the legal provision, the local administrative bodies are autonomous, but, in substance, their organizations are far from providing conditions for the implementation of local autonomy.³⁶⁾

From the viewpoint of professional concern, the present criteria which qualify a superintendent to head the board of education are ambiguous. Article 32 of Education Law stipulates 'erudition and virtue' as the requir-

36) Suh Jung-wha, *For the Improvement of Regional Administration of Education*, Korea Educational Development Institute, 1981, CR. 81-1, pp. 56-57.

ed qualities of the superintendent. The terms are not specific enough to indicate the qualities required of the superintendent. In this connection, words need to be mentioned about the quality of general administrators for their little understanding of education in class and the lack of sensitivity to school needs. The lack of concern, on the part of supervisors, for administrative and managerial skills can't go without mentioning.³⁷⁾

C. School

The organizational pattern of a school shows the following as the general tendency, though it varies with the size of school.

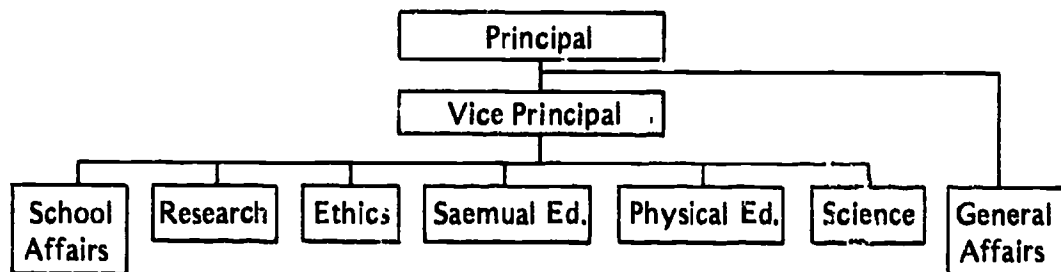


Figure III-3 Organization of School

The principal stands on the top of the school organization, assisted by a vice principal (or two in the case of having to divide into school affairs and guidance) and master teachers. As informal organizations (out of the line system) providing professional functions, there are planning committees, school affairs committees, guidance committees, and research committees. In the line system which gives importance to the roles of master teachers, there is the functional division of master teachers into

37) Kim Sin-bok, *Study on the Local System of Educational Administration*, Research Report for Ministry of Education, 1981, p. 14.

school affairs, research, ethics, Saemaul education, physical education and sciences. These organizational arrangements are intended to ensure the efficiency of school administration, which leads to the accomplishment of educational goals. The master teacher, as the centerpiece of school administration, is required to have an appropriate assortment of managerial and teaching skills. In this sense, he plays an important role in building an autonomous climate of school, where classroom teachers enjoy greater latitude of discretion in teaching and guidance. His role also assumes importance as the mediator between school administrators (the principal and vice principals) and classroom teachers. Article 3 of Master Teacher Employment Regulation defines his role as follows (See Figure III-3).

2. FUTURE PROSPECTS OF CHANGE IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

This section discusses how the educational administration system will change in relation to the forthcoming implementation of local autonomy. The description of the future profile of educational administration system is gleaned from "Korean Education Reform Toward the 21st Century."³⁸⁾

The functional relationship between the central and the local administrative authorities is determined by addressing the question of "to what extent the former is willing to delegate its functions and allow the latter to be self-reliant and flexible about issues which influence local education?" This assertion directs attention to what follows:

First, the method of local people's participation in decision-making accounts for the degree of their influence on local administration. For instance, the local people allowed to select their representatives to local assembly may be less influential than those allowed to elect the heads of local autonomous bodies besides the representatives.

38) Yoon Jung-il et al., "Educational Reform Toward the 21st Century, 1985, pp. 326-328.

Second, the autonomy of educational administration will be influenced by how the local assembly is related with local autonomous bodies. The integration of parliamentary functions with executive functions will produce an entirely different pattern of educational administration from the one expected of the relation that separates the former from the latter.

Third, the status of local administrative personnel and the style of personnel management are also influential variables for the autonomy of educational administration. The percentage of central government officials vs. local officials, the authority to employ, promote and transfer personnel, salary level and working conditions deserve as much attention for their profound impact on the realization of local autonomy.

Fourth, the degree of self-sufficiency in educational financing also indicates the feasibility of local autonomy. On the other hand, the greater the dependence on the central government in financing local education, the longer it takes to realize autonomy.

Bearing the foregoing points in mind, the Presidential Educational Reform Committee recommended that the following actions be taken.³⁹⁾

- (1) The local bodies of educational administration be endowed with decision-making power so that educational issues are dealt with in a professional capacity free of intervention from higher up.
- (2) Administrative authorities be restructured and functions be reorganized between central and local governments.
- (3) Steps be taken to stabilize the financing of local education as the prerequisite for regional planning for educational development and the formulation and implementation of policy measures.

The Committee presented a strategy, which suggests in the first place that the present board of education assume its role and status as a decision-making body and that the role of the superintendent, as the head of an executive body, be articulated in relation to the decision-making body.

39) Presidential Education Reform Committee, *Increasing Autonomy of Education Administration*, 1986, 9.

The decision-making type of board of education should be adopted at two levels; large administrative districts (special and independent cities and provinces) and small administrative districts (city and county). The board members should be divided into ex-officio members (mayor, governor, and superintendent) and elected members. At the special city or provincial levels, the number of board members should range from 15 to 30. At the county level, it should range from 7 to 9. The adoption of a governing system at the two levels is meant to be simultaneous with autonomy granted to general administration.

B. Autonomy for the Unique Needs of Regional Communities

The rigidity and uniformity of education's administration have a negative impact on the autonomy of school administration and the diversity of educational programs. It not only stifles creativity but reduces local bodies to exist solely for the sake of administrative efficiency, not for education per se.

Korean education is unique in showing a wide regional disparity in education quality and the availability of educational opportunities. The distribution of schools shows regional disparity, which accounts for greater opportunities for education in certain areas in contrast with other areas suffering limited opportunities. The quality of education is determined by a confluence of factors; inter alia, teacher, facilities and financing. The different attainment of education coming from the regional disparity of education becomes a serious social problem from the viewpoint of egalitarianism.

Rigidity and uniformity apply to the process of implementation. Many of the educational problems besetting us have much to do with these factors which defy the unique needs of regional communities. The autonomy of local administration is fully justified from the viewpoint of encouraging diversity and flexibility which serve the unique needs of local education.

C. Autonomy for School Operation

Along with the changing milieu of education, it is unavoidable that the operational mode of education change, by actively and timely responding to predicted challenges. By virtue of its inherent goal of producing future-oriented man, the school should be protected from external pressures, notably from the local communities which have their own specific concerns about education.

The pertinent laws clearly stipulate the autonomy of educational administration in relation to general administration. Its head is authorized to initiate creative actions for the operation of its system. The public pressure for autonomy will be mounting.

D Call for Professionality

The complexity of social problems parallel industrial development, population growth and the diversification of jobs. The public expectations of educational administration will become diverse, and the administrators will not be able to meet these diverse expectations unless they strive to develop professional skills. The modern version of educational administration goes beyond the traditional notion of managerial skill to include creative and dynamic roles in promoting the well being of the clientele.

The area of concern in educational administration is enlarged with a commensurate increase in budget scale. The resultant diversification of administrator's roles in education necessitates the professionalism of administrators.

E. Accountability of Educational Administration

As educational opportunities are reasonably accessible by masses of people, education becomes the target of common concern, even of those who are not its beneficiaries. Further, the public understanding of the important role of education in national development will heighten the administrator's sense of responsibility to the public. This will make the

public outcry louder for the efficiency of expenditures taxed from their pockets. In sum, educational administrators will be sensitised to the accountability of school administration, the heightening concern of the public for education.

3. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

A. Areas and Countries of Inquiry

In reference to the administrative system of education in foreign countries, attention is focused on the current status of autonomization in school administration. In this connection, effort is made to identify problems with school-centered administration, and examine the relation of school with the administrative authorities on the central and local levels.

The United States, Japan and the United Kingdom are included for comparative analysis. Attention is directed to relations between the different levels of administration, legal provisions for functional specialization between school and administrative bodies, and teacher's participation in the functions of school. This study is expected to provide useful insights into the formulation of a strategy for the autonomization of school administration in Korea.

B. Autonomous Operation of School

1) *Central and Local Administration of Education*

The major characteristics of educational administration in the U.S.A. are diversity, laymen's participation and decentralization. It is not the Federal Government but the state governments that represent the highest body of educational administration. Decision-making, regarding school operation, is the responsibility of the administrative body in the county which represents the base unit of school administration.

The Federal Government which administers matters related to education is the Department of Education. It breaks down into divisions dealing with higher education, industrial education, international education, and local education. The lowest units of the Department also reflect functional division. The Department publishes informational materials, establishes cooperative relations with other agencies concerned with education, conducts and supports educational research, and provides advice, counseling and guidance regarding educational matters.

According to the democratic principle which calls for the decentralization of Federal Government's power, the state board of education exists to serve the parliamentary functions, and the Bureau of Education is attached to the state government. The organizational structure features the combination of area and functional division, viz., vocational education, elementary education, secondary education, financing, facilities, library and curriculum. Under the board of education, the superintendent is the head of the executive branch which divides into elementary and secondary education with a separate office of supervisors serving the two, as needs arise. Its sub-units are functionally divided into instruction, guidance and facilities. Under its jurisdiction, the intermediate office of educational administration exists to bridge the gap between the state and a county. It covers more than two basic administrative units of education.

Each basic unit of educational administration also takes the form of a board. The members are elected by people in the respective local area. It is in various patterns, such as, an integrated school district, city school district, county or town district. The most prominent uniqueness of educational administration is the decentralization of power to local authorities, whereby local people enjoy a full degree of autonomy in curriculum, employment of teachers and financing.

The educational administration of England is characterized in large degree, to which responsibility for provision is decentralized, by a system organized to accommodate opinions representing various sections of the people, schools enjoying a full degree of autonomy and support from administrative authorities.

The Department of Education and Science is the top echelon of educational administration, its executive being the Secretary who retains membership in the Parliament. The Department i) formulates national education policies, ii) allocates resources, and controls expenditures on facilities, iii) trains and supplies teachers, iv) coordinates for the determination of salaries for teachers, v) establishes criteria for the standard requirement of facilities, vi) supports and funds educational research and vii) influences and subsidizes local educational authorities.⁴⁰⁾

The local educational authorities are responsible for the administration of publicly-financed education in local areas, with a great degree of autonomy, while maintaining a cooperative relation with the Department of Education and Sciences. It is autonomous and independent in a wide range of functions, from financing to teaching method. As a decision-making body, the local assembly is responsible for the legislation of education bills. The local authorities retain decision-making functions regarding elementary education, secondary education, special education, and financing within the bounds of delegated authority. The Office of Education is the executive branch, the head of which is appointed from educational professionals. Down at the school level, School Management Committee exists, composed of 20 members selected from the members of local administrative authorities, local dignitaries, parents and teachers, to feed opinions regarding local education.

Among the functions performed by the Department of Education and Science, there is no trace of any provisions empowering it to sanction the establishment of schools, employ teachers, select textbooks or administer qualification examination.

The local administrative bodies are empowered to i) appoint a principal, a director to administer local education in the county, to employ teachers for public schools, ii) establish public elementary and secondary schools, continuing education institutes and teacher training institutions, iii) and initiate actions to promote the well-being of students. The functions of

40) E. King, *Other School and Ours* (London: Holt, Rinehart and Kinstone, 1979), pp. 183-188.

School Management Committee include i) decision-making regarding school budget and operation, ii) giving opinions about the appointment of principal and teachers, iii) maintenance and management of educational facilities, and iv) determination of school holidays.

The educational administration of Japan is guaranteed political neutrality and autonomy, but its system, in substance, resembles that of Korea in the centralization of power with the Ministry of Education. Its organization is based on the Government Organization Law which designates the other agency responsible for cultural affairs. The Ministry of Education endeavors for the promotion and popularization of school education, social education, science and culture.

By local administration is meant two layers of organizations; the prefectural (or municipal) board of education and the county board of education. As the term speaks for itself, the board of education is a decision-making body and appoints the superintendent of education to manage the executive body. The prefectural (or municipal) board of education mediates between the Ministry of Education and the county boards of education by carrying out decisions delegated by the former and providing directions and guidance to the latter, independent of general administration. The county board of education is autonomous in relation to general administration, but its administration is dependent on directions and orders from the prefectural board of education.

The majority of functions of the Ministry of Education are related to administration of education, science, arts, and culture, appointment of superintendent for the prefectural (or municipal) board of education, establishment of criteria for curriculum, sanctions the use of textbooks and the establishment of schools, etc. The prefectural (or municipal) board of education establishes or abolishes public primary and middle schools, certifies qualified teachers, employ and trains teachers and provide administrative guidance and advice to the county office of education. The major features of organization structure for educational administration in the three countries are summarized in a diagramic form.

**Table III-1 Comparison of Educational Administration Systems
among the USA, England & Japan**

Countries	Central or Federal		Local			
	Agency's name	Organizational pattern	Agency's name	Organizational pattern	Local agency's name	Organizational pattern
U. S. A.	Dep't of Ed.	Upper level divided by area	State board of Ed.	Upper divided by area	School district	By function
		Lower by function		Lower by function		
England	Dep't of Edu. & Science	Combination of the two	LEA	Combination of the two	—	—
Japan	Min. of Ed.	Combination of the two	Prefectural Board of Ed.	By area	Country Office of Ed.	By area

2) *Autonomy of Principal*

In the United States, the school principal's autonomy is limited, not because of his or her subservient status to the local administrative authorities but due to local people's voices regarding school operation. Decisions regarding major educational issues, like curriculum and budget, are made by an educational committee composed of the representatives of local people.

The principal of an American school is required to demonstrate a strong leadership as the head of the school organization. His leadership is concerned with building a climate which encourage and effects a collaborative attempt of all constituents with the community and directs it toward the organizational goal. His leadership consists not so much of control and direction as of encouragement and support. To translate the leadership into specific functions, it includes managerial skill, leadership skill and executive skill.

In England the equivalent of the principal is the head master, but even this word is often substituted by headmaster. This means that the head master spends as much time on teaching as on administrative chores. The headmaster is nothing more than the extension of a teacher, and this concept holds him responsible for class instruction as an integral part of his functions. It doesn't follow, however, that the headmaster is relieved of a host of managerial and administrative chores. His functions are defined by law. What is unique about the defined functions of headmaster is that emphasis is placed on teaching-related functions. He is required to demonstrate leadership not only as a manager but as a teacher. In relation to the organization and operation of curriculum, the headmaster is allowed to exercise an absolute authority.

The same can be said of the school principal in Japan. The experience of teaching is the most important factor to account for eligibility for principalship. Before he becomes a principal, he is an experienced teacher. In other words, emphasis is put on leadership as an educational practitioner rather than as a manager. The principal assumes the major responsibility for the organization and operation of curriculum as well as providing advice and direction to teachers and administrators regarding guidance, facilities and financing. Although he is not directly involved in teaching, he exercises authority in the organization and operation of curriculum. The major functions of the principal include i) supervision and advise on instruction, ii) supervision of personnel, iii) management of school facilities, and iv) implementation of administrative works.

3) Selection of Students

In the United States, a school district is divided into a number of basic units of school administration, each centered around a school. The number of entrants to primary and secondary schools is determined by projecting the number of school-aged population and social demand for education, in contrast with the popular practice of determining enrollment quota for each school. The division of the school district is based not only on

geographical, but on social and political factors.

Elementary and secondary education, in the United States, are beset by racial problems which often develop into a serious political issue. Desegregation is one of the measures taken to resolve the problems, and the division of school district is made in this context.⁴¹⁾

The board of education estimates the number of school-aged population under its jurisdiction and differentiate it between subdistricts and between grade levels. An attempt is made to assess the accommodating capacities of schools against the projected number of students. As needs arise, the school district may have to be mended or a plan may have to be laid out to construct school buildings. In this connection, the required number of teachers is projected by grade level and by subject matter, and a plan is made to supply teachers.

The conditional factors—such as the supply of teachers and the provision of facilities—are the responsibilities of the board of education. But the selection of students entirely rest with each school.

Since elementary and secondary education are compulsory, planning is based on the principle of accommodating all of the school-aged population. Competitive entrance to public schools can hardly be considered, though entrance to private schools may invite competition due to the system of screening peculiar to individual schools.

Another uniqueness of American educational system is what is called preregistration program which provides new entrants with orientation prior to the beginning of the semester. The eligible age for kindergarten and primary school, years of compulsory education, and principles governing entrance to schools on the next level are determined by state laws and given public exposure.

Transfer of students to other schools, which is occasioned by the

41) R.F. Campbell et al., *The Organization and Control of American Schools*, (3rd ed. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1975), p. 116-121.

change of residence, is made possible by filing application for entrance to a school in the area of new residence.

The school accepts an applicant for transfer on a temporary basis and confirms its formal acceptance upon the receipt of transcripts and credits earned from the school the applicant attended. Transfer without changing residence is possible, subject to consultation with the board of education. The transfer of special students is also subject to consultation with specialists who will designate the schools from which the applicant may select one for transfer.

With regard to suspension and dismissal from school, the principal makes decisions after consultations with the board of education's officials and regulations. So far as guidance for students is concerned, the board of education plays a wide variety of roles, inter alia, the dissemination of materials, counseling services by professionals and the promotion of programs for students' health and well-being. The board of education's functions in guidance, counseling, and advices reach into even such areas as learning problems, transcript and credit management, and regular absentees from class for the small-sized schools which can't afford to provide these services. In the large school district, the board of education provides a position for an assistant superintendent for pupil personnel service, who is assisted by staff members responsible for their areas of concern.

In England, the selection of students is made by assigning them to their respective school districts in accordance with principles established by LEA, with the exception of private schools. The latter selects students through their own screening system, and its principal has a great latitude of discretion in the development of screening test.

Those aged 16 years, upon the completion of compulsory education, are coming up for a qualification examination called "general certificate of education (GCE), which grades students into 'A' level and 'O' level. The given grade level by taking the examination is the major determinant of the kind of university one wishes to enter, but the entrance system allows final decision to be made on the basis of credits earned in high schools,

principal's recommendation and teacher's opinions.

In Japan, Article 49 of School Education Law provides that the Ministry of Education govern matters pertaining to entrance, suspension and transfer of students. But Article 59 of Implementation Decree stipulates entrance to high school as a matter to be determined by the principal. The principal's authority to determine this matter is contingent on the case where applicants exceed the admission quota of a school. Another occasion which calls for the principal's discretion is when the applicants are found to have a serious deficiency in learning or handicap which renders them incapable of continuing education. For instance, he is allowed to delete the color blind from entrance to technical high school, if it is considered a serious handicap to further education.

The determination of entrance to high school is based on the scores of standard test and achievement in middle school. The board of education is responsible for the development and administration of the standard test. The principal exercises authority to make decisions regarding entrance within the framework of test scores and achievement level in middle school.

4) Organization and Operation of Curriculum

The unique role of school in the United States is to set forth the goals of school education which benefit its community and the school enjoys an enormous degree of freedom in this respect.

Since it is through teachers that curriculum turns into specific educational experiences. The degree of teacher's latitude in this respect has a significant bearing on education.

The problem is that classroom teachers often lose sight of the macro-perspectives related to the national or community goal and lack in the level of professionalism required of curriculum organization, and this problem places educational administration in a position to provide a necessary help to teachers. The development of curriculum itself is the joint venture of teachers, supervisors, community representatives, and professionals from

the board of education.⁴²⁾

According to the traditional concept of curriculum, the coverage of subject matters was limited and the majority of them were offered as required subjects. Owing to the recent trend to diversify curriculum, elective subjects increased in number, and students have a wide variety of choices corresponding to their aptitudes and interests.

The curriculum is standardized for public schools, and rigidity is built into the operation of curriculum defying the needs of local people. By contrast, private schools are much more autonomous in curriculum, readily responsive to new needs. But they lack in professionalism required for the organization and development of curriculum and suffer financial constraint in providing education.⁴³⁾ There emerges a new trend toward the joint development of curriculum, involving schools in each administrative district, and the joint effort is manifested in the Curriculum Development Committee. Besides the formal organization of the Committee to set forth basic directions, it is necessary to provide forum or an informal system for subject matter specialists to exchange ideas on the development of curriculum.

It is not always that the development and operation of curriculum are the responsibilities of school district, for the Federal Government sets forth the framework of curriculum and explores effective ways of operating it. An extensive study was conducted to develop a science curriculum under the sponsorship of National Science Foundation, and more studies followed to present models of curriculum in English and social studies with the financial assistance of the Federal Government. National Education Association conducted studies, the findings of which had a significant bearing on the development of curriculum.⁴⁴⁾

42) Emerg Stoops, et al., *Handbook of Educational Administration*, Allyn and Bacon Inc., 1975, p. 832.

43) *Ibid.*, p. 834.

44) Ronald F. Campbell, et al., *Introduction to Educational Administration* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon Inc. 1979), pp. 105-106.

But the involvement of the Federal Government in curriculum is debated over its desirability. According to the Constitution, the local board of education exercises much greater authority and control on schools in matters pertaining to curriculum. The Federal Government's attempt to impose a standard curriculum runs counter to the existing scheme, and debate is warming up over its impact on curriculum. In most cases, the standard curriculum is an outgrowth of a protracted study by professionals, and its relevance to the educational scene is doubted due to the limited participation of teachers.

Theoretically, the organization of content and the determination of method are at the discretion of teachers, but the teacher's sanctum is encroached upon by the Federal Government in the form of guidance, control and support. Nonetheless, this does not always exert a negative impact on school education. Rather, it may become a blessing, when it touches off the potential growth of teachers.

In England, decisions regarding content and teaching are left to the discretion of teachers, resulting in a wide variation of content and education quality. The teacher's authority on classroom instruction is absolute—to such an extent that classroom is called a secret garden. There is a substantial danger, though that the average level of student achievement will go down, when content and teaching are entirely left to teacher's discretion. Even the teacher's sanctum began to be intruded by the central administrative authorities. As the Labor Party took power, Prime Minister Gallahan advocated a massive reform of education as the nation's pressing task, and this led to the promulgation of 'school curriculum' in 1976, the first ever prepared by the government. Although it was a framework made of principles and basic directions, it was considered an epochal event by the British standard that had honored teacher's authority in curriculum-related matters.

In Japan, it is the responsibility of schools to work out a time table out of curriculum, and this means that the principal assumes a full responsibility and leadership to turn curriculum into a teaching schedule subject

matters and extra-curricular activities, in cooperation with teachers. It is important to ensure that teachers have a sense of common interest with the principal and that they are motivated to develop expertise required for their active participation in organizing programs. The principal should demonstrate leadership in developing a program suitable to the unique need of school.

When it comes to making a detailed plan of teaching out of curriculum, it may be desirable to organize a committee, which includes master teachers responsible for subject matters and the management of each grade level, for the meeting of the two makes it possible to organize subject matters in light of needs for the growth of individual learners. It is also important to include psychologists and educational theorists as its members, for their expertise bearing on the organization of educational programs. The principal takes the responsibility to lead the committee in a way that provides conditions for and support the fulfilled demonstration of its professional role at school.

5) Recruitment of Teachers and Personnel Management

The state board of education in the United States is primarily responsible for the administration of personnel affairs in accordance with the pertinent law. In actuality, however, the school districts have their voices heard in much of personnel management. With regard to the recruitment of teachers, the superintendent recommends qualified applicants to the board of education, which confirms its acceptance by giving approval. In the large school district, there is personnel office which publicizes plans for recruitment, interviews applicants, collects data and conducts confirmation and reference works to assist the superintendent in relation to the recruitment of teachers.

The employment of teachers related to a specific school provides for the principal's opinions to be heard, and the principal is accorded an opportunity to meet favored candidates.⁴⁵⁾

45) *Ibid.*, p. 623.

The status of teachers is protected and secured against unjustified pressures by the state law. But the system introduces the renewal of certificate on a periodical basis and personnel evaluation which has a significant bearing on the renewal of certificate. This scheme is meant to ensure a democratic process of decision-making and the objectivity of decisions directed toward the improvement of teacher's professionalism.

Evaluation is carried out in various ways, but what is common is the employment of a double rating system by the principal and supervisors, together with self-evaluation and evaluation by colleagues. The evaluated ratings are entered into personnel records, kept available for various uses, such as promotion, transfer, dismissal and disciplinary actions.

Transfer of teachers to and from public schools is possible within a school district. Teachers are allowed to file applications for transfer, subject to approval from the principal. The approved application go to the board of education, which coordinates with other applications and determines the schools the applicants shall be transferred to. The principal may be specific about schools which he likes to have his teachers transferred to. Manuals governing the transfer of teachers should be given public exposure in advance.

Teacher's salary and fringe benefit vary from state to state and from county to county. It is very common that each school district makes decisions regarding salary and fringe benefit, differentiated between teachers, administrators, and those responsible for clerical works, though the state boards of education present principles and criteria. These serve as a model for decision-making by district. By and large, the school district is actually the central point of educational administration, and it is specially true of personnel management.

As the public pressure is mounting for the objectivity of personnel management, together with the increasing number of law suits to protect the right and well-being of teachers, the administrative authorities are intensifying efforts to articulate the pertinent law, regulations and criteria. In this connection, a general tendency to professionalize counseling and

informational services regarding personnel matters is discernible.

Personnel management England is centered around LEA, specially in relation to enhancing the professionalism of new teachers. LEA seeks to ensure the relevance of personnel management by providing forum for teachers to be familiar with the existent system and to air their opinions regarding ways to improve it. Through this role, LEA provides the bridge to the profession of teaching and a solid base for the professional enhancement of new teachers. Besides, it conducts a follow-up study on teachers who are entering its mid-career stage in terms of how much they have improved their competency after entry to teaching. This study is largely dependent on the principal's evaluation of teachers. In evaluation, attention is directed to the following.⁴⁶⁾

- i) Professional competency: class control, organization and operation skill, punctuality, lesson planning, objectivity of evaluation, familiarity with curriculum development, openness to introduce new things.
- ii) Personality trait: Willingness and enthusiasm to participate, candidness, self-confidence, attentiveness to others, sociability.
- iii) Familiarity with subject matters: In-depth knowledge of a subject matter, extensive knowledge of other subject matters.

The in-service training of teachers features diverse programs, as they are provided by the Department of Education and Science, universities, local administrative authorities, professional organizations of teachers, and academic circles. At the same time, they are intent on the development of new programs to raise the professionalism of teachers. Uniquely, LEA allows teachers a paid leave and provides travel costs in part or in entirety. Teacher centres, numbered a few hundreds across the nation, provide facilities for training.

In Japan, the prefectural board of education is responsible for the employment of teachers. The appointment of principals and vice principals and promotion to these positions are based on a qualification examination

46) Park, Duk-kvu, *Teacher Training in Advanced Countries*, Kyo yuk yon ku sah, 1986, p. 84.

administered by the board of education. The examination consists of an aptitude test in a written form and interview. Although the employment of teachers is the unique function of the prefectural board of education, the principal's opinion of the concerned school is heeded with respect. The principal is allowed by Article 39 of Local Administration Law to state his opinions at the county board of education, which in turn, submits its recommendation to the prefectural board of education. This system reflects concern for the principal's leadership which increases its efficiency in his harmonious, humane relation with teachers.

8) *Supervision*

Supervision means not so much control and direction by administrative authorities in school as assistance and guidance for instruction to ensure its greater effectiveness. Its attention is directed to the competency of teachers and the provision of conditions for the improvement of their quality. Therefore, supervision does not refer to any specific title or position but is a set of functions and those engaged in these functions. Related to supervisory functions in school are the principal, subject matter specialists or a consultant, men responsible for the learning and material center, and master teachers.

In the school district, it is common to assign an assistant superintendent for instruction, assisted by professionals such as coordinator, supervisors and consultants. The new emphasis in supervision is reflected in the term 'constructive supervision.'⁴⁷⁾ The supervisory staff provide guidance and service for the qualitative improvement of instruction, with a final view to improving teacher's competence. By the new definition, it may come close to an in-service training rather than evaluation.

Supervision is planned and initiated by the school under the principal's leadership, and supervisors of administrative authorities respond to calls for guidance and advices by school regarding specific matters, which often

47) E. Stoops, et al., p. 605.

necessitate visits to school. They may well be called an consulting expert. The school-initiated supervision reflects respect for the unique needs of each school. The superintendent's role is to ensure that school-initiated supervision is taking place as he intends it to be in all schools and to take necessary actions to remedy, if it goes wrong. It is the latter case which necessitates the services of supervisors.

In England, the Secretary of Education and Science is assisted by civil servants and Her Majesty Inspectorates of Schools regarding educational policies. But the latter is very much independent in the way that they provide professional services and honors the autonomy of school district authorities and schools in matters pertaining to instruction. H.M. Inspectorates are appointed, as the name goes, not by the Secretary and by Her Majesty in council. There are some 500 inspectorates working in nine divisions across the nation in a private capacity or as a member of a district or national organization. They are specialists in elementary education, secondary education, special education, continuing education (vocational and non vocational), teacher training or educational research and development.⁴⁸⁾

The Department of Education and Science defines the roles of inspectorate as "having a comprehensive knowledge of educational system, evaluating its effectiveness and providing advices to local education administrative authorities, headmasters and teachers regarding all aspects of education." In appearance, the inspectorate role resembles those of its counterparts in other countries. The difference is that the inspectorate can be critical of and provide advices about instruction, and this is the point at which their roles terminate; they can't order schools to accept their advice. It is the headmaster who judges the rationality, relevance and legitimacy of advices and makes final decisions as to whether to accept or not. But the teachers whose instruction was critically commented are supposed to answer to the inspectorate's inquiry.

48) T. Husen (ed.) *The International Encyclopedia of Education*, Oxford: Program Press, 1985.

The inspectorates in the Department of Education and Science play part in short-term in-service trainings for teachers hosted by the Department and in contributing articles, essays or research findings in booklets published by the Department for teachers, parents and the lay public. Last but not least, they have an important part in linking the Department to local administrative authorities by serving as a member, as an observer or as an evaluator for various committees, boards of trustees, and other forum. It is not simply to link but to mediate between the two, and it is in this context that their roles are given visibility.⁴⁹⁾

The roles of supervisors in the prefectural (or municipal) boards of education in Japan divide up into i) educational administration, ii) guidance and advices in relation to school education (curriculum, teaching aids, subject matters) and iii) research and survey. Supervisors provide their services by visiting schools. A visit to school is occasioned in two ways; one is to pay a visit to get familiar with schools and assess needs and problems, and the other has a specific goal of providing guidance to teachers in relation to pre-determined topics.⁵⁰⁾ An important aspect of supervisor's roles is to evaluate the school in terms of its capability to perform functions and to provide data for the principal to base his plan on for the improvement of schooling in all aspects.

The criteria for school evaluation are presented in table III-2.

Evaluation criteria are clustered around two parts—the organization and operation of curriculum (A) and conditions for the operation of curriculum (B). Under each part, areas were identified and each area was divided into specific items, targets to be evaluated. This evaluation model is used to evaluate the overall functions of school, with a slight modification of it to benefit each school, if there are some features to be addressed.

49) H.C. Dent, *Education in England and Wales* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1977), pp.55-56.

50) Yoon Jung Il, et al., *Study for the Improvement of Supervisory Administration*, KEDI, 1982, p. 62.

Table III-2 Evaluation Criteria for Supervision in Japan

School Evaluation Criteria			
A. Evaluation Organization and operation of curriculum		B. Evaluation Conditions for the operation of curriculum	
Areas	Items	Areas	Items
Goals of ed.	Establishment of goals Strategy Practice of goals	Management structure	Directions Grade & class management Division of works Staff meeting Various committees
Ed. plan	Basic directions New emphasis & inter-relation among contents Planning of moral education Planning of phy. ed. Yearly hours of class, weekly schedule	Research	Total research & training Research & training by component Meeting for research & training
Subject matter	Lesson planning teaching aids	Information	Information process Information collection Sending mail Receiving mail Records of child development Records of teachers Management records
Moral ed.	Lesson plan Materials	Accounting	Budget planning & funding School feeding
Extra	Guidance plan Environment	Facility	Land arrangement Management & utilization Management & utilization of equipment & aids
Guid- ance	Total planning, Guidance planning Environment	Home & Reg. com.	Relation with home Relation with organization Relation with community
Health, safety	Total planning Environment		

7. EDUCATIONAL FINANCING

The major source of educational financing in the United States is internal tax, and this fact is evidenced by 96 percent of total revenue for primary and secondary schools coming from the internal tax. And the remaining are composed of donations and income-yielding properties. The sources of financing public schools are Federal Government, state governments and local administrative authorities. More than half of the total revenue comes from local areas (school district), and the state governments contribute 40 percent of it. Total subsidy from the Federal Government accounts for six percent. ⁵¹⁾

Despite the generalization of financing sources, they actually differ from state to state. The financing system of the Federal Government is divided into general financing and special financing, and the latter is intended for specific purposes. Decisions on financial support for special programs are made, based on proposals from school districts and schools. The general support from the Federal Government and state governments are intended to ensure the balance of financing capability among school districts for fear that disparity in revenue may result in a regional gap in education quality. The major source of local financing is property tax, which is the backbone of financing public schools.

The school district is administratively and financially independent of local governments but is dependent on the local authorities imposing and collecting educational tax. There is an exception to this rule; some educational administrative authorities at the district level are empowered to deal with tax affairs, but this practice leaves much to be improved in terms of its efficiency.

Budgeting follows an established procedure in the order of planning, deliberation, funding and settlement, and the same procedure applies to school. The first step to prepare a budget plan, including projection of new

51) *Ibid.*, p. 167.

enrollment and total students, the required number of teachers and classrooms, the estimation of total financial requirement to finance educational activities. Besides, a plan to increase teacher's salary and additional expenditures of financing student welfare and extra-curricular activities are taken into account. In this connection, total revenue is projected on the basis of new factors influencing the revenue and past trends, which are likely to affect it. Comparison of financial requirement with revenue leads to the necessity of adjusting expenditures by component or by proportion.

Budget planning and obtaining approval from the board of education are the superintendent's responsibilities, and the process from planning to approval consists of a series of consultations with principals and teachers. Each school submits its budget bill to the superintendent by January 15. The Business Office under the superintendent prepares the district's budget bill by February 15, which involves the participation of principals and many others concerned with budget affairs. Each principal makes the point of consulting with teachers in preparing the budget bill. Even after the budget bill is prepared, modifications are made through the deletion or addition of components and adjustment of figures. In April, teacher's salary is determined after approval by the board of education. It is in July that school district's budget is confirmed by the board of education. Now that the budget bill has been confirmed, the central office of the board of education releases funds to schools. The contingency fund is provided as an expenditure component to cover accidental costs. An alternative to the contingency fund is to adjust allocation among expenditure components lest the transfer to /from other component exceeds 10 percent of total budget.

In the past, accounting was settled after audited by the board of education, and the recent trend is to have it audited by a certified public accountant.⁵²⁾

52) *Ibid.*, p. 249.

The responsibility of preparing the budget in Japan rests with the local board of education. School principals submit budget bills to the board of education, which compiles, coordinates and assembles the bills. The board of education's budget bill goes to the local assembly for approval. The funding of the budget is the responsibility of principal. In order to assure the rationality of budget planning, the principal consults with teachers in setting basic directions. The point of emphasis is that budget planning should be based on local plans of educational developments to bring about intended changes to goals. Private financing needs to be taken into consideration.

C. Suggestions

A brief review of educational administration systems in the three countries provides clues to the ways of remedying the present system of educational administration in Korea.

First, the central authorities of educational administration in these countries find their roles in planning, coordination and policy formulation, while the local authorities provide administrative support for local education in a way that heeds local uniqueness. The local board of education and school district authorities are the centerpiece of educational administration establishing direct contacts with schools. The decentralization of power enlarges the latitude of discretion on the part of local authorities and schools.

Second, the principal is responsible for school management and administration. But greater importance is attached to the principal's professionalism and leadership in the organization and operation of curriculum.

Third, the principal's relation with teachers is characterized by intimacy, humanity and trust, thanks to greater opportunity for teachers to have their voices heard in management affairs, inter alia, selection and screening, employment, the organization and operation of curriculum and educational financing.

Fourth, with regard to teacher's well-being and personnel management, local administrative authorities make the point of consulting with principals. Administrator's concern for the professionalism of teachers is manifested in the institutionalization of paid leave of absence, which enables teachers to update themselves with the advancing frontiers of knowledge and skill.

Fifth, supervision-centered administration gave momentum to spontaneous services for the sake of increasing the effectiveness of instruction. The relation of supervisors with school teachers features amity and intimacy, and it hardly gives any room for control and direction.

The results of the supervisor's evaluation serves guide for teachers in their attempt to improve instructional system.

Teacher's participation in the school's budget planning and funding is visible. This facilitates an effective linkage between classroom instruction and school management, and they ensures that educational needs are reflected in the school's budget.

IV. CURRENT STATUS ON THE AUTONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND PROBLEMS

This chapter assesses the update degree of autonomization in educational administration in relation to the central administrative authorities. In this connection, an attempt is made to identify problems in the way to giving autonomy to local administrative authorities and schools in performing administrative and managerial functions.

I. AUTONOMIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Addressing the question of 'to what extent is the school autonomous in setting goals, organizing and operating curriculum, selecting curriculum content and providing guidance?' gives an answer as to whether the school is performing its functions effectively. This section attempts to assess the degree of autonomization in the school's performing administrative and managerial functions related to curriculum, guidance, supervision, personnel management and educational financing.

A. Administrative Functions

The most prominent characteristic of educational administration in Korea, as mentioned earlier, is the dominance of managerial concern for efficiency, defying educational needs. Another uniqueness lies in the fact that power is concentrated at the top echelon of administration. Many of administrative functions performed by the central government might as well be passed to lower administrative bodies. Control and direction characterize the working relation of higher authorities with lower ones, giving dominance to uniformity, which is very often mistaken for efficiency. Schools down at the lowest level of administration are harassed by frequent calls for reporting, and this exhausts the school's patience to report faithfully. School's reporting degenerates into tokenism.

The working relation between the county office of education and the provincial board of education also shows a biased distribution of authority in favor of the latter. Although the former exercises control over supervision on primary and middle schools in curriculum and managerial affairs,

the latter's authority to transfer principals across schools and to designate schools they are transferred to is absolute. In other words, the county office of education's authority on managerial affairs is circumscribed by the superintendent's intervention in personnel management affairs.

Among the administrative works held by the provincial board of education and the county office of education, there are those which should have been delegated to schools. Teachers strike a consonant chord with administrators in arguing for the delegation of management-related works to schools.

For the purpose of surveying opinions, a question was raised about the desirability of delegating the central government's functions to local authorities or schools. The result is that 50 percent of the respondents (school administrators - principals and vice principals - and supervisory staff of the local administrative authorities) are positive about it. The functions that they want transferred to schools are the purchase of equipment and audio-visual aids and sanction on the publication of materials. Those which should remain under the superintendent's authority are i) leave of absence, suspension, dismissal, and reinstatement of teachers, ii) subsidy for and the construction of facilities for private schools, iii) the appointment and dismissal of board of trustee members in school corporations and iv) long-term loan to schools. Regarding school's participation in sports and social events, school administrators (65.4%) argue that the school be responsible for decision-making, whereas supervisory staff (50.4%) assert the desirability of making it subject to the superintendent's approval.

Many of advisory and guidance functions, which can be effectively performed at the principal's discretion and found belonging to the county office of education. Figure IV-2 shows the distribution of responses regarding the necessity of redefining functional relation between different levels of administrative bodies. Among work to be transferred to schools are i) employment of temporary teachers and part time lecturers, ii) employment of temporary accountants, iii) selection of teachers to receive in-

Principal & Vice P. Administrator

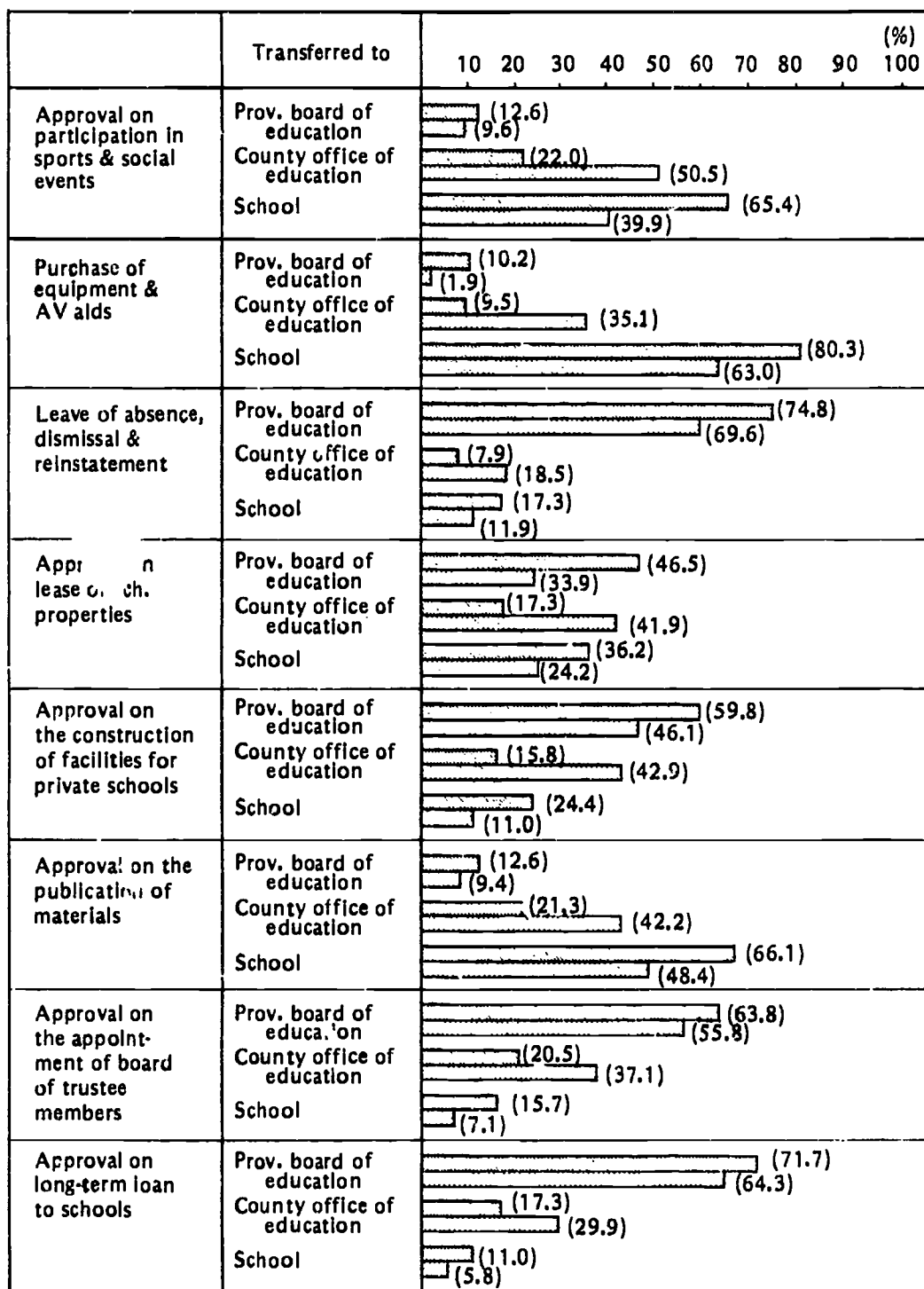


Figure IV-1 Desirability of Delegating Functions to Local Administrative Authorities and Schools

Principal & Vice P. Administrator

Functions	Transferred to	%									
		10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Employment of temporary teachers & part-time lecturers	County office of education	 (22.7) (23.5)									
	Schools	 (77.3) (76.5)									
Dismissal of general administrators under 6th grade	County office of education	 (59.7) (84.2)									
	Schools	 (40.3) (15.8)									
Employment of general administrators under 6th grade	County office of education	 (6.4) (74.0)									
	Schools	 (33.6) (26.0)									
Employment of temporary accountants	County office of education	 (28.0) (26.4)									
	Schools	 (72.0) (73.6)									
Selection of teachers to receive in-service training	County office of education	 (32.8) (38.6)									
	Schools	 (67.2) (61.4)									
Approval of reform of school regulations	County office of education	 (70.6) (83.9)									
	Schools	 (29.4) (16.1)									
School feeding	County office of education	 (20.2) (36.7)									
	Schools	 (79.8) (63.3)									
Approval of special program	County office of education	 (41.2) (43.5)									
	Schools	 (58.8) (56.5)									
Approval of student's excursion	County office of education	 (10.2) (21.6)									
	Schools	 (89.8) (78.8)									

Figure IV-2 Desirability of Delegating the County Office of Education's Functions to Schools

service training, iv) school-feeding, v) approval of special programs and vi) approval of student's excursion. School administrators show higher percentages of responses arguing for the transfer of these matters to schools than supervisory staff. But difference is insignificant.

Both school administrators and supervisor staff are of the opinion that personnel management pertaining to general administrators be dealt with by the administrative body. They also endorse the delegation of authority to schools in the management of school personnel.

In actuality, however, the local administrative authorities have interfered with minutiae of school operation, and the principal's latitude of discretion in these matters is very much limited. The principal is reduced to play low-key roles as a faithful purveyor of messages and as an executive local to dictum.

School administration has yet a long way to go in terms of functional division and the participation of teachers in managerial matters. In large-sized schools, management style is bureaucratized, and the lower units of administrative hierarchy are far from performing their functions as they are supposed to do. Within school, administrative authority is converged on the principal.

The roles of vice principal are not clearly articulated. It seems that his roles are determined by the principal's leadership styles. Steps should be taken to provide the legal stipulation of vice principal's roles and to encourage teachers' participation in school administration.

B. Organization and Operation of Curriculum

Another dimension of autonomy in educational administration poses a question as to whether the school is able to take independent actions regarding what and how to teach. What to teach concerns program content which offers the diversity of choices and adaptability to the changing surrounding. On the part of school, efforts should be made to develop and improve them.

Whether the school is allowed to organize content or should follow the

given is a crucial factor for the relevance of curriculum and the rationality of its operation. The professionalism of teachers in relation to curriculum feeds itself on autonomy to be creative and independent in approach to tasks and problems. By contrast, central control which strips teachers of the right to select materials brings about a vicious cycle of dependence on higher authorities.

The present system of organizing and operating curriculum has the following features. First, the authority to develop curriculum rests with the Ministry of Education. Its authority is also extended to the publication of textbooks and teacher's guide and to the sanction of privately published textbooks. Second, textbooks and teacher's guide are the sole materials which are used by students and teachers on the educational scenes. The local administrative authorities and schools have no choice of material nor opportunities to have their voices heard in the development of materials. Third, neither the principal nor teachers are allowed to purchase supplementary materials. Various achievement tests are centered around the existing textbooks that are used in school.

Summing up these features, it is readily noticed that the system of curriculum development shows authority converged on the top level of administrative hierarchy. The centrally published materials are uniformed to defy the unique needs of teachers and students.

Uniformity is also the hallmark of teaching method, defying needs peculiar to each subject matter, and this trend runs counter to the surging outcry for the diversity of materials. Schooling is considered as a mere stepping stone to the school of big name, and teaching degenerates into a strategic drill on knowledge likely to be included in entrance examinations. The knowledge-bound teaching is far from encouraging the creative approach of teachers to education.

In a group of heterogeneous learners, teaching is further complicated. By way of providing a breakthrough, learners were divided into superior and inferior groups. A mobile teaching and other innovative devices were tried out, but to no avail. The uniformity of teaching has much to do

with the evaluation of instructional outcome. If evaluation shifts its attention away from the customary practice of grading learners to objective norms, it will make a deep dent in the rigidity of teaching. Developing new devices to test attitude, value and interests will help to drag teaching out of its deepened rut.

Figure IV-3 shows the pattern of responses regarding participation in decision-making, relative to the organization and operation of curriculum.

It should be noticed that principals, vice principals and teachers are desirous of participation in decision-making related to curriculum. In this connection, an attempt is made to sound out what they think of teacher's participation in the supplementary instruction and independent learning, which is catching the public's attention as a social issue.

(Rating Scale : 1 - 5)

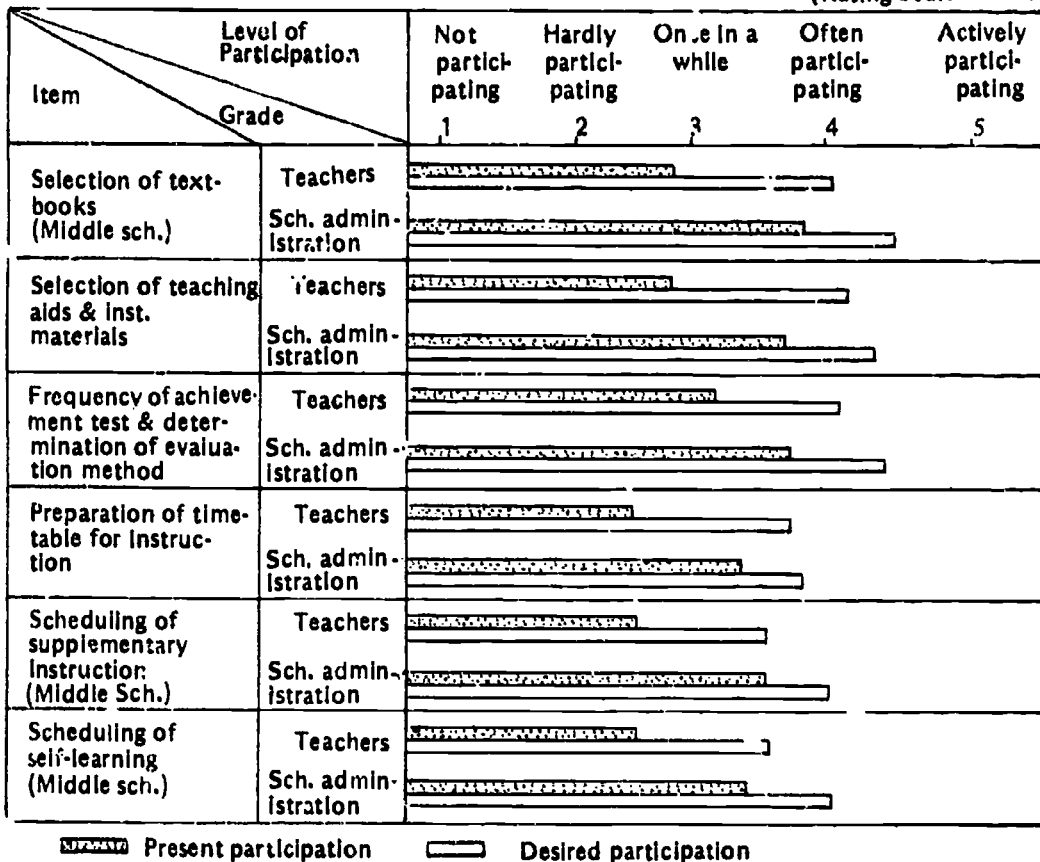


Figure IV-3 Present and Desired Participation in Decision-making Related to Curriculum

Table IV-1 Teacher's Participation in the Scheduling of Supplementary Instruction

(Unit: person, %)

Level	Grade School	Teachers			Principals · Vice Principals		
		Mid. Sch.	High Sch.	Total	Mid. Sch.	High Sch.	Total
1. Not participating		27 (28.1)	22 (21.6)	49 (24.7)	2 (4.0)	2 (2.7)	4 (3.2)
2. Hardly participating		22 (22.9)	18 (17.6)	40 (20.2)	3 (6.0)	3 (4.0)	6 (4.8)
3. Once in a while		24 (25.0)	36 (35.3)	60 (30.3)	14 (28.0)	28 (37.3)	42 (33.6)
4. Often participating		18 (18.8)	21 (20.6)	39 (19.7)	27 (54.0)	27 (36.0)	54 (43.2)
5. Actively participating		5 (5.2)	5 (4.9)	10 (5.1)	4 (8.0)	15 (20.0)	19 (15.2)
Total		96	..	198	50	75	125

According to Table IV-1, 44.9 percent of teachers report 'not participating' and 8.0 percent of principals and vice principals give the same answer. Those who participate actively account for 24.8 percent of teachers and 58.4 percent of principals and vice principals.

Responses to independent learning are in a similar pattern to that to supplementary instruction, as shown by Table IV-2. Teachers who are not participating in the independent learning account for 44.2 percent. 10.4 percent of principals and vice principals report not participating. These responses are contrasted with 25.1 percent of teachers and 56.8 percent of principals and vice principals who report 'actively participating.' There is a wide discrepancy in the distribution of opinions between teachers and school administrators.

Table IV-2 Teachers' Participation in the Scheduling of Independent Learning

(Unit: person, %)

Level	Grade School	Teachers			Principals - Vice Principals		
		Mid. Sch.	High Sch.	Total	Mid. Sch.	High Sch.	Total
1. Not participating		27 (28.1)	23 (22.5)	50 (25.1)	2 (4.0)	1 (1.3)	3 (2.4)
2. Hardly participating		19 (19.8)	19 (18.6)	38 (19.1)	2 (4.0)	8 (10.7)	10 (8.0)
3. Once in a while		26 (27.1)	34 (33.3)	60 (30.2)	15 (30.0)	26 (34.7)	41 (32.8)
4. Often participating		19 (19.8)	20 (19.6)	39 (19.6)	28 (56.0)	26 (34.7)	54 (43.2)
5. Actively participating		5 (5.2)	6 (5.9)	11 (5.5)	3 (6.0)	14 (18.7)	17 (13.6)
Total		96	102	198	50	75	125

Comparison is made between the present level of participation in decision-making and the desired degree of participation. Difference between the two is converted into quantitative indices distinguishing among teachers, principals and vice principals. According to Table IV-3, the degree of yearning for participation in curriculum-related decision-making comes in the order of teachers, principals and vice principals. In the case of teachers, their yearning for participation is highest in the selection of instructional materials, teaching aids and textbooks. The findings of this study suggest the desirability of taking steps to increase the participation of school administrators and teachers.

**Table IV-3 Indices of Teachers' Desire for Participation in Curriculum –
related Decision-making**

(Rating Scale: 1–5)

Item	Div. Grade	Present Participation (A)			Desired Participation (D)			Indices (D–A)		
		Teach- ers	Princi- pals	Supervi- sory staff	Teach- ers	Princi- pals	Supervi- sory staff	Teach- ers	Princi- pals	Supervi- sory staff
Selection of textbooks (Mid & High Sch.)		2.90	3.91	2.98	4.09	4.41	4.08	1.19	0.50	1.10
Selection of teaching aids & materials		2.90	3.52	3.28	4.19	4.33	4.35	1.29	0.81	1.07
Frequency of achievement test and evaluation method		3.22	3.84	3.23	4.13	4.42	4.19	0.91	0.58	0.96
Scheduling of instruction		2.77	3.46	2.80	3.82	3.95	3.60	1.05	0.49	0.80
Scheduling of supplementary instruction (Mid & High Sch.)		2.60	3.62	2.73	3.73	4.06	3.83	1.13	0.44	1.10
Scheduling of independent learning (Mid & High Sch.)		2.61	3.58	2.74	3.74	4.16	3.86	1.13	0.58	1.12

C. Guidance

The traditional concept of guidance is not so much concern for professional counseling and advices related to personal growth as an intention to minimize problems caused by students and keep them from developing into social issues. In the sense of its new concept, guidance purports to help individual students make informed judgement of their behaviors and develop a sense of responsibility for their consequences.

Viewed in this vein, guidance, as offered in school today, leaves many problems to be resolved. First, guidance offered in school is regarded as a supplement to the teaching of subject matters, and, for this reason, it is given a passing treatment. Second, the heterogeneity of learners' group gives importance to guidance, for the heterogeneous situation is the cause for the dehumanization of instructional process. Despite the compelling need to strengthen guidance, the school remains inactive. Third, personnel responsible for guidance fall far short of the demand, and even those active in guidance lack in professionalism. The lack of professionalism has much to do with the present system of teacher qualification. The pertinent law provides that a certain amount of in-service training in this area qualifies Grade 1 teachers for a counselor. But the necessary qualities of professional counselor are not developed through a limited period of training alone. Fourth, teacher-student relation is devoid of humanity and this has something to do with, among others, the way teachers look at students. The common tendency is that teachers think their students as a stuff to be talked down and supposed to be compliant and obedient to teachers. The point of emphasis is that teachers should put students on par with them and show humane concern for the needs of students. Fifth, teachers suffer thwarted opportunities for a rosy future in the absence of a supporting climate which gives cognizance to the important roles of counselors.

The problems of guidance besetting school covers an extensive area of concern related to daily living of students, namely; home life, club activities, social life, political activities, etc. Self-governing activities in school, in particular, deserves special attention from the viewpoint of autonomy. It is through these activities that students are sensitized to and experienced with autonomy. But the self-governing activities do not fit their true meaning, because students are often called upon to follow the dictates of school. For instance, agenda are not the result of discussion among participants but more often than not imposed by teachers. The quality of guidance will be enhanced when it is accompanied by an autonomous, supporting climate of school and the higher professionalism of teachers.

D. Supervision

Supervision is a constellation of guidance and advisory activities intended to raise the quality of instruction. It entails a collaborative attempt of professional personnel to study various factors affecting the growth of students and to provide necessary conditions for it. Supervisors are concerned with guidance and advice regarding curricula and instruction, school affairs, and student life. Among others, the supervisor's role is more visible as a professional helper for teachers in instruction. Supervision is the major responsibility of administrative authorities in relation to schools. Supervisors are assigned to the Ministry of Education, the provincial (or municipal) board of education, and the county office of education. And it is through the role of supervision that administrative authorities establish direct contacts with schools. In the past when the traditional concept of supervision reigned, the services of supervisors in the administrative authorities degenerated into excessive control, unjustified intervention and orders, imposing a heavy liability on schools.

In 1982, new directions of supervision were set forth to relieve schools of burdens associated with supervision. The new directions hold supervisors responsible for comprehensive supervision due to specific schools. Supervisors in the local authorities are required to focus on supervision directed toward individual teachers and tailored supervision at the request of schools.

When it comes to planning for supervision, goals are classified, materials are collected and the real situation of school is assessed. Each school has common problems which apply to other schools and specific problems coming from the uniqueness of school and the regional community. With the full understanding of these problems, supervisors explore ways to help school administrators and teachers resolve the problems. According to supervision records, it was noticed that supervisors spent more time on assessing the situation. Data regarding teachers, facilities and students are collected through materials, survey or written inquiry at the beginning of semester. Going a step further, information should be obtained on the

profile of teachers with a special concern for new teachers and on the status of instruction related to subject matters, and materials should be prepared before visit to school. In actuality, supervisors more often fail to lay out a meticulous plan prior their visit to the school.

Very frequently, supervision is related with specific issues with little attention to a comprehensive range of advices which benefit teachers in the teaching of subject matters. This is in part attributed to the shortage of supervisory staff in the face of the increasing demand for supervision. More important, however, is the fact that most of supervisors are devoid of the sense of goal and direction in approaching calls for supervision, and their role in supervision, therefore, is considered inactive. Obligated to attend regular supervisions, their activities tend to be a symbolic formality.

Asked about whether supervision is authoritarian or supportive, 46.3 percent of teachers, 77.3 percent of school administrators and 17.0 percent of supervisory staff respond to "authoritarian." On the other hand, 22.9 percent of teachers, 36.1 percent of school administrators and 57.3 percent of supervisory staff consider it "supportive." Interestingly enough, a greater percentage of teachers, when receive supervisory guidance, consider it authoritarian, as contrasted with a greater percentage of adsupervisory staff consider it "supportive." School administrators are middle roaders.

In practice, supervision is defined in terms of functions comprising i) assessing the implementation of educational policies, ii) assisting in class instruction, iii) identifying success cases, iv) assessing the implementation of specific projects, and v) assessing the reorientation of value. It appears that supervision puts emphasis on the implementation of educational policies. The 1986' supervisory plan of a provincial board of education shows order, cleanliness, and private tutoring (which was banned) leading the list of concerns in supervision. Private tutoring is still banned, and supervisory concern for this gives an impression that supervisors serve as a watchman on teachers for possible violation of law. Disciplinary concern dominates the defined supervisory functions. It often invites supervisors to make a surprise inspection of students' belongings to find any trade of unlawful commitments. Notified of supervisor's visit to school,

teachers spend more time cleaning and placing into order, which takes a bite out of time for instruction. In answering a question about environmental arrangement and cleaning in terms of whether they impede instructional activities, 11.4 percent of the respondents respond to "no," 25 percent to "it sometimes does" and 61 percent to "yes." Particularly, 77 percent of master teachers let out complaints about having to spend much time on environment-related works.⁵⁴⁾

**Table IV-4 Perceptions of Supervisory Guidance
(Is It Supportive or Not?)**

(Unit: person, %)

Level	Grade Inst.	Teachers				Sch. Adm.				Supervisors		
		Prim.	Mld.	High	Total	Prim.	Mld.	High	Total	County Board of ed.	Board of ed.	Total
1. Not supportive at all		9 (9.1)	11 (11.5)	10 (9.8)	30 (10.1)	2 (3.0)	3 (5.8)	2 (2.7)	7 (3.6)	1 (0.6)	3 (2.3)	4 (1.3)
2. Hardly support- tive		29 (29.3)	41 (42.7)	37 (36.3)	107 (36.0)	14 (20.9)	11 (21.2)	21 (28.0)	46 (23.7)	28 (15.5)	21 (16.2)	49 (15.7)
3. Somewhat supportive		30 (30.3)	23 (24.0)	39 (38.2)	92 (31.0)	24 (35.8)	19 (36.5)	28 (37.3)	71 (36.6)	43 (23.8)	37 (28.5)	80 (25.7)
4. Supportive		27 (27.3)	20 (20.8)	16 (15.7)	63 (21.2)	26 (38.8)	18 (34.6)	20 (26.7)	64 (33.0)	88 (48.6)	48 (36.9)	136 (43.7)
5. Very support- tive		4 (4.0)	1 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (1.7)	1 (1.5)	1 (1.9)	4 (5.3)	6 (3.1)	21 (11.6)	21 (16.2)	42 (13.6)
Total		99	96	102	297	67	52	75	194	181	130	311

The result of evaluation is divided into several areas and is rated in scores, ranging from 5 to 10 points. The scored points are divided into "excellence" (10% of participating schools), "very good" (30%), "good" (50%), and "fair" (10%). They are divided into "upper," "middle," and "lower."

⁵⁴⁾ Yoon Jung-Il, *Study for the Improvement of Supervisory Administration*, KEDI, 1982, p. 147.

About problems disclosed by supervision, schools are required to remedy or resolve within a designated period of time, usually within 30 days on the average from the beginning date of supervision. About remedial actions taken, the school submits a written report.

This study raised a question of whether supervisors provide professional advices regarding instruction and guidance. Those who give negative answers account for 27.2 percent of teachers, 9.7 percent of school administrators, and 4.8 percent of supervisory staff, as compared with 29.0 percent of teachers, 51.0 percent of school administrators and 70.5 percent of supervisory staff in favor of positive comment. Again, we can not but recognize discrepancy between teachers and administrators.

Table IV-5 Perceptions of Supervisory Guidance
(Is It Professional or Not?)

(Unit: person, %)

Level	Grade Inst.	Teachers				Sch. Adm.				Supervisors		
		Prim.	Mid.	High	Total	Prim.	Mid.	High	Total	County Board of ed.	Board of ed.	Total
1. Not professional at all		2 (2.0)	6 (6.3)	6 (5.9)	14 (4.7)	2 (3.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.3)	3 (1.5)	1 (0.6)	1 (0.8)	2 (0.6)
2. Hardly professional		17 (17.2)	19 (19.8)	28 (27.5)	64 (21.5)	8 (11.9)	2 (3.8)	6 (8.0)	16 (8.2)	9 (5.0)	4 (3.1)	13 (4.2)
3. Somewhat professional		47 (47.5)	41 (42.7)	45 (44.1)	133 (44.8)	27 (40.3)	19 (36.5)	30 (40.0)	76 (39.2)	48 (26.5)	29 (22.3)	77 (24.7)
4. Professional		27 (27.3)	27 (28.1)	21 (20.6)	75 (25.3)	27 (40.3)	28 (53.8)	36 (48.0)	91 (46.9)	99 (54.7)	70 (53.8)	169 (54.3)
5. Very professional		6 (6.1)	3 (3.1)	2 (2.0)	11 (3.7)	3 (4.5)	3 (5.8)	2 (2.7)	8 (4.1)	24 (13.3)	26 (20.0)	50 (16.2)
Total		99	96	102	297	67	52	75	194	181	130	311

A similar pattern of responses are noticed in Table IV-6 which shows responses given to whether supervision is carried out in terms of attainment of the defined educational goals. 37.3 percent of teachers, 24.4 percent of school administrators and 23.2 percent of supervisory staff are of the

opinion that supervision has nothing, or little to do with the defined goals of education. Positive responses are given by 31.0 percent of teachers, 37.6 percent of school administrators and 51.5 percent of supervisory staff. The gap between teachers and supervisory staff is largest, indicating that the two categories consider supervision from entirely different points of reference.

Table IV-6 Rated Points of Supervisory Emphasis on the Attainment of Educational Goals (Unit: person, %)

Level	Grade Inst.	Teachers				Sch. Admn.				Supervisors		
		Prim.	Mid.	High	Total	Prim.	Mid.	High	Total	County office of ed.	Board of ed.	Total
1. Not related to attainment of ed. goal at all		2 (2.0)	10 (10.4)	9 (8.8)	21 (7.1)	3 (4.5)	3 (5.8)	0 (0.0)	6 (3.1)	2 (1.1)	6 (4.6)	8 (2.6)
2. Hardly related to attainment of ed. goals		20 (20.2)	31 (32.3)	39 (38.2)	90 (30.2)	12 (17.9)	15 (28.8)	22 (29.3)	49 (25.3)	38 (21.0)	26 (22.0)	64 (20.6)
3. Somewhat related to attainment of ed. goals		34 (34.3)	27 (28.1)	33 (32.4)	94 (31.6)	26 (38.8)	15 (28.8)	25 (33.3)	66 (34.0)	50 (27.6)	30 (23.1)	80 (25.7)
4. Related to attainment of ed. goals		41 (41.4)	26 (27.1)	20 (19.6)	87 (29.3)	26 (38.8)	19 (36.5)	26 (34.7)	71 (36.6)	82 (45.3)	53 (40.8)	135 (43.4)
Very related to attainment of ed. goals		2 (2.0)	2 (2.1)	1 (1.0)	5 (1.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.7)	2 (1.0)	9 (5.0)	15 (11.5)	24 (7.7)
Total		99	96	102	297	67	52	75	194	181	130	311

E. Recruitment and Personnel Management of Teachers

From the viewpoint of local autonomy, personnel management is a sensitive matter, easily subject to control and intervention by higher authorities. Personnel management is a crucial factor for the self-realization of teachers, which, in turn, has a profound impact on the achievement of students.

Personnel management is goal-oriented itself, purporting to make the best use of personnel resources. Personnel management serves its goal, when

it performs the three functions of recruiting and placing, maximizing the development of individual potential, and boosting up morale. Recruiting qualified teachers, placing them into slots befitting their qualities, providing conditions for the maximum development of individual potential, and keeping them motivated for accomplishment are what personnel management is all about in education.

Another important factor for the efficiency of personnel management is related to how to evaluate the performances of teachers, since it is directly linked to morale. The present system of evaluation requires vice principal to evaluate the performances of teachers, subject to confirmation by the principal. Under this system, the rated scores of points are susceptible of subjective opinions of evaluators.

This study discloses that the principal enjoys a relatively great latitude of discretion in personnel matters with the exception of the supply of teachers. Figure IV-4 shows the opinions of principals and vice principals regarding the autonomy of principal related to personnel management in school.

According to Figure IV-4, the principal enjoys a great deal of autonomy

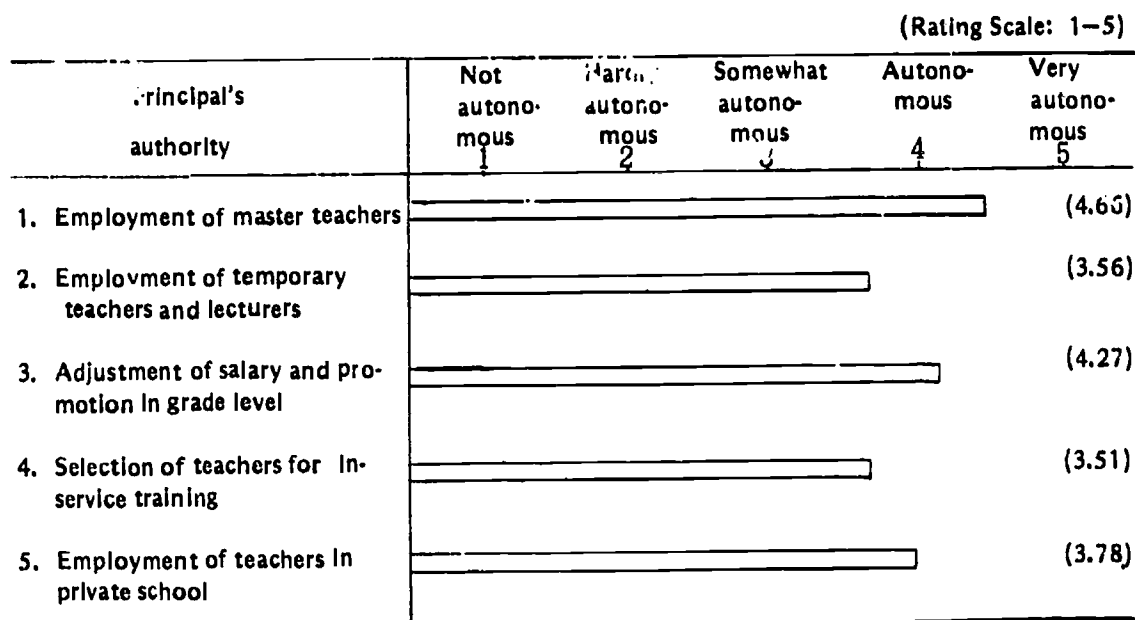


Figure IV-4 Principal's Autonomy in Personnel Management

in appointment of master teachers, employing temporary and part-time teachers, and adjusting salary. He is also considerably free to select teachers subject to inservice training and employ teachers in the case of private school.

The pattern of responses varies with the type of school and school level. Table IV-7 shows the degree of autonomy given to principal in employing teacher.

35.5 percent of principals and vice principals in primary schools are of the opinion that the principal is autonomous to employ temporary teachers, and the percentage goes up to 71.1 percent in middle schools and 76.0 percent in high schools. It is worthwhile to notice that the principal's autonomy becomes greater in proportion to grade level. Distinction is also made between public and private schools. The public schools register 58.5 percent of the respondents confirming the principal's autonomy, unfavorably compared with 74.1 percent of private school respondents.

In this connection, in-service training needs to be mentioned, as it involves some problems worthy of attention.

First, the existing facilities are not fit for the inservice training of teachers. In-service trainings for those wishing to be qualified as grade 1 and grade 2 teachers and vice principals are offered by teacher training centres in separation from the in-service training for principal candidates offered by university-attached training institutes. Since they are attached to mother institutes, they lack the sense of responsibility and enthusiasm. Their facilities are limited to meet the demand for training.

Most of the lecturers are drawn from the faculty members of universities, to which the training institutes are attached. They not only lack familiarity with the needs of classroom instruction but cover a small area of topics, thus inviting lecturers from outside.

Second, curricula have yet to be developed for in-service training. It appears that what is taught for in-service trainees is a copy of teacher preparation courses. The inservice training for grade 1 teacher candidates are identical with those for grade 2 teacher candidates in terms of courses

**Table IV-7 The Principal's Autonomy in the Employment of Teachers
(Temporary)**

(Unit: Person, %)

Division Level	School levels				Ownership		
	Prim.	Mid.	High	Total	Public	Private	Total
1. Not autonomous at all	20(29.9)	4(7.7)	6(8.0)	30(15.5)	29(17.4)	1(3.7)	30(15.5)
2. Hardly autonomous	7(10.4)	1(1.9)	5(6.7)	13(6.7)	12(7.2)	1(3.7)	13(6.7)
3. Somewhat autonomous	16(23.9)	10(19.2)	7(9.3)	33(17.0)	28(16.8)	5(18.5)	33(17.0)
4. Autonomous	12(17.9)	18(34.6)	23(30.7)	53(27.3)	47(28.1)	6(22.2)	53(27.3)
5. Very autonomous	12(17.9)	19(36.5)	34(45.3)	65(33.5)	51(30.5)	14(51.9)	65(33.5)
Total	67	52	75	194(100.0)	167	27	194(100.0)

and the number of hours. When these teachers are coming up for in-service training to be qualified for vice principals, they repeat the same training courses as they experienced some years ago.

Third, the period of training and teaching method need to be mended. In-service trainings for grades 1 and 2 teacher candidates take place between the end of the first semester and the beginning of second semester or between the end of second semester and the beginning of first semester. Attendance to in-service trainings forces them to be absent from schools. The principal candidates receive a two-month training, and this also keeps them away from school. A thought should be given to making the training coincidental to vacations.

Many of the training programs show a heavy reliance on lectures, irrespective of the unique needs of clientele. Teachers are desirous of courses which keep them updated on the advancing frontiers of teaching methods.

Fourth, opportunities for in-service training are not reasonably accessible by teachers. The pertinent law stipulates the number of years taken for teachers to be qualified for in-service training leading to promotion to higher grade levels. It takes two years for teacher aides to undergo a training which qualifies him for grade 2 teachers, and three years for grade 2 teachers to receive a training for promotion to grade 1 teacher. It also takes three years for vice principal to receive a training to become a principal. In actuality, however, it takes much longer to be qualified for in-service training. It usually takes five years longer for grade 1 teachers to receive the training for promotion to vice principal and three years longer for grade 2 teachers to receive the training for promotion to the next high status. To become a vice principal, grade 1 teacher must spend eight years waiting to receive the training for this qualification.

In the general training course, all necessary subjects are not represented in balance; only a few subject matters dominate the course. Foreign language, ethics, vocational subjects, art, military drill, and nursing are highly tailored to individual needs, whereas Korean language, mathematics and science are uniformed, irrespective of the diverse needs of clientele.

F. Educational Financing

Given the fact that educational financing is to provide necessary resources to support teaching and learning, it is worthwhile to examine how resources are provided and to what extent principals are autonomous in using the resources.

Each school is so under-financed that the principal has little to use at his discretion. In the case of private schools whose revenue is almost exclusively dependent on tuition and properties, financial squeeze is more serious, and there is little to say of the principal's autonomy in financing.

The author may be pardoned for citing an example of Y school. The 1985's budget shows total expenditure breaking down into remuneration (88.5%), operation (9.6%), and facilities (1.9%). Among these expendi-

tures, remuneration and facilities hardly leave any room for principal's discretion of using funds, and it is only operational cost that gives a latitude of discretion. Of the operational cost, there are essential elements that take 75 percent, leaving 25 percent to the principal's discretion. Only 7 percent of this is spent on teaching-learning. The problem is that the principal, as the chief executive of school, has little to exercise discretion over.

With little to use for instruction, there are occasions which call for financial dependent on parents, say, for the printing of instructional and testing materials. Very often, such a practice is frowned upon by many. Although the principal has little to exercise discretion over, he is considerably autonomous to use funds, as shown by Figure IV-5. The principal's autonomy is rated high in tuition exemption and the use of funds for experiment and practice. His autonomy is rated considerable in leasing the national or state properties within one year and witnessing the inspection of constructed school facilities.

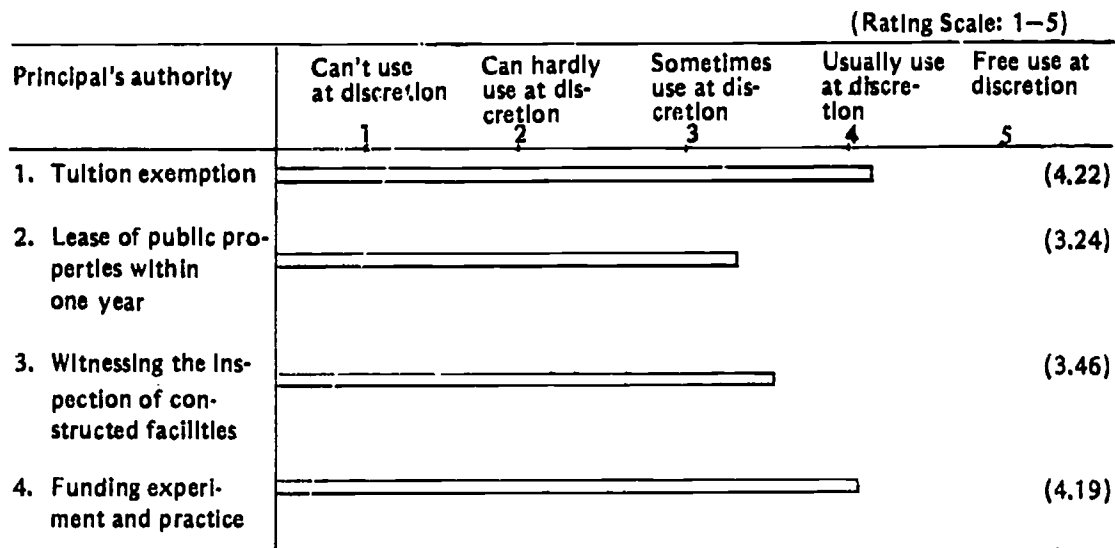


Figure IV-5 Principal's Autonomy in Financing School

Table IV-8 Principal's Autonomy in Tuition Exemption

(Unit: Person, %)

Level	School	Prim. sch.	Mld. sch.	High sch.	Total
1. Can't spend at his discretion		3(6.8)	4(7.7)	0(0.0)	7(4.1)
2. Can hardly spend at his discretion		2(4.5)	4(7.7)	5(6.7)	11(6.4)
3. Sometimes spend at his discretion		7(15.9)	13(25.0)	9(12.0)	29(17.0)
4. Usually spend at his discretion		5(11.4)	15(28.8)	20(26.7)	40(23.1)
5. Free to spend at his discretion		27(61.4)	16(30.8)	41(54.7)	84(49.1)
Total		44	52	75	171(100.0)

Even this pattern of responses varies with school level. About the principal's autonomy in tuition exemption, principals and vice principals give responses as shown by Table IV-8. The principals and vice principals who answer 'can spend at his discretion' account for 72.8 percent in primary schools 59.6 percent in middle schools, and 81.4 percent in high schools. Autonomy comes in the order of high school, primary school and middle school.

About the principal's autonomy to use funds for experiment and practice, 58.2 percent of principals and vice principals in primary schools respond to 'can spend at his discretion.' Middle and high schools register 88.5 percent and 72. percent respectively. Autonomy comes in the order of middle, high and primary schools. With regard to this matter, the principal is allowed to spend funds at his discretion but his autonomy is curtailed by the limited availability of funds, not by control or intervention from higher authorities.

Table IV-9 Principal's Autonomy in Funding Experiment and Others

Level	School	Prim. sch.	Mid. sch.	High sch.	Total
1. Can't spend at his discretion		5 (7.5)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.7)	7 (3.6)
2. Can hardly spend at his discretion		4 (6.0)	2 (3.8)	4 (5.3)	10 (5.2)
3. Sometimes spend at his discretion		19 (28.4)	4 (7.7)	13 (17.3)	36 (18.6)
4. Usually spend at his discretion		23 (34.3)	24 (46.2)	20 (26.7)	67 (34.5)
5. Free to spend at his discretion		16 (23.9)	22 (42.3)	36 (48.0)	74 (38.1)
Total		67	52	75	194 (100.0)

G. Climate of Educational Administration

The behavioral pattern of educational administrators, teachers, and students within an organization is determined by personal traits and the uniqueness of organizational atmosphere. By the uniqueness, it means the quality of climate prevailing within the outside the organization, which comprises numerous factors affecting the experiences of constituents.

The climate of school shows variation depending on the leadership style of principal and vice principal, notably, whether they are open-minded or not. The climate ranges from one which creates an air of pleasure to effect a cooperative relation among its members to an authority-laden atmosphere which makes it difficult to enlist the support of its members.

The principal's personality is an important factor for the climate of the school, for it is manifested in his leadership. His propensity to open the mind will create a democratic process of decision-making and a humane relation with teachers. His leadership is judged in relation to higher administrative authorities. If he is hard-minded to get his points crossed to the administrative authorities and stands firmly for his assertions, weathering

unlawful pressure, this leadership will do much to boost up teacher's morale. His relation with parents and the regional community also has much to bear on the climate of school. The lack of accountability on the part of school feeds distrust among the public.

The supervision style of the administrative authorities also deserves attention for its impact on the climate of school. There is a strong tendency, on the part of the administrative authorities, to distrust schools with regard to whether they are faithful to policies and orders, inviting excessive control and intervention. It strips school of creativity and congeniality and casts a gloomy shadow.

A question was posted to sound out opinions about the administrative authorities' concern for the over-loaded works of school. The respondents include supervisory staff of administrative authorities and general administrators in schools. 11.1 percent of general administrators in schools are in favor of 'lukewarm' and 33.4 percent point to 'not concerned.' On the other hand, 52.2 percent of supervisory staff are of the opinion that they are concerned about it, with only 11.3 percent responding to 'not concerned.' There is a wide disparity between the two categories (See Table IV-10).

Table IV-10 The Administrative Authorities' Concern for School Workload

(Unit: Person, %)

Inst. Level	Prim. sch.	Mid. sch.	High sch.	Office of ed.	Board of education	Total
1. Not concerned at all	4(18.2)	2(8.7)	0(0.0)	4(2.2)	1(0.8)	11(2.9)
2. Hardly concerned	6(27.3)	3(13.0)	7(24.1)	19(10.5)	12(9.2)	47(12.2)
3. Sometimes concerned	10(45.5)	14(60.9)	20(69.0)	65(35.9)	48(36.9)	157(40.8)
4. Concerned	2(9.1)	4(17.4)	2(6.9)	83(45.9)	62(47.7)	153(39.7)
5. Very much concerned	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(5.5)	7(5.4)	17(4.4)
Total	22	23	29	181	130	385(100.0)

Table IV-11 shows the distribution of responses about the extent to which teachers' opinions are reflected in the administration of the local authorities. 30.4 percent of general administrators in school give negative answers, with only 5.2 percent being affirmative about it. Supervisors are split between the affirmative 35.0 percent and the negative 17.6 percent, showing a pattern of responses similar to that of Table IV-10.

Table IV-11 Degree to Which Teachers' Opinions Are Reflected in the Administration of Educational Authorities

(Unit: Person, %)

Inst. Level	Prim. sch.	Mid. sch.	High sch.	Office of ed.	Board of education	Total
1. Not reflected at all	2(9.1)	2(8.7)	2(6.9)	3(1.7)	1(0.8)	10(2.6)
2. Hardly reflected	4(18.2)	4(17.4)	9(31.0)	26(14.4)	20(15.4)	63(16.4)
3. Sometimes reflected	15(68.2)	16(69.6)	16(55.2)	95(52.5)	59(45.4)	201(52.2)
4. Reflected	1(4.5)	1(4.3)	2(6.9)	49(27.1)	42(32.3)	95(24.7)
5. Much reflected	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	8(4.4)	8(6.2)	16(4.2)
Total	22	23	29	181	130	385(100.0)

Table IV-12 shows responses about the administrative authorities' attempt to minimize intervention with school. It is noticed that school administrators (principals and vice principals) hold a different view of it from that of supervisors. The former is split between the affirmative 31.2 percent and the negative 23.6 percent, as contrasted by 0.3 per cent of supervisors being affirmative against the negative 5.5 percent.

Opinions about the principal's concern for teacher's workload are reflected in Table IV-13. Here, class size should be taken into account as an important variable for the pattern of responses, for it is directly linked to workload. In schools which have more than 40 classes, 33.3 percent of

Table 12 The Administrative Authorities' Concern for Minimizing Intervention with School

(Unit: Person, %)

Inst. Level	Number of Concerned						Total
	Prim. sch.	Mid. sch.	High sch.	Office of ed.	Board of education		
1. Not concerned at all	4(6.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.3)	1(0.6)	1(0.8)	7(1.4)	
2. Hardly concerned	15(22.4)	11(21.2)	15(20.0)	12(6.6)	4(3.1)	57(11.3)	
3. Sometimes concerned	24(35.8)	24(46.2)	40(53.3)	58(32.0)	34(26.2)	180(35.6)	
4. Concerned	22(32.8)	16(30.8)	19(25.3)	90(49.7)	69(53.1)	216(42.8)	
5. Very much concerned	2(3.0)	1(1.9)	0(0.0)	20(11.0)	22(16.9)	45(8.9)	
Total	67	52	75	181	130	505(100.0)	

teachers think that principals are concerned about teacher's workload. The schools composed of 20-39 classes show 21.0 percent of teachers being affirmative, and the percentage drops to 15.2 percent in the schools with less than 20 classes. Those giving negative answers account for 13.6

Table IV-13 Principal's Concern for Minimizing Teacher's Workload in Relation to School Size

(Unit: Person, %)

No. of classes Level	Number of Classes			
	More than 40 classes	21 - 29	Less than 20	Total
1. Not concerned at all	2(3.0)	12(7.9)	4(5.1)	18(6.1)
2. Hardly concerned	7(10.6)	38(25.0)	15(19.0)	60(20.2)
3. Sometimes concerned	35(53.0)	70(46.1)	48(60.8)	153(51.5)
4. Concerned	19(28.8)	30(19.7)	12(15.2)	61(20.5)
5. Very much concerned	3(4.5)	2(1.3)	0(0.0)	5(1.7)
Total	66	152	79	297(100.0)

percent in large-sized schools, 32.9 percent in the middle-sized schools and 24.1 percent in the small-sized schools.

The degree of cooperation by parents and regional communities is sounded out, as perceived by teachers. As shown by Table IV-14, the perception of cooperation given by parents and regional communities varies with school level. 30.3 percent of primary school teachers think that parents and regional communities are extending cooperation. The middle and high schools register 21.8 percent and 22.5 percent of teachers respectively. Those who give negative answers account for 19.2 percent and 41.7 percent and 30.4 percent respectively. By and large, primary school teachers are more positive about cooperation from parents and regional communities.

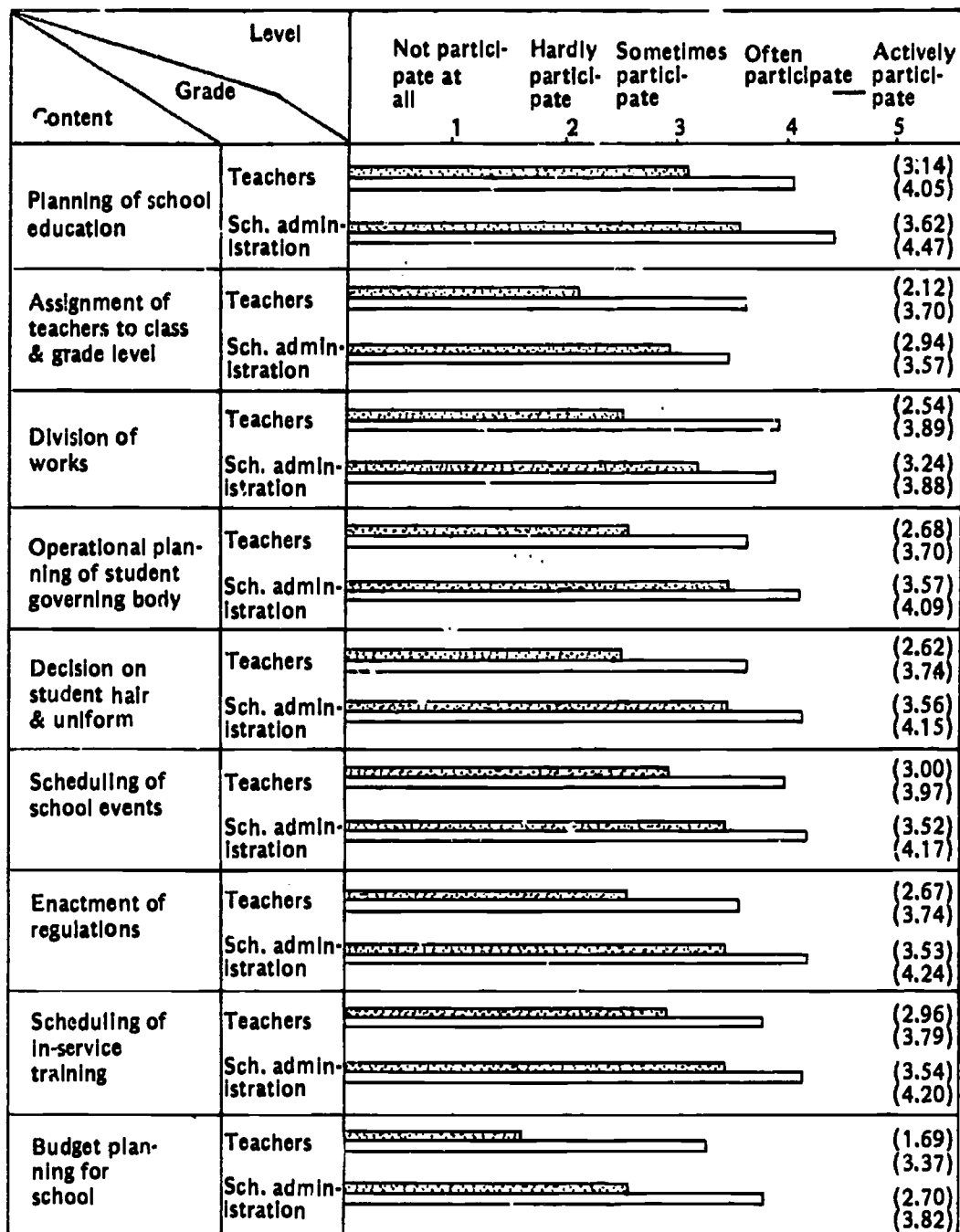
The climate of school has much to do with the degree of autonomy accorded principals and vice principals and their leadership which has a significant bearing on teacher's participation in school affairs.

Table IV-14 Cooperation of Parents and Regional Communities

(Unit: Person, %)

School Level	Prim. sch.	Mid. sch.	High sch.	Total
1. Not cooperative at all	2(2.0)	4(4.2)	5(4.9)	11(3.7)
2. Hardly cooperative	17(17.2)	36(37.5)	26(25.5)	79(26.6)
3. Sometimes cooperative	50(50.5)	35(36.5)	48(47.1)	133(44.8)
4. Cooperative	24(24.2)	20(20.8)	23(22.5)	67(22.6)
5. Very much cooperative	6(6.1)	1(1.0)	0(0.0)	7(2.4)
Total	99	96	102	297(100.0)

Figure IV-6 shows the distribution of responses by school administrators and teachers regarding the present participation of teachers in school affairs (except for instruction) and their desired degree of participation. The average teacher thinks that they are not allowed to actively



Current participation Desired participation

Figure IV-6 Participation in Decision-making Related to School Management

participate in school affairs (2.6), by contrast with school administrators' opinions that they are actively participating (3.3%). With regard to the desired degree of teacher's participation, both are found to be desirous of the teacher's active participation (3.77 and 4.0).

2. Obstacles to Autonomization of Educational Administration

Uniformity and rigidity are the hallmarks of educational administration. It goes without saying that they are impeding the autonomy of school. It is necessary, at this point, to clarify how they affect educational administration and to identify problems associated with them.

First, the centralized distribution of power is the major obstacle. The definition of educational administration as a means to support the attainment of educational goals carries with it a clear mandate that administrative authority should be properly distributed between various levels of administrative bodies. It is at the lowest level of administrative unit that evaluation is actually provided, and all supportive functions of the higher authorities are subservient to the goal that the school seeks to achieve. Uniformity is a necessary evil inherent in the process of achieving the goal. If the central administration is concerned with uniformity as a means to ensure administrative efficiency and coordination, it follows that there should be a deliberate attempt to temper it by allowing the lower authorities to fulfill their unique needs with creativity and spontaneity.

Uniformity eases the inroad of central control into local authorities, with the result that the central government performs functions which might as well be transferred to the lower authorities. For instance, the Ministry of Education, which is responsible for the formulation of policy framework strips the local authorities of much of their managerial functions, undermining the local base for the autonomization of educational administration. The result is that educational programs are standardized, and the local authorities and schools feature a heavy reliance on higher

authorities. The communication channel between the higher authorities and school is full of written inquiries by the latter as to what to do about supporting education in school.

Second, the professionalism of education administrative personnel is doubted. Since they are used to dependency on the higher authorities, simply engrossed in implementing orders imposed from top down and reporting on their consequences, they are hardly given a breathing spell to acquire professional knowledge and skills necessary for managing themselves.

Those who have been a principal for years tend to deepen his ruts which, in turn, limits his view of educational administration. They are stuck in bureaucratic inertia, unable to see the trees beyond the bush. They are hardly open and attentive to teacher's ideas and are inclined toward authoritarian rule, defying calls for professional orientation.

The problem has a lot to do with the way supervision is exercised on schools. It was earlier mentioned that supervisory functions were diverse. But it is never conceivable that primary functions of supervision are lost in the confusing welters of diverse minutiae. In practice, however, it seems that supervisors place emphasis on control functions rather than trying to be of assistance to teachers in matters requiring professionalism.

Third, as orders from the administrative authorities plague school administration, followed up by auditing to ensure that they have been implemented, educational administration is naturally oriented toward quantifiable accomplishments. Periodical audit by the provincial board of education and the county office of education is intended to disclose the seamy side of instructional activities, followed by orders which require schools to report on actions taken. This practice strengthens the control functions of educational administration, which runs counter to the principles of autonomy.

The results of audit are reflected in the records of schools and teachers. Schools and teachers are wary of risk-taking innovations, for fear of committing a mistake which is sure to stigmatise them as an inferior teacher.

What counts to them is a specific, visible accomplishments, not the goal related to the substance of education which is hard to appreciate. It is noticed that teachers spend more time on preparing reports to the administrative authorities. The result is that education is eclipsed in substance, with its formality blown out of proportion.

Fourth, parents and regional communities lack in the understanding of education, which invites intervention and pressure from outside. As education is as much the concern of every citizen, everyone behaves as if he were a professional in education. In a positive sense, this may be taken for enthusiasm, but an excessive enthusiasm is very often construed as an intervention which is a stumbling block to the autonomy of school education.

An excessive paternalistic and blind passion for education are manifested in the form of pressure and intervention, making it difficult for teachers to adhere to the true goal of education. External pressure and intervention are not only directed to instruction but extended to guidance, curriculum, at materials and extra-curricular activities.

School education is highly susceptible of criticism from outside. When a juvenile crime takes place, the community holds the school solely responsible for it, and public opinion is directed to this end.

The school is haunted by social organizations with frequent request for the assistance and cooperation of schools. Students are mobilized into social campaigns and ceremonies which have nothing to do with school education. There are a multitude of factors affecting the autonomy of school administration, and environmental factors in particular are not pliable to our persistent efforts to resolve.

Having described obstacles within and outside the system, it may be well to pay attention to legal provisions, with special concern for how they affect the autonomy of school education. Pertinent to the autonomy of school administration are the following:

Article 37 stipulates the number of personnel in proportion to the size of school.

Article 37-1: Each primary school shall have one principal and vice

principal and assign one teacher to each class. In the school comprising less than six classes, both principal and vice principal may be responsible for class. In the school consisting of less than 12 classes, the vice principal may take the responsibility for classes.

Article 37-2: The school consisting of more than 17 classes can employ one teacher for every addition of six classes besides classroom teachers.

Article 39: An administrative person may be employed for the primary school composed of more than 24 classes.

As indicated by the pertinent implementation decree of Education Law, the number of teachers and administrators stipulated by law is the result of a straight forward projection based on the number of classes. As noticed earlier, however, the size of school is not the sole indicator of work load. In actuality, however, there are occasions where the small-sized school is over-loaded with work beyond its manageability. It can be safely stated that legal provision is the guardian of large schools, while small schools are left uncared for.

Article 62 stipulates school affairs. Article 62-1 reads:

1. Primary school, middle school and high school, trade school, higher trade school and special school shall open school for more than 220 days per year.
2. Civic school and higher civic school shall open school for more than 170 days per year.

Article 62-2: When it is impracticable to meet the required number of days of school due to catastrophic events, the respective body of educational administration can allow schools to reduce it within the limit of 30 days. Although the days of school attendance are reducible, the pertinent law leaves much to be desired from a realistic viewpoint. Under normal circumstance, it imposes a heavy burden on the part of students to meet this requirement. Failure to meet it forces students to attend school well into vacation period.

V. MEASURES FOR AUTONOMIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

On the basis of the identified pattern of change in educational administration and problems associated with the autonomization of educational administration, this chapter sets forth basic directions of autonomizing educational administration and consider measures for it with a particular concern for school administration.

1. BASIC DIRECTIONS

A. Decentralization of Administrative Authority

Uniformed control by the central administrative authorities limits the autonomy of the school and the efficiency of administration, losing sight of the substantial goal of education. The kind of educational administrative system envisioned for the future should be such that it balances the central authority with greater autonomy given to local authorities to the extent that allows the latter to heed local needs.

The general principle of autonomizing local administration begins with holding the central administrative body responsible for policy formulation and the local authorities responsible for management. According to the present hierarchy of educational administration, the policy formulation is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, and this emphasizes the provincial board of education's roles in regional planning of educational development, coordination as a mediator between the central government and the county office of education, and a supporter for schools. The county office of education should be responsible for supporting educational activities in school in a way that heeds local needs.

B. Democratization of Decision-making Process

Democratization of decision-making process gives encouragement to local initiatives and creativity in approaching managerial issues. Uniformed control and authoritarian ruling are anathema to a democratic autonomous type of educational administration.

Democratization is related to two dimensions, decision-making

process and operational mode. Trying to involve as many of the concerned people in decision-making ensures the relevance and acceptability of policies. When the concept of democracy is applied to operation, it denotes flexibility and humanity-based relation between the hierarchical levels of administration, as contrasted with rigidity and authoritarian control.

C. Professionalization of Administrative Personnel

The autonomy of local and school administration requires that administrative personnel be professionalized to cope with new challenges in system management. Administrators in education are classified into school administrators (principals and vice principals), educational administrators (superintendent and supervisors), and general administrators. They stand behind the frontiers of education manned by teachers.

The autonomy of local and school administration carries with itself new challenges, which defeat other efforts than professional competency. The professionalization of administrative personnel requires that a number of tasks be performed, including task analysis, recruitment of personnel with competencies to deal with the identified tasks, and pre- and in-service training to keep them updated with new frontiers of knowledge and skills.

It is also important to relieve them of administrative chores, to simplify work and to put routine work into automation so that they can find time for self-improvement.

D. Rationalization of Educational Financing

An initial step toward the rationalization of educational financing is to empower the local administrative authorities to do budget planning and funding in a way that reflects local needs, which the central government has monopolized. And this is done by ensuring the autonomy of local authorities and schools with the exception of remuneration and special expenditures provided in the Ministry of Education's budget, the local administrative authorities should be allowed to use funds at their discretion.

It should be desirable to introduce a school budgeting system, whereby the school can lay out its budget plan peculiar to its unique situation to support instructional activities.

2. MEASURES FOR THE AUTONOMIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A. Organizational Structure and Power Distribution

1) Streamlining of Organizational Structure

According to the realignment of functions between different levels of administrative authorities, organizational structures should be streamlined so as to assume new functions and delete some of old ones. The Ministry of Education is responsible for policy formulation, educational planning and coordination; the provincial board of education for regional planning and supervision, and the county office of education for supporting schools in fulfilling educational functions suited to local needs.

To strengthen its function in policy development, the Ministry of Education should create the Office of Policy Deliberation and reinforce the Office of Planning and Management and the Office of Supervision and Textbook Compilation. At the same time, efforts should be made to provide functional specialization by incorporating into these offices similar or over-lapped functions.

The provincial board of education should promote the present status of planning and inspection officer to the Office of Educational Planning and Coordination responsible for regional planning of education, policy formulation, coordination and control. The Office of Supervision needs to be created to strengthen its role in promoting advices, guidance and research related to instruction.

At the county office of education, Division of Supervision should be

created, as a staff organization, to be exclusively responsible for supporting schools. Cognizant of the importance of local uniqueness in education, thought should be given to integrating two or three districts into one, and this will make it possible to staff the division of supervision with supervisors representing all subject matters.

2) School Organization

Since secondary education is departmentalized into subject matters, school organization should be restructured so as to provide vitality to the instruction of subject matters. It should be restructured in such a way that provides a regular forum for teachers and opportunities for in-service training, research, and evaluation. It should be such that promotes a cooperative relation among teachers. It should also provide a venue and facilities for a gathering purporting to raise the quality of subject matter specialists. At the same time, roles of principal or vice principal should be articulated by law.

3) Delegation of Functions

The redistribution of administrative authority can be initiated by delegating some of the Ministry of Education's functions to the provincial boards of education, followed by the delegation of functions from the provincial board of education to the county office of education.

(A) From the Ministry of Education to the Provincial Board of Education

(1) The provincial board of education should be authorized to initiate structural change needed to provide administrative support reflecting local needs.

(2) The authority to approve the establishment and abolishment of high schools and school corporations, as well as to supervise them should be

delegated to the provincial board of education.

(3) Matters pertaining to coordination with schools in remote areas and islands and the recognition of social education organizations and facilities as formal education equivalents should be delegated to the provincial boards of education which are more familiar with local situation.

(4) Decision-making related to appointment of principals, transfer, disciplinary actions and other personnel management affairs should be the responsibility of the provincial board of education.

(5) The Ministry of Education should liberalize control on the special account of local education financing, while enlarging the board of education's latitude of discretion in the reallocation of compulsory education budget.

(B) From the Provincial Board of Education to the County Office of Education

(1) The county office of education should be authorized to supervise and control high schools in its area.

(2) Matters pertaining to the selection of areas and transfer of principals and vice principals within its administrative district, disciplinary actions of teachers and the selection of candidates eligible for promotion should be delegated to the county office of education.

(3) The provincial board of education should liberalize control on the special account of local education financing. Budget planning and allocation of operational expenditures for secondary schools, subsidy for private secondary schools and control on the financial operation of elementary and secondary schools should be the responsibility of the county office of education.

(C) From the County Office of Education to School

(1) Each school be allowed to choose textbooks and instructional materials so that it can provide an education catering to the unique needs of students.

(2) With regard to school management, each school should be given a greater latitude of discretion, notably to grouping learners, conducting physical fitness test and taking appropriate actions based on test results.

(3) The principal should be autonomous in employing teacher aides or administrative personnel on a temporary basis to reduce teacher's workload.

B. Operation and Procedure of Educational Administration

1) Expansion of Opportunities for Participation

The democratic principle of educational administration reflects concern for enlarging the opportunity for participation of concerned people in decision-making and ensuring that their opinions have a powerful influence on the decisions. In operational terms, it suggests the desirability of providing alternatives in the process of implementation and maintaining a free communication. The result is a free, cooperative atmosphere where the concerned people have a free choice of alternatives evolved from their participation in the process of decision-making.

C. Procedure of Educational Administration

1) More Opportunities for Participation

The democratic principle of educational administration reflects concern for enlarging the opportunity to participate in decision-making and ensuring that constructive inputs from the concerned people have a bearing on decisions. In operational terms, it suggests the desirability of providing alternative processes of implementation and maintaining a free cooperative climate where the concerned people have a free choice of alternatives evolved from their participation in decision-making.

The process of decision-making involves not only the members of the concerned organization but those of the implementing agency in a collabo-

rative attempt that is coordinated through committees. Down at the school level, a committee is formed, consisting of teachers, students, parents and the community representatives. Democratic administration has a great dependence on various committees intended to enlarge the opportunity for constructive inputs to be reflected in decision-making.

2) Little Control and Direction

Uniformed control and direction from the higher administrative authorities increases the dependence of the lower authorities, which is a major barrier to the autonomy of educational administration. While the former is responsible for the formulation of basic policies, it should encourage the latter to initiate creative action for a greater outcome of education, conscious of making school accountable to the public. The local administrative authorities should be selective about control and direction, in consideration of variables influencing schools.

3) Self-evaluation in School

Inspection by the administrative authorities should shift away from its earlier concern for administrative efficiency based on control and direction to supportive functions for guidance and instruction. The word 'inspection' does not apply to schools, the majority of its members being professional. It should give way to evaluation and consultation. Evaluation might as well be conducted by both professionals and laymen, but the former should carry the ball in matters related to instruction and guidance.

With regard to the process of decision-making and the performance of educational functions, self-evaluation is expected to provide useful insights, which sensitizes teachers to the accountability of school to the public. A school evaluation committee serves an evaluative function in relation to major issues of school operation, and each school should make a formal report on remedial actions taken to the administrative authorities. The success of the self-evaluation system depends, to a great extent, on

the administrators' trust of the school in terms of its ability to perform evaluation, with the resultant objectivity of its result and the efficiency of the way in which it is conducted.

D. Teachers and Administrative Personnel

1) *Differentiation of Teaching Staff*

The certified teachers of primary and secondary schools are classified into grade 2 and grade 1, before being promoted to vice principal. This hierarchical order makes the principal the terminal point, to which every teacher aspires to attain. The popular notion is that qualified teachers are promoted to vice principal, and remaining as a teacher is considered a disgrace. There is a tendency to consider teaching as a passage to school administrators, and it is almost impossible to ensure the professionalism of teaching under this circumstance.

If the master teacher is introduced to school, it may be helpful to ensure the professionalism of teacher. Teachers can be qualified as a master teacher by passing a national examination, but years of teaching and the rated performance of roles may well be taken into account. The number of teachers needs to be stipulated by law, based on the number of schools and classes, subject matter taught, and other functions of the school occasioned by addressing new problems. Master teachers should be loaded with guidance, coordination, assistance to new teachers and research. This makes it inevitable to reduce their teaching hours. Their status should also be reflected in salary.

The present system of teacher training is so diversified and compartmentalized that it complicates quality control. New teachers, fresh from teacher training institutes, are allowed to take a full load of teaching. An apprenticeship ranging from six months to one year is a necessary bridge to become fulfilled teacher.

2) *Reform of Educational Administrator Training*

The present system of training educational administrators is far from equipping them with the professional competencies of an effective administrator, viable in the seething, turbulent society. It calls for a massive reform of the present system, not only in organizational structure but contents and method. Management by objectives will be a valuable addition to the present curriculum.

An alternative to the present system may be to install a course of educational administrator within the teacher training institutes, the completion of which leads to advanced degrees. Eligibility for admission should be based on the years of teaching or serving as a school administrator, not by credentials showing the level of educational attainment.

Curriculum should reflect heavier weights given to fundamental courses, curriculum theories, and action-oriented research. The point of emphasis here is how to ensure an effective linkage with the practicalities of school and classroom amid the diversity of courses.

It is not only content but method that leaves much to be reformed. The dominance of lecture as a teaching method is far from giving a sense of familiarity with school situation. Encouraging individual research probing school problems and the dynamics of teaching and learning in classroom is the surest way to familiarize them with the practicality of school administration. An appropriate mix of experienced learning, experiment, simulation, game and role-play will provide a breakthrough. In this connection, new textbooks and materials should be developed.

3) Training of Supervisors

Despite the fact that supervision requires a high degree of professionalism, there is no system which prepares or trains supervisors. Therefore, the experienced teachers, when promoted to supervisors, are allowed to perform supervisory functions without exposure to an intermediate training course.

A training program should be created as an attachment to graduate studies or to the existing teacher training system, with the purpose of pro-

viding a highly tailored program to meet the educational needs of supervisors. The trainees will be qualified for supervisors upon the completion of the training. An essential parallel to it is in-service training to keep supervisors updated on new frontiers of theory and skills. Since supervisors help teachers with instruction and guidance, it is imperative that they keep themselves ahead of the teacher by having a ready exposure to new theories of curriculum and teaching method. It is necessary, therefore, to make an institutional arrangement that makes it mandatory for supervisors to receive a certain amount of in-service training per year. It is not only curriculum and instruction-related contents that form the center piece of training program: the supervisor's role requires them to be acquainted with financing and legal systems.

4) Professionalization of Administrative Personnel

In the employment, placement and promotion of administrative personnel no consideration is given to the unique nature of administrative organization supporting educational activities. A legal provision is in order, stipulating that educational experience be made a major consideration in employment or pre-employment training be provided, complemented by a ceaseless stream of in-service training programs.

Pre- and in-service trainings for administrative personnel may be installed as an attachment to the existing training institutes for educational administration, while pre-service training is made mandatory, opportunities for in-service training should be enlarged for them to update their knowledge and skill.

E. For Higher Efficiency of Educational Administration

1) Automation of Processing Functions

The availability of modern technologies calls for an extensive use of computer and other office machines to improve the accuracy of processing

administrative works as well as speeding up it. The proliferation of information and data useful for decision-making makes the computer a daily necessity not to be dispensed with. The desirability of its use is also highlighted from the viewpoint of relieving teachers of administrative chores.

2) Minimal Formalities

The constant flow of orders and directions from the administrative authorities requires so much time and efforts to process them and report on remedial actions taken by each school, and administrative formalities are out of proportion to instruction. Supervision and inspection should be carried out along the way that liberates teaching staff from clerical chores. The same can be said of supervisors. Clerical chores are a heavy liability on supervisors, taking a deep bite out of time for learning and instruction. One way to resolve this problem is to assign a clerical worker to each supervisor so that he can devote more attention to core activities.

3) Coordination with Related Agencies

Schools are frequently haunted by requests from social and regional agencies for assistance. Some of what they ask for has nothing or little, if any, to do with school education. The mobilization of school resources for others than educational purposes should be minimized, unless they are directly related with school education. In this connection, the Ministry of Education should guard against other central governments sending letters seeking cooperation and assistance from schools.

At the local level, a need is appreciated to set up a control and coordination mechanism between schools and other agencies. It will be a great help in winning out unjustifiable requests and effecting the community's collaboration with schools.

E. Educational Financing

1) Liberalizing Control

The Ministry of Education should liberalize its control on the special account of local education financing. Particularly, the authority to reallocate funds for compulsory education should be delegated to the provincial board of education. With regard to the budget for middle schools, the local authorities should be allowed to report on the result of funding instead of having to obtain approval from the higher authorities before funding. At the same time, legal provisions and regulations should be amended to enlarge the local authorities' latitude of discretion in budgeting for and financing local education. Budget planning for secondary education, subsidy for private middle schools, assistance to balance the revenues of schools and control on the financial management of primary and middle schools should be delegated to the county office of education.

2) Contract for Financing

The autonomy of financing large primary schools, composed of more than 24 classes, can be enlarged to some extent by allowing them to run its own financing system on a contract basis instead of specifying line items to be funded by the administrative authorities. The number of expenditure components subject to contract should be increased beyond the present coverage of recurrent expenditures to include purchase of properties, repair and maintenance of equipment and facilities and construction of buildings. Placing these matters under the principal's authority will make for a timely investment, which is desirable from the cost-effect viewpoint.

Financial matters have been regarded as the monopoly of financial managers and kept away from the attention of principals and teachers who are versant with educational matters. The operational expenditure of school should be reallocated among the lowest units of school organization so that teachers are apprised of the way they are spent. They will ensure a harmony between educational activities and financial management, thus increasing the efficiency of financing.

Up to this point, measures for the autonomization of educational administration have been examined. The feasibility of these measures is determined by many factors. The maturity of social milieu, the unswerving commitment of policy makers and administrators to the realization of local autonomy, and the attitude of participants represent a few of the many factors contributing to the success of local autonomy.

VI. SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter summarizes results of the study on the autonomy of educational administration and suggests several recommendations.

1. SUMMARY

A. Synopsis of Study

The purpose of this study is to probe the system of educational administration in Korea, assess needs and problems and present measures to autonomize educational administration, thus assisting in the realization of school-centered administration.

The study set forth specific tasks to be performed in view of the defined goal of study, and they are as follows:

First, the autonomy of educational administration was conceptualized in reference to principles underlying educational administration. An outgrowth of the attempt to seek principles and concept is the criteria and model for guiding changes to the autonomy of educational administration. In this connection, the desired leadership and roles of the principal was defined, which would be viable in school-centered administration.

Second, to establish a frame of reference to compare with, analysis was made of the changing pattern of educational administration in Korea with specific reference to its counterparts in the United States, England, and Japan.

Third, analysis was made of local and school administration in terms of the degree of autonomy realized in the system, and impeding factors for autonomous administration were identified.

Fourth, a comprehensive analysis was made of the degree of autonomy, barriers and problems, and a changing pattern. Directions were set forth to guide the change of educational administration toward autonomization,

and measures were identified to expedite the intended changes.

Review of literature and materials bearing on this topic provided concept, principles, and the roles and leadership of the principal, and the assessment of needs and problems was made possible by a questionnaire survey and interviews with supervisors, school administrators, teachers and general administrators representing local administrative authorities and schools. Professionals and subject matter specialists and scholars formed a committee providing guidance and advice as to the way in which study should proceed. Seminars were held to open the process of study to a wide range of input.

B. Theoretical Base for Autonomy of Educational Administration

1) Autonomy of Educational Administration

The definition of educational administration is based on five different viewpoints. First, viewed in relation to what education seeks to achieve, it is a means to achieve defined goals. Second, by viewing it as an administrative process, it means a confluence of planning, organization, coordination, direction and control. Third, those who consider it as a social process mean to focus attention on the dynamics of social and psychological variables involved in educational administration. Fourth, educational administration is considered in terms of its relation with general administration. It is considered as part of general administration. Fifth, viewing educational administration as a collaborative attempt of constituents highlights the importance of cooperation among members as the base for supporting other facets of education. In relation to the autonomy of educational administration, it was also defined as a deliberate attempt to bring changes toward an increasing degree of autonomy in decision-making regarding organization, operation and management.

2) Analysis Model and Criteria for Autonomy of Educational Administration

As the administrative authorities to which autonomy should be granted, the local authorities and schools were the target of attention, together with the necessity of realigning the functional relation among them and streamlining organizational structure. The degree of autonomy was examined in relation to the selection of students, employment of teachers, curriculum organization and operation, guidance, supervision and financing.

As criteria for guiding changing process to autonomy, democratization of decision-making, professionalization of administrative personnel and rationalization of educational financing were set forth.

3) The Role and Leadership of Principal

Since the role and leadership of the principal is considered an important factor for the realization of school-centered administration, an attempt was made to articulate the desired profile of his role. The principal's role is comprised of i) decision-making regarding school management and administrative support, ii) actually managing and operating school, 3) controlling and evaluating school management, iv) initiating and providing supervisory guidance and v) effecting collaboration with parents and regional community.

C. Changing Pattern of Educational Administration

1) Organizational and Operational Pattern

The organizational structure of educational administration is in a hierarchical order, consisting of the Ministry of Education on the national level and the local administrative authorities. The latter includes the provincial (or municipal) board of education and the county (or city) office of education. School is the lowest unit of administration. Educational administration, so structured, draws criticism for i) causing administrative authority to converge on the central government, ii) failure to provide necessary support and conditions for school education, iii) the absence of functions

to localize educational administration, iv) uniformed organizational structure of local administration, irrespective of local uniqueness and v) low quality of administrative personnel.

Down at the school, a new tendency is discernible to recognize the importance of master teachers between school administrators and teachers. The operational mode of the school shows a growing tendency to open the process of decision-making, and teachers demanding autonomy in instruction-related matters and opportunities to have their voices heard in operational matters.

2) Future Prospects for Change

The imminent implementation of local autonomy will be the pacesetter of change in educational administration. Looking into the future, in this vein, the change of educational administration will be guided by i) a growing concern for the unique needs of local areas, ii) school's demand for autonomy and independence, iii) call for professionalism in coping with diverse administrative functions and iv) new emphasis on making the school accountable.

3) Educational Administration in Other Countries

The systems of educational administration in the United States, England and Japan were examined, with a particular concern for the degree of autonomy accorded the local authorities and schools in selecting students, organizing and operating curriculum, managing personnel affairs and financing local education. They may be summed up as follows:

First, the central administrative body is responsible for planning, coordination and policy formulation, holding the local authorities responsible for regional planning and support for school education, based on local needs and demands of local people. By virtue of the decentralized distribution of administrative functions, school districts are the center piece of administration, initiating necessary actions on their own needs, controlling

and supporting schools.

Second, the principal is given a greater degree of autonomy in administering and managing school. What is more important, though, is that his professionalism related to teaching and curriculum is emphasized. Professional competency is the major element of the principal's leadership.

Third, teachers in general, are given a greater latitude of discretion in instruction-related matters, with more opportunities to participate in managerial affairs, namely selection of students, curriculum, personnel management, and financing.

Fourth, the local administrative authorities manage personnel affairs in consultation with principals. The latter's opinions are reflected to a great extent in recruiting and transferring teachers and promoting their well-being. The professional development of teachers, in particular, is the major consideration of personnel management.

Lastly, educational administration is centered around supervisory guidance. It is through supervisors that the local authorities maintain direct contact with schools and familiarize themselves with every detail of the school situation. Control and intervention are minimized, while professional guidance and support are prevailing. The result of supervision is used for the purpose of raising the effectiveness of instruction.

D. Current Status on the Autonomy of Educational Administration

1) Current Status and Problems

(1) Administrative Works

The present system of educational administration leaves much to be improved in terms of functional arrangement. It features so much emphasis placed on general managerial skills, with the central administrative authorities holding many of the managerial functions which should have been delegated to the local authorities. This gives rise to control and direction imposed from the top down, and administrative works are standardized into a narrow jacket for the sake of ensuring efficiency and expedience.

Schools are haunted with formalities which have little to do with school education, and work that can be turned into quantifiable accomplishments are substituting supporting work that truly serves educational purposes. The school is driven away from the path of its goal.

(2) Organization and Operation of Curriculum

The centralized administration loads the Ministry of Education with developing curriculum content and compiling textbooks. In the absence of an institutional base encouraging the participation of teachers, schools are dictated by the central government regarding what and how to teach.

The survey disclosed that the majority of the teachers are desirous of autonomy in the selection of textbooks, teaching aids and materials and of participation in decision-making regarding instruction scheduling, evaluation frequency and method, and scheduling of supplementary and independent studies.

(3) Guidance

Guidance has not reached the fulfilled status of an integral part of educational activities in school, largely due to the shortage of professional counselors. Even those responsible for guidance in school lack in professional competency, and the problem is further complicated by the lack of enthusiasm on the part of school to remedy the biased treatment of learning experiences.

(4) Supervision

The local administrative authorities are blamed for the failure to provide quality supervision. Supervisors seldom prepare for what is required by professional supervision and still adhere to the traditional pattern of supervision. These are basically attributed to the fact that supervisors, by and large, lack in professional competency and are undemocratic in the way they treat teachers. Supervisors in the administrative authorities are overloaded with work and have no reasonably easy access to in-service training.

The failure of the administrative authorities to provide professional supervisors causes a negative view of it on the part of schools, and this prompts them to advocate school-initiated supervision.

(5) Personnel Management

Personnel management related to teacher was examined in three dimensions, namely employment, performance evaluation and in-service training. According to the survey, the principal is considerably autonomous in employing teachers and lecturers (4.66), employing temporary teachers and lecturers (3.56), adjusting the salary level of teachers and the promotion in salary grade level (4.27), selecting teachers subject to in-service training (3.51) and employing teachers in private schools (3.72).

Performance evaluation is made by the vice-principal, subject to be confirmed by the principal to enhance the objectivity of evaluation. Master teachers and classroom teachers demand that their opinions be reflected in performance evaluation.

Quality programs of in-service training are not easily accessible to teachers. In-service training offered by various institutions lack in the coherence of programs and is diverse in its goal. Their training facilities are limited.

(6) Educational Financing

Within the limit of available funds, the principal is reported to enjoy a considerable degree of autonomy, particularly in tuition exemption (4.22) and funding experiment and practice (4.19). The principal's autonomy increases in proportion to the school level.

In actuality, however, the principal has little to exercise autonomy over, due to the under-financed economy of the school. In the case of private schools, the principal's autonomy is curtailed by a heavy reliance on tuition.

(7) A New Climate of Educational Administration

Educational administration demonstrates its effectiveness in a congenial

climate free of intervention. The congeniality of climate is exclusively dependent on the leadership style and personality trait of the principal and vice principal, notably whether they are open-minded or not. Open-mindedness creates propensity to a democratic style of leadership tinged with flexibility, guarding against authoritarian rules.

The principal's leadership is an influential variable for the school's relationships with parents and the regional community. The lack of cooperation with them causes distrust of the school by the public and invites unjustifiable pressures and intervention resulting from parents' misguided zeal for education. In summary, organizational climate is predicated on the style of leadership, the degree of participation by its constituents in decision-making and the cooperativeness of others comprising its milieu.

2) Obstacles to Autonomization of Educational Administration

The foremost obstacle to autonomizing educational administration is the centralized authority to not only formulate policies but deal with operational and technical matters.

Second, the lack of professional competency on the part of administrative personnel is another barrier to the autonomization of school administration. The administrators who lack in the knowledge of curriculum, instruction and guidance are not expected to provide support relevant to educational needs inherent in the school.

Third, supervision and audit by the administrative authorities are control-oriented and intent on finding fault with the schools, rather than inclined to help them resolve instructional problems in a professional capacity. Its reliance on written inquiries and orders haunts schools into reporting, thus causing a lot of administrative chores. The fact that supervision and audit is a liability rather than a blessing impedes the autonomization of educational administration.

Fourth, parents and the public lack the understanding of what the school is doing and is concerned about. Very often, their mistaken view of school education misguides their uncontrolled passion for education into

pressure and intervention, with the resultant damage done to the autonomy of school.

E. Basic Directions of Autonomizing Educational Administration and Measures for It

Efforts were made to show the basic directions in which the reform of educational administration should proceed. They are i) decentralization of centralized authority, ii) democratization of decision-making and operation, iii) professionalization of administrative personnel and iv) rationalization of educational financing.

(1) School-centered Administration

Functional relation between different levels of administration should be redefined to hold the Ministry of Education responsible for policy formulation, planning and coordination. This will enable the provincial (or municipal) board of education to focus on regional planning and supervision and the county office of education to provide a tailored support for school education. A thought is given to the integration of two or three districts into one as a means to explore a more efficient way of administering local education.

(2) Functional Definition of Vice Principal's Role

The roles of the vice principal needs to be articulated by law in view of his new relation with the principal and teachers, viable in the autonomy of school administration.

(3) Delegation of Functions

From the Ministry of Education to Provincial Board of Education
o. Structural change needed to provide administration addressing local needs.

- o. Approval of the establishment and abolishment of high schools and to supervise them.
- o. Coordination with schools in remote areas and islands and recognition of social education organizations and facilities as formal education equivalents.
- o. Decision-making related to appointment of principals, transfer, disciplinary actions and other personnel management.
- o. Authority to deal with the special account of local education financing and reallocate compulsory education budget.

From the provincial board of education to the county office of education.

- o. Supervision and control of high schools in its area.
- o. Transfer of principals and vice principals within the respective administrative district, disciplinary actions of teachers, and selection of teacher candidates for promotion.
- o. Control on the special account of local education financing, budget planning, allocation of operational expenditures for secondary schools, subsidy for private secondary schools.

2) Democratization of Decision-making and Operation

(1) Enlarged Opportunities for Participation in Decision-making

Opportunities to participate in decision-making should be accessible to the concerned people of an organization. In school, it is not only the teachers who demand participation in decision-making. Students, parents and community people should be accorded opportunities to participate in decision-making.

(2) Establishment of Self-evaluation

Concern should shift from authoritarian inspection by outsider to school-initiated evaluation, drawing on consultation committee for expertise. It is through this mechanism that teachers are sensitized to making school accountable.

(3) Minimal Control and Direction

The administrative authorities should minimize control and direction which demand the school's compliance and give way to supportive administration seeking cooperation of schools.

3) Professionalization of Administrative Personnel

(1) Differentiation of Teaching Staff

Differentiating teaching staff is one way to ensure the professionalism of teachers. This necessitates the creation of master teachers to be on the top level of teachers. In this connection, those concerned for professionalism appreciate the desirability of introducing teacher aides, serving as a teacher's apprentice for six months or one year before they are promoted to grade 2 teacher to assume a full load of teaching.

(2) Training of Educational Administrators

Efforts should be made to improve the program content and teaching method of training for educational administrators. One concern for the professionalism of administration requires a continual stream of training to keep them updated on new management skills.

(3) Training of Supervisors

Supervisors, among others, are required to demonstrate professional competency in relation to teachers. Since the program demands a high order of knowledge and skill, it would be desirable to create the program as an attachment of graduate studies. A close parallel is in-service training for supervisors which helps them to be updated on the advancing frontiers of curriculum and teaching.

(4) Automation of Administrative Works

By putting information processing and retrieval into automation, teachers and administrative personnel will be relieved of much of their

workload so that they focus on works related to enhancing professionalism.

(5) Coordination with Other Agencies

To optimize the inflow of requests and letters from the concerned agencies outside school, a coordination committee is in order, which mediates and effect cooperation between school and other agencies concerned with education.

4) Rationalization of Educational Financing

The provincial (or municipal) board of education should be authorized to reallocate funds for compulsory education and exempted from obligation to obtain approval from the Ministry of Education regarding the financing of middle schools. The provincial (or municipal) board of education regarding planning and funding of special account. The latter should have a greater degree of autonomy in budget planning for secondary schools, subsidizing private secondary schools, balancing the revenue of public schools, and supervising financial management. For the large-sized schools with more than 24 classes, a contract funding deserves consideration as a means to provide flexibility in funding the operation of school.

2. SUGGESTIONS

From the study conducted, the following suggestions are advanced.

First, functional relation should be redefined, together with the streamlining of organizational structure, to have the Ministry of Education responsible for policy formulation, planning and coordination, the provincial board of education for regional planning and supervision, and the county office of education for highly tailored support for school to open its process of decision-making regarding operational matters to teachers.

Second, functional redistribution between the local administrative

authorities and schools demands that some of the former's functions be delegated to schools.

Third, the administrative authorities should minimize control and orders to schools, while encouraging school's initiatives in raising the outcome of education.

Fourth, evaluation and inspection by the administrative authorities should be minimized to encourage self-evaluation drawing on a school's operation evaluation committee. The school should be required to report on remedial actions taken, pursuant to suggestions by the committee.

Fifth, the certification of teachers should be reformed so as to enhance the professional competency of teachers. A major highlight of the reform is to introduce master teachers and teacher aides. The reform is also linked to the system of pre- and in-service training for educational administrators and supervisors. The training program should be improved in terms of program content and teaching method.

Sixth, administrative works should be put into automation so that administrators and teachers are relieved of administrative chores and devote more time and effort on the improvement of professional competency. In this connection, a coordination mechanism needs to be established to protect schools from being haunted by other agencies requesting the school's assistance and cooperation.

Seventh, the higher administrative authorities should liberalize control on financial matters. A thought should be given to a way of providing the large-sized schools (composed of more than 24 classes) with flexibility in financial management. Funding them on a contract basis is expected to serve this purpose.

Eighth, the autonomization of school administration requires that follow-up actions be taken to provide empirical data for a long-term planning through studies on legal provisions, local autonomy and educational financing.

Finally, the efficiency of educational administration is largely dependent on the climate of the school determined by the trait, leadership and willingness of the principal to be self-reliant and self-motivated toward professional growth.

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