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WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR THE KOREAN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

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1965

A STUDY OF SOME ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR THE KOREAN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the statement of the problem, the justification of the problem, the purposes of the study, the source of data, the definition of terms, the limitation of the study, and the organization of the study.

Statement of the Problem

The following project is a study in some aspects of educational administration of American public schools with implications for the Korean public school system. The study is not an attempt to examine all problems in this area, for that would be impossible, but it will examine some major aspects of school systems in the United States on the local school level, based on a study of current principles and practices that may have significance for improving the public school of Korea.

Justification of the Problem

The complete system of Korean public education is a 6-3-3-4 structure--six years in elementary school, three years in junior high school, and three years in senior high school, which provides both academic and vocational education,

and four years in college or university. All citizens are entitled to free primary education under the Constitution of the Republic. It is the duty and right of the parents to see that their children receive education at facilities provided by the state. The problem in compulsory education was that classroom shortages became very acute as the enrollment grew steadily although rebuilding of school facilities was in progress. It still remains a major educational difficulty in Korea today. This is due in part to the economic situation. This situation is a great source of danger to the present and future of Korea, and a great challenge to all the people.

Another problem which must be taken into consideration in school administration in Korea is the fact that a great many Korean have faced difficulties of ideological inquiry into the ideals of democracy on which Korean education should stand. As a series of political incidents in recent years indicates, school administrators, as well as teachers, parents, and students, fear and distrust their government and are, in some instances, convinced that it is trying to centralize control and return to autocracy. One of the major problems of Korean education for the coming years may be to face the political, economic, and social realities of Korea as well as to define the ideals and practices of school administration which are applicable to the schools of a nation attempting to establish democracy.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to make proposals for improving and introducing into Korean public education certain principles and practices found to be effective in modern democratic forms of school administration. Suggestions with regard to the improvement of the school administration occur under the following three categories: (1) The implications of the principles and practices of school administration that should take place in a democratic society. (2) The way the school administration should be conducted. (3) Some illustrative ways which will be helpful in improving the use of the talents of school administrators. All three of these elements are important. It is not the purpose of the writer to argue which of the three elements should occupy the most prominent place.

Source of Data and Procedures of the Study

The first major source of material is the Education Index. The second major source of material is the Encyclopedia of Educational Research, edited by Chester W. Harris, published in 1960. The third source of data is that of bound books and the fourth source is that of public documents.

The procedure of study is descriptive, and the process of study includes the use of all relevant resources in the University of Oklahoma library. The study to a great extent is to be based upon literature on American education pertaining to modern trends in school administration. On the basis of the

study, a series of suggestions for the improvement of school administration in Korea will be made. These suggestions are to be based on the writer's experiences while teaching in Korean public schools, and observations of American public schools through visitations and as a student of education.

Definition of Terms

Administration: Educational administration aims to facilitate teaching and learning.¹ It is the process of integrating the efforts of personnel and of utilizing the development of human qualities.

Communication: The essence of communication is getting the receiver and the sender "tuned" together for a particular message.² The transference of thought or feeling from one person to another through gesture, posture, facial expression, tone and quality of voice as well as by speech or by secondary means such as writing, telephone, telegraph, radio, television, etc. is the method of communication.

Curriculum: The curriculum includes all the experiences of children for which the school accepts responsibility.³ On the other hand, curriculum is often described as a written outline

¹Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, Introduction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958), p. 67.

²Wilbur Schramm, "Procedures and Effects of Mass Communication," In Mass Media and Education, 53rd yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, edited by Nelson B. Henry (Chicago: the University of Chicago Press, 1954), pp. 113-138.

³William B. Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum (Rev. Ed.; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1962), p. 3.

that stresses or assumes the validity of a fixed group of graded and required facts, skills, and activities.

Feedback: In a conversation between two people, each is constantly communicating back to the other through the process of message, decoder, interpreter, encoder, and message. The return process is called feedback and plays an important part in communication because it tells us how our messages are being interpreted.¹

Group dynamics: Group dynamics is a field of inquiry dedicated to advancing knowledge about the nature of groups, the laws of their development, and their interrelations with individuals, other groups, and larger institutions.²

In-Service Education: All efforts of administrative and supervisory officials to promote by appropriate means the professional growth and development of educational workers constitutes in-service education. Illustrative of this is curriculum study, classroom visitation, and supervisory assistance.

Leadership: Leadership is defined as a process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its task of goal setting and goal achievement.³ Leadership appears also to be determined by a system of interrelationship.

¹Schramm, op. cit.

²Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (ed.), Group dynamics, Research and Theory (2nd. ed.; Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960), p. 29.

³Ralph M. Stogdill, "Leadership, Membership, and Organization," Psychological Bulletin, 47: (Jan. 1950), 1-14.

Role: A role is a pattern or type of social behavior which seems situationally appropriate to the individual in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group.¹

Limitations of the Study

In the writing of this paper, some of the articles and books have been listed only in the bibliography. It has been decided to deal with articles, books, and documents which are related to the problem of school administration. The project has been limited to some aspects of school administration. The nature of administration is such that various aspects are closely interrelated but the writer has been careful to avoid the problem of over-lapping.

Since educational administration is the process of integrating the efforts of personnel and of utilizing appropriate materials in such a way as to promote effectively the development of human qualities, one cannot write of the problem of school administration without referring to the problems of human relationship and group dynamics, of communication, and of instructional facilities and programs.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation consists of eight chapters. The first chapter presents an introduction. The second chapter deals with some important questions of administrative behavior and leadership in the local school system. A careful

¹S. Stansfeld Sargent, Social Psychology (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950), p. 279.

generalization and interpretation is made of relevant articles and books of school administration. The third chapter explores the significance of the feedback process in the school administration. It attempts to trace some democratic elements in the group process. The fourth chapter is devoted to an analysis and examination of the causes of conflicting areas of school administration in twenty-one selected school districts investigated by the National Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities. Chapter V covers the problem of school plant and management. Educational specification for school plant development and management are studied through visitations of schools in Oklahoma and the reading of articles concerning school plants in other areas in the United States. In Chapter VI, the principles and practices of curriculum making are described. In chapter VII, the principles, practices, and underlying beliefs of personnel policies in democratic school administration are studied. The ultimate aim of personnel policy is to improve the quality of human relations and promote the betterment of school administration as a whole. The final chapter includes a summary, conclusions, and some proposals for the improvement of Korean school administration.

CHAPTER II

SOME IMPORTANT QUESTIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR AND LEADERSHIP

Introduction

This chapter is concerned chiefly with administrative behavior and leadership in the local school system. In the procedures for the study of administrative behavior and leadership, organizational skills, democratic process of administration, the role of the local board of education, cooperative actions for planning and improvement of educational program, effective public relations, and enrichment of a high quality of education in local school systems have been considered.

The writer believes that effective leadership in local school administration is important because the successful administration is determined not only by the cooperative efforts of staff members but by the attitudes of citizens toward the school administration. Particularly, in the modern community it is not easy to accomplish successful administration without successful leadership because of conflicting problems arising from practical situations and of increasing demands of local initiative that have to meet the needs of a changing community.

Administrative Behavior in Local School Systems

The scope of administration is broad because it must devote itself to working with all the factors that influence the capacity of the people in the agency to achieve their goals. French states that careful organization and administration are required to achieve desirable results in any purposeful enterprise. If the enterprise is a complex one, even more capable organization and administration is needed in order to effectively achieve the purposes of the enterprise. Educational administration may be classified as public administration along with the administration of all other non-profit-making enterprises. The purpose of educational administration is to organize and manage the education of pupils. Good administration is required to ensure continuous realization of the possibilities of good organization.¹

Organization and administration are closely inter-related and good organization is also essential to good administration. Therefore, it is difficult to administer effectively what has been poorly organized. As long as an organization's purpose persists, administrative decisions must be made. For instance, if changing the curriculum will so disturb the teachers and parents that the new curriculum cannot be administered

¹Will French, J. Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodds, American High School Administration: Policy and Practice (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., Fourth Printing, 1960), pp. 3-25.

effectively, the change should not be made. A leader may make a decision that is morally right and in line with the facts, but if this decision hurts the organization's effort it is not necessarily a good decision.

The materials of administration are human materials. Decisions, policies, personnel, budgets, appraising, coordination, buildings, and facilities are meaningless unless they are viewed as the creations of people for the better fulfillment of community needs as they see them. Particularly the process of administration in the local school system should be for the local community as a whole. As Ashby suggests, education should be strengthened at all levels, but special emphasis is needed at the local level in view of the national and regional trends.¹

To strengthen education at local level, the local board member must be an intelligent individual motivated by the best interest of the schools. Cunningham indicates that local school board members and local school administrators should consider the problems of school district organization within the total framework of local government.² This appears reasonable because the local school district cannot profit by maintaining an "isolationist" attitude.

¹Lloyd W. Ashby, "Don't Lose Local Control By Default," The Nation's Schools, 68: 47-49, August, 1961.

²Luvern L. Cunningham, "A School District and City Government," American School Board Journal, 141: 9-11, December, 1960.

Since the administration in a local school system can not be accomplished in an isolated situation, more capable board members and administrators are demanded in local school districts. Barnhart suggests the six areas of capability and the requirements for the effective board member as follows:

The effective board member (1) accepts the principle of board unity and subordinates self-interest; (2) understands and respects the executive function of the professional administrator; (3) provides initiative, informal leadership, and insight in planning and policy making; (4) displays skills in establishing and maintaining successful relations with the staff and community groups; (5) has the ability to carry on successful personal relationship; (6) acts courageously for the good of the schools in spite of outside pressures and influences.¹

This statement characterizes the effective board member as a person of many abilities, competencies and understandings. The board of education can only act as a board, and the power and duties of a board of education must be exercised by the board as a whole.

The superintendent or principal is held responsible for the effective organization and administration of the school system or individual school in which he has been placed. The effective organization and administration depend on creative and cooperative organizational leadership in the local school system or in the individual school.

¹Richard E. Barnhart, "Six Characteristics of a Good School Board Member," The Nation's Schools, 53: 82-83, February, 1954.

The Dynamics of Organizational Leadership

When human relations become more intricately structured a high degree of organizational leadership is urgently needed in local school administration. Without organized co-operation the school is isolated from the people. The organizational leadership needs to achieve good personal relations by providing for group-wide participation and by providing for individual responsibility among members of the group.

Wiles describes the development of democratic leadership in which shared authority can promote shared responsibility. He says that authority in leadership doesn't mean "power over" others rather it means "power with" others. If a leader becomes isolated from others because of emphasis upon his power over others, he can not build up a democratic climate in which all the members of the group can participate in the activities of goal setting and goal achievement.¹ It is true that shared authority can promote shared responsibility. However, the process of such a leadership is not so simple because the needs and the purposes of individual members who are participating in the activities are so complex. Therefore, effective leadership is significant in building up a good staff relationship. Also it is significant in maintaining a good school-community relationship.

¹Kimball Wiles, Supervision For Better Schools, (New York: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1955), pp. 76-104; 161-180.

Weber and Weber tell about possible shortcomings of leadership as follows:

Management is an important part of administration, but it is only a part; management is not synonymous with leadership. Programs of education in communities have suffered greatly because administrators often look upon themselves as mere managers who are only mildly concerned with broad social perspectives.¹

This statement suggests the importance of human relationships in the leadership. The Kentucky C. P. E. A. study surveyed by Hopper and Bills indicates adequate attitudes of the administrator. This study found that the successful educational administrator is able to maintain satisfactory relationships with others because of the attitudes he holds toward both himself and other people. He makes few value judgments, thinks in cooperative terms, makes few comparisons and gives sufficient thought to the things he does.²

This study emphasizes that leadership is not a matter of passive status, rather it is a working relationship among members of a group. And it appears to be clear that the democratic leader is the philosophically minded man who considers individual dignity and the equal rights of human-kind.

¹C. A. Weber, and Mary E. Weber, Fundamentals of Educational Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955); p. 74.

²Robert L. Hopper, and Robert E. Bills, "What's Good Administrator Made Of?" School Executive, 74: 93-95, March, 1955.

It is also clear that in the democratic process under democratic leaders, members of a group can work together effectively.

Democratic leadership is based upon the value of individual freedom and the principle of democracy. It does not promote anarchy because individual freedom cannot exist in chaos. Leadership that provides individual freedom must be built upon the structure of common agreement. This common agreement doesn't just happen. It is the product of the effective group interaction. And the effective group interaction is the product of the effective group organization.

Jacobson explains well the effectiveness of functional organization for effective management.¹ The superintendent or principal alone cannot carry out every demand from within and without the school system or school. He needs to organize the system or the school effectively to execute the required tasks.

The organizational leadership is characterized by skillfulness in (1) effective organization, (2) cooperative human relations, (3) utilizing the group's resources in problem-solving.

The Effectiveness of Policy

As the role of educational leadership becomes more significant in the cooperative human relationships, cooperative

¹Paul B. Jacobson, William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon, The Effective School Principal in Elementary and Secondary Schools, (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), pp 25-47. Third Printing.

policy formulation becomes significant in promoting the efficiency of a local school administration. Cooperative policy making is important because of increasing demands of individual role expectation and of the increasing complexity of human inter-relationships. Policy involves the meaning of control. It does not necessarily mean to disturb the releasing of individual initiative or creativity; rather it gives a consistent direction to the enterprise, and assists in coordinating the activities of the various people involved.

Magoulas describes the contents of a proposed guide for the board policy making as follows:

Policies are guides, outlines, or principles that (1) determine how problems or cases shall be solved, (2) determine plans for future action, (3) express intent of the school board, or describe in general the purpose and organization of a school system. In contrast, rules and regulations are administrative regulations which grow out of the policies formulated by the school board subject to board approval.¹

Policies are guiding principles that determine the course of action on particular subjects. And they are usually stated in general terms so that they may permit modified plans of action when the details of situations require them.

The policy-forming agents in the local school system include the legislature, the decisions of the courts, the board of education, the superintendent, principals, and the teachers and sometimes the pupils or others. All policies

¹Jimmy Magoulas, "Content of the Board Policy Handbook," The American School Board Journal, 142: 16, April, 1961.

should be established to meet the educational needs of a local school district. As far as possible, more community people and lay groups should be included in the formulation of policy.

Since education is a function of the state, the policies of the board should be consistent with the state laws for the management and control of the public schools. The local board of education has the responsibility for establishing the general educational policies for the community.

The general areas that should be included in a statement of policies are relating to (1) the board of education, (2) the administrative staff, (3) the instructional staff, (4) non-instructional staff, and (5) the use of buildings and properties. Policies relating to the instructional staff are usually regarded as important areas for advancement of education in local school system.

Some of the important areas of this staff personnel management are as follows:

1. Recruitment, selection, and assignment of staff member.
2. Orientation and in-service education of staff members.
3. Rating and promotion of staff members.
4. Transferring, demoting, and discharging of staff members.
5. Salary administration and policies.
6. Evaluation.
7. Plan for salary payment.
8. Dates and hours of work.
9. Benefits and services.
10. Health and safety of employees.
11. Staff participation in management.¹

¹B. J. Chandler, and Paul V. Petty, Personnel Management in School Administration, (New York: World Book Company, 1955), pp. 16-17.

Usually, policies do not deal directly with the instructional program. Instead, personnel policies are emphasized to hire professionally qualified staff and to encourage the staff members who are already employed. Since personnel policy deals with the personnel problems of staff members, it must be formulated very carefully and effectively.

Written board policies are most effective in the sense of improving the educational program in the local school system. Magoulas states that written board policy is effective because the written policies reduce unnecessary powers of pressure groups; improve human relations and instruction; and promote staff morale by preventing conflicts and by providing academic freedom.¹

Policies at the individual school level pertain to factors such as graduation requirements, required and elective courses, the activity program, the use of the library, marking and promotion policies, and standards of conduct. These policies are to improve educational programs in the individual schools.

In-Service Education of Teachers

The major purpose of all in-service education is the improvement of the teaching-learning processes. The purpose

¹Jimmy Magoulas, "Why Written School Board Policies Are Important," American School Board Journal, 142: 11-12, March, '61.

for in-service education of teachers is to promote the continuous improvement of the professional staff in the school system. An additional purpose is to help those who are assuming new responsibilities or are entering into a new field of work within the profession.

Some generalizations to guide the in-service education that should be provided by the school are suggested by Kinnick as following:

1. In-service education means a program by which person engaged in education learn and grow together and not a program for making up teacher deficiencies.
2. An interested, fair-minded administrator is essential to the success of any in-service program.
3. The emotional climate as the goals are sought largely determines the goals attained.
4. Teachers should have some part in setting up programs of in-service education, if only the privilege of voting on several plans, preferably more than two.
5. Individual difference among teachers should be recognized in setting up in-service education plans.¹

The desirable in-service programs are diversified and developmental. They may include workshops, institutes, orientation, exchange visits to class-rooms, lectures, panels, luncheon meetings, checklists and rating scales, demonstrations, lesson-planning sessions, school surveys, community surveys, and action-research. It is considered by many educators that the cooperative action research is the best way for the in-service

¹Jo Kinnick et al., In-Service Education For Teachers, Supervisors, and Administrators, Fifty-Sixth Year-book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1 (Edited by Nelson B. Henry) (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 151.

education of teachers, as well as all other educational workers, when it is applied to a specific problem facing a school system.

To illustrate the idea of action research, Miles and Passow point out the types of diversity that may exist concerning committees and activities. Those are (1) task-centered, (5) skill-centered, (6) policy-centered, and (7) appreciation-centered.¹

In order to provide better in-service programs, schools have organized committees. According to Webb and Crawford, the principal and faculty of Miami Senior High School began intensive study of the curriculum and school procedures to pinpoint the major curriculum problems, and to launch an effective program of self-improvement. The results were as these: (1) greater cohesion in each area; (2) closer cooperation among departments; (3) students have shown a feeling of cooperation; (4) greater desire among students and teachers to improve school services in all areas.²

In-service education through action research, as it has been done at Miami High School, is urgently necessary if teachers

¹Matthew B. Miles, and Harry Passow, In-Service Education For Teachers, Supervisors, and Administrators, Fifty-Sixth Year-book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1 (Edited by Nelson B. Henry) (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 353.

²Olin C. Webb, and Salbin Crawford, "Curriculum Improvement Through Action Research," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 44: 86-93, February, 1960.

are to utilize community resource effectively and to promote better school-community relations. Utilizing community resources is important for the in-service program. Members of a committee on community resources may first record their present knowledge of the community's people, places, needs, and problems. Then, they have to make efforts on solving the problems, or on utilizing resources.

After several years of participation in a community resources program, Mcrae found some of the value became apparent. The program enriched the science curriculum and helped school-community relations.¹

The important element of in-service education of teachers occurs during the first year of teaching. The best plan for orientation appears to be the use of a practice or internship period. New teachers have more problems than experienced teachers. New teacher orientation programs must be designed to help new teacher with his most pressing problems--social, personal, and professional. A high standard of staff morale should be maintained and a good professional library should be provided for in-service education.

To promote the acquisition of the techniques and skills necessary for cooperative action research, for the utilization

¹Norman H. Mcrae, "Using Community Resources in Science Teaching," California Journal of Secondary Education, 34: 323-325, October, 1959.

of community resources, and for improvement of educational program, the school administrator has to continue to help the individual teacher through a planned in-service program.

School-Community Relations

Good school-community relations begin with good educational provisions which provide for the needs of all pupils in the community. Laudable educational provisions are hardly provided by schools without good relations with the community. Modern education is characterized by the increasing needs of an adequate school-community program of public relations. The agencies involved in a program of public relations are usually (1) PTA, (2) Citizen's Committees, (3) lay advisory groups, (4) civic and service clubs, (5) Y.M.C.A., (6) Y.W.C.A., (7) local education association, and others. The modern community in the United States is marked by a large number of organizations. Campbell states, communities have so many organizations that it is impossible to schedule a meeting of one group which will not conflict with meetings of several other groups. The administrator cannot become a member of every community and professional organization. This means that choices must be made. An administrator needs to choose one or two groups for his active participation.¹

¹Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, Introduction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958), p. 395.

Among these many groups in a community, the most effective ones for promoting the better school community relations are a parent-teacher association and official citizens' committies.

The primary purpose of a local parent-teacher association is that of promoting child and youth welfare in the home, school, and community. An additional purpose is to develop parent understanding of the purposes, practices, and problems of the individual school or school system. Since no Board of Education is obliged legally to sponsor a parents' group or to require that principals and teachers support its work, it may be described as a voluntary organization. To maintain a good parent-teacher association, parents as well as teachers have to be well informed of the school's program. The school always wants to make it clear that the town's children are in good hands.. An open line of effective communication is important in this sense.

According to Sweitzer, the typical Citizens' Committee in Michigan is composed of 20 to 29 members who are selected by the Board of Education or by the community agencies at the request of the board. Most of the committees are temporary, disbanding after specific tasks are completed. Some of the most frequent problems worked on by the committees were school building, school community problems relationships, taxation, finance, and curriculum improvement. It is evident that

citizens who participated in school planning have a more friendly attitude toward the schools than non-participants.¹

The administrator must use effectual techniques, an appropriate manner of speech and dress, and good etiquette at all times. Baughman states that those techniques include:

- (1) unscheduled adult visitors to the school,
- (2) adult education classes in school buildings,
- (3) exhibits of school work at school for community groups, and (4) special visiting days or nights with regular classes in session.²

Building a better community through education is an important role of the local school. In any efforts to improve the community, cooperation between the school and community is essential. Cooperation between school and community becomes a reality when school administrators seek to understand the needs and the point of view of the community.

School-community relations are largely determined by what happens in the school. The school program is very important in the whole matter of school-community relations. Leadership is vitally important in the improvement of school program and in the development of the school-community relationship.

¹Robert E. Sweitzer, "Midwest CPEA: Informed, Responsible Citizens," School Executive, 73: 108-109, March, 1954.

²M. Dale Baughman, "Effective Techniques For Improving School-Community Relations," Bulletin of National Association of Secondary School Principals, 41: 91-101, November, 1957.

Conclusion

Leadership in modern administration of education is determined by human relations. Leadership is based upon the qualities essential for success in working with other people. The successful administrator stresses leadership in his broad educational policy, in interpreting the democratic function of education to the community, and in building better communities through education.

The local school system is a community-wide enterprise and the community as a whole must share responsibility for that school's success or failure. Disintegrating conflict can be avoided by effective policy formulation and dynamic leadership, and by providing an effective educational program for the children and an adult education program for the community. These practices can be promoted by democratically planned programs of in-service education that recognizes the changing patterns of modern education.

CHAPTER III

THE FEED-BACK PROCESS IN THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

Successful feed-back processes between all levels of the school society are imperative because an atmosphere of wanting to improve and to change must permeate all levels of the school personnel without posing a threat to job security or to personal status.

The content of this chapter is divided into six sections as is outlined in the table of contents. These sections can be grouped into three parts; communication, social psychology, and group dynamics.

Feed-Back and Language

Every administrative organization has its downward, upward, and horizontal channels of communication. Downward communication is from someone of higher status to someone of lower status, for example, from a superintendent to a principal. A message from a teacher to a principal is an example of upward communication; a message between teachers in the same school is an example of horizontal communication. In communication, a message must be clear, consistent, adequate,

timely, adaptable, and interesting for, otherwise, feed-back cannot be achieved effectively. A basic type of message is the report. Superintendent reports upward to school boards and the public, and downward to principals and teachers. Principals report to their superintendents and to their teachers; teachers report to their principals and parents. In the design of a message, language plays an important role.

Laird disapproves the theory of one universal grammar underlying all languages.¹ The reason for his disapproval is that such a system can not solve the problems of the basic difficulties in communication between the people of the world merely by having them all speak the same tongue if their experiential backgrounds are different. Today, more educators psychologists are coming to realize the importance of common experience as the real basis of feed-back. Educators are emphasizing the importance of role playing in true education. The modern trend in education, which emphasizes learning by doing, is a recognition of the inadequacy of language that is divorced from experience to achieve much success in producing feed-back.

Language is so ambiguous that, to achieve good inter-communication between the class-room teacher and the student and between teacher and administrator, it must be combined with the social and emotional climate of the situation in which it occurs in order to unfold its full meaning.

¹Charlton Laird, Thinking About Language (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), pp. 42-62.

Group Dynamics

Group dynamics cannot be attained without effective feed-back, and it can be said that such effective feed-back in inter-personal relations cannot be achieved without good inter-relationships in the group. In this sense, cohesiveness is a key concept in the group dynamics. Trow and his coauthors conclude from research in group dynamics as follows:

1. The attitudes of an individual have their anchorage in the groups to which he belongs.
2. The conduct and beliefs of pupils is regulated in large measure by the small groups within a classroom, such as friendship cliques, and the cohesive groups of students within a school.
3. In some instances failure to learn may be advantageously conceptualized as resistance to change, using resistance here in the same sense as the therapist uses it in his relationships with a patient.
4. When frustrations are met, highly cohesive groups maintain their effort in movement toward the group goal much more vigorously and effectively than do groups of low cohesiveness.
5. Groups, especially those similar to classroom groups, can be disrupted into separate cliques; or this threat of disruption can be eliminated, by the alternation of forces which determine the attractiveness of the group for the members.¹

A cohesive group might be characterized as one in which the members all work together for a common goal, or one where every-one is ready to accept responsibility for group chores. Festinger defines the cohesiveness of a group as the resultant of all the forces acting on the members to remain in the group.

¹William Clark Trow and Others, "Psychology of Group Behavior: The Class as a Group," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. XLI (October, 1950), pp. 326-327.

These forces may depend on the attractiveness or unattractiveness of either the prestige of the group, member in the group, or the activities in which the group engages.¹

Festinger points out that groups are attractive because people have needs that can be satisfied only by personal relationships with other people. The satisfaction of a member's needs is related to the identification of needs and the building of group experience in such a way as to satisfy these needs. The attractiveness of a group may be increased by making it better serve the needs of its members.² A group will be more attractive according to the extent to which it provides status and regulation for these members.

Cooperation and free group interaction also facilitate the formation of a superior group character. However, we must realize that the needs of members in the group are not static. Their needs change in the process of the member's becoming more aware of and more sensitive to the value of group activity. Therefore, it is important to set up an effective and reasonable common goal to meet the changing needs of the group, particularly in the educational situations.

¹Leon Festinger, "Informal Social Communication," Psychological Review, Vol. 57, No. 5, pp. 271-282.

²Leon Festinger, "Group Attraction and Membership," Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (Edited by Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander; Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1953), pp. 92-101.

Horwitz has demonstrated that, when the individual accepts the group goal, he is motivated to task completion. When the individual goal differs from the group goal, personal tensions are aroused which need to be resolved.¹ To the educational administrator, this means that the teacher or inferior staff can be carried by the group motivation when he identifies with the group. When he is isolated, he will use the energy which should go into educational tasks. Thus, the diagnosis and in-service program for the group relationships of teacher can become a vital concern for the administrator. Setting up the common goal is important also, for, otherwise, attempts to have good interrelationship may cause undesired results.

Goal Directing Activity and Culture

According to Mead, the individual possesses a self only in relation to the selves of the other members of his social group; and the structure of his self expresses or reflects the general behavior pattern of this social group to which he belongs, just as does the individual self of every other individual belonging to this group.² The group is a small social system. It consists of persons influencing and being

¹Murray Horwitz, "The Recall of Interrupted Group Tasks: An Experimental Study of Individual Motivation In Relation to Group Goals," Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (Edited by Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander; Evanston Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1953) pp. 361-385.

²George H. Mead, "Language and the Development of the Self," Readings in Social Psychology (Edited by Theodore M. Newcomb, and Eugene L. Hartley; New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947), pp. 179-89.

influenced by one another and attracted to some or similar concerns, goals and values. Culture is, as Gerbner says, itself a historical process and product.¹ It reflects the general productive structure of society and the role and position of communications institutions. It is a pattern reflecting the composition of the social system. Since persons in a group share goals, the social system has goals even as a person may have goals.

Group goals can be achieved only when there is a relatively high degree of consensus. Therefore, some minimum level of uniformity of opinion is a prerequisite for group action. However, as Lewin says it, "if we cannot judge whether an action has led forward or backward, if we have no criteria for evaluating the relation between effort and achievement, there is nothing to prevent us from coming to the wrong conclusions and encouraging the wrong habits. Realistic fact-finding and evaluation is a prerequisite for any group relationship."² A group's goal directed activity, if properly managed, can be resolved into a more effective goal attainment.

Therefore, practical minded administrators and group leaders necessarily have to set up criteria for evaluation as well as establishing goals to achieve group effectiveness.

¹George Gerbner, "The Individual in a Mass Culture," Saturday Review, XLIII (June 18, 1960), 11-13.

²Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," Readings in Social Psychology (Edited by Theodore M. Newcomb and Eugene Hartley) (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947) p. 334.

They have to take actions every day which they hope will give their groups better unity of purpose and make them more able to achieve their goals.

Feed-Back and Individual Change

Internal processes within the group help determine its ability to move toward the goal. We can think of this as a dimension of emotionality which characterizes the group in its problem-solving activities. Bradford supports the concept that the final target of education is change and that growth in the individual and his behavior through participating in the process of teaching-learning situations, and the concept of feedback has important meaning for the educational process.¹

We can think of two examples of the process in individual changes; one from learning situations and the other from the process of conference between supervisor and teacher. In the first instance, resistance to leaving the safe, but at the same time wanting the new, frequently causes the learner to prefer the kind of presentation of knowledge which can be copied and recalled but never internalized, rather than a deeper process of learning involved in a program of change. In the second instance, unless the conference is expertly conducted, teachers are likely to assume a defensive attitude, to be

¹Leland P. Bradford, "Models of Influence," The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied Behavioral Sciences (Edited by Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), pp 493-502.

somewhat nervous and sensitive, and invent excuses and reasons rather than to approach the analysis objectively and calmly with a view to assessment and improvement.

Because of this situation, not only supervisors and principals have to attempt to establish friendly relationships with a teacher, but they have to conduct conferences in a similarly friendly manner. As the teacher gradually receives helpful feedback, reactions enabling him to correct his perceptions of himself and ultimately some of his behavior patterns take place.

Leadership and Decision Making

Democratic leadership is seen as inter-personal or group function in which the teacher may participate as well as the consultant and administrator. Problems of leadership cannot be separated from problems of group functioning. To understand leadership, we must understand groups. Lippitt indicates clearly that differences in autocratic, laissez-faire, and democratic leadership result in different behavior patterns by the group members, and his study shows that democratic leadership takes longer to reach a decision, but implementation is much rapid than in the case of autocratic leadership.¹

This is because members of a group that participate in making the decision feel more responsible for carrying it out.

¹Gordon L. Lippitt, "What Do We Know About Leadership?" N.E.A. Journal, XLIV, No. 9 (December, 1955), pp 556-7.

It is sufficient to point out that where leadership engaged the participation of the group members in setting goals and planning work, as was done in the democratic group, the amount of cooperative endeavor and the enthusiasm of the group is much greater than with the autocratic or laissez-faire approach.

Leadership is a status function. The leader plays his status role as defined by his organization. If his followers do not accept this as his role, he has to try to get them to understand why the role was created the way it was. If his followers favor another role that is equally compatible with the welfare of the organization, he may accept this role. For instance, the teacher in a given school may expect the principal to submit matters of administrative decision to them, whereas his statutory role may call for him to make these decision on his own. He may concede to the teachers' concept of his role if he sees no harm to the school in so doing. If, however, because of public pressure or for any other reason, he comes to feel that he must make independent decisions, he must not hesitate to change the system; he must also explain to the teachers why he has felt compelled to make the change.

Leadership is viewed as a function of the working relationships among group members who are coordinating their efforts for the accomplishment of a common task. Leadership in group processes is not a function of position; it

evolves from the group, thus giving the responsibility for the selection of leadership to the group members. Every member of a democratic group is guaranteed the right to have a direct voice in group proposals, thinking, discussing, planning, deciding, acting, and evaluating.

In democratic group processes, the leader is of the group, is selected by the group, and is responsible to the group for his action. He remains in power by group support, he is only an element in the group processes--a guiding element. Leadership and intelligent followership reside in each individual and the success or failure of the group purpose is determined by how well each person performs these functions.

Since leadership is characterized in relationships among group members, effective leadership is realized in the effective use of democratic group processes at all levels; in staff-administrator, school-community, administrator-superior-authority, and staff-pupil relationships.

Public Relations

Public relations in the broadest sense is the art of making the public understand what an organization or movement is doing, why it is doing it, whom it serves and what it contributes to the welfare of the community as a whole. Therefore public support cannot be gained for an enterprise about which parents and other tax-payers know little.

Both private and public enterprise are subject to the pressures exerted by public criticism. Without criticism, education would become static, inflexible, and sterile. Unless the public is free to protest, teachers and administrators cannot be made aware that they have offended someone, or that they may be asking for more money than the schools can be spared. For this reason, the exercise of pressure through public criticism is clearly desirable within a democratic education.

Galbraith points out that all free societies employ criticism as an instrument of change, and that the society that does not criticize its shortcomings can not be improved toward the constructive direction which freedom loving people want.¹

Although constructive criticism is essential to the Welfare of education, too much criticism of the schools seems to be neither constructive nor just. Since criticism is employed as an instrument of change, it is a means to an end which is good education. In other words, good public relations is good teaching. Also, a good public-relations program will make the public know the facts about the schools and get people to think them over. Therefore, the replies of teachers and administrators to public criticism should always be factual and not emotional. Teachers and administrators should not overlook any relevant facts, including those that are to their discredit. Attitudes of teachers and administrators must

¹John Kenneth Galbraith, "Dissent in a Free Society," Atlantic Monthly, CCIX, No. 2 (February, 1962), 44-48.

always attempt to be scientific and dispassionate. It can be said that staff-relationships are very important in public relations, because, if school people cannot get their own house in order, they cannot present a satisfactory aspect to the people of the community.

Even though good public relations is good teaching, it is not enough to have good and effective public relations. There still remains the problem of telling about it and the imperative duty of helping people to understand the educational pattern and its importance. This can be accomplished in one or more of three ways: by reinforcing an existing and favorable public opinion, by directing a laissez-faire opinion toward an active one, and by changing an unfavorable opinion into one that supports the objectives of sound education.

According to Berelson, the effectiveness of communications as an influence upon public opinion varies with the nature of the people. The less informed people are on an issue, the more susceptible they are to opinion conversion through the influence of the communication media.¹ This means that the less informed are more mercurial in their opinions, and mass media can readily move them in different directions. The compulsion of stereotype is great, particularly for person with meager informational background.

¹Bernard Berelson, "Communication and Public Opinion," The Process and Effects of Mass Communication (Edited by Wilbur Schramm; Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1954), pp. 343-356.

Therefore, to attain good public relations, it is necessary that the formulation and maintenance of policies be designed to win and hold, through publicity and personal contact, the good will of people. For the most part, superior public relations jobs are done by teachers and administrators in local communities. To keep a community informed, a wide variety of public relations techniques must be used.

Conclusion

The writer has tried to treat some of the feed-back processes among status levels in the school system. If one makes systematic use of feed-back procedures, interrelation can be developed better. In the interrelationships among teachers and supervisors, consultation is most useful when the supervisor or administrator understands the basic principles of group work, when he is a thoughtful man of individual behavior, and when he is able to work skillfully with the process of feed-back.

If teachers feel that the working relationship of teachers and administrators is a close one, and that the lines of feed-back among them are open at all times, teachers will feel security. As a result, teachers will feel more secure in their jobs. Thus, where a competent feed-back procedure is taking place, satisfactory public relations will be achieved.

CHAPTER IV

SOME CAUSES OF CONFLICTING AREAS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

This chapter is based on findings of the causes of conflicting areas of educational administration in twenty one selected school districts in the United States investigated by the National Commission on Professional Rights and responsibilities. The purpose of this study is to find out the causes of conflicting areas of educational administration and to evaluate the certain aspects of administrative behavior. The study does not attempt to find out all the problems faced by the superintendents of the schools, nor does it attempt to decide all the practices they used in solving the problems. It attempts to decide the significant problems found in the investigated schools.

The reports made by the National Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities and used in this study are listed only in the bibliography.

The Description of Various Causes of Conflict

Santa Fe, New Mexico

All but 24 of the teachers returned the signed contracts. Salaries in Santa Fe were below the state average. Teachers

complained that the superintendent interfered with their efforts to work cooperatively with the school board. The principals told the NEA Special Committee that the teachers in the Santa Fe schools as a whole were satisfied with the current administration. Teachers, on the other hand, denied it.

In the considered opinion of the NEA Special Committee, the fear, mistrust, and low morale in the Santa Fe school system are not caused by just a few "trouble-makers," but are the result of a complicated interrelation of personalities, attitudes, and other factors.

Hickman Mills, Missouri

Important decisions on the side of the Board of Education were delayed because of deadlock resulting from factionalism. In the seven years from 1952 to 1959, three men resigned from the position of superintendent of the school district. To the Committee it appeared that the informal relationship was a major factor which led to the forced resignation of the Superintendent. Teachers in the school district were confused by the conflict between the Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools.

Indianapolis, Indiana

The Superintendent occasionally caused ill will among people with whom he was working on a project because of his

abruptness of manner or his impatience to get a project accomplished with all possible speed.

The NEA Special Committee found that the forced resignation of Dr. Herman L. Shibler, without any advance warning, was unethical, indefensible, and offensive to the fundamental principles of fairness.

Monroe, Michigan

The Board voted to uphold Superintendent Strong's recommendation to dismiss Miss Amen, a principal in the school system.

The points of controversy emphasized concerning the selection of text books, the school camping program, the new report card system, and the testing program.

The Board and its executive officer, the Superintendent, appeared to lack either the techniques or the inclination to work democratically with the professional staff or the citizens of the community.

Chickasha, Oklahoma

Members of Board of Education told the Committee that their decision to release Mrs. Jamison was based at least in part on a conflict in personality between Mrs. Jamison and her principal, and also between her and some of the other teachers in her school. Board members told the Committee that there were "other things" which led to their action; however, no one contributed a specific illustration.

Based on the information given to it by all parties involved, the OEA-NEA Investigating Committee concluded that the Chickasha Board of Education had allowed a personality conflict to be the basis of its decision not to re-employ Mrs. Jamison.

Hawthorne, New Jersey

The teachers' salaries have been a source of continuing controversy in the town of Hawthorne since the spring of 1947. The Special Committee found little disposition on the part of Board member to treat the problem of salary scheduling and planning of the school budget as a cooperative understanding involving many interested parties.

During its interview with the Board, the Special Committee learned that the Board had no well-defined policies relating to salaries or personnel matters in general.

Fullerton, California

The conflicting areas in this school system include the problems of sex education, anti-communist teaching emphasis, and an election to increase taxes.

Some teachers felt they had had little opportunity to contribute to the development of the Administrative Guide, Faculty Handbook, Personnel Policies (including teacher evaluation), or Curriculum.

Testimony established that communication between board and staff, particularly teachers and administrators in individual schools, was poor.

Bridgewater Township, New Jersey

Members of the Bridgewater Township Board of Education emphasized a dissatisfaction with the reports submitted to them by the Superintendent of Schools.

The administrative staff of the Bridgewater Township school system had not grown comparably with the size of the school system.

It was also evident that there was little cooperation between the Board and the Superintendent, and a lack of any provision for formulating policies that would provide for more accurate and effective communication between the Board and the teachers.

Levittown, New York

After studying the information obtained concerning Union Free School District No. 5, the Special Committee concluded that four factors had contributed significantly to the strife in Levittown: (a) Conflicting educational values of the residents of Levittown, (b) financial difficulties of the citizens, (c) disharmony within the Board and between the Board and school Personnel, and (d) uncertainty regarding the role of the State Education Department.

The survey team from Boston University said in the Social Profile of Levittown that the superintendent gave the impression in the community that he was not concerned over the cost of a good education system. His failure to identify

himself with the financial concerns of the community increased the opposition to his proposals.

Chicago, Illinois

The NEA Special Committee found evidence that the superintendent was under the control of the president of the Board. In Chicago the Board of Education is appointed by the mayor with the approval of the City Council.

The NEA Special Committee found that much of the destruction of teacher morale and the fear and discouragement that existed among many of the teachers at the investigation was directly caused by the school board president because of his domination of Board and administration, and because of his undemocratic and unwise interference with the orderly professional management of schools and teachers.

Pasadena, California

The outcome of the forced resignation of the superintendent was the result of the interaction of a number of groups, no one which was in itself decisive, but the total effect of which was fatal. These groups included the School Development Council, the Press, the Board of Education, the School Staff, and the administration itself.

The Board was not fully aware of the necessity of providing adequate defense against unwarranted organized attacks on public education.

Miami, Florida

Under the constitution of the State of Florida, county superintendents are elected by public vote.

All of Superintendent's recommendations to the Board of public instruction regarding the vocational educational program of the Dade County School System were, due to his lack of professional preparation, based on the information and recommendations made to him by the assistant superintendent.

The report revealed the shortcoming of popular vote for selecting superintendent.

Houston, Texas

An atmosphere of outside political pressures and fear of reprisals pervaded the Houston, Texas.

There was no adequate means for presenting grievance to the Board of Education. Teacher problems were not well understood by the Board. Teachers felt that they had no adequate remedy through any existing grievance machinery.

The dual control system had been the subject of controversy and discussion in Houston for many years, and had been frequently criticized and commented upon in the press as well as having been an issue in school board elections.

Grand Prairie, Texas

The political problems involved in the election of superintendent.

The action of the Board in failing to renew teachers' contracts without reasons, prior notice, or an opportunity to remedy alleged defects was in direct violation of sound professional practices.

The Board's refusal, without stated reasons, to accept the superintendent's recommendation that the teachers' contracts be renewed violated accepted principles of public school administration, lowered the prestige and standing of the superintendent as the professional head of the school system, and materially affected teacher morale.

Kelso, Washington

An announcement was made that 17 teachers and all five principals out of a faculty of 120 in the Kelso, Washington, school system would be dismissed without giving causes or due and proper notice.

The Superintendent did not care about the opinions of teachers. Lack of confidence in the new Superintendent was not confined to the classroom teachers.

The Board had no definite rules and regulations for the administration of the schools.

State Education Agency of Utah

The Committee found that the shortage of personnel was particularly acute in the areas of elementary and secondary education.

The Finance Commission's power directly affected the Department of Education at the time of the NEA study.

The Superintendent of public instruction for the State of Utah ceased to be elected by popular vote and became an appointive officer of the Board.

Twin Falls, Idaho

Board of Trustees failed to renew the contracts of two junior high school physical education instructors.

The Superintendent of schools made it clear that both men were good classroom teachers. The criticism from the superintendent centered only on their services as coaches on the athletic field and in the gym. The report revealed the dismissals of the teachers to be unfair.

Oglesby, Illinois

The resigning Board members, upon recommendation of the Superintendent of schools, had repeatedly voted against renewing the teacher's contract in opposition to the two remaining members. The problem of probationary teacher is acute in this case.

Mars Hill, North Carolina

The NEA Special Committee found that politics of the machine variety had been a definite force contributing to the dismissal of teachers in Madison County.

There was no State-Wide tenure law in North Carolina, nor any clear cut policies concerning fair dismissal procedures in Mars Hill.

The principal failed to exercise his legal right and obligation to make nominations based on professional qualifications.

Bethpage, New York

The report revealed inadequate human relation to be at fault in the Bethpage schools.

It was evident to the Investigating Committee, throughout the study of the Bethpage school crisis, that a major weakness existed in the practices and procedures of the Bethpage Board of Education and in its failure to recognize its proper function. This failure was due, at least in part, to practices that had developed in the Bethpage school system over a period of years.

Numerous misunderstandings and delays, added to obscure or nonexistent policy statements, were certainly responsible for some of the ill-advised, and at times irritating, activities of both citizens and teachers of Bethpage.

West Haven, Connecticut

The West Haven report showed several shortcomings in the West Haven schools in addition to inadequate financing. These weaknesses combined to produce an inferior educational Opportunity for the pupils attending the schools of the community.

The NEA Special Committee indicated that government organization in West Haven made it difficult to fix responsibility for appropriating adequate funds to maintain good schools.

The Evaluation of Problems

An evaluating yardstick in terms of objective numbers showing degree of importance has been derived from the findings of the causes of conflicting areas of educational administration in twenty-one selected school districts investigated by the National Commission of Professional Rights and Responsibilities. The following problem classifications have emerged in this order of frequency in the degree of importance.

<u>Rating by Frequency</u>	<u>Problem pertaining to:</u>
56	1. Personnel policy.
54	2. Leadership.
54	3. Staff organization.
52	4. Board-Administrator relationship.
52	5. Administrator-staff relationship.
52	6. Administrator-community relationship.
51	7. Written policy.
49	8. Board-Community relationship.
46	9. Communication.
45	10. Professional association.
41	11. Legal structure.
39	12. PTA association.

<u>Rating by Frequency</u>	<u>Problem pertaining to:</u>
37	13. General pressure.
36	14. Political interference.
33	15. Growing population.
29	16. Curriculum organization.
27	17. Budget.
27	18. Management.
21	19. Tax.
20	20. Teacher-Community relationship.
16	21. Salary.
15	22. Teacher-Student relationship.
14	23. Administrator-Student relationship.
8	24. Ethnical problem.

The above figures in the degree of importance were derived from Table 1. In many districts the problem was intensified by the necessity to secure school personnel because of the frequent changes in the position of the superintendent, the conflict between the superintendent and the board of education, and the unnecessary dismissals of teachers due to the lack of leadership and policy.

Most administrators neglected to exert much effort on personnel problems, community contacts, minor disciplinary problems and so forth. The ineffectiveness of many schools was due to a lack of understanding, cooperation, and of consequent unity or purpose among home, school, and community.

Some of the major difficulties faced by superintendents in working with boards of education were: insecurity of the superintendents position; increasing political pressures of boards; and appointment or dismissal of school personnel from their positions without sufficient consideration of the recommendations submitted by the superintendents.

Some Remarks For The Improvement of School Administration

The decentralization of the administration of education demands the organization of adequate local units of administration. Efficient local administration of education is dependent upon the organization of local school districts and their governments.

Education is a function of the state. The control of education is exercised at the state level by provisions of the state constitution, by the laws enacted by the legislature, by the policies adopted by the state board of education, and by the exercise of administrative responsibility by the state superintendent of schools. The state superintendent of schools should be appointed by the state board of education. State, County, and Local Board of Education should select their executive officers by choosing the one who in their judgement is best qualified without regard to his place of residence.

The county office is an intermediate unit of administration representing the state in maintaining standards, particularly in the small school districts, and in the development of an educational program.

TABLE 1

Case Studies: The Causes of Conflicting Areas of Educational Administration in Selected School Districts Investigated by National Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities.

CAUSES OF CONFLICTING AREAS	CASES																					Degree of Importance: 3--much 2--Some 1--Little 0--None	TOTAL
	1. Santa Fe, New Mexico	2. Hickman Mills, Missouri	3. Indianapolis, Indiana	4. Monroe, Michigan	5. Chicksha, Oklahoma	6. Hawthorne, New Jersey	7. Fullerton, California	8. Bridgewater Township, New Jersey	9. Levittown, New York	10. Chicago, Illinois	11. Pasadena, California	12. Miami, Florida	13. Houston, Texas	14. Grand Prairie, Texas	15. Kelso, Washington	16. State Education Agency of Utah	17. Twin Falls, Idaho	18. Oglesby, Illinois	19. Mars Hill, North Carolina	20. Bethpage, New York	21. West Haven, Connecticut		
1. Interpersonal Relations																						(133)	
Board-Administrator	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	0	3	3	3	52	
Administrator-Staff	3	3	1	3	3	3	0	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	2	3	3	3	2	52	
Administrator-Student	1	1	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	
Teacher-Student	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	
2. Public Relations																						(167)	
Board-Community	3	2	1	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	0	0	2	3	3	3	49	
Administrator-Community	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	2	2	2	2	52	
Teacher-Community	2	1	1	3	1	1	3	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1		20	
Communication	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	0	0	1	0	3	3	46	
3. Administrative Process																						(215)	
Staff Organization	3	3	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	54	
Written Policy	2	3	1	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	1	3	2	2	3	3	51	
Personnel Policy	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	56	
Leadership	3	3	1	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	1	3	2	3	3	3	54	
4. Finance																						(91)	
Budget	3	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	3	3	1	0	0	3	3	3	0	0	0	1	3	27	
Tax	1	1	0	0	0	3	3	0	3	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	21	
Salary	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	3	16	
Management	1	1	0	2	0	2	0	3	2	2	1	1	2	0	3	3	0	0	0	1	3	27	
5. Political Problems																						(153)	
Political Interference	3	1	0	2	0	3	2	0	1	3	3	3	3	3	0	3	0	1	3	0	2	36	
Legal Structure	2	1	3	1	0	3	1	0	1	3	0	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	3	2	3	41	
General Pressure	2	3	2	2	0	3	3	0	1	3	2	3	3	2	1	0	0	3	1	2	1	37	
P.T.A. Association	2	1	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	1	1	3	1	0	0	0	3	1	2	39	
6. Others																						(115)	
Growing Population	0	3	0	2	0	2	3	3	3	0	3	3	1	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	1	33	
Ethnic Problem	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	8	
Professional Association	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	0	3	1	3	1	3	3	1	0	3	1	3	2	3	45	
Curriculum Organization	1	0	0	3	0	3	3	0	1	0	3	3	0	0	3	0	3	0	2	2	2	29	

The Board of Education should operate as a Committee of the whole. Good practice requires that with respect to all major problems the board act as a Committee of the whole. The Board of Education should accept the responsibility for the determination of those policies which are involved in the development of local school programs. If the Board of Education is to determine educational policy, it must enjoy fiscal independence. The most important duty of the Board of Education is the selection of a competent superintendent of schools. Full responsibility should be placed in the office of superintendent of schools. The rules of the board of education should center responsibility in a single executive officer.

The superintendent of schools should be responsible for the coordination of all activities carried on by members of the professional staff. It is important for school board members to know where their duties begin and end, and for the superintendent to know where his duties and responsibilities lie. It is not the superintendent's function to run the school board. A school board member has little power except at board meetings. It is the duty of the executives--to carry out policies approved by school boards.

The effective administrator should be characterized by competency in six areas: (1) good interpersonal relations, (2) intelligent operation, (3) emotional stability, (4) ethical and moral strength, (5) adequacy in communication, and (6) a high standing citizen.

Recommendations

1. School administrators should urge the use of processes consistent with best democratic practices.
2. School administrators should consistently seek and consider the opinions of others.
3. School administrators should be steadily warm and personable in relationships with others.

Conclusion

The administration in the example schools, seemed to operate under a system of interpersonal relationships, which made the human relationships the crucial factor in the administrative process. In the preceding illustrations particular attention was focused on the superintendent-board relations, superintendent-staff relations, and on the relationship between school, the community, and the citizens' groups.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATIONAL SPECIFICATIONS FOR SCHOOL PLANT DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT

Introduction

This chapter is based upon selected articles and books on the school plant, a field trip to the Norman, Oklahoma Schools, and the writer's personal visits to the Moore, Oklahoma Schools, Vamoosa School near Konawa, and the Ada, Oklahoma School system.

This educational specification considers possible future changes and expansions as well as today's requirements. A school designed according to this specification would be a one story building of two wings, containing 12 classrooms, housing 300 pupils, and accommodating primary grades (grades 1-3) in one wing and intermediate grades (grades 4-6) in the other wing. Class Rooms would be made fully self-contained by providing necessary equipment and facilities. With self-contained classrooms, pupil circulation outside of the room would be minimized and children would spend most of their working hours in the classrooms.

The articles and the books used for this chapter are listed only in the bibliography.

Some Beliefs Underlying School Plant Designing

The better school buildings designed and constructed in recent years differ from those of earlier periods not only because of increased economic expenditures and developments in construction technology, but also because of many changes in educational concepts. These changes have had a profound effect upon the better examples of contemporary school buildings.

The changes result from: (a) an extension of the purposes of education. No longer is elementary education viewed as simply the mastery of the 3 R's. (b) A reexamination of the learner and the learning processes. Current learning theory emphasizes interests, motivation, experience, and activity. In the elementary school field, information regarding child growth and development has been used as a resource for building planning and design. (c) More rational approaches to the organization of educational experiences. (d) A reexamination of the administrative organization of educational services for increasing populations.

In general, new building designs result in a better allocation of space from the standpoint of maximum utilization for educational purposes. Teaching areas themselves are larger, more flexible, and have more freely flowing space. This is in contrast to the old "standard Classroom" of 660 square feet which was developed to accommodate 35 pupils in five rows of seven desks each.

In elementary schools the gradual decline of departmentalization in favor of the common learning approach has produced the "self-contained" classroom. Rooms themselves have been arranged in various shapes. Furniture in the modern classroom usually consists of movable desks and chairs; there is more convenient storage, less chalkboard, and more tackboard and display space; there is greater attention to the detail of appurtenances in classrooms such as sinks, reading and project areas, utility outlets, and accessories for instructional aid.

Since elementary children spend about one half of their working hours in school with approximately 75 percent of that time in the classroom during the school year, primary consideration is given to the internal function of a classroom, establishing it as a complete educational unit with its own outdoor teaching space.

The classroom should be planned and designed to protect the life and health of its occupants. Equipment, material, and space are determined on the basis of the use which is to be made of them in the program. The classroom must be planned to accommodate a great variety of activities. Such a program of activities cannot be carried on successfully in a static, fixed environment where the classroom arrangement may be changed several times in one day.

Implications of Child Growth and Development for School

Plant Design

Good school plant design results from an understanding of the problems and the needs of children. One significant fact about a six-year-old is that he is usually confused and perplexed when introduced to a new situation or environment. The transition from home to school is difficult for many children. It is made somewhat easier if the school is a homelike structure rather than an imposing edifice.

The normal child in the primary grades is full of activity but is easily fatigued. Self-activity is his special vehicle for attaining wholesome growth. He likes and needs to handle and investigate objects. A classroom designed for sitting only has no place here. Space must be available for a variety of activities. Provision for rest periods should be made also.

The average child in this age group is learning personal cleanliness and how to control his bodily functions. He needs assistance and guidance which can be provided best if the facilities needed are a part of the classroom. The location of toilet facilities in each primary room is desirable.

Normally, the period from age six to nine or ten is one of slow, steady growth and development. Therefore, classrooms should continue to provide space for learning by doing and should be made as attractive and comfortable as possible.

The personal and social problems of boys and girls in the preadolescent period, from age 10 to 12 or 13 (intermediate grades), are of paramount importance. Opportunities and facilities for individual counseling and for social learning should be provided.

Second, to meet the problems created by the wide range of individual differences in abilities, needs and interests, a flexible program embodying many types of activities is demanded. The conventional, departmentalized program is not appropriate to the needs of this age group.

A third special problem of the pre-adolescent is food. They want it and need it in great quantities. A well equipped, attractive lunch room is a must.

A fourth need is for physical facilities and programs which will help the boy or girl to overcome the awkwardness so characteristic of this period.

Educational Specifications for the General Features of the School Plant

The school plant should contain a central library, a gymnasium, room for indoor play, a dining room, an auditorium, administrative offices, a conference room, a teachers' room, a health room, a laundry, storage for janitorial supplies, a general storage room, and central toilets for auxiliary use. Outdoor facilities including adequate play areas, place where children can build, places for gardening, swings, and group game fields and equipment.

In such a school each teacher should remain with his or her group for most of the school day. At times the teacher will naturally accompany his pupils to the school library, dining room, auditorium, playground, or playroom.

1. Central Library

The library should be centrally located within the educational areas of the school and away from noisy sections, such as the play areas, the gymnasium, music room and cafeteria. It is important to place the library in a part of the school building where expansion is possible.

The maximum size of the Reading Area should not be less than 1500 square feet. This size permits a reading area of 25 square feet per pupil for 60 pupils. In addition to the reading area 500 square feet should preferably be allocated for work and storage areas. Rooms which are 32 feet in width lend themselves to an uncrowded appearance. (Standards for determining room capacities are based on Administration of the School Building Program by Wallace H. Strevell and Arvid J. Burke and American School and University; see the bibliography.)

Through flexibility of scheduling and the rearrangement of furniture, many different grouping can be arranged and the library facilities will be available to both scheduled and unscheduled groups during the day.

The Learning Materials

The minimum book collection for an elementary school library, having 12 classrooms and 300 pupils, should be 2,900 carefully selected volumes. These should be pertinent to the curriculum and correspond to the reading interest and abilities of pupils. For the school having more than 300 pupils, eight to ten books per pupil should be provided. The book collection should also contain a minimum of 400 pictures and pamphlets, 15 magazines, 200 recordings, 25 to 50 tapes and 400 film-strips.

Reading Room and Furniture

The reading room for this hypothetical school should have six tables: two rectangular, 26" in height, 30" in width and 5' in length; two round, 26" in height, 4' in diameter; and two trapezoidal, 26" in height, to be used in sections or as a whole unit. The chairs, equipped with noiseless gliders, should measure 16" in height. One low table, measuring 24" in height, 30" in width to hold book collections. The room should also provide 50 feet of shelving for picture books. The over-all height of the shelving should not exceed 5'6".

Display Area Recommendations

Wall display areas should be on the eye level of the primary and intermediate groups respectively, so that each group may view its own special exhibits.

Lighting and Ventilation

The lighting should allow 30 to 70 foot candles of light on working planes, free from glare. Ventilation in the library should be supplemented by outside air, and fenestration that provides 100 percent ventilation is recommended.

2. Gymnasium

Size

The capacity of the gymnasium should be established on the basis of 25 to 35 square feet per pupil enrolled with a minimum size of 35 x 50 feet, and a maximum of 60 x 90 feet. An alternative provision of sliding panel wall sections would permit the use of one large area by both sexes. The ceiling height recommended is 14 feet minimum for elementary grade use. There should be provision for spectators along the sides rather than at the ends, allowing space for approximately one-half the total enrollment. Fold-up or lifting tiers of bleachers seats are recommended, which should begin at or near the floor level.

Lighting

Natural lighting should be bilateral, with the window area at least 25 percent of total floor area. Windows should have a sill height at least 6 feet above the floor, glazed with wire glass or fitted with removable guards. Artificial

lighting should provide an illumination level of 20 foot-candles. Fixtures should be protected by suitable guards.

Finishes

Floors should provide a resilient surface without a slippery or splintering character. Hard maple laid over suitable noise-reducing material and hard pine sleepers or wood block on end over concrete, with expansion joints to prevent buckling, are recommended. Wall may be glazed brick, structural tile, wood, linoleum or cork tile.

Corrective Gymnasium

Since there are a number of pupils whose physical condition will not permit indulgence in usual gym activities, there should be a corrective gymnasium.

This room should be approximately 25 x 22 feet, with a 12 feet ceiling, in which pupils may engage in special exercises, using simple equipment like wall weights and horizontal bars.

Showers and Locker Requirements

For the first 200 pupils, for the grades above fourth, there should be three shower heads for each sex. For each additional 200 pupils for grades above fourth, there should be two additional shower heads for the girls and one additional shower head for the boys.

The boys' shower arrangement should preferably be a gang or group shower. The preferred arrangement for girls is individual dressing booths with two conveniently arranged to serve each shower booth. At least two individual shower booths and four individual dressing booths to serve them should be provided in the girls' shower room although group shower facilities for girls may be used.

Gymnasium lockers should be provided. When possible, lockers should be arranged around the walls of the locker room, leaving an open space for supervision and group discussions on hygiene. When lockers are in tiers face to face, a minimum space of 5 feet should be maintained between them.

Gymnasium showers and lockers should be located as conveniently as possible to the gymnasium, with access from the corridor to the locker rooms and the gymnasium. Locker rooms also need to be well lighted and ventilated.

3. Dining Room

The dining room consists of a main lunch room, the kitchen, and the food-storage facilities. The kitchen, while maintaining its central position adjoining the dining room, should be separated sufficiently so that cooking odors will not permeate the building. It should be so situated, moreover, that it is readily accessible for the receiving of supplies and the disposal of refuse.

In planning dining room space, 10 to 15 square feet should be allowed per person seated. The number of children to be seated depends upon the total meal load expected, divided by number of shifts or lunch periods. Tables should be placed so as to provide an 18-inch aisle or wider between the occupied chairs. Main aisles should be at least 3 feet wide.

The size of the kitchen depends upon the total meal load (which is unaffected by the number of shifts) and the type of lunch to be served. Its planning, therefore, is the combined work of the architect, the cafeteria director, and the equipment manufacturer.

The dining area should be accessible to corridors or covered walkways for the convenience of the pupils and teachers. Windows should be carried as near the finished ceiling as is structurally feasible but should also be low enough to provide satisfactory ventilation. Natural light sources should be designed so that strong, direct sunlight does not shine on the serving line where such foods as jellos and cakes are placed. All windows should be screened, and if storerooms have windows, they should be equipped with both bars and screens.

Flat floors, permit the use of stack tables and folding chairs making it possible for the floor to be cleared for other activities, such as physical education, dancing, and crafts. In this case, storage should be provided for the chairs and

and tables. The assembly room should be arranged so that the greatest number of seats possible will be near the stage.

4. Auditorium

From the point of view of safety, the auditorium should preferably be located on the ground floor with direct access to outdoors, and with sufficient exits to permit emptying the room in two minutes. Regulations of local and national codes should be complied with. Ramp-aisles are preferable to steps, which should be kept to a minimum, and the stage requires exits and a fire curtain.

The auditorium should be adjacent to the gymnasium and separated from it by a folding door so that the two rooms can be combined to accommodate the entire school for music and dramatic activities and etc.

In respect to natural ventilation and lighting, school auditoria differ from professional theaters in that natural lighting is often both allowable and desirable. For natural ventilation, bilateral exposure is preferable; unilateral fenestration should be avoided where possible. The auditorium should have an entrance from the building's main travel corridor for convenience and general avoidance of traffic congestion necessitates careful planning of corridors and doors. For community use, public entrances independent of school entrances are required for access to the auditorium,

the workshops, and all other areas in which public participation is expected.

Seating should be fixed and should be selected and arranged for safety, comfort, sight lines, and acoustics. A distance of 32 inches from back to back of chairs is the minimum for comfort and safety. Seat width may be from 19 inches to 24 inches where seats are to be used by adults. An arrangement whereby a seat in one row is not directly behind a seat in the next row, and a sloping floor will provide good sight lines.

5. Administrative Offices

The principal's office should be located, designed, furnished, and equipped to serve as the arterial center of the school and should have an overall atmosphere conducive to the important functions it performs in the school. It should not be stern, repelling, and forbidding; it should be easily accessible, pleasant, inviting, and efficient in every respect. The atmosphere of the principal's office should be such that the disturbed parent, the bewildered pupil, or the worried teacher may approach it without any hesitancy.

The administrative unit should include the office for the principal of the school and his secretary, a conference room, a health suite, and a teachers' room. The office and the conference room should be situated just inside the

public entrance to the building where those who enter will find it immediately. The consultation room too, should be near the entrance, for to it will come the parents for consultation on child-health problems, infants from outside the school, and mothers to call for those children who show signs of illness and are isolated from the others.

6. Teachers' Lounge

The location of the teachers' room is not particularly vital, except that it should be isolated from the playground and group rooms and yet be conveniently central.

7. A Laundry

A laundry should be provided in the building. Even though principal items, such as table linen and blankets, are sent out for laundering, there remains a host of smaller articles for which the convenience of laundry facilities in the building is important. The location in the building is not particularly vital except that it must have convenient access to an outdoor drying yard and should be tied in with other service facilities.

8. The Custodial Unit

The custodial unit consists of the heating plant, a receiving and storage room for building supplies, storage for outdoor tools, and a workshop for small repairs.

9. A General Storage Room

Two general principles are suggested for designing the supply and storage facilities in the individual building: (1) there should be a minimum of handling; and (2) there should be adequate precautions against pilfering, spoilage, and other losses. A suitable drive and loading dock ought to be provided. Lunchroom supplies are usually delivered directly to the kitchen; and other instances when delivery is important must be taken into consideration. Fuel oil delivery serves as possible example.

Once the supplies have been received and checked at the central storage and receiving room, they may be taken to smaller storage rooms throughout the building.

These various storage rooms should be equipped with counters, shelving, bins, etc., designed for the particular items to be stored in them, with proper attention to sizes as well as quantities.

10. Central Toilets

A minimum of two toilets and lavatories should be provided for teachers. Public toilet rooms should be provided in the vicinity of the auditorium or all purpose room or other areas which will be open to the general public. In many instances these facilities can be so located that they are convenient for use by the administrative staff.

These rooms should be as well lighted and ventilated as any other toilet rooms in the building. Fixtures and facilities also should be the same as in other toilet rooms.

11. Site Lay-Outs

The walks and driveways should be laid out in such a manner that they permit easy access to the building but do not lookout upon play areas. They should be so arranged that there will be a minimum of traffic competition between vehicular traffic and pedestraings coming to or leaving the building or the playground. The site should be so planned that attractive areas can be maintained, preferably near points of intensive use and those areas which constantly remain in public view.

Driveways and walks should enter or leave streets or road traffic lanes at easy angles that permit incoming vehicles to leave and outgoing vehicles to enter the street traffic lanes with a minimum of hazards. Such entrances should not be masked by walks or shrubbery.

The play areas should be so laid out that any desired segregation of pupils by age or by running and free-play game areas may be effected.

12. Playground Surfacing

Playground surfacing must be tempered to suit weather conditions. In dry weather it should not lead to excessive blowing of dust and grit. In warm weather it should not run

or provide free tar or asphalt that might be carried into the building. In winter it should not buckle. It should not be rough enough to cause excessive abrasions when children come into contact with it. It should not sand or release quantities of grit that may be carried into the rooms on the children's shoes.

Educational Specifications For The Class Rooms (Grades I-VI)

When the pupils are in their classrooms, they are engaged in a wide variety of activities--planning, discussing, sharing, using audio, visual, and audio-visual aids, reading, arranging exhibits, writing letters and reports, constructing a puppet play, singing, computing the costs of a project, tracing a trip on a map, finding information for solving a problem, working out a creative drama, or playing indoor games.

For some of these activities, all of the children of the room may work individually. Flexibility of equipment and plenty of space will be needed for these types of experiences. Movable book shelves, art centers, and tables will be desirable. Children need plenty of space and flexible furniture and arrangements so that they may carry out the varied activities of their learning experiences.

Both pupils and teachers need ample storage space and places for displaying visual aids and pupils' work. Twenty-five children should be considered a maximum class size, though emergencies may sometimes make it necessary for more

children to be accomodated. Primary (grades 1-3) and intermediate (grades 4-6) class-rooms differ in respect to such features as working heights, amount of space, kind of storage, out-door play area, and sanitary facilities.

1. Area and Shape

The primary classrooms should have a minimum usable floor space of approximately 1100 square feet, with a width of not less than 26 feet; while intermediate classrooms have a minimum usable floor space of approximately 900 square feet, with a width of not less than 26 feet.

2. Audio, Visual, and Audio-Visual Aids

Provisions should be made for the use of many kinds of audio, visual, and audio-visual aids as follows:

- (1) A minimum of 20 linear feet of green chalkboard should be located on two different walls. A portable chalkboard-tack-board may be substituted for a part of the board requirement.
- (2) A minimum of 20 linear feet of tackboard should be located on two different walls. A portable tack-chalk-board may be substituted for a part of the board requirement.
- (3) Battleship linoleum, which can be used as a large bulletin board and also as a large painting surface, may be substituted for a part of the tackboard space if design permits.
- (4) Shades for darkening or some other approved method of light should be provided.
- (5) hooks are necessary for attaching a roll-up type projection screen

and several roll-up type maps at positions to insure adequate view from all parts of the room should be installed. (6) A glass-faced display case which can be viewed from both the hall and the classroom, approximately 3 feet wide, 5 feet and 4" in length, will be needed for use with the primary children. Four chairs, 14" high, and a round listening table similar to one of those mentioned above, will be useful when listening to the record machine with ear-phones.

Informal periods in the library require enough free space in one corner or at one side of the room so that a story telling session can be quickly arranged. Nearby should be the library teacher's desk. This is particularly expedient if pupils take a major responsibility in checking materials in and out. Two small desks are usually preferable to one large charging desk. They may measure 5' in length, 24" or 30" in width, and 32" in sitting height.

Additional Library Equipment

To promote efficient library service, the telephone and other library equipment such as the card catalog, the atlas stand, vertical files and the book truck should be reasonably close to the charging desk. The card catalog may be purchased in sections of five drawers each. A 15-drawer cabinet, with large label holders and rods for each drawer, is recommended. Plan to allow five cards, 3" by 5", for each book and 1,000 cards per drawer.

Shelving For Learning Materials

To provide space for 2,900 books, approximately 320 running feet of shelving is required.

3. Color

Warm colors should be used, peach or pink on walls with the ceiling a light-reflecting shade of ivory or off-white. Soft coral red and blue may be used on furniture and equipment.

4. Drinking Fountain

A drinking fountain should be provided in the classroom. There should be at least two in the corridors of the building. Additional drinking fountains should be located in locker rooms, and the gymnasium.

5. Electrical Outlets

An electrical convenience outlet should be provided on each wall of the classroom. One of these should be near the sink and another at a convenient location for slide and movie projectors. One of these may well be over the work counter.

6. Exits and Corridors

There should be three doors, two leading into the hall and one leading directly outdoors. Such a school housing 300 pupils must have a main exit at least 120 inches

wide and a corridor at least 16 feet wide so that the building can be emptied in 2 minutes in emergency cases.

7. Floor Covering

Composition-type floor covering which reduces noise, facilitates the moving of furniture, and is comfortable and not too slippery under foot should be provided.

8. Furniture and Equipment

Tables and chairs in three different sizes should be provided for 25 children. For intermediate grades, individual desks should be provided. For primary grades, each table should seat 2 children. These should be rectangular tables with squared corners without pencil grooves, suitable for joining into larger units. All tables should have storage shelf or drawer underneath the top.

Eight movable chairs for the reading center, the teacher, or possible guests should be supplied. Movable bookcases which can be assembled in various ways for books, exhibits, and displays with shelves of varying depth and height to accommodate a minimum of 270 room-library books. These book-shelves should be on casters so that they may be easily moved and can be used as room dividers. There should be a movable desk on casters or gliders for the one or two tables with casters for a record player, recording machine, or projector should be provided. Three tables, about 3 feet by

6 feet should be provided. These would be used for library-research center, reading center, committee meetings, or display materials. Space is necessary for a good-sized globe. For intermediate grades, work shelves near sink at the rear of the room with storage space underneath should be furnished. A movable art table 5 feet by 3 feet with drawers, which may serve as trays, is required for the classroom programs. Also needed are work tables and easels for painting and stands for modeling.

9. Heating and Ventilating

The heating and ventilating system should be ample and able to provide for sudden changes in temperature and humidity. The amount of heat should be controlled by a thermostat in each classroom. Provision should be made for the circulation of fresh air by either natural or mechanical means.

A proper heating and ventilating system should provide for: (a) the supplying of heat to balance body heat losses, (b) the removal of excess heat; (c) the dilution and removal of unpleasant body odors and obnoxious and undesirable gases, fumes, and dust.

10. Lighting

The lighting should be adequate for reading and close handwork in all parts of the room but remain as indirect and

as free from glare as possible. Adequate electric lighting should be provided for dark and cloudy days and evenings.

11. Sound Control

The classroom should have sound absorbing materials on the walls and ceiling or some other approved method of acoustical treatment to protect the pupils and teacher from classroom and outside noises. Undesirable aural situations should be prevented by: (a) selecting sites free from disturbing noises; (b) spatially separating or zoning noise-producing and quiet areas of the building; and (c) eliminating noises at the sources by using quiet fans and motors and sound deadening materials.

12. Special Services

Provision should be made for an electrical wall clock in each room and an intercommunication system.

13. Storage Space

Primary classrooms should have individual room clothing closets, while the intermediate grades have corridor lockers. Individual cubicles, approximately 12 by 20 by 15 inches, for storage of materials by pupils, may be placed below tack-chalkboards, or windows. Storage space must be provided for miscellaneous materials used. For example, such things as dry cells, flower pots, glass jars, magnets, molding clay, posters, reproductions of art, and musical instruments

all need storage space. There need to be open shelves for sheets of paper 24 by 36 inches for art work. At least four large filing drawers of standard size should be built. Storage space for balls and other play equipment should be provided as should waterproof clay bins for clay art work. Window-ledge space should be wide enough for growing plants and science experiments requiring daylight. Space is also required for teacher's wraps.

14. Toilet Facilities

The basic requirements for toilet facilities are: (1) provision for natural light and ventilation; (2) ease of access from classroom and play yard; (3) ease of supervision. Individual classroom toilet rooms should be provided for primary grades. For intermediate grades, adjacent class-rooms should have two connecting toilets; one for girls and one for boys.

15. Washing Facilities

There should be a lavatory with hot and cold water near the toilet, and a sink in the work counter.

16. Equipment

Indoor Equipment

There should be available to the room a portable slide machine, a movie projector, a portable science cart, a chest of simple woodworking tools, a wood-working table

with a vise, chest with sewing equipment including a sewing machine, and a cart with cooking equipment.

Outdoor Equipment

Facilities should be provided for the storage of outdoor play equipment at night and during the months when it is not in use. The equipment for outdoor play includes the following:

1. Climbing Unit.
2. Sand Boxes.
3. Boxes in a variety of size from six inches square up.
4. Trestles, or sawhorses, in pairs, and a variety of sizes from one to four feet or so high and three or four feet long.
5. Climbing ladders, two feet or so wide and in a variety of lengths up to eight feet.
6. Planks of one and one-eighth inch stock, three or four feet long and a foot or so wide.
7. Walking planks, much like the other planks except that on one side blocks about seven inches long, and slanting away from the center, are attached in a "foot tract" pattern.
8. Work bench for outdoor activities.
9. Swings of two kinds--the ordinary type, suspended by two ropes for the older children, and the three-or four rope, self propelling, enclosed-seat type for younger children.

10. See-saws, particularly the safer "rocking-horse" type.
11. Slides which should be of the manufactured metal variety.
12. Wheel toys, such as wheelbarrows, tricycles, wagons, push trucks, and boards equipped with large castors--all in a variety of sizes.

Conclusion

This specification is planned to fit the educational program as well as to meet the needs of growing children. The architect, in planning working facilities for children, will do well to understand fully the variation child to child in the group with which he must deal. He must also obtain information regarding the median heights of the group with which he must work.

CHAPTER VI

CURRICULUM

Introduction

This chapter is chiefly concerned with the general principles of curriculum planning, the improvement of curriculum, and the unit plan and its practical application. In writing this chapter, the needs of children, the selection and organization of curriculum, cooperative action research, individualized instruction, the proper objectives for schools, and the unit plan for use in a public school system have all been considered.

Curriculum Planning

In planning the program of studies for the school, an administrator must take into consideration the following:

- (1) Restrictions and standards set up by state law and state boards of education; (2) the requirements of instructions of higher learning which pupils enrolled in the school expect to attend; (3) the relation of the program of studies to the aims and the functions of secondary education; (4) factors in the local community, such as resources prejudices, aspirations, and needs; and (5) physical limitations of the school plant and the qualifications of the local teaching staff.¹

¹J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon, The Administration of the Modern Secondary School (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953), p. 323 (Fourth Edition)

The above points are made with respect to the administration of the Secondary School Curriculum. The writer believes that these same points should apply to the administration of an Elementary School Curriculum. The selection and organization of the curriculum should be a cooperative process involving teachers, supervisors, administrators, students, and laymen. Child growth and development, the challenges, interests, needs, and problems of living, and interaction of the individual with his total environment are main considerations in curriculum planning. It is hard to make curriculum decisions without knowing a great deal about children. On the subject of knowing children Ragan says:

It is easy to underestimate how difficult it is for an adult to understand a child. Having once been a child, the adult usually assumes that he can recall accurately the language, concepts, and problems of childhood. This is not a valid assumption. Even if the adult could remember the experiences of his own childhood accurately, they would not throw much light on the problems of children growing up in the vastly different environment of today.¹

In order to avoid arbitrariness, bias, and ignorance, curriculum planners have to know the basic needs of children. Ragan describes them under the following headings:

1. Biological needs.
2. The need to achieve status in changing social groups.

¹William B. Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum (Revised Edition; New York: Holt, Rinehart, Wilson, Inc., 1962), p. 37.

3. The need to grow gradually from dependence to independence.
4. The need for security and satisfaction.
5. The need for getting and giving affection.
6. The need to learn to face reality.¹

Although a curriculum should be organized to meet the needs of a group of children and based on a certain criteria, in practice it is very hard to meet the needs of individual children. Individualized educational programs are proposed by Wiles as follows:

1. Providing for individual achievement within classes. A. The teacher attempts to discover as much as he can about each student. B. The teacher puts an emphasis on student self-evaluation. C. The teacher stresses creativity rather than conformity. D. The teacher provides for individual work. E. The teacher encourages some students to progress through the content at a more rapid rate.
2. Providing for individual achievement through course selection at the secondary level.²

Wiles emphasizes individual creativity and pupil self-realization. To become an adjusted member of a society, a man must have some qualities in common with others as well as having an individual uniqueness. From this viewpoint, a school should provide both a general education and individualized education for each student. The means by which the curriculum content is

¹. Ibid., pp. 43-47

². Kimball Wiles, "Adjustment Through Curricular Offerings," Educational Leadership, XVI, No. 2 (November, 1958) pp. 81-85.

selected is of vital importance. Commonly employed procedures are (1) selection and organization based upon what is familiar to the individual teacher or group of teachers. (2) Selection and organization based upon what teachers, individually or collectively believe is sound and good for students. The content of a course or of a curriculum based on this approach is determined in large part, if not entirely, by the selected textbooks.

Samford and his coauthors describe the basic principles related to the curriculum under the following headings:

1. The curriculum of the secondary school should continue that of the elementary school in a natural and logical manner.
2. The curriculum should provide opportunity for maximum individual self-realization.
3. The curriculum should be planned to meet the needs of the students enrolled in the particular school.
4. The curriculum should be planned in a manner that makes it possible to take maximum advantage of extra-school agencies of learning.
5. Subject matter should be organized around, and presented in, terms of meaningful experiences.
6. A good curriculum is not found in a school that does not have good teachers and good methods of teaching.
7. The excellence of the curriculum is closely related to the adequacy of the environment in which it exists.
8. The good curriculum is implemented partially through the use of resource places and people found in the community.¹

¹Clarence D. Samford and Others, Secondary Education (Dubuque, Iowa: WM. C. Brown Company Inc., 1963), pp. 66-68.

It is important to maintain a balance in the school program. If a few of the above are emphasized and the rest of them are ignored, the program will not result in an adequate education. All of these basic principles should be equally considered. A good school program moves with the times. It is not static or lagging behind the conditions and needs of the society in which it exists. Curriculum planners must be very sensitive to the changing conditions and needs of the society. Following are some of the changing conditions in modern life which bring with them many new problems:

1. Developments in science and technology.
2. Developments in transportation.
3. Developments in communication.
4. Increasing amount of leisure time.
5. Increasing population.
6. New concepts and practices in economic activities.
7. Changing beliefs in the concepts of values.
8. Changes in the school program.
9. Changes in the methods of teaching.
10. Changes in international relations.

Curriculum planning and revision must be based on the determined objectives of the school. This statement of objectives has often been employed by both elementary and secondary schools in the United States: "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education." The objectives are as follows:

1. Health.
2. Command of fundamental processes.
3. Worthy home membership.
4. Vocation.
5. Citizenship.
6. Worthy use of leisure time.
7. Ethical character.¹

In 1938 the Educational Policies Commission presented the objectives of education. They are as follows:

1. Self-realization.
2. Human relationship.
3. Economic efficiency.
4. Civic Responsibility.²

As far as the individual school is responsible for the development of curriculum to fit the needs of the individual school, the objectives of education should be determined in terms of the needs of the particular school situation. The program must be provided for student growth in mental health, common learning experiences and individualized achievement. Everything should be made easy for absorption by the students. The program must also provide a broad, balanced education fitted to the child's needs and abilities. The subject matter

¹Commission of the Reorganization of Secondary Education, Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, Bulletin No. 35, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., 1918, pp. 11-16.

²Educational Policies Commission, The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, National Education Association, Washington, D. C. 1938. pp. 39-50

of the curriculum should have a clear relationship to the pupil's present and future life and purposes. And provisions must be made for teaching through firsthand student experiences. Careful provision and application of library and audio-visual materials, and the utilization of the community resources are necessary to meet individual differences for total life adjustment education.

The Improvement of Curriculum

To accomplish the high quality of life adjustment education, team teaching is currently practiced by many high schools in the United States. Most team teaching projects indicate that team teaching is a good approach when teachers, class-room space, and time are limited. The school library plays a key role in a program of this type. The librarian plays a key role in securing resource materials for the students, and helps them in research techniques.

Ragan has the following to say about curriculum improvement.

Curriculum improvement is a cooperative process, and its success depends upon the development of an organization that enables each member of the staff to operate at his highest level of competence and creativity, not only in relationship with pupils but in working with other staff members to improve the whole school program.¹

¹Ragan, op. cit., p. 161.

It is on the level of the individual school and in the individual classrooms that curriculum improvement is translated into better teaching and better learning. Cooperation is the key concept in the improvement of curriculum. Curriculum improvement through action research by Miami Senior High School is a good example of this. (See Chapter 2). Corey lists the following five elements in action research:

1. The identification of a problem area about which an individual or a group is sufficiently concerned to want to take some action.
2. The rejection of a specific problem and the formulation of a hypothesis or prediction that implies a goal and a procedure for reaching it. This specific goal must be viewed in relation to the total situation.
3. The careful recording of action taken and the accumulation of evidence to determine the degree to which the goal has been achieved.
4. The inference from this evidence of generalizations regarding the relation between the actions and the desired goal.
5. The continuous retesting these generalizations in action situations.¹

Successful action research depends on the climate in which it exists. An administrator must create and develop a favorable climate and also must help his staff to develop skills in research and experimentation.

Core Curriculum

The core curriculum is presently recognized as a plan which adequately meets the needs of young children as well as

¹Stephen M. Corey, Action Research to Improve School Practices (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953), pp. 40-41.

adolescents, and from the evidence of cumulative practice the core curriculum is generally accepted by junior high schools and the elementary schools in the United States. The core curriculum is the center of a program in general education to the degree that it provides life adjustment education and it treats man as a value serving, value making, a value choosing, and value pursuing creature.

Characteristics of the Core Program

The core curriculum exists today in many forms, the core in all cases being one aspect of the total learning activities which is required of all students at any one level in vertical organization. This assures a broad education for all youth. English and some form of social studies are usually the subjects that are developed into one unified core program covering a broader area and occupying a major amount of time in the daily time schedule. Health, physical education, and mathematics, etc., are also required.

Alberty's classification of the six types of core organization is herein presented in the order from which they deviate from the compartmentalized subject organization:

1. The core consists of a number of logically organized subjects or fields of knowledge each of which is taught independently.
2. The core consists of a number of logically organized subjects or fields of knowledge, some or all of which are correlated.
3. The core consists of broad problems, units of work, or unifying themes which are chosen because they afford the means of teaching effectively the

basic content of certain subjects or fields of knowledge.

4. The core consists of a number of subjects or fields of knowledge which are unified or fused.

5. The core consists of broad, preplanned problem areas, from which area selected learning experiences in terms of the psychological and societal needs, problems, and interests of students.

6. The core consists of broad units of work, or activities, planned by the teacher and the students in terms of needs as perceived by the group.

No basic curriculum structure is set up.¹

The Resource Unit

The resource unit lists major learning experiences and suggested activities in the order in which they may develop in the classroom. The plan of development is intended to be an illustration of one of the many ways in which a unit may evolve in the classroom, rather than a plan to be rigidly followed. The resource units are based upon the supposed needs of youngsters and planned to become problem centered. Desired behavioral results are formulated as a foundation for the objectives or goals to be achieved by pupils involved in the program. These behavioral goals take into account the basic subject matter skills, the basic understandings and appreciations, and the hopes for growth patterns of the pupils in the school. The following is an illustration of the unit plan for practical use:

¹Harold Albery, "Designing Programs to Meet the Common Needs of Youth," Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth, 52nd Year-Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1, (ed) Nelson B. Henry (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953), pp. 119-120.

Unit: "How People Live in Korea" (for the seventh grade)

Sub-Units:

- A. Geographical and historical conditions.
- B. Cultural and economic conditions.
- C. National and international problems of Korea.

Teacher Objectives:

- A. To help the students to understand the historical significance and the geographical location and importance of the country.
- B. To help the students to understand how Korean people differ from and are similar to peoples in other parts of the world.
- C. To further the students' knowledge of agriculture and of the economic heritage of Korea.
- D. To help the students understand how the problems and activities of Korean people affect the people in other countries.
- E. To aid the pupils in improving their Korean and social studies skills and knowledge. Korean language skills should be emphasized in this unit.

The Development of language skills:

- A. The effective ways of study.
 - 1. The using of the library.
 - 2. The utilization and organization of materials.
- B. Spelling
 - 1. Working from unit materials.

2. Working from written work

3. Working from basic lists.

C. Vocabulary study

1. Keeping a place in the notebooks for writing new words and their meaning.

2. Finding out meanings of new words and use them in sentences.

3. Choosing words from the lessons.

D. Sentences

1. Construction of simple sentences.

2. Emphasizing grammar.

E. Composition.

1. Writing in complete sentences.

2. Writing clearly.

3. Writing correctly and adequately.

F. Speaking.

1. Oral reports.

2. Discussion from notes.

3. Interviews.

4. Pronunciation.

G. Reading.

1. Comprehension.

2. Enjoyment.

3. Skimming.

Launching the Unit

- A. A discussion of current Korean problems based on newspaper articles, magazine articles and radio or T. V. reports, might be used for drawing questions from the group which might become the basis for study and research.
- B. The reading materials in the library should be utilized to their fullest extent in introducing the study of Korea and its social, geographical, and political history to the students.
- C. Drawing the map of Korea should be an exercise to familiarize the students with their country.

Exploration for Sub-Units

Geographical and historical conditions.

1. Purposes

- A. To develop the students' abilities to read maps accurately through the identification of cities, regions, etc.
- B. To show the relationship of the importance of main cities with their geographic location.
- C. To enable the students to understand Korean history.
- D. To enable the students to see the relationship of the geography of Korea to her national history.

- E. To inform the students of development of Korea since World War II.
- F. To interest pupils in considering the methods and results of the American Foreign aid to Korea.
- G. To trace the causes of the outbreak and development of the war in Korea.
- H. To trace the historical roots of the 38th parallel.

2. Activities

- A. Having students fill in an outline map, labeling rivers, main cities, mountains, and main agriculture crops.
- B. Preparing written and oral reports on the main products of Korea.
- C. Using the projectors to show the geographical and historical conditions of Korea.
- D. Doing research in library on population, climatic conditions, rivers, and history of Korea.
- E. Drawing a map of Korea which shows the transportation routes and their relationship to the main cities and centers of agriculture in Korea.
- F. Writing the directions for getting from Korea to other countries, by land, water, and air routes.
- G. Doing outside reading to further understanding of the geographical and historical aspects of Korea.

- H. Having a discussion to clarify and review information gathered from current sources.
- I. Compiling spelling lists from reading and writing materials in the Unit.
- J. Reading the basic texts for further geographic background of Korea.

Cultural and economic conditions.

1. Purposes

- A. To help students to understand the cultural heritage of the Korean people.
- B. To develop an understanding of how cultural conditions affect social organization.
- C. To develop an understanding of how economic conditions affect or change the political structure and the social organization of Korea.
- D. To help students understand and interpret reading materials.

2. Activities

- A. Discussing "What economic conditions in Korea led to the present conflict?"
- B. Discussing "What are the social conditions responsible for Korean backwardness?"
- C. Developing a current topic on the bulletin board. Displaying current newspaper and magazines on Korean problems.

- D. Making a scrapbook of drawings and photographs which show present social conditions and the economic status of the Korean people.
- E. Discussing the effects of Japanese control on Korean historical, political, social, and economic conditions.
- F. Describing the social customs of the Korean people.
- G. Giving an oral report on agriculture, fishing, and the other industries which comprise the major occupations of the Korean people.
- H. Adding words to unit spelling lists.
- I. Reading from outside references for further information.

National and international problems of Korea

1. Purposes

- A. To help the students to understand the positions of the people of Korea with respect to their various problems.
- B. To help the students to appreciate the relationship of Korea with the United Nations.
- C. To understand the problems of an over-populated country (Cheap labor, few industries, undeveloped resources, and underproduction in agriculture.)

2. Activities

- A. Reading newspapers for understanding news of

Korea and how events of Korea affect all the other countries of the world.

- B. Giving news reports--oral and written
- C. Discussing in class the recent events that took place in Korea.
- D. Exploring and discussing the action of the United Nations and the United States in resisting communist aggression in the Korean conflict at the cost of a "Police Action."
- E. Reading texts concerning international problems.
- F. Showing on a map the principal mineral resources of Korea and the proximity of major industrial cities.
- G. Showing on a map the main industrial regions and their manufactured products.

Evaluation

1. Pupils:

- A. Written tests covering all the phases of the study.
- B. Evaluating the oral work and written work of the pupils.
- C. Reports and letters written; discussions made.
- D. A written summary by each pupil of what he learned in this unit.
- E. Objective tests.

2. Teachers:

Samford and Cottle say that one of the most effective means of evaluating the unit teaching is to arrange a series of questions to which all answers should be "yes." The following list is proposed by Samford and Cottle:

- A. Did the class accomplish the objectives set forth at the beginning of the unit?
- B. Did the group as a whole and individually improve in appreciation of things more worth while?
- C. Was there an enthusiastic response to proposals for sheer work activity?
- D. Could one detect commendable growth in desirable traits of character?
- E. Did pupils learn increased respect for others, especailly in committee procedures?
- F. Were pupils willing to accept new ideas, showing a tendency to become free from prejudice?
- G. Did the "we" and "our" spirit increase throughout the study of the unit?
- H. Were the pupils interested in improving the quality of their written work and oral expression?
- I. Was there a tendency to read widely in order to gain supplementary information?
- J. Did the ability to organize material and reach sound conclusions improve?
- K. Were pupils increasingly aware of cause-effect relationships?
- L. Was there noticeable improvement related to such basic skills as using atlases, dictionaries, indexes, reading maps, etc.?
- M. Were audio and visual aids used in the most advantageous proportions?
- N. Was the content of the unit properly related to the past experiences of the pupils?
- O. Was unit planning on the basis of teacher-pupil cooperation?
- P. Were individual differences taken into account?
- Q. Was supervised study successfully employed?
- R. Did pupil guidance occupy an important place throughout the developmental period?
- S. Was language usage given proper attention, including efforts to gain grammatical perfection?

- T. Did the work on the unit correlate with other activities and studies in the school program?
- U. Did the teacher strive to use new and experimental means of presenting the particular unit?¹

The real worth of evaluation of unit teaching is found in improvement of a particular program or unit in relation to its accepted objectives. Concerning the evaluation of the school program, Ragan states as follows: "An appraisal of the school program is of no value unless the findings are used as a basis for improvement; parents, teachers, and pupils should be given accurate information in regard to the strong and weak elements of the program so that they can help improve it."²

Conclusion

Curricula are planned for groups rather than for individuals. Through cooperative planning, the teacher can help children develop a sense of purpose and of direction. Developing the curriculum in terms of cooperation, the teacher becomes more able to plan a curriculum for each child because he knows them better as individuals. The key to effective planning probably lies in a better understanding of what individual differences mean. Effective core programs have a planned content of problem areas. Instructional units are developed in these areas so that they may help students as a group derive knowledge from various practices in solving problems of common citizenship.

¹Clarence D. Sanford & Eugen Cottle, Social Studies in the Secondary School (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1952), pp. 242-243.

²Ragan, op. cit., p. 428.

CHAPTER VII

PERSONNEL POLICY

This chapter discusses some implications of personnel policy and illustrates suggestions for the development of personnel policy.

Some Considerations of Personnel Policy

As was found in the case studies in the chapter IV, the crucial factor in administration is the problem of personnel. The basic functions of the administrator are to integrate the efforts of the personnel and to utilize appropriately and effectively the development of human qualities. This effective utilization of personnel is the major problem for the administrator. Under effective administration, the cooperative process is used in obtaining the contributions of personnel to the attainment of organizational goals. The problems of human relations rather than technical processes are emphasized by a skillful administrator. The interpersonal relationship is the key concept of successful administration. Staff participation in policy development reflects this concept.

The concept of good administration implies the administrator's possession of a broad general and professional

competence as well as with highly developed skills in the areas of human relations and administrative process. The administrator needs acquaintance with the literature of freedom and democracy as it finds expression in philosophy.

The Work of the Administrator

The work of the administrator cannot go forward productively without guidelines. The guidelines are supplied by the administrator's value system. Allport gives a good example of this in the case of president Lowell as follows:

President Lowell of Harvard was once asked how it was possible for an overworked administrator to make so many detailed decisions day by day. He replied that it was not so difficult as it might seem, for each specific issue fits readily into one of a few dominant categories (schemata) of value. If the administrator is clear in his own mind concerning his value orientations, if he knows his major aims, decisions on specific issues automatically follow.¹

In a sharply divided world, people tend to think first of this conflict between democracy and communism. Often, as a result of such oversimplification, a negative concept of values results. People are content to be anti-communist. People either do not say much about what they are for, or merely say that they are for freedom. But, to avoid perplexities, the question of what does it mean to be for freedom must be answered.

It is obvious that freedom is for peace and peace is for security. It is a life-long process to attain security because there is no such thing as a completely secure person.

¹Gordon W. Allport, Becoming: Basic Considerations for a Psychology of Personality, (12th Printing) (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1964), p. 76.

People may be secure in some ways and insecure in others. To some extent all people have weaknesses, fears, and insecurities. The task of winning a greater sense of security is a process and not a product. The attainment of security involves self-study because it is concerned with the internal problems as well as external problems of self. Hence the administrator must constantly study himself. A prerequisite for knowing others is knowing oneself.

Wild says, "Freedom is not a sufficient condition, but it is a necessary condition for the conclusive testing and final discovery of truth."¹ Freedom is achieved, perhaps earned, by the self through intellectual exercises and activities. Freedom is earned and not given and may also be expressed as capacity. Consequently it demands a vital capacity in the individual.

Dewey postulates the limitless achievements of man in science as follows:

Instead of a closed universe, science now presents us with one infinite in space and time, having no limits here or there, at this end, so to speak, or at that, and as infinitely complex in internal structure as it is infinite in extent.²

¹John Wild, "Education and Human Society: A Realistic View," Modern Philosophies and Education, The Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, edited by Nelson B. Henry (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 45.

²John Dewey, Reconstruction in Philosophy (5th Printing) (Boston: The Beacon Press, 1962), pp. 60-61.

The world of modern science is an open world and not a closed one. Man is drawing out his capacity beyond evidence of external bounds. The drawing out of one's capacity is an intellectual action. This action is, of course, purposive. And the source of action is man. But, the actions result in varying approaches in different fields. For example, empirical philosophy is subjective while empirical science is objective. The objective sciences such as mathematics and physics are unified and cumulative. But, in subjects like philosophy and psychology are not cumulative but rather a collection of facts and opinions which depend upon the particular theories, propositions, and facts we select to consider as insight. Dewey was concerned with action. He wanted to know the relation between propositions and the relevant practices. The conceptions were selected in order to bring about practical results. The practical results were used in order to derive reliable knowledge. Dewey sought an instrumental method for testing the meaning of an idea. He thought of ideas as the instruments of action. Dewey's emphasis was practical rather than theoretical. The pragmatists are concerned with practice, method, and process.

Construction, reconstruction; organization, reorganization; planning, replanning; evaluation, reevaluation; and all the experiences we have in our daily life are concerned with action. We live in a series of actions which are the

realizations of our potentialities at any given time and means that we are involved in a process of constant change. An important element of the modern period is this concept of the inevitability of change. The preparation for modern life is development of the capacity to meet this change. The confident administrator is action-oriented. To the action-oriented administrator, the problem is always new because the problem is never static. His mind is always clear and active in pursuing the problem. The problem is not something separate from people and is the relation-ship that we establish or seek to establish between each other.

Democracy and Freedom

Democracy as a widely recognized way of life and form of government is defined in the terms of processes rather than products. The proper utilization of democratic methods requires a high degree of personal intelligence, initiative, and adaptability on the part of the school administrator. These are important concepts in the operation of a school within a democratic framework. American educators now consider that uncontrolled freedom is chaotic and they advocate the setting of bounds. For example, Weber and Weber describe the significance of self-control as following:

American democracy means self-imposed control for the individual within a framework of constitution and law; it means commitment to orderly change; it means control which ensure political equality; it means economic security;

it means cooperative organization for particular ends; it means guarantee of the right to inquire; it means encouragement of the development of each person's peculiar abilities and idiosyncrasies.¹

Democracy is a process directed toward the self-realization and the self-direction of each individual and demands this type of self-control. The control must exist where people are trying to solve problems together. The rules and regulations should ideally be established by group processes in a cooperative spirit and by a consensus of the group members or their representatives. The recognition of individual differences and an evaluation of these differences is important in a democracy. Respect for integrity of personality, the ideal of mutually creative relations between individuals and groups, and the peaceful resolution of conflicts and differences are important. Freedom is achieved by the attitudes and the behavior of the individual. Political freedom is achieved by inspiration. Economic freedom is achieved by high production. Academic freedom is achieved by enlarging our concepts of freedom. These concepts of freedom are growing as we increase the scope of those of our experiences which we had not earlier sensed. Democracy wins when it develops and utilizes its personal and material resources with the greatest effectiveness. A basic concept of democracy is that the intellectual resources of the educated many are far more valuable than the powers of a few gifted.

¹C. A. Weber and Mary E. Weber, Fundamentals of Educational Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955), p. 10.

Education is for all the people in the nation. Schools carry large responsibilities in democracy, but this does not mean that schools alone are responsible for democracy.

Ends and means cannot be separated in democracy because ends and means are the parts of a whole. In order to achieve democratic ends, we must use democratic means. Democracy as a way of life makes the individual the center of things because it is based on the freedom of the individual. The individual must be treated as an end not as a means, and he is not only free to develop his abilities to the maximum, but is helped and encouraged to do so. Contrary to democracy, autocracy makes the state the center. Democracy is both individual and social and if democracy is to survive as a way of life, it must work in all areas of life. The democratic way of life presupposes the assumption by the individual of the responsibilities as well as of the rights and privileges of free man. The value of democracy is relative and not absolute. Democracy is a growing process rather than a static structure or unchangeable system.

According to Lewin, Lippitt's comparison of autocratic and democratic groups gave the following quantitative results:

1. Hostility expressed among the members of the group is about thirty times as high in the autocratic group as in the democratic group.
2. The autocratic group shows a less stable group structure.
3. The autocratic group shows more dominating behavior and less objective behavior.

4. The democratic group showed 47 percent more feeling of "We'ness" as expressed in language and in test situations.
5. The democratic group showed more cooperative endeavor.
6. There was more expression of an objective, matter-of-fact attitude in the democratic group, as against more personal feeling in the autocratic one.¹

As was shown in the comparison, democratic atmospheres are characterized as (1) more secure and balanced, (2) more cooperative, and (3) more objective.

The Image of Educated Man

Since the educational administration is to facilitate learning for free individuals in a free society, the administrator must have a clear conception of what it means to be an educated man because each individual is different in what sort of life he regards as worth living. People are different in what sort of persons they want to become. Each individual has his own value system which is somewhat different from all others.

Being educated provides a more adequate way of responding to the world. This means we can become educated although not formally studying and no one can become educated by classroom activities and formal study alone. An educated man is not satisfied with the world as it is, and has a cultivated curiosity that leads him beyond the bounds of his

¹Kurt Lewin, "Experiments on Autocratic and Democratic Atmospheres," Social Frontier, Vol. IV (July, 1938), pp. 316-319.

own place and circumstance. His life is made meaningful through the never-ending process of the cultivation of his total intellectual resources which gives him a greater understanding of himself and of others. Provincialism and parochialism have no place in his world, for they suppress thought and inhibit creativity. An educated man is more aware of his own prejudices and knows his own limitations more fully. The true marks of an educated man are greater independence, authenticity, and lack of prejudice.

An educated person has a greater degree of independence and is free to be more active and creative because of it. He can reason independently and does not feel compelled to think with majority. Through his independence a man may profit greatly from his increased self-understanding and from a heightened awareness of his own strengths and weaknesses. He can be more conscious, perhaps even more courageous, and self-respecting and, as a result, more respectful of others. A healthy ego is an integral feature of the independent man. Williams describes the importance of ego as follows:

The most important part of a person is his personality, character, or ego. The most important perception of a person is the view he holds of himself. To build a mature, wholesome view of oneself takes the greatest portion of a lifetime.¹

¹Lloyd Williams, "Some Reflections on the Pathology of Dehumanization," (Unpublished article) p. 13.

An ego is the basis of personal achievement. The goal of education is the cultivation of ego; to cultivate the individual into a state of self-adjustment. An ego is a fundamental resource of human progress and is defined in terms of the individual and his society. No one can truly understand others unless he can understand himself. No one can truly love others unless he can maintain a integrated attitude toward himself. An ego-in-fellowship is as important as an ego-in-individual. The ego of an independent man is well balanced and well matured. As Allport states, "Egocentricity is not the mark of a mature personality."¹

Guilford describes one of the characteristics of the independent man as follows:

The creative person is especially confident about his own judgement and his own evaluations of his work. He is often described as an independent thinker, which includes having an independent set of values. If he thinks his product is good, he discounts the criticism of others and may disparage their judgments.²

The dependent man fears what others are doing and how others view him. The more fear he has, the more of a conformist he becomes. An independent man is a self-actualizing person.

¹Gordon W. Allport, Personality: A Psychological Interpretation (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937), p. 213.

²J. P. Guilford, "Factors that Aid and Hinder Creativity," Teachers College Record, Vol. 63, No. 5. (February, 1962), 380-392.

The self-actualizing person sees himself in a realistic context as one who is liked, wanted, acceptable, able; as a person of dignity, integrity, worth, and importance. Man needs to be recognized and known by his achievements and accorded a certain degree of approbation from those he respects. An independent man is humble before the validity of truth and strives toward wisdom. He subordinates himself to the valid demands of the whole and does not fear for himself because of differences of opinion or put great emphasis on how others view him because he maintains an independent spirit and well-conceived set of values. He knows that his own efforts are a part of the great sum of the human endeavor, the promotion of which is one of his highest satisfactions.

An authentic way of life is demanded by modern man and he is often a seeking and uncertain being. There are many forms of the underlying uncertainty of our being such as guilt, anxiety, uneasiness, loneliness, frustration, and nostalgia. Man cannot avoid nostalgia unless he has his own home, which is herein construed to mean his own values. Perhaps the key word of today is anxiety. Williams says, "Serious is the fact that large numbers of people who suffer from anxiety are unaware of it."¹ Jersild discusses the nature and some of the conditions of anxiety in teachers. His discussion is based

¹Williams, op. cit., p. 9.

on a study of more than a thousand teachers and students in education. He says as follows:

Anxiety occurs both as a response to a threat and as a way of alerting a person to evade or be on guard against anything that might threaten an irrational attitude or style of life he has adopted in trying to cope with the problems of his life.¹

He continues and clarifies his comments through the following statement:

Where there is anxiety, there is some kind of threatening condition, dislocation, rift, disharmony, or inconsistency within the self.²

These passages show certain of man's uncertainties and limitations in searching for security and for a better adjustment. In unsettled and seeking states, one is always confronted with problems of choice. The choice or decision is based on the individual conscience which accompanies traditional free will. Whitehead brings it into his dialogues by saying that, "We are continually choosing between the good and the less good, whether aware of it or not."³ Free will is important in making this choice. When free will is not seen as an end, it is not difficult to understand that free will is a means by which man may achieve his needs. Guilt is the most serious problem in the irrational attitude of man with respect to

¹Arthur T. Jersild, When Teachers Face Themselves (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 27.

²Ibid.

³Lucien Price (Recorder), Dialogues of Alfred North Whitehead (London: Max Reinhardt, 1954), p. 190.

the moral stand point. Guilt stems from a lack of authenticity. Authenticity or genuineness thus becomes a coveted virtue of man. The attributes of self-acceptance and compassion toward others are important to establish true authenticity. This unites the meaning of love for oneself with love for others.

Unprejudiced man is a well educated and emotionally well balanced man since no man is born prejudiced and his prejudices are learned. Allport defines prejudice by saying "Perhaps the briefest of all definitions of prejudice is: thinking ill of others without sufficient warrant."¹ According to Reimann, Lasker's informants found evidence that children were aware of other groups, and prejudiced against them, as early as in the kindergarten years. Prejudiced attitudes, Lasker generalized, are not deliberately taught but are transmitted without conscious intention to the growing child by parents and other adults, and children.² Prejudice is a pattern of hostility or erroneous generalization in interpersonal relations which is directed against entire ethnic groups, certain other groups deviating from some established ideal, or against a group's own non-conforming

¹Gordon W. Allport, The Nature of Prejudice (Cambridge 42, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1954), p. 6.

²Miriam Reimann, "How Children Become Prejudiced," Commentary, Vol. XI (January, 1951), pp. 88-94.

individuals. A fearful crime of ethnic prejudice was committed by Hitler during the World War II. Allport describes it as follows:

It is still difficult for us to believe the story of the Auschwitz Concentration Camp. The tale is the zenith of horror. Between the summer of 1941 and the end of World War II, two and a half million men, women, and children were murdered there. The gas chambers and ovens, working 24 hours a day, exterminated as many as 10,000 human beings daily. The victims were mostly Jews, and the deliberate genocide represented what Hitler had called the "final solution" of the Jewish problem.¹

Williams describes it as follows:

In all the history of the world nothing equals the brutality, degeneracy, and inhumanity of the Nazi assault upon the Jews. This is the grossest form that dehumanization has taken in man's uneven experience.²

The extreme hostility, ethnocentricity, erroneous generalization, or prejudice resulted in the brutality, degeneracy, and inhumanity which do not have any comparisons in all the history of man. Prejudiced people have little concern with objective truth as a value since they think ill of others without sufficient warrant. Prejudiced man has more often a conservative and self-oriented attitude toward society because he is not able to integrate the core of his ego and is extremely ego-centered. Perhaps prejudiced people are

¹Allport, op. cit., p. 288.

²Williams, op. cit., p. 2.

authoritarian types because they are highly self-centered and subjective. Allport says, "Prejudiced people demand clear-cut structure in their world, even if it is a narrow and inadequate structure."¹ Such people are not tolerant of ambiguity because they lack inner-security concerning themselves. Tolerant people are emotionally more balanced and basically more secure, and can see the difference between ego-ideal and actual reality. They have a better developed sense of the relation of the ideal to the real and know themselves more fully than do prejudiced persons.

Allport discusses two theories as to why this intolerance of ambiguity exists. "One holds that the self-image of prejudiced persons is badly confused. From early life they have never been able to integrate their nature; the result is that the ego itself does not provide a fixed anchorage point. The other theory, slightly more complex, holds that when they were children prejudiced individuals suffered much deprivation. Many things were forbidden. They therefore grew apprehensive of delay and gratifications, for delay might mean deprivation. They therefore developed an urge for quick and definite answers."²

Better educated people are generally more tolerant than less educated people because education helps guide one

¹Allport, op. cit., p. 403.

²Ibid.

to a more balanced, wholesome, humble, yet self-respecting view of himself and to a real appreciation for others and their accomplishments. Education enables one to see his society more as a whole, and to understand that the welfare of one group is linked to the welfare of all groups. The age of science requires a new form of emotional and moral maturity since emotional immaturity often expresses itself in dogmatic and extreme attitudes.

In order to help people become well educated, schools must be free from types of training tending toward rigidity, extremity, and prejudice. The provisions made for academic programs and for administrative processes in the school system must be examined from the standpoint of their consequences on democratizing human relations.

Development of Criteria

One of the most effective means of providing a good personnel policy is to arrange a series of questions based on certain criteria to which all answers should be yes. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the United States suggested the following questions:

1. Is policy consistent with the philosophy of the school system?
2. Is it based on the best evidence and research in the field?

3. Can the policy be administered fairly to all personnel?
4. Does the policy grant privileges comparable to those granted in other similar school systems?
5. Does the policy distinguish between rights and obligations?
6. Are there adequate administrative procedures for carrying out the policy?
7. Is it clear who will administer the policy?
8. Is the policy subject to some degree of determination by those who are affected by it?
9. Is there provision whereby the policy can be altered as changing situations require it?
10. Is the policy in accord with the state laws?¹

The personnel policy reflects the philosophy of the school system in developing the potential of every child and youth in the community to the highest degree so that each person may become a useful and productive citizen interested in promoting the welfare of himself and others. The philosophy of the school system should be re-examined periodically to see that it is harmony with current conditions, needs, and problems.

¹National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association of the United States, Personnel Policies for Schools of the Future: Washington Conference Report (Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1957), pp. 11-12.

Policy Making Process

Cunningham's study of educational policy development resulted in the identification of five stages of the policy-making process as follows:

Stage One: Initiation. The policy-making process begins when the problematic issue has been raised to a cognitive level.

Stage Two: Definition. School board members define and identify issues and problems, and devote time and energy toward their resolutions.

Stage Three: Deliberation. When policy alternatives are raised and found inadequate, board members try to redefine the problem rather than propose other solutions for the issue, as originally defined.

Stage Four: Enactment. One alternative is selected which stands as policy.

Stage Five: Consequences. Consequences are tested and evaluated in the light of the predicted results for the chosen policy alternative. Policy may be revised or discarded when a policy proposition fails to contribute to the attainment of the goal for which it was enacted.¹

¹Luvern L. Cunningham, "The Process of Educational Policy Development," Administrator's Notebook, VII, No. 5 (January, 1959), University of Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, 1959.

It is apparent that the administrator has to understand the significance of the policy making process and its several stages. The administrator should help the board to understand the importance of, and necessity for, policy formulation. He is the key person in presenting the need for new policies, or the revision of existing ones, to the board members.

Problems of Korean School Personnel

The information about problems of Korean teachers which follows is obtained from the Investigation of Teachers' Social and Economic Status by the Korean Education Association in 1963.¹

1. The Academic Background of Teachers

In Korea, 49.58 percent of teachers in elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools are high school graduates, 4.77 percent have not had more than junior high school education, 36.99 percent graduated from colleges, and only 0.36 percent have advanced degrees. In elementary schools, the ratio of teachers with a high school diploma is 81.23 percent, and teachers who have more than a junior college education are 11.33 percent of the total. Teachers who have not had more than junior high school education are 7.43 percent in elementary

¹Korean Education Association, Investigation of Teachers' Social and Economic Status (Seoul: Hongwon Sangsa Printing Co., 1963), 68p.

schools. In junior high schools, 14.77 percent of the teachers have junior college degrees, and 71.56 percent have college degrees, but, 13.65 percent have not had more than a senior high school education. In senior high schools, 89.49 percent of the teachers have college degrees, which shows a more adequate educational preparation than teachers in elementary schools and junior high schools, but, 10.54 percent of these teachers have not had more than junior college education.¹ Teachers with college degrees represent 5.60 percent of all teachers in elementary schools, 71.56 percent in junior high schools, and 82.29 percent in senior high schools. College degrees held by all female teachers amount to 17.59 percent and those held by all male teachers are 43.65 percent.²

2. The Qualification of Teachers

In Korea, teachers are classified by five categories in terms of their qualifications or experience. The classifications are First Class Regular Teacher, Second Class Regular Teacher, Assistant Teacher, Special Teacher, and Nurse. About 87.59 percent of the teachers have Regular Teacher certificates, 7.39 percent hold Assistant Teacher

¹Ibid., pp. 6-7.

²Ibid., p. 50.

certificates, and teachers belonging to other categories such as Special Teacher and Nurse or Unqualified teacher comprise 2.02 percent. When the qualification of teachers is viewed according to the level of schools, 96.28 percent of the elementary school teachers, 82.68 percent of the junior high school teachers, and 84.32 percent of the senior high school teachers have a Regular Teacher certificate or higher. The percentage of Assistant Teachers is 15.24 percent in junior high schools, 9.11 percent in senior high schools, and 2.16 percent in elementary schools.¹

3. The Teacher Education Institution

The percentage of teachers who received their educations in teacher education institutions and non-teacher education institutions is about 50 percent each. 43.69 percent of all male teachers received their education in teacher education institutions, and those who graduated from non-teacher education institutions amount to 56.31 percent. Contrary to the case of male teachers, 74.75 percent of the female teachers graduated from teacher education institutions, and those who graduated from non-teacher education institutions comprise 25.25 percent. The percentage of teachers graduated from teacher education institutions and non-teacher education institutions is as follows: Elementary school teachers, 67.78 percent and 32.22 percent; Junior

¹Ibid., p. 8.

high school teachers 29.78 percent and 70.22 percent; and Senior high school teachers, 27.35 percent and 72.65 percent.¹ The main source of trained teachers in Korea used to be the teacher education institutions such as normal schools, junior teachers colleges, and teachers colleges. The normal school was a high school level institution, and was designed to educate teachers planning to teach in elementary schools. The junior teachers college was at the junior college level and was designed to educate teachers for the junior high schools. The teachers college was a four year college and educated those teachers who were to teach at the senior high school level.

All the normal schools in Korea were abolished in February, 1961.² Elementary school teachers are now educated in the junior teachers colleges, and junior high school teachers and senior high school teachers are educated in the teachers colleges.

4. Class Size for One Teacher

The legal maximum class size in Korea is 60 students in elementary schools, and 50 students both in junior high schools and in senior high schools. Table 2 on page 122 shows as high as 28.91 percent of all school classes have from 61 to 70 students for one teacher. In elementary

¹Ibid., pp. 9-10.

²Korean Education Association, Yearbook of Korean Education (Seoul: Sae Han Sinmun Sa, 1964), p. 31.

schools, as high as 38.72 percent of teachers teach classes of from 71 to 80 students, altogether 89.02 percent of these teachers teach classes greater than the maximum class size of 60 students. In junior high school, as high as 45.17 percent of the teachers teach a class of 61 to 70 students, and those who teach more than the maximum class size of 50 students amount to 96.32 percent. In senior high school, as high as 42.22 percent of the teachers teach from 61 to 70 students in one class, and 89.87 percent teach a class of more than 50 students.¹

5. Teaching Subject

In junior high school, 61.29 percent of the teachers teach one subject, and 38.71 percent of the teachers teach more than two subjects. In senior high schools, 50.24 percent of the teachers teach one subject, and 49.76 percent of the teachers teach more than two subjects.²

6. Work Time Per Week

The average school teacher works 57.6 hours a week. The average work time of teachers at each school level is as follows: 58.6 hours in elementary schools, 55.1 hours in junior high schools, 53.1 hours in academic high schools, and 57 hours in vocational high schools. Therefore, a teacher in all schools works an average of 10 hours a day.³

¹Korean Education Association, op. cit., . 19-21.

²Ibid., pp. 22-23.

³Ibid., pp. 26-29.

TABLE 2

CLASS SIZE FOR ONE TEACHER

(Unit: %)

Number of Students	Elementary School	Junior High School	Senior High School	Total
Less than 30	0.54	0.34	2.36	0.71
31-40	0.59	1.03	1.18	0.77
41-50	2.71	2.3	6.60	3.08
51-60	7.14	36.21	38.92	18.19
61-70	19.97	45.17	42.22	28.91
71-80	31.72	12.76	8.49	24.21
81-90	26.07	0.23	0.24	16.54
91-100	9.85	0.11	0	6.24
More than 100	1.41	1.84	0	1.34
Total	100	99.99	100.01	99.99

Ibid., p. 20.

7. Attitudes of Teachers Toward Teaching Load

Table 3 on page 124 shows that 59.68 percent of the teachers estimate their teaching load as heavy to extremely heavy. Those who estimate their teaching load as light represent only 1.69 percent of all teachers, and only 38.64 percent estimate their teaching load as reasonable.¹

8. Attitudes of Teachers toward Strain and Fatigue in Work

Table 4 on page 125 shows that 51.70 percent of the teachers feel considerable strain and fatigue in their work; more male teachers than female teachers and more elementary teachers than high school teachers consider their teaching loads excessively tiring. Only 3.65 percent of all teachers feel little strain and fatigue, and in this respect the female teachers and elementary school teachers are preponderant over male teachers and high school teachers.²

9. Teachers' Salaries

Korean educational laws provide a nationwide salary schedule for teachers. The public school teachers are paid depending upon the decisions in this regulation. In addition to the standard salaries determined by the regulation, another law provides special allowances to teachers depending on the school that the individual teacher serves.

¹Ibid., p. 35

²Ibid., pp. 35-36.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTIONS OF TEACHERS, BY
ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHING LOAD

(Unit: %)

Item	Area			School			Total
	Big City	Median City	Small City	Elementary School	Junior High	Senior High	
Light	1.74	1.15	2.17	1.51	2.30	1.22	1.69
Reasonable	42.32	34.32	39.46	38.26	37.70	41.62	38.64
Heavy	41.13	47.80	46.56	46.46	45.62	46.34	46.20
Extremely heavy	11.81	16.73	11.80	13.77	14.38	10.82	13.48
Total	100.00	100.00	99.99	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.01

Ibid., p. 35

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTIONS OF TEACHERS, BY
STRAIN AND FATIGUE IN WORK

(Unit: %)

Item	Elementary School			Junior High School		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Little	3.63	5.33	4.23	3.94	1.17	3.54
Moderate	40.9	46.25	42.81	45.62	51.46	46.46
Considerable	55.47	48.43	52.96	50.44	47.37	50
Total	99.99	100.01	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Strain & Fatigue	Senior High School			Sex		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Little	1.67	6.9	1.82	3.35	4.55	3.65
Moderate	47.75	49.15	47.87	43.76	47.25	44.65
Considerable	50.58	47.46	50.30	52.88	48.2	51.70
Total	100.00	100.00	99.99	99.99	100.00	100.00

Ibid., p. 36.

According to the investigation, the medians of scheduled monthly salaries for all districts are 6,220 won for elementary school teachers, 7,690 won for junior high school teachers, and 8,860 won for senior high school teachers. Thus, most teaching personnel receive a salary of less than 10,000 won. The current official rate is 250 Korean won equals to 1 U. S. dollar.

10. Teacher's Economic Status

It can be said that the salary is a fair measurement by which to estimate the teaching personnel's economic status in Korea since most teachers depend on their salaries as their primary source of income. As was seen above, there is a considerable relative differences of salary between elementary school teachers, junior high school teachers, and senior high school teachers.

It is estimated that the average living expenditure for a family of five members is 12,270 won a month in Seoul, Korea. Comparing this with the median salary, it shows a deficiency of 6,050 won for elementary school teachers, 4,580 won for junior high school teachers, and 3,410 won for senior high school teachers respectively. Therefore, the Korean teacher's economic situation is extremely insecure because of the large inequity between possible income and average expenditure. As was illustrated above, a Korean teacher's life is therefore generally quite insecure.¹

¹Ibid., pp. 44-45.

The most serious problems in Korean education are the shortage of classrooms and the shortage of teachers because of the rapidly growing school age population. As Table 5 on page 128 shows, the population of Korea increases at the rate of more than 700,000 every year. The percentage of the natural increase of the Korean population is 2.88 percent a year.¹ Ninety-five percent of school age children actually are in attendance in Korean elementary schools.² The number of school age children increases at the rate of about 350,000 a year as is shown on Table 5.

Some Suggestions For The Improvement of Personnel Policy In-Service Education

The effectiveness of school system depends on the quality of its personnel. As was illustrated in the preceding part of this chapter, a majority of the public school teachers in Korea have not prepared themselves through teacher education institutions, and most of them need more professional courses and academic preparations. Therefore, one effective way to improve the quality of Korean education would be to emphasize in-service education of teachers and administrators. In-service education should include all of the following professional activities:

1. New teacher orientation programs
2. Attendance and participation at staff meetings
3. Attendance at professional conferences

¹Korean Education Association, Yearbook of Korean Education (Seoul: Sae Han Sinmun Sa, 1964), p. 105.

²Ibid., p. 28.

TABLE 5

GENERAL POPULATION AND NATURAL INCREASE
IN SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN AT ELEMENTARY LEVEL

Year	Population	Number of New Students	Number of Graduation	Natural Increase
1962	26,277,633	921,470	526,774	394,696
1963	27,034,430	920,358	533,367	386,991
1964	27,813,021	884,641	521,442	363,199
1965	28,614,037	908,002	680,644	227,358
1966	29,438,120	932,037	663,388	268,649
1967	30,285,937	956,764	746,510	210,254
1968	31,138,171	982,202	921,470	60,732
1969	32,055,526	1,008,373	920,358	88,015
1970	32,978,725	1,035,298	884,641	150,657
1971	33,928,512	1,062,999	908,002	154,997
1972	34,905,653	1,091,497	932,037	159,460

Korean Education Association, Ibid., p. 28 & p. 107.

4. Principal-teacher conferences
5. Attendance at local workshops
6. Active participation in professional organizations
7. Visitations to other school systems or other classes within the system
8. Taking university courses
9. Taking local in-service education courses
10. Committee activities.

Since the general education of teachers is important to the improvement of the quality of education a broad in-service educational program would result in substantially improved practices. If it would be possible, taking college courses should be encouraged. In-service credits should be given for professional education completed during employment in a school system. The in-service education for credits may consist of college courses, workshops, local courses, and other approved work. Positive official encouragement should be given to the training of able personnel for advancement within the system.

Preservice Education

What is needed in preservice education of Korean teachers is an effort to devise integrated and well-organized programs for the expansion and improvement of teacher education institutions in order to meet the increasing needs of teacher supply and demand.

Teachers' Work Load

Teachers should be treated fairly in the assignment of the work load and great efforts should be made to insure that the teaching schedules be uniform and equitable. Principal factors to consider are class size, or total number of pupils taught per day, the length of the day, or the number of teaching periods in the day, the span of assigned professional duties, and the amount of extra-curricular activities. Professional working conditions are directly related to teaching efficiency. They determine to a great extent the effectiveness of the teachers and the degree to which the learning processes operate properly. Working conditions are basic in the development of the attitudes of teachers toward their work. Since a majority of teachers in the Korean public schools estimate their teaching load as heavy to extremely heavy, it must be hard for them to be at their mental, physical, and emotional best. The educational purpose in a democratic school system is to help the student to develop a mentally, physically, and emotionally secure personality. In order to achieve this, the teacher himself has to be secure emotionally, physically, and mentally. If possible, the maximum number enrolled in any class taught by one teacher should not exceed 30 pupils. The total number of pupils taught by a teacher of academic subjects

in junior high school or senior high school should not exceed 150 students per day. The right to determine the total working load should be within the power of the board of education.

Salary

Sound salary policies are necessary in securing and holding a well-qualified professional staff. The salary schedule is an important factor in school personnel administration because a large portion of the school money is used for salaries. Salary policies are of utmost importance in personnel administration because the structure of salaries usually determines whether or not a school can hire well-qualified teachers and provide high-quality education. Salary policy may also play a dominant role in affecting the human relationships of the entire school staff. Able and well-prepared teachers are important to the improvement of the quality of education. As was shown concerning the problems of Korean teachers, the salary policies in Korea present a serious threat to the future recruitment and retention of good teachers. Teacher shortages in Korea are likely to become more serious unless wise and vitally needed remedial action is undertaken. Salary increase is perhaps the most effective instrument for dealing with teacher shortages in a free society. The salary schedule should be high enough to attract and retain well-qualified teaching personnel. Only through the use of a well planned salary schedule can the nation utilize its personnel resources

efficiently. The position on the salary schedule of each teacher should be decided by training and experience. Salary decisions and policies should be made by local school boards, and these decisions should be based on the salary schedules determined by the national educational laws which under present conditions should be considered absolute salary minimums. Salary schedules for administrators and classroom teachers should be planned cooperatively by administrators, teachers, and lay citizens. Policy makers should remember that teachers cannot devote their best to the education of children unless their private lives are economically, politically, and socially secure. Unless wise salary policies are adopted to improve the teachers' living standards, many able teachers will leave teaching jobs, and consequently only teachers who lack ability or are poorly trained will remain. Therefore, salary policies should be based upon a strong desire to protect individual independence and to provide the teachers with an income necessary for their economic security.

Employment

In Korea, local initiative in personnel administration is lacking. All the teaching personnel are appointed or dismissed by authorities either at the central level or at the provincial level. The local school board is not permitted to appoint or dismiss teachers on the recommendation of a superintendent. This results in a lack of local initiative and a loss

of active participation by local people in their local school administrations. These kinds of employment practices oppose principles of democratic educational administration. Perhaps some form of management in equalizing the costs of education is necessary at the provincial level and the national level because population expansion areas, including rural areas, are apt to be the more economically depressed areas. However, the initiative of each individual school system should be encouraged in the light of democratic principles of educational administration.

Local school districts should make an attempt to maintain high standards in the selection of employees by employing the most able and highly qualified personnel available. Administrators, teachers and all other employees should be selected upon their personal qualifications, their ability, and their education. The candidates for a position should be recommended for appointment by the superintendent to the Board of Education. It should be necessary for applicants for all vacancies to meet the central certificate requirements. In the case of hiring a substitute teacher, it should be the policy to employ only those people with educations comparable to those of regularly employed teachers.

Conclusion

A major problem in Korean education is that of hiring teachers and providing facilities fast enough so that the schools are ready each year for the annual increase in enrollment. Korean schools face critical difficulties in getting enough teachers and in obtaining sufficient financial resources. They face great problems in accommodating to situations characterized by a rapid increase of the school age population. The solutions to these problems will come only with the resolution of economic, political, and social problems in Korea. Educational policies can not be considered alone outside of the framework of the general economic, political, and social forces of the nation. A constant reexamination of problems arising from changing situations is important for the improvement of personnel administration. Without an understanding of financial limitations and of social and political influences on education, policies and practices of personnel administration will continue to be both frustrating and fruitless. Personnel administration should create a climate in which teachers can do the best job possible in the teaching profession and be free of the stress of economic and academic insecurity.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS

General summary, conclusions, and some proposals for the improvement of the Korean public school system will be described in this chapter.

General Summary and Conclusions

Leadership is herein conceived as the process or act of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement. In the activities of goal accomplishment, leaders have to provide for individual need fulfillment. Unnecessary conflicts may arise between leaders and staffs when the leaders' role expectation is not properly functioning. Therefore, leaders must be able to make sound value judgments in fulfilling their role expectations, or it will be difficult for them to maintain good relationships with their staffs and community groups. Creative leadership is a vital ingredient in the educational administration of a local school system. Creative educational leadership is understood as a group function aimed at the improvement of educational opportunity, the self-realization of growing children, and as a means of community improvement. Such

leadership is a group function which involves the freeing of creative power through the process of interactions, decision-making, and various other actions. Shared authority seems to encourage shared responsibility which promotes the efficiency of goal achievement and democratic leadership operates within such a framework. The mark of a democratic school which best distinguish it from other schools, is the effective use of democratic group processes at all levels: in teacher-administrator, teacher-pupil, teacher-parent, teacher-supervisor, teacher-teacher, and pupil-pupil relationships. The key concept in these relationships is that of democratic leadership.

An essential of modern democratic organization is the maintenance of satisfactory human relations while coordinating the efforts of many persons engaged in a common task. An administrative organization is constructed and operated in order to accomplish its purposes efficiently and effectively organization demands active cooperation of all staff members within the school system. Good organizational practices depend upon skillful group work. The principles and practices of administration determine the values, information, and skills with which the administrator or other member in the organization undertakes his work. One becomes isolated and meaningless when he is only by himself, but man becomes worth while and effective when he cooperates with others in a society or in a group and helps produce a whole that is

greater than the sum of its parts. There should be, then, no conflict between individual members and the total organization. It is the dynamic role of administrator to avoid conflicts in handling complex administrative problems. Conflicts in educational administration usually stem from misunderstandings and breakdowns in communication within the group or among groups. An effective feed-back process is important in these cases. Organization is related to the accomplishment of a purpose and the formal organization aims at the accomplishment of clear and specific purposes. In education, the overall goals are intimately related to the goals of each individual. Informal organization exists within and around every formal organization and it can often overturn or give crucial support to the formal organization. For instance, PTA groups and Citizens Advisory Committies are informal organizations that may be led to support the school administration. Successful school administrators build school organizations which contribute to the satisfactory development of each individual, both in the faculty and in the student body. The administrator needs the knowledge of possible types of organization and of how to use available resources for the improvement of education. Like a good society, a good organization encourages the release of individual capacities and expression. As different individuals have different goals, different groups within the organization may have goals that conflict with the basic tasks

of the organization. These are potential sources of conflict. Practically no organization or system by itself has strength since the dynamics exist in the individuals involved. Therefore, it is an irresponsible attitude to think that a system or an organization itself will solve the problems. It is the cooperative efforts of individuals that solve the problems and promote efficiency in any organization or system. The problems can be solved through dynamic human interactions. The dynamic human interactions can be accomplished through intimate intercommunications in the informal organization as well as in the formal organization of a democratic administration. Democracy is a product of man's cooperative endeavor and intelligence rather than the product of certain specific elements. One of the major tasks of education therefore is to replace unreasoned emotion and prejudice with rational attitudes and values. The rational attitudes and values include: freedom, equality, creativeness, initiative, justice for all, honesty, tolerance, consideration of others, civic responsibilities, confidence in the decisions of the people, flexibility, continuity, scientific methods, and cooperative processes. Democratic administration cannot be accomplished unless the principles of these attitudes and values are underlying the processes of its operation. Democratic administration takes place where good human relationships or group processes are successfully achieved.

The provision of a building and its equipment is a typical administrative duty since the purpose of administration is to facilitate learning and teaching activities. The superintendent of schools is responsible for the planning of school buildings, but the total building program is planned through cooperation of the staff because one person can hardly be an expert in all areas. The superintendent, therefore, is expected to delegate responsibility in planning to various members of his staff. The planning and construction of school building cannot be done intelligently unless administrators and teachers participate. In the past teachers often had to adjust their teaching to the building rather than having the building fit the school program. It is a modern trend that school buildings should facilitate instruction according to the needs of instructional programs which are developed to meet the local needs. The main purpose of educational specification is to guide the architect in planning a functional building to house a specific school program. Since an architect is not the person who determines the school program and the child's education, his plans must be adapted to the program pursued in the school. Changes in the program and the organization of schools present problems to the architect and demand skillful techniques. Better education can be achieved when adequate and appropriate facilities are provided, and it must be taken into consideration that the important essentials of a school plant are to fulfill its functions satisfactorily. The basic information to be included in educational

specifications must follow the major purposes of the school, psychological needs of children, and an analysis of classroom activities. Space for outdoor and indoor sports and recreation facilities, sanitary facilities, heating, lighting, ventilation, health problems, rest space, and other environmental factors are major considerations of the specifications. In planning educational specifications, a detailed description of the equipment to be used in a classroom should be made so that the architect can know what will take place in every classroom. Educational specifications are vital plans in building school plants to house the educational programs of the future. Those school houses being used today were designed in the past and are now obsolete. As school programs change to meet the needs of the changing conditions, school buildings have to change to fit the new school programs.

In practice some subjects or learning experiences are included in the curriculum because of tradition, legislative action, and the needs of the pupils. Courses and units are drawn from many sources. If the school does not have its own philosophy and objectives of education, it can not avoid confusion in developing the curriculum because the philosophy and objectives of the school are developed on the basis of philosophical and psychological theories regarding the nature of learning, value systems, conventions of society, and the role of the individual in that society.

A democratic philosophy of education, for instance, values individual development more highly than other philosophies of education. Objectives of education therefore attempt to provide for the best possible development of the unique individuals making up the society. The development of creative, free, independent, and physically and emotionally well balanced individuals is to be stressed in a democratic school system. All education is concerned with changing the behavior of individuals. The actual statement of objectives of education may be made by an individual, by a committee, by a national or local organization. The aim of education determines the direction in which change is taking place and determines the methods used to bring about the change. Objectives of curriculum are defined in terms of the growth of the children's day to day experiences. The development of pilot units designed for known groups of pupils is an important part of curriculum development. It may become a basis of problems such as an over-all continuity, sequences, and integration of subjects. The unit needs to be shaped according to the educational objectives for it. If curriculum is developed by teachers or by other adults only, it can hardly reflect the child's thinking. Therefore, knowledge of how children think and what they need is very important. Constant effort is needed in curriculum design to translate the child's thinking and needs. Ideally,

therefore, curriculum should be built in terms of cooperative efforts including children. For the curriculum design, value is placed on the increased command of behavior, attitudes, information, concepts, and skills required to cope with today's world. Therefore, the basic assumed values are key concepts in the evaluation of curriculum.

The quality of education is dependent upon the quality of the teaching personnel. In-service education as well as preservice education is important in the improvement of the quality of teaching personnel. The professional incompetence of a large proportion of the teaching personnel, the shortage of teachers, and the shortage of school facilities have resulted in inadequacy in Korean education. Until recent years, the teacher education program in Korea was not well planned because of the limitations of available finances. Educational administration and education in general, without the understanding and cooperation of the people and without sufficient financial support, is almost helpless. Adequate financing is essential in order to employ qualified teaching personnel and to providing adequate teaching facilities. The lack of adequate financial support and the rapid growth of the school age population have resulted in a shortage of class rooms as well as teachers. Public education is important in order to maintain democracy because democracy is based on the intelligent cooperation of the people. The strength of the

self-governing community is the strength of democracy, and public education is the basic strength of the self-governing school community. It is obvious that people who pay the taxes for public education receive the social benefits from education directly and indirectly since investment in education expands and extends knowledge leading to advances which contribute to the economic growth and generally promote social welfare. Adequate financial support is a necessary condition for fulfillment of the requirements for an adequate educational program. Since it is believed that public education contributes to the achievement of welfare and security of the society, effective administration and financing arrangements are important. Education shapes the capabilities and potentialities of the economic and political community, and the economic and political powers influence the quality and character of education. It is not an exaggeration to say that the future of any nation depends to a great extent on the quality and character of its education since education plays such a vital role in creating a flexible governmental system, sound economic structure, and a favorable environment in which people can enjoy the benefits of national well being and security. The efficient administration of personnel policy to maintain and attract well qualified teaching personnel in order to promote better education is achieved by the cooperative efforts of staff,

administrators, students, citizens in general, and the parents of the students themselves.

Proposals

1. The control of education should be exercised at the provincial level through the laws enacted by the legislature, by the policies adopted by the provincial board of education, and by the exercise of administrative responsibility of the provincial superintendent of schools.
2. The provincial and local boards of education should select and appoint their superintendents by choosing the one who in their judgment is best qualified without regard to place of residence.
3. The members of the boards of education should be elected by popular vote.
4. The board of education should operate as a committee of the whole.
5. The board of education should be granted fiscal independence.
6. The board of education and its individual members should know its functions and responsibilities.
7. The board of education should withdraw from any invasion of the administrative responsibilities of the superintendent of schools.

8. The superintendent of schools should be responsible for the coordination of all activities carried on by members of the professional staff.
9. Each school system should develop its own written policy.
10. Each school should be free to develop its own philosophy of education so long as it is consistent with the principles of Korean education.
11. Each school system should develop its own educational specifications so that the school plant can be functional to the maximum degree.
12. Each school system should set up policies on the management of the school plants.
13. The development of curriculum should provide opportunities for the active participation of administrators, teachers, lay people, and students.
14. Curriculum revision should be planned and carried out by the individual schools.
15. Teacher education programs should be expanded in order to meet the needs of teacher supply and demand.
16. Provisions of in-service education as well as preservice education should be made to improve the quality and quantity of teachers.
17. Teachers' salary schedules should be revised from time to time in order to attract and maintain qualified teachers.

18. The problem of the shortage of class rooms and the shortage of school facilities should be solved in terms of cooperative efforts of the whole nation.
19. The above proposals should be carried out in the light of democratic principles.

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