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IMPROVING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP
COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT FOR KOREA
English Version
OECD Improving School Leadership

COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT FOR KOREA

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Due to rapid changes in the environment characterized by endless technological innovation, the coming of the information society, and globalization, the intrinsic goal of schools and their role are changing likewise. To the extent that the importance of school education as the foundation for the survival and development of individuals as well as the state is increasingly stressed, concerns and anxiety about the qualitative level of school education become heavier than ever. While some argue that schools escape from their traditional role and explore the new ones, others claim that the essential role of schools as the center of learning be strengthened and enriched.

In the midst of the chaotic changes, the whole world has paid renewed attention to the role of the school principal as a component in helping schools achieve their goals. Particularly, as the expectation and challenges for the principals grow, societies fail to secure principals who possess the quality and skills necessary to satisfy such new demands. Moreover, there exists a widespread concern that we lack a sufficient support system to enable principals to effectively lead school improvement efforts.

*Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*, an OECD activity involving by 25 countries, emphasized once again that principal leadership is important as the principal is a supporter for teachers as well as main contributor to the conditions in which teachers perform their duties, the extent to which they feel satisfaction at work, and to actively engage in professional-development, which ultimately impact the quality teaching and learning. The Project highlights the need for international joint research aimed at improving principal leadership.

To meet the new needs, the OECD Secretariat launched a large-scale project called *OECD Activity: Improving School Leadership* at the end of 2005. Involving a total of 20 countries,¹)

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¹) The 20 participating countries are: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Chile, Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Korea, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom (England
the Project includes a two-year research study conducted during 2006-2007 years. Although it focused mainly upon the policies related to school principals, it also addressed middle-rung leaders including vice principals and chief teachers from different countries.

The goals of the research is to synthesize various policies conceptualized and implemented in each country in order to improve the school leadership by sharing the most successful and innovative approaches to supporting the work of school leaders and providing high quality professional development. Sensing the potential to provide a number of innovative strategies for training, accreditation, employment, in-service training, and the evaluation of principals, Korea has decided to participate in the Project. It is expected that useful suggestions for Korea’s policy development can be accrued through comparative analyses involving other countries. The research subject is confined to the school principal, while the matters pertaining to the vice principal and chief teacher are discussed as supplements depending on their relevance.

This Background Report has been written by the research staff of Korean Educational Development Institute, which is in charge of the Project in Korea, as the research outcome for the first year. The research methods are based on two mutually reinforcing strands, ‘analytical strand’ and ‘innovative case study strand. The Background Report provides the information on each country as a part of the analytical strand, utilizing the analytical framework devised as a common tool for all 20 countries.

The research questions that guide the writing of the Background Report are as follows: what are the role and duty of the school principal within the economic, political, social, cultural, and educational context of Korea?; what are the policies devised to strengthen the principal leadership relevant to instruction-learning?; in light of the employment, compensation, evaluation, and retirement policies, is the school principal typically regarded as an attractive occupation in Korea?; how can excellent principal leadership be developed through the processes of pre- and in-service training?; what were the innovative policies that contributed to improving the principal leadership throughout the training processes, and has any research been conducted to prove their efficacy?

and Scotland participate separately).
This Background Report is composed of seven chapters and serves as a basic data with which OECD compares and analyzes the policy challenges, actual conditions, and innovative cases of 20 countries. Thus, it provides rich information in accordance with the guideline proposed by OECD, while portraying more objectively the problems and policy alternatives highlighted in each step. To insure objectivity in writing, a national advisory committee was formed at the inception of the research, consisting of officials from the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, researchers, and representatives from the principal and teacher associations. The participating members offered opinions and data and reviewed the draft of the Report.

This report owes its completion to the help of many people. I would like to take this opportunity to thank the members of the national advisory committee, who were more than willing to help the process of writing this report, by providing rich basic data and suggestions. At the same time, I should compliment particularly the research staff on their ceaseless study and dedication in writing this report. I dearly wish that this report can be utilized as a valuable data by many people in Korea as well as overseas, who want to understand the challenges faced by the school principals of Korea and the context within which various policies have been formed to handle those challenges.

December, 2006

Hyung-yeel Koh
President, Korean Educational Development Institute
Executive Summary

National Background

The Korean economy has experienced unprecedented growth since the period of modernization in the 1970s, through the era of rapid industrialization in the 1980s, and up to the mid-1990s. However, since the foreign currency crisis forced Korea into the IMF trusteeship in 1997, the economic growth rate has slowed drastically. Particularly since 2003, the growth rate stays slightly over 4%, raising apprehension that such low-level growth may become norm.

With the inauguration of the first civilian government in 1993, Korea started a very fast process of democratization. Citizen’s awareness of their rights have gone up, while the national government has devised various systemic mechanisms to insure their protection. As a result of such democratic development, democratic citizenship has also risen, and Korean citizens increasingly participate in the decision making process by forming various organizations. Education plays a key role in Korea’s continuing efforts to promote democratization as schools are the primary vehicle for transmitting positive attitudes toward political democratization to the next generation.

Recent years have witnessed rapid social, economic, cultural, and demographic changes. Serious problems include a decreasing population due to a declining birth rate and beginning of the aging society, increased ethnic diversity due to the expansion of the economic immigrants from Southeast Asia and an increase in international marriages among rural males, increase in the number of deficient families due to the economic polarization and increasing divorces, and high employment rate among the youth. Such changes present new challenges for the role and scope of school education, call for a reshaping of educational content, and compel us to reexamine their impact upon the supply and demand for future
School System and Teachers

Korea maintains the 6-3-3-4 school system, and schools are categorized into national, public, and private schools. The proportion of private schools at secondary school level is very high when compared to other countries. Educational administrative organization of Korea, in a parallel axis to the general administrative levels, is formed by three-tier structure of the central, the macro-regional, and the local. In terms of the distribution of authority and responsibility between the central and the regional organs of educational administration, centralizing tendency still remains very strong, despite the de jure local self-governance of educational administration at the metropolitan and provincial level. The National Educational budget has increased every year, amounting to 27 trillion won in 2005, taking up 20.4% of the total budget.

The total number of elementary and secondary school teachers of Korea, including national, public, and private schools, is 386,717, as of April, 2005. Whereas the proportion of female teachers is high in elementary and middle schools, male teachers are more common in high schools. Although the number of teachers in general secondary schools continues to increase, in the number of teachers in vocational high schools has decreased since 2001, following the decrease in the number of vocational high schools. In the future, it is predicted that the issue of the supply and demand of teachers will be affected by demographic change such as low birth rate, on the one hand, and the changes in the government’s educational policies such as reduction of the number of students per class, a reduction of teachers’ instructional hours, and the implementation of a five day school week, on the other. According to a recent research on the supply and demand of teachers up to 2020, it is predicted that the supply will surpass demand at both the elementary and secondary school levels, therefore, it appears necessary to consider a policy to reduce the number of teacher trainees.

Teacher associations in Korea are bifurcated into professional associations and labor unions. Professional associations are represented by The Korean Federation of Teachers’
Association, while there exist three labor unions: Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union, Korean Union of Teaching & Educational Workers, and Korea Liberal Teachers’ Union, which was formed recently by the teachers with conservative bent. School principals have formed various associations based on school level, school founding body, region, and class of occupational position. These associations have voices in the educational society. They enable principals to weigh in on the broad spectrum of national educational issues and agenda items.

The public discontent with the quality of school education is very high due to the overheated competition among students to enter prestigious universities. School education is perceived as distorted, while private tutoring is extensively practiced. Teachers are held directly responsible their students’ performance, much to their dismay. Traditionally, educators are held to high academic and moral standards. Immoral and criminal behaviors are severely denounced by the public. The school principal has traditionally been a respected and envied post. However, since the birth of the teachers’ labor unions, attitudes toward the principal post have changed. Many strongly call for a change in the methods for verifying the abilities of potential candidates and the selection process.

Governance Structure and Leadership of School

The educational administration system of Korea is very centralized. Hence, the school principal’s decision-making authority within the school is likewise limited. Although the principal decides the goal of each school, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and the metropolitan and provincial offices of education are basically in charge of school’s financial management and personnel selection. The school curriculum is determined and produced at the national level, so that the principal can organize and manage the curriculum only within the scope defined by the central Ministry.

Within each school, school council constituted by the teachers, parents, and local community figures review overall aspects of school management. The principal, vice principal, and the chief teachers, who are the middle-rung supervisors, assume leadership
at school level. One has to acquire the certificate to be the principal or vice principal, yet the chief teacher is an assigned post designed to assist in managing the school.

The main sources of financial support for education in Korea are the revenue from the central government and the tuition paid by students and parents. The financial support of regional governing bodies and school corporations remains feeble by comparison. The school-based accounting has been implemented since 2001; it has been designed to integrate the financial resources and distribute expenditure to schools in total sum, instead of specifying the amount of money for each activity, so that individual schools can organize and execute the budget according to their own priorities. It is a method to enhance autonomy of financial management at school level.

Although in principle, the founder of a school (state, city, province, and school corporation) reserves personnel management authority of the school in Korea, for the purpose of making school management effective and efficient, only the matters related to managing the employed personnel (not those related to newly employing school personnel), that is, appointing and dismissing teachers to and from school posts, appointing and dismissing temporary teachers, and deciding promotion of teachers, are delegated to the school principal.

As a part of site-based school management, the autonomous authority of the school principal in managing the curriculum, finance, and personnel affair has increased in recent years. However, along with the strengthened authority, new roles and duties have been added, while the resources needed for the principals to perform such roles effectively remain feeble. Also, principals are required to perform the following tasks: enhancing the democratic nature of management through participation of the teachers and parents in school management; increasing the transparency and efficiency of budget execution; conduction evaluations intended to develop teacher professionalism; and building stronger connections to the local community.

Strengthening Learning and the Role of Principal Leadership

Improving the quality of instruction has been recently emphasized, and so there is a
need for principals to raise student achievement. However, some are concerned that an emphasis upon raising achievement levels may give rise to excessive competition over test score among students. As the mechanism for reviewing the principal’s accountability for teaching and learning, there are school evaluation and comprehensive inspection.

The principal endeavors to raise fairness and transparency in the evaluation and supervision of student achievement. While at the same time, the principal is also accountable for directing the faculty to evaluate the students’ assimilation of the curriculum, the principals are not directly responsible for instruction. Nonetheless, they have a supervisory responsibility for instruction. They provide feedback to the open class and support teachers’ skill development by supporting teachers’ study groups. As school evaluation, designed to raise teachers’ instructional capacity is actively promoted, the need for the principal and vice principal to diagnose and remedy teachers’ professional development needs is growing.

There exist a variety of in-service training programs designed to raise teacher professionalism and the school principal should provide the teachers with all kinds of support. However, the scope of the principal’s support power remains very limited. Mostly, the principal recommends the candidates to institutions providing training programs and may or provide the teacher with a portion of the training expense.

Attractiveness of the School Principalship

School principals have traditionally commanded the respect of the public as the highest teacher of all teachers, the grand elder of the school. Called by many as the “flower of the teaching profession,” the principalship is a post sought after by virtually all teachers. Principals were respected by general citizens as well as regular teachers and school staff members, as the face of the school, the teacher with the highest status, a person of high moral standing and social trust, and the expert at pedagogy and administration. Naturally, the competition to be promoted to the post is fierce among teachers.

The principals are selected by either promotion, or invitation. The former refers to the procedure in which candidates from vice principals, school inspectors, and research officers
who do not have the principal certificate are given the principal qualification training and then employed as principals. The latter refers to inviting appropriate principal certificate-holders to the vacant principal post at a school. It is specified in the Educational Civil Servant Law that the term of office for national and public school principals is four years, which can be served a maximum of two times consecutively. Thus, principal’s term of office is as maximum of eight years. According to the Private School Education Law, the principal of a private school is to be appointed by either the school corporation, which founded and manages the school, or the school manager. Terms of Office and the retirement age of the principals of private schools follow the statute or regulation of the school corporation, unless otherwise specified by law.

The compensation system of Korean teachers does not distinguish among regular teachers, vice principals, and principals. Since it takes 37 years for a teacher to reach the highest pay scale, the principals, most of whom are senior teachers, tend to receive a high salary. School principals rarely leave the occupation except for special cases like death or disease, and tend to remain in the post until the retirement age of 62. Since the principals rotate from one post to another on a regular basis, the principal who is leaving his or her post should write a report for assuming the duties at a given school and give it to his or her successor in order to ease the transition.

Preparation and Professional Development for Principals

National concern regarding preparation, certification, employment, and in-service training policies for principals has increased in Korea during the last few years. Although these issues have received some attention in the past, attention was usually given to other pressing matters. However, as the diversification of principal hiring system and rational improvement of the system of teacher grades and promotion were included in the election pledges during the Sixteenth Presidential Election, 2002, they have been highlighted as major issues for reform.

The past system was limited in that it was biased in favor of senior candidates, so that
only those who have accumulated scores for promotion over a long period can become vice principals, which is a necessary step before being promoted to principal. Alternative paths to becoming a principal have recently been devised by ‘Special Exceptional Measures for Accrediting Principals.’ These allow those who lack experiences related to education and those who have worked in the fields outside of education to become principals, albeit some limitations exist. Also, the government launched a pilot program for recruiting principals in September, 2006, which is likely to expand somewhat the opportunity to become principals for those with diverse career experiences.

There is no separate institution geared specifically for preparing individuals to become principals. Thus, the training course for certification a teacher must take to become vice principal or principal can be regarded as a pre-service program. Critics have argued that the period of pre-service training should be extended and both the contents and method of the training should be improved to enhance the quality of principal preparation in a way that fosters the skills and knowledge required at the school scene.

Once a person is hired as the principal after completing the principal qualification training, he or she is not subjected to any disadvantages with respect to his or her status, or any other ill-treatment, even if he or she does not receive any further in-service training or professional development. No systemic mechanism exists to make the principals invest time and effort in further professional development. Considering the fact that principals play a significant role in determining the quality of a school, there should be more research and policy development aimed at developing principal professionalism.

Priorities for Policy Development to Improve School Leadership

One of the strengths of the Korean system lies in the fact that the policy-makers do not have to worry about either shortages or turnover of school administrators. The principal is an attractive post envied by most teachers. It is also typically believed that the educational administration should move away the traditionally centralized structure toward site-based school management. New efforts have been made in this light, such as institutionalization
of a school council, the adoption of the site-based accounting, strengthening principal authority in organizing and managing the school curriculum, and the creation of a systemic mechanism to ask principal’s accountability.

In a response to various changes, the capacity and role of principals have been highlighted from different angles. Today, beyond the concept of a simple supervisor, the principal is required to play the multiple roles: the CEO in charge of the school finance, supervisor of facilities, curriculum specialist, instructional leader, teacher evaluator, liaison with the local community, and visionary leader.

However, school principals face the following challenges, in addition to those previously listed: to overcome the conflict among school members, to increase democracy in management and transparency in finance, and to improve student achievement. Yet, the resources needed for principals to perform such roles effectively remain feeble. The following is a list of policy priorities, there should be a large-scale transfer of the authority to the principal and also, a strong system of additional support, if the principals are to generate meaningful change.

First, the principal’s authority should be drastically strengthened and simultaneously, there should be a stronger mechanism in place to hold the principal accountable for the results of his or her management. Second, it is necessary to consider adopting the head teacher system to mitigate the excessive competition for promotion among teachers and to help teachers exercise leadership that is focused more upon teaching and learning. Third, the role of chief teachers, who are middle-rung supervisors, should be expanded, and the stage of the chief teacher should be an experience conducive to beneficial career development for teachers. Fourth, it is necessary to develop performance standards, so that the school leaders can perform their duties successfully, and also, to have the standard be connected closely to the training, employment, certification, and in-service training of teachers. Finally, it is necessary to improve the selection system and strengthen in-service training in order to select as the principal who possess the passion and abilities required of the professional school manager and adequately prepare them for success.
CONTENTS

Foreword ...................................................................................................................................................... 5
Executive Summary ......................................................................................................................................... 9

1. National Background .......................................................................................................................... 21
   1.1. The Economic, Political, Social, and Cultural Background ......................................................... 21
   1.2. Demographic Indicators of School Education .............................................................................. 22

2. School System and Teachers .............................................................................................................. 26
   2.1. Educational Administration System ............................................................................................ 26
   2.2. Educational Budget ....................................................................................................................... 27
   2.3. School System ................................................................................................................................ 29
   2.4. Teacher Associations and School Principal Associations ......................................................... 33
   2.5. Public Perception on School Education and Teachers ................................................................. 34

3. Governance Structure and School Leadership ..................................................................................... 37
   3.1. The Decision-Making Structure at School Level ............................................................................ 37
   3.2. Recent Issues Concerning Principal Leadership ............................................................................ 40
   3.3. Distribution of Authorities ............................................................................................................ 42
   3.4. School Governance and Role of Principals .................................................................................... 46
   3.5. Organization and Structure of School Leaders ............................................................................... 48
   3.6. Conflicts at School Level ............................................................................................................... 49
   3.7. Collaboration among Schools and the Role of Principals ............................................................... 50
   3.8. Principal’s Role in Local Community Development ....................................................................... 52
   3.9. Research on the Skills Required for Effective School Leadership ............................................... 53
4. Strengthening Learning and the Principal Leadership

4.1. Policy Agenda Related to the Quality of Instruction, Learning, and Evaluation
4.2. Teaching-Learning and the Role of the Principals
4.3. School Accountability
4.4. The Responsibility towards the Outcomes of Student Learning
4.5. Development and Management of Curriculum
4.6. Teaching Duty of Principals
4.7. Provisions to Improve Teachers’ Classroom Instruction
4.8. Teacher Evaluation
4.9. Teachers’ Professional Development
4.10. Related Researches
4.11. Priority in Policy Development

5. Attractiveness of the School Principal as an Occupation
6. Preparation and Professional Development of Principals ........................................... 9

6.1. Recent Policy Concerns ......................................................................................... 90

6.2. Pathways of Preparing School Leaders ................................................................. 91

6.3. Pre-Service Programmes ....................................................................................... 93

6.4. Certification of the School Principal .................................................................... 97

6.5. In-Service Professional Development of Principals ............................................. 99

6.6. Priorities for Future Policy Development ............................................................. 104

7. Conclusion ................................................................................................................ 105

7.1. Strengths and Weaknesses ................................................................................... 105

7.2. Priorities for Future Policy Development to Improve School Leadership .......... 107

REFERENCES ............................................................................................................ 110

APPENDICES ............................................................................................................. 114
List of Tables

<Table 2.1> Numbers of Elementary schools, teachers, and students (2005) .......... 114
<Table 2.2> Numbers of Middle schools, teachers, and students (2005) ............... 114
<Table 2.3> Numbers of General High schools, Teachers, and Students (2005) .......... 114
<Table 2.4> Numbers of Vocational High Schools, Teachers, and Students (2005) ... 115
<Table 2.5> Numbers of Special Purpose High Schools, Teachers, and Students (2005) ... 115
<Table 5.3.1> Changing Proportions of Female Principals at Elementary and
Secondary School Levels .............................................................. 115
<Table 5.3.2> Ages of Elementary and Secondary School Principals (1996-2005) .... 116
<Table 5.3.3> Career in Education of the Elementary and Secondary
<Table 5.10> Comparison of Monthly Average Salaries of Civil Servants
by Years of Employment .............................................................. 118
<Table 5.11> Cumulative Totals of Turnover of the Elementary and Secondary
School Principals during the Past Decade ....................................... 118

List of Figures

<Figure 2.1> The School System of Korea ........................................... 119
<Figure 3.1> An Example of Typical Distribution of School Affairs at School Level .... 119
1. National Background

1.1. The Economic, Political, Social, and Cultural Background

1. The Korean economy experienced unprecedented growth from the 1970s through to the mid-1990s. The driving forces behind such growth were a high-quality and diligent workforce, relatively low labor costs, and a heightened entrepreneurial spirit. However, since the foreign currency crisis that forced Korea into the IMF trusteeship in 1997, the economic growth rate has slowed considerably. Particularly since 2003, the growth rate held steady just slightly over 4%, raising apprehension that such low-level growth may become the norm. Lacking in natural resources, Korea places great emphasis on the development of her human resources through education, recognizing that human resources are the essential power for the economic development. Hence, the importance of schooling has been greatly emphasized.

2. Korea accomplished its economic growth under while the polity was controlled by successive military regimes, which continued for thirty years after 1962. However, the seeds of democracy were planted in during those years. With the turning point of history, The Gwangju Civil Protest in 1987 marked a significant turning point in our political history and paved the way for the eventual inauguration of the first civilian government in 1993. Korea’s move to democracy has been rapid. Citizen’s awareness of their rights has gone up, while the State has devised various systemic mechanisms to insure those rights. As a result of such democratic development, democratic citizenship has risen and Korean citizens increasingly seek to have their voices heard by forming various organizations on their own. Thus far, significant efforts have been made to employ primary and secondary education as a vehicle for transmitting democratic values to younger generations.

3. One of the fruits borne by democratization has been the growth of a civil society.
The civil society has approached many problems that were not dealt with by the government alone and has sought new problem-solving methods for conflicts between the government and its citizens. The very existence of various NGOs, interest groups, and non-profit organizations testifies the development of the civil society in Korea. The government also recognizes the role of the civil society, attempting to make mutual cooperation effectual. Consequently, both the government and the citizens remain committed to enhancing the democratic citizenship of Koreans through school education.

4. Traditionally, Korea had been characterized as an ‘ethnically homogeneous nation,’ a factor that contributed in part to the rapid educational development of Korea. However, the size of the immigrant population has increased since the late 1990s. Many immigrants come from Southeast Asia seeking employment opportunity or as the result of international marriages mainly between Korean males in rural regions and females from Southeast Asia and China. Korea now faces the phenomenon of ethnic diversity. The offspring of the increasing number of international couples presents the need for education that can account for such diversity and embrace cultural and ethnic differences.

1.2. Demographic Indicators of School Education

1.2.1. Demographic Trends

5. As of 2005, the Korean population is 48,300,000, which is a net increase of only 3,000 people from the 1995 census. However, the population growth rate during the same period has lowered from 1.01% down to 0.44%, and is expected to go below zero. Hence, the Korean population is expected to decrease after it culminates in 2020. The size of the child and adolescent populations (age 0–19), has already begun to drop markedly since 1990. It was 31.6% of the total Korean population in 1995 and was down to 25.6% in 2005. Such a decrease in the population of children and adolescents is expected influence the number of schools and teachers.
6. The demographic trends of Korea that are relevant to education include the decreasing birth rate, an imbalance in gender ratio of the newly born, an increase in the aged population, and an increase in the number of deficient families.

- Birth rate means the average number of the newly born babies one woman gives birth to throughout her fertile years. It was 4.5 in 1970, 1.19 in 2003, and 1.16 in 2004, showing a dramatic reduction. The Korean birth rate is one of the lowest in the world and declining rapidly. Such a decrease in the birth rate is expected impact the size of the school-aged population and the number of teachers, as well.

- The imbalance in the gender ratio owing to the Koreans’ favouritism of sons had become increased since the mid-1980s to the mid-1990s, but it has begun to lower since 1993 (115.3 males per 100 females) due to government intervention. Still, the ratio is not balanced in 2005, with 101.6 males per 100 females. This trend is expected to remain intact in the near future, reaching 101.4 males as late as year 2020.

- Proportion of the aged population over age 65 went beyond 7% in 2000, signalling the beginning of an authentic aging society; it is expected to rise above 14% in 2018, thereby making Korea an aged society. Further, it is predicted that Korea will enter the post-aged society with over 20% of the aged population in 2026. This rate is far faster than that of other industrially advanced countries. Since the increase in the aged population is connected to rapid decrease in working population, it is necessary to improve school curriculum for the purpose of training high quality workforce.

- Recently, increased divorce and economic hardship have increased the increase the number of deficient homes and the homes where grandparents rear grandchildren. Divorce rate was 1.4 couples per 1,000 people in 1994, culminating in 2003 with 3.5 couples per 1,000 people, and then was lowered somewhat to 2.6 couples per 1,000 people in 2005. At the same time, 6.8% of the entire homes were dismantled due couple’s trouble, including divorce and separation. Increasing as a result of home dismantling, is the number of single-mother and single-father
homes and homes where grandparents rear grandchildren. The number of single-mother and single-father homes was 1,369,943 in 2005, taking up approximately 8.6% of all households, while that of the homes where grandparents rear grandchildren was 58,101 in 2005, occupying approximately 0.36% of all households. These deficient homes exert direct influence upon deficient learning and problem behaviours of children, due to insecure living, weakened educational zeal, and deteriorated psychological conditions. Hence, increasing dismantling of homes poses a new challenge to school education.

1.2.2. Trends in the Labor Market

7. The unemployment rate is a principal indicator of the Korean labor market. The unemployment rate is announced by the Korea National Statistical Office based on the survey questionnaire administered to a sample of approximately 50,000 households. As of August 2006, the unemployment rate is 3.4%, having remained above the 3% plane during the recent one-year period. However, the number of the unemployed youth of age 15~24 takes up 9.1% of the total unemployment rate as of August, 2005, showing a rate relatively higher than other age groups.\(^1\)

8. Employment rate is influenced by various factors such as the structure and dynamic of the labor market, size of the graduate population of each school level, and the graduates’ attitude toward career development. Employment rate for each school level is as follows. Employment rate of the college graduates had been high, exceeding 70% during the 1970s and the 1980s, but lowered drastically down to 50% due to the increase in the number of college graduates during 1980~1985 period and the accompanying economic stagnation. It rose up to 60.9% in 1995. However, it dropped again due to the economic crisis and rebounded to 65.0% by 2005. Additionally, employment rate of the two-year junior college graduates continues to rise. Factors

\(^1\) This part was written based on the content provided via Internet by Korea National Statistical Office. http://kosis.nso.go.kr/cgi-bin/sws___999.cgi
behind the rise are the vocational focus junior colleges, preparing graduates for middle-rung technical positions through practical field education. The junior colleges themselves have worked hard to open the departments that meet the demands of the industrial society, revise their curriculum, and strengthen industry-college cooperation. Employment rate of the junior college graduates has risen consistently since the 1990s and reached 83.5% in 2005. While the employment rate of the graduates of vocational high schools had risen steadily up to 90.2% in 2003, and fell a little afterward to 86.3% as of 2005. Such a trend has occurred mainly due to the fact that the number of students applying to vocational high schools has dropped and that more graduates of vocational high schools choose to enter higher education institutions instead of entering the occupational world, which is viewed as a fundamental crisis of vocational high school education (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and KEDI, 2005).

9. Popularity of the teaching profession in the labor market can be evinced indirectly by examining the number of people applying to the teacher employment examination and its competition rate. One the employment examination for secondary school teachers nationwide, 55,936 persons applied for 3,985 open positions. There were 14.0 applicants for every position in 2005; and 59,090 applicants for 5,245 positions or 11.3 applicants for every position in 2006 (Press release of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development). The major factors behind such an increase in the number of applicants and the accompanying high competition rate are favourable work condition including three months of vacation, tenure guaranteed until age 62, and various pensions and welfare benefits. In addition, employment opportunity has deteriorated due to the continuing economic depression since the foreign currency crisis of 1997, and employment stability of private corporations has worsened greatly vis-à-vis that of the teaching profession, all contributing to further raising popularity the profession.
2. School System and Teachers

2.1. Educational Administration System

10. Educational administrative organization of Korea, in a parallel axis to the general administrative levels, is formed by a three-tier structure of the central, the macro-regional, and the local. The Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development is in the central level, 16 metropolitan and provincial offices of education are in the macro-regional level, and 180 offices of education at the local level.

11. The central-level organ for educational administration was transformed from the Ministry of Education to the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development in 2001. Under the leadership of the Deputy Prime Minister, the Ministry performs the following duties: forming and implementing the policy; forming and implementing teacher policy; determining the national school curriculum; publishing and certifying school textbooks; providing schools of all levels with administrative and financial support; and supporting regional educational institutions and national universities.

12. The macro-regional organ for educational administration, i.e., 16 metropolitan and provincial offices of education, operate based upon the principle of educational self-governance. The metropolitan and provincial offices of education perform the functions of opening and closing educational institutions, managing the curriculum, and establishing school regulations. However, they do not perform fully the functions expected from the organs of self-governance, for instance, developing the regional educational policy or establishing the regional educational development plan.

13. The 180 local offices of education are educational administrative organs subordinate to the metropolitan and provincial offices of education, and are established at the basic units of self-governance, i.e., city, county, and ward. Main functions of the
local offices of education include guidance and supervision over the management of public and private kindergartens, elementary schools, and middle schools.

14. In terms of the distribution of authority and responsibilities between the central and the regional organs of educational administration, centralizing tendency still remains very strong. Under the banner of realizing the ‘small and efficient government,’ the Korean government has worked to reduce the size of the central administrative organs since the late 1990s. Stimulated by such efforts at downsizing, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development has also reduced the size of its organization and its staffs, and transferred many of its former functions to the regional organs of educational administration. As a part of such attempts, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development has passed on its major administrative decision-making authorities including budget planning to the regional organs of educational administration. However, the traditionally strong centralizing tendency has not receded easily and the centralized control remains pronounced in such core areas as finance, personnel, and organizational supervision. Particularly, over 80% of the regional educational expenditure is supplied by the central government, testifying the ongoing local dependence upon the central administration.

2.2. Educational Budget

15. The absolute amount of the budget of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development has consistently increased year by year. The fact that the size of the department’s budget increases are disproportionately large relative to increased in the Federal budget imply at least that the Korean government’s interest in education is relatively higher than that of other areas. Proportion of the total Federal budget allotted to the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development increased from 19.9% in 1985 to 22.8% in 1990, and from 2000 to 2005, it was 20.4%, 19.5%, 19.6%, 20.3%, 20.8%, and 20.8%, respectively, amounting to 27 trillion won in 2005.
16. Local educational finance, that is, the educational expenditure of the metropolitan and provincial offices of education in charge of elementary and secondary school education, is composed of the subsidy and grants of the central government, revenue transferred from local governing bodies, revenue accrued from internal assets, locally issued bonds, tuition paid by parents, and school admission fees. While the total size of the local educational finance increases steadily, financial share of the central government has been decreasing gradually, since its highest point of 85.2% in 1998. This implies that financial independence of the local educational administration is also gradually growing stronger gradually. Meanwhile, proportion of the regional government’s financial share in the regional educational finance has increased greatly since 2000, reaching up to 24% of the entire budget in 2005.

17. One of the problems posed by educational finance of Korea is that the size of private expense for education is consistently on the rise. While the private expense includes the cost for developing individual speciality and talent, the largest share pays for cramming for college entrance examination. This problem of private expense is identified as one of the primary causes behind the coming of public education crisis by disturbing whole-person development of students, impeding normal management of school curriculum and thereby crippling school’s function, and exacerbating the public distrust toward school education as well as by imposing financial burden upon individual households. The educational authority declared that it would normalize public education and reduce the perceived necessity of private educational expense by altering college addition criteria, specifically transferring 50% of the weight to students’ high school achievement record starting in 2008. However, it appears that the parents’ spending on private education will increase even more, since major universities in Korea have decided to increase the weight of essay test within the remaining 50% of evaluation data and thereby encouraging parents to spend more on private cramming courses designed to prepare students for the essay test.
2.3. School System

2.3.1. Characteristics of School System

18. Korea has thus far maintained the 6-3-3-4 school system adopted during the U.S. Military Government period of 1945-1948, as shown in Figure 2.1. Types of schools include kindergarten, elementary school, middle school, high school, university, university of education, teachers college, junior college, air and correspondence university, open university, technical school, higher polytechnic institute, civic school, higher civic school, and special school. Schools are also categorized into national, public, and private schools, depending on the type of founding agency. Six years of elementary school education and three years of middle school education are compulsory schooling free of charge. Free compulsory education at middle school level was adopted first in rural areas in 1985, and was extended nation-wide in 2002.

19. The present school system has been often criticized because cooperative and connective relations between different school levels are weak, and so is the connection between formal schools and social education institutions. Furthermore, there is no specialization among the educational institutions and educational processes designed for a variety of specialized technical training programs at higher education level, when specialization is demanded to cope with the changes in industrial structure. Vocational skills training in public school system in particular remains insufficient. Also, there is no adequate cooperative system between schools and industry. In addition, it has been pointed out that lifelong education systems, which should help citizens to receive education and training on a need-basis regardless of age, remains immature. As a response to these criticisms, a shift to 5-3-3-4 school system is currently being given a serious consideration.

2.3.2. Types and Numbers of Schools

20. Depending on the type of founding agency, schools are divided into national, public,
and private schools. Besides the elementary school level, proportions of private schools are very high when compared to other countries. In 2005, 1.3% of all elementary schools, 22.9% of middle schools, 44.8% of high schools, and 84.7% of universities are private. There are many private schools at secondary school level because in the past, the legal requirements for establishing private school foundations were curtailed by the government for the purpose of universalizing secondary schooling, which consequently contributed to an expansion of private schools.

21. Elementary schools of Korea admit children of at least age six, however, when parents wish earlier admission for their children and school’s capacity allows, children of age five can be also admitted. The current situation in elementary schools as of 2005 is shown in Table 2.1. The number of elementary schools was 6,335 in 1990; it decreased gradually down to 5,267 in 2000. As a result of the decrease in the number of schools in rural areas, resulting from a similar trend in the overall population of those areas, a subsequent policy to integrate multiple rural schools into a single one was introduced. Since 2000, however, due to a small increase in the size of school-aged population and the policy to reduce the number of students per class, the number of schools has increased to 5,646 as of 2005.

22. The number of middle schools has increased steadily since 1965, primarily due to the fact that the number of middle school students skyrocketed in 1965 after a policy was introduced which effectively removed entrance exams. Even after middle school education was universalized in 1985 with 100% enrolment of school-aged population, the number of middle schools continues to increase due to the policy to reduce the number of students per class. Whereas new public schools are being built, private schools tend to diminish, so that the proportion of private schools had been 42.5% of the entire middle schools in 1965 but dropped to 22.9% in 2005. The numbers of middle schools, teachers, and students for year 2005 are shown in Table 2.2.

23. Korea’s high schools are classified as general high schools, vocational high schools, and air and correspondence high schools. To diversify high school education, special
purpose high schools and specialized high schools have been recently introduced. The numbers of schools, teachers, and students of general high schools, vocational high schools, and special purpose high schools for the year 2002 are shown in Table 2.3, 2.4, and 2.5, respectively.

24. It is expected that the number of schools will diminish as small cohort on students move through the system over the next ten years, as a result of declining birth rates. Yet, the rate of the reduction will depend on the policy decision of the number of students per class.

2.3.3. Teachers and Support Staffs

25. The number of elementary school teachers increased quickly in the 1960s, when the number of elementary school students continued to go up. Since the 1990s, as the numbers of both students and schools showed a discernibly diminishing trend, the annual growth of the teacher population has also lowered markedly, and in 1999, influenced by the reduction of teacher retirement age, the number of teachers became smaller than the number from the preceding year. Elementary schools have since experienced a shortage of teachers. The total number of elementary school teachers is 160,143, out of which, the number of female teachers is 113,751, occupying about 71% of the total, in 2005.

26. The total number of middle school teachers is 103,835 as of 2005, having shown a continuous increase. The number increased particularly quickly first, in the late 1960s and early 1970s, when the entrance examination for middle schools was abolished, and second, in the late 1980s and early 1990s, when middle school education became compulsory. Since gender ratio of teachers was reversed in the late 1990s, female teachers have been the majority of the teaching profession, and their proportion is on a gradual increase. As of 2005, the total number of female teachers is 64,659, which is about 62% of the entire middle school population of teachers.
27. The number of general high school teachers continues to rise. Its total is 79,158 as of 2005, of which the number of national and public high school teachers is 41,156, slightly bigger than that of private high schools. Female teachers are 39.1% of the total, yet their proportion is on the rise. The proportion of female teachers in private high schools is 26.9%, which shows that the private schools favour male teachers to females as compared to national and public schools. As the number of vocational high schools has continued to decrease since 2001, the number of teachers is also decreasing.

28. The numbers of support personnel in elementary school, middle school, general high school, and vocational high school are 28,691, 11,840, 7,755, and 5,441, respectively, nationwide, as of 2005. Since teacher associations have consistently claimed that the administrative chores are excessively burdensome to teachers, and the government also tends to accept the teachers’ complaint, the number of the support personnel is increasing gradually year by year. However, as the number of vocational high schools decreases, the number of support personnel for vocational high schools is diminishing, as well.

29. In the future, it is predicted that the issue of the supply and demand of teachers will be affected by demographic change such as low birth rate and desertion of rural areas in favour of cities, on the one hand, and the changes in the government’s educational policies such as reduction of the number of students per class and teachers’ instructional hours and implementation of five school days per week, on the other. According to a recent research study on the supply and demand of the teachers by year 2020 (Kim, Ee-gyeong et al., 2006), it is predicted that due to the effect of low birth rate, the size of school-aged population for elementary school will drop rapidly, so that the supply of teachers will surpass the demand. The annual average demand for teachers is 2,400 until 2020, yet over 6,000 teachers complete their training every year, therefore, it would be necessary either to implement a student quota for elementary school programs at the teacher training institutions or to downsize new
employment. Meanwhile, in the case of secondary schools, supply of teachers far surpasses the demand under the current system due to diversification of training tracks. Therefore, it appears necessary to consider a policy to reduce the size of teacher trainees.

2.4. Teacher Associations and School Principal Associations

2.4.1. Teacher Associations

30. The teacher associations of Korea are bifurcated into professional associations and labor unions. The Professional association is represented by The Korean Federation of Teachers’ Association, while there exist three labor unions: Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union, Korean Union of Teaching & Educational Workers, and Korea Liberal Teachers’ Union, which was formed recently by the teachers with conservative bent.

31. The bifurcation policy means bifurcating teacher associations into the professional association and the labor union. Under this scheme, the former is made to negotiate teacher policy in general, including in-service teacher training and professional improvement issues, while the latter is made to negotiate issues pertaining to improving the economic and social status of teachers, e.g., salary and work conditions. Although the teacher association and labor unions are similar in that both are teacher organizations seeking to promote the rights and interests of teachers, they differ greatly in other aspects, such as the legal grounding for establishment, related legal articles of basic rights, membership and organization, purpose of negotiation, involved parties, work and effect, and coordination procedure. The bifurcation policy has caused continuing agitation due to overlapping of negotiation agendas and effectiveness of the negotiated outcomes.

32. On the government policies affecting teacher status, employment, and stability, different teacher associations often express the same voice, but other times, they present
conflicting opinions, depending on each association’s character and its members’ vested interest. While regular teachers tend to join the teacher labor unions, both regular teachers and school managers tend to join the Korean Federation of Teachers’ Association.

2.4.2. School Principal Association

33. School principals have formed various associations based on school level, school founding body, region, and class of occupational position. Hence, there exists: Korea Association of Elementary School Principals, Korea Association of Female Elementary School Principals, Korea Association of National and Public Middle School Principals, Korea Association of National and Public General High School Principals, Korea Association of Female Secondary School Principals, National Association of Industrial High School Principals, and National Association of Private School Principals. Also, there are the Principal Council and Vice Principal Council, which are professional associations under the Korean Federation of Teachers’ Association. These associations have voices in the educational society, which are expressed through group announcements on specific agenda items and issues pertaining to elementary and secondary school education. In addition they host forums and seminars related to educational issues. The main issues the principal associations have recently paid attention to are the open recruitment of principals, the revision of the Private School Education Law, the abolition of the equalization policy, and the abolition of the open autonomous school.

2.5. Public Perception on School Education and Teachers

2.5.1. Public Perception on the Quality of School Education

34. The Korean people’s perception of school education is very complex. Education in Korea has traditionally been not only a decisive means to raise socioeconomic status
and to cultivate mind at individual level, but also an engine to propel nation’s development at national level. Schools have long monopolized the educational function of the society, and the general public have viewed school education as absolutely important.

35. However, there arose signs of the shaking stature of schools in the late 1990s. First, there emerged the criticism that the high school equalization policy enforced since 1973 was insufficient to train high quality human talent who can compete in the international society. Second, there was a complaint that Korea’s schools overemphasized intellectual achievement at the expense of sacrificing whole-person growth. Third, Korea’s school education maintains a high reputation in the international arena for its high educational achievement, as evince by the international comparative research like PISA and TIMMS, however, it has failed to obtain such a good reputation domestically. Korean parents do not view their schools favourably in comparison with private cram schools. Most parents complain that the Korean schools do not provide the quality education their children need to succeed in college entrance examination, especially in comparison with private cram schools. Fourth, negative issues, such as excessive corporal punishment by teachers, teacher bribery by parents, and deficient school lunches, have been reported via mass media, influencing the general public perception of school education.

36. However, the aforementioned negative perception of school education may be problematic primarily for the urban high-income population. For the low-income population and rural populations, school is still the only and the most trustworthy educational institution. The latter populations expect schools to go beyond the conventional educational function and to play the role as the educational center for local community.

2.5.2. Public Perception on Teachers

37. As expressed through the traditional Confucian adage that ‘the monarch, teacher, and
father are one,’ Koreans have long preserved their respect for teachers. Scholars with high academic attainment and moral eminence not only occupied high social status, but also received deep respect from the society. Besides such public respect for teachers, the teaching profession was one of the few high-paying, high status jobs available in the traditional society. It attracted numerous talents.

38. Attractiveness of the teaching profession resulted in increased competition among talented individuals to enter the profession. The teachers can be called the main power to train the industrial workforce urgently needed for the high-speed industrialization of the 1960s and 1970s. However, securing a sufficient number of talented teachers became more difficult throughout the high economic growth period of the 1970s and 1980s. As the industrialization, based on the heavy chemical industry expanded rapidly, urbanization quickened and job positions promising high wage also greatly increased. Industrialization resulted in lowering of the relative socioeconomic status of the teaching profession, and accordingly, the qualifications of the teacher trainees enrolled in the elementary and secondary teacher training institutions were lowered somewhat, as well.

39. However, after the foreign currency crisis of 1997, stable job positions have decreased dramatically, yet the employability of teachers was heightened because of a temporary teacher shortage resulting from a large-scale retirement of teachers following the reduction of teacher retirement age in 1999. At the same time, the situation in the general labor market was deteriorating due to the waning of lifelong employment practice and the increase of part-time workers. The teaching profession, which guarantees employment until retirement and provides exceptional status security, began to regain its former attractiveness. Consequently, numerous excellent human resources entered the teacher training institutions in the 2000s.

40. School principals have traditionally commanded respect of the public as the teacher of all teachers, the grand elder of the school, and the top manager of school. Principals were seen by general citizens as well as regular teachers and school staff, as the
face of the school, the teacher with the highest status, person of high moral standing and social trust, and the expert at pedagogy and administration. However, as both the government and teacher associations have proposed new methods of employing principals, for example, open recruitment of principal and hiring via election, the traditional image of the school principal began to change considerably. The two measures, having individuals who are not teachers supervise and the election of principals from among school teachers, go together with the changing perception of the general public.

3. Governance Structure and School Leadership

3.1. The Decision-Making Structure at School Level

41. Korean educational administration system is very centralized. Hence, the school principal’s decision-making authority within the school is likewise limited. Although the principal decides the goal of each school, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and the metropolitan and provincial offices of education are basically in charge of school’s financial management and personnel selection. The school curriculum is determined and produced at the national level, so that the principal can organize and manage the curriculum only within the scope defined by the central Ministry.

42. Since the establishment of the school council, based on the educational reform measure of 1995, teachers, parents, and the members of the local community have participated in school management. However, mostly they perform a review function and do not influence the making of educational goals. In the category of personnel who exercise leadership at the individual school level, there are the principal, vice principal, and chief teachers, who are middle-rung supervisors.
43. The role, responsibility, and authority of a school principal are defined in entirety by Article No. 20 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law. The role of principal is supervision of school affairs, guidance and supervision of school staff, and the education of students. Principal’s tasks include: ① deciding school days, academic year and semester, and holidays; ② deciding class size and enrolment; ③ acknowledging curricular subjects, examination, and course completion; ④ deciding admission, re-admission, special admission, transfer, school leave, withdrawal, completion, and graduation; ⑤ deciding early grade-advance and early graduation; ⑥ collecting tuition, admission fees, and other miscellaneous expenses; ⑦ deciding student awards and disciplinary actions; ⑧ organizing and managing students’ self-governing activities; and ⑨ supervising the procedure of revising school regulations.

44. The School principal is the top manager of a school, who is authorized by the state to supervise and direct the school staff, educational activities, facilities, and school affairs in terms of both professional task and administrative status. The Principal is positioned at the central axis of school management, which is affected by various environmental factors, such as the principal’s own needs and attitudes, expectations of students, teachers, parents, and higher-ranking administrators, demographic changes, the economic situation, and the flow of information. The parties that exert influence upon the principal’s role are higher level managers, internal organizations, the local community, civil organizations, academic associations, educational organizations, social associations, and religions groups. Thus, when the internal organization does not comply with the policy direction sought by the higher administrative organ, or an internal event overlaps with an external event, a role conflict takes place.

45. In terms of school organization, vice principal is the second-ranked manager of school who assists the principal. Although vice principal is nominally categorized as a school administrator, the scope of the administrative work of the vice principal differs from one school to another. That is, the role of vice principal in school organization is
flexible and the scope of administrative authority accompanying his or her status is also prone to change, depending on the leadership style of the principal. The vice principal assists the principal by supervising school affairs and educating students, and when the principal is not able to perform his or her duty, vice principal acts for the principal.

46. The position of chief teacher is between the vice principal and regular teachers. It is not an independent qualification, but a post devised for performing specified tasks. This concept of a task-based post is distinguishable from the status of educational civil servant, which is defined by the Educational Civil Servant Law and the Employment Act of Educational Civil Servant. Therefore, legally speaking, while chief teacher is neither qualification, nor status, it is in practice a position formed inside of the school organization. Thus, the chief teacher occupies a leadership position in the school organization with respect to the area he or she is in charge of, enjoys a favourable standing in promotion vis-à-vis other teachers, and receives an allowance within the limits of the school budget. The number of chief teachers differs depending on school level and the number of classes. The types of chief teachers and their work distribution for each school level are decided by the school principal.

47. All the laws pertaining to the school principal, vice principal and chief teacher aforementioned are promulgated by the National Assembly and the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development. The legal grounding for teacher qualifications is provided by Article No. 21 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law, the Chapter 3 of the Educational Civil Servant Law, and Article No. 52 of the Private School Education Law, plus other related ordinances based upon these laws, namely, the Ordinance for Teacher Certification and its Enforcement, and the Ordinance for Accrediting Teacher Qualification and Quality
3.2. Recent Issues Concerning Principal Leadership

3.2.1. Personnel Management Authority of School Principal

48. Although in principle, the founder of a school (state, city, province, and school corporation) reserves the personnel management authority for that school in Korea, for the purpose of making school management effective and efficient, personnel matters for existing employees are delegated to principals, that is, appointing and dismissing teachers to and from school posts, appointing and dismissing temporary teachers, and deciding promotion of teachers, are delegated to the school principal. Thus, the authority over important personnel management affairs including employment and transfer of teachers is exercised by the metropolitan and provincial offices of education, and the principal’s voicing over those matters remains limited and distribution of the principal’s authority is inactive. Despite the ostensible slogan of school-based management for accountability, higher administrative office’s implicit intervention still occurs in such matters as teacher transfer based on principal recommendation, disciplinary action for problem teachers, award-conferring to quality teachers, and selecting the teachers eligible for overseas training, which can be the precondition for securing the autonomy of school-based management,

3.2.2. Relationship between School Principal and Teacher Associations

49. The School principal does need active participation and collaboration of teachers in both establishing the educational goals of a school and its management. Therefore, establishing an adequate relationship with the teacher associations in which the teachers join and conduct activities is an important variable in effective school management.

50. While the principal and vice principal can be the members of the Korean Federation of Teachers’ Association, they cannot join the labor unions, which regard them as employers. Such a structure often causes conflict between the principal and teacher associations. That is, the Korean Federation of Teachers’ Association is in a position
to represent the voices of the principals and vice principals, thus, its educational policy proposals rarely contain propositions that oppose the interests of principals and vice principals. However, the Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union, which is the largest labor union of teachers, mainly represents the interests of regular teachers, and therefore, sometimes proposes a policy agenda that contradicts the interests of the principals and vice principals.

3.2.3. Decreasing School Size Due to the Relocation of School-Aged Population

Due to the population concentration in the cities, schools in rural regions have experienced a drastic decrease in the number of students, and accordingly, small size schools are on the increase, which causes many difficulties for school principals. For effective management of educational programs, principals in rural regions have to develop the programs in conjunction with adjacent schools. The principals of small schools also face difficulties, because regardless of the school size, the basic duties a school has to perform do not differ from those of large schools. Also, when the principal intends to implement a lot of projects, the small number of teachers is not adequate to fulfil the demands rising from such workload, which can generate a conflict between the principal and the teachers.

3.2.4. Connection with Parents and the Local Community

Parents and the local community participate actively in school management, and demand that schools play diverse roles in the community. Parents and the local community provide schools with diverse, and participate directly and indirectly in school management through school councils and such. They call for the consumer-oriented education, in which schools become the center of the local community and value students the most, on the one hand, and the systemic change designed to maximize autonomy at school level, on the other. School principals are also well aware that effective school management cannot take place without the
participation of parents and the local community, and without responding to their voices. Therefore, the school principals are increasingly asked to support the participation of the parents and the local community and to be responsive to their demands.

### 3.2.5. Innovation Related to Technology and Instruction

53. The rapidly advancing ICT technology has greatly influenced the innovation of instructional methods in school, hence many teachers now make use of ICT equipment, such as the personal computer, scanner, and beam projector. At the same time, abundant educational contents are provided to students in the cyber space. The Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development has greatly increased its budget for e-learning by constructing a network among the 16 metropolitan and provincial offices of education, so that the school principals are being accountable for supporting the finance and facility and expanding the training opportunities to allow teachers to utilize the cutting-edge instructional equipment and materials efficiently.

### 3.3. Distribution of Authorities

54. In terms of distribution of responsibility in decision-making between the educational authority and schools, since de-facto local educational self-governance was implemented in 1991, the metropolitan and provincial offices of education and local offices of education have been placed in the center of the structure of school governance. Elementary and middle schools are under the control of the local offices of education, and high schools are under the metropolitan and provincial offices of education. Private elementary schools are more directly under the control of the board of trustees of the school than under the education offices.
3.3.1. Distribution of Finance and Resources

55. Financial support for national and public schools is entirely dependent upon the government. In terms of school-based financial management, decision-making power in all school finance matters except the personnel and facility cost has been delegated to individual schools since the implementation of the integrated accounting system in 2001. As a result of the spontaneous efforts of individual schools, school income was supplemented by collecting fees and commissions at school level. These collected funds were placed under the direct supervision and management of schools, therefore, the scope of the decision-making power at the school level is expanding. However, such increase still remains insignificant since, as aforementioned, 80% of the local school budget is still supplied by the central government. It is safe to say that the financial decision-making power over national and public schools is still in the hands of the government.

56. Private schools can undertake profit-seeking activities for the purpose of accruing the funds needed for school management. These activities used to be managed in a separate accounting system, distinguished from school accounting. However, they have been integrated for more efficient school management. Nonetheless, since any the financial deficits of private schools are supported monetarily by the government and the private school tuition is fixed at a level identical to that of public schools, it is valid to state that the finance of private schools is almost entirely dependent upon the government. The government exercises its power over decision-making in private schools, which are operated in accordance with the Private School Education Law, by inspecting the private schools known to be involved in corruption, or reducing the size of financial support for problematic private schools.

3.3.2. Development and Application of the Curriculum

57. Since the Curriculum elementary and middle schools belong to the scope of compulsory education and are therefore identical nation-wide, the decision-making power over
public and private schools is entirely in the hands of the government. At the same
time, due to the school high school equalization policy, private high schools should
also comply with the same curriculum as that of public high schools. Each school
is accountable for effectively managing the given curriculum.

3.3.3. Teacher Employment and Student Selection

58. While the employment of teachers, specified by law, is identical in national and
public schools, as well as private schools. National and public schools employ teachers
through an examination of open competition administered by the state and metropolitan
and provincial offices of education. Private schools employ a school-based selection
procedure. Principals are employed by the state in national and public schools, but
are appointed and dismissed by the manager of the school corporation or the school
manager in private schools. The authority to decide student admission, preservation,
and promotion for both the national, public schools, and private ones is entirely in
the hands of the government.

3.3.4. Conflict between the Educational Administrative Authority and Schools

59. National and public schools rarely conflict with the educational authority with respect
to decision-making, finance and resources, or development of the curricular content,
for they share the fundamental goal of pursuing the public interest. However, the
school principal and the offices of education do often hold conflicting opinions about
teacher employment, student preservation, and admission. School principals only have
the authority to hire temporary teachers, while the higher offices of education appoint
and place teachers and students. And since the teachers and students do not face
any difficulty in status even when they do not follow a principal’s orders, it is difficult
for the principals to exercise authority effectively.

60. The efforts to resolve the conflict between national/public schools and offices of
education are made at two levels. First, at the level of general schools and second at the level of autonomous schools, special purpose high schools, and the open autonomous schools (which are in a course of pilot management). The efforts made in general schools include giving schools more autonomy in selecting and placing students, open recruitment of principals, and more financial oversight. The efforts made for the other types of schools include strengthening the financial support for the autonomous schools and open autonomous schools, permitting autonomous curricular courses beyond the national common curricular units, allowing open recruitment of the principal, and the authority to hire teachers.

61. Private schools conflict with the offices of education over decision-making in school curriculum and student supervision. Private schools also conflict with their board of trustees over the transparency of financial management and the oversight of principals and teachers. That is, the board of trustees, which seeks autonomy for private schools, conflict with both the school based leadership and the offices of education. Apart from that, private schools conflict with the government and teacher associations concerning the issue of transforming the school council into an organ of reviewing and decision-making. In contrast with the school council of national and public schools, the school council of private schools has performed only an advisory role regarding school regulations and budget setting.

62. The excessive regulation of school education based upon the equalization policy does not recognize the difference between the public and private schools when a regular private school is transformed into an independent private school, as in the case of the autonomous schools. The regulation has recently been somewhat relaxed. Its extensive implementation is currently suspended as a result of an evaluation conducted through pilot schools. Thus, the conflict between private schools and offices of education lingers on. The efforts to resolve the conflict between private school and the board of trustees include the adoption of open board membership, through which a part of the board members are appointed by the recommendation of the school
staff, and measures to heighten transparency in financial management by strengthening the corporate inspection system, restricting granting board membership to the relatives of school founder, and making the teacher employment procedure public.

3.4. School Governance and Role of Principals

63. The educational reform measures announced on May 31, 1995 included an attempt to realize school-based educational self-governance through the school-based management system. The school-based management refers to the practice of delegating much of the authority for school management to individual schools, so that the principal can manage the school autonomously. Hence, it is a management concept introduced for the purposes of improving academic achievement while at the same time practicing the consumer-centered education by highlighting the unique attributes of each school. Its major strategies were establishment of school council and implementation of the contract-based school expenditures.2)

64. Although the school principals received a part of the self-governing authority through the school-based management, they also face the challenges arising from the new role and responsibility. As a person responsible for school management, the school principal has to perform the following functions: planning and decision-making in managing school education and school activities; managing the school; controlling and evaluating school management; inspecting internally to enhance teacher professionalism; and coordinating with the parents and the local community. Also, in order that the school principal should equip himself or herself with the capacity required of the leader of school management, and thereby perform the student-centered school management more effectively, he or she must exercise the leadership that is democratic and transformative. To this end, the principal should meeting with teachers

2) The contract-based expenditure was adopted to expand the self-governing authority of the individual schools by paying the total amount of budget to school, with which each school can change the usage of the expenditure in a way that suits its specific needs.
and various advisory committees to collect the wide-ranging voices of the members of school organization, rather than managing the school on his or her own in an arbitrary manner.

65. The principal’s authority of the curriculum, teacher selection, evaluation, and budget is generally in a harmonious relation with the principal’s management accountability. Most elementary and secondary national or public schools adopt the national curriculum and select teachers based upon the national certificate, under the authority of the metropolitan and provincial offices of education, and under the authority of the board of trustees in the case of private schools. Therefore, the school principals have authority over personnel management only insofar as the teacher’s job performance is concerned. Contents of student evaluation are based upon the national curriculum, and the major principles for curricular management are notified by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and the offices of education. While the implementation of the integrated accounting system conferred some degree of autonomy to the principal, decisions over student tuition are undertaken at the national level. So the principal’s authority over the curriculum, teacher selection, and evaluation remains weak. Thus, under such an administrative structure, neither the higher offices of education, nor parents can hold the principal accountable for school management. Particularly, due to the centralized nature of the entire structure of educational administration, low evaluation of school principal’s accountability can be interpreted as neglected supervision of the offices of education, or the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development. Principals can not be equitably held accountable for school management by the superior offices.

66. The only accountability mechanism visible in the schools of Korea is school evaluation. However, even in school evaluation, school achievement cannot be employed as the criterion to assess accountability. For school evaluation is just an evaluation mechanism for the input- and process-centered accountability, not an outcome-centered one. Another reason why the evaluation based on such a clear outcome as school achievement cannot take place is the existence of the equalization policy. Since the
equalization policy is established under the premise that the educational condition and level are similar among different schools, schools cannot be ranked in a hierarchy by exposing the level of school achievement. Therefore, it is difficult to discuss fairness between authority and accountability of the school principal based upon school achievement level.

3.5. Organization and Structure of School Leaders

3.5.1. School Management Structure

Distribution of school Affairs plays the crucial role within the entire structure of school management. School affairs refer to the overall chores and duties required for school management. Although the school principal is ultimately responsible for school affairs, the principal cannot take care of all the school affairs alone, so that they are distributed to other staff, such as vice principal, chief teachers, teachers, administrative workers, and other staff. The distribution of school affairs varies between school levels, school types, school sizes, and the management of the principal. However, it should be a cooperative system involving the school staff in order to help the school attain the educational goals effectively. An example of a typical distribution of school affairs is presented in Figure 3.1.

3.5.2. School Leadership Structure

To examine the leadership structure of Korea’s schools, it is necessary to examine the structure of teachers first. The structure of teachers in Korea is dualistic; teachers are divided into the teacher track and the supervisor track. In the teacher track, there are regular teachers and chief teachers, who primarily hold the grade 1 or grade 2 teacher certificates and are dedicated to classroom teaching. In the supervisor track, there are the principal and vice principal, who are in charge of the administration and supervision of the school, without the duty for classroom teaching. The concepts
of grade 1 and grade 2 teachers do not represent different classes, but reflect seniority and qualification, so that the holders of the two grades can be viewed on an equal footing. School principals elevate the teachers who have experience and skills to the post of chief teachers, who are then placed between regular teachers and vice principal. Meanwhile, since the distinction between the principal and vice principal is based on the difference in class, the principal can be viewed as a superior to the vice principal. Therefore, the overall structure of leadership in school is ordered from the bottom up: teacher-chief teacher-vice principal-principal.

3.6. Conflicts at School Level

69. The leadership style at the school level is shifting away from a teacher-centered organization and supervision-centered practice to a student-centered organization and teaching and learning-centered practice. Educational administration in Korea has been the government-centered thus far, so that formal and bureaucratic leadership characterized by directing, ordering, and inspecting was the norm. This contrasts with leadership that supports school’s and teacher’s teaching and learning activities effectively. This tradition has insured organization efficiency in individual schools and convenience in executing school affairs, yet it has been one of the major factors that has forced the schools to be devoid of uniqueness or invention.

70. The leadership styles of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and the offices of education have influenced individual schools. As a result, the leadership of directing, conveying, and confirming the tasks and information based upon vertical/one-way supervision has became the norm between the principal and teachers as well as between the teacher and students. Thus, the principals formed a closed relationship with parents and the local community and ran schools in a rigid way. To overcome such state of affairs, teachers who demanded student-centered education and democratic leadership formed the Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union in 1989. Since then, conflicts over the supervisory leadership of the
school principals have taken place from time to time and the parents and the local community also came to expect an open leadership style.

71. As local self-governance in educational administration was put into effect in 1991 and the consumer-centered educational reform measures were announced in May, 1995, teachers became capable of containing the authority of the school principal and participating more freely in the decision-making process. At the same time, parents who used to remain mere financial supporters for schools were allowed to participate in the process of conceptualizing and implementing school policies through a newly devised systemic mechanism. Namely, the school council was formed for the purpose of maximizing the effect of school education and rationalizing school management. Now, teachers, parents, and the figures of the local community participate in the school council and form a school community, calling for more autonomous and responsible management. As a result, the leadership of the principals is changing to the style that emphasizes student learning.

3.7. Collaboration among Schools and the Role of Principals

72. The 7th Curriculum put into effect since 2000 specifies that role distribution and mutual support be established among the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, metropolitan and provincial offices of education, and the school level. For the goal is to transform Korea's education to a curriculum-centered education system. However, since individual schools lack the physical and technological bases to construct a curricular network with other schools, the network has been formed at the level of offices of education for different educational projects. Examples include the pilot management of small cooperative schools in rural regions, cooperative education between kindergarten and elementary school, and the placement of the multiple-duty teachers in general high schools.

73. The small cooperative school is established to counter the problems often occurring
due reduced school sizes (often in rural areas), such as inferior educational facilities, irregular management of the curriculum, excessive workloads for teachers, and inefficient use of the facility and finance. Hence, the schools with less than 6 classes and 100 students cooperate with one another in teacher exchanges, collaborative curriculum organizing, joint development activities, integrated utilization of facilities, collective training, collective meeting, and the multiple-duty teacher system. However, due to the low understanding of teachers, the small cooperative school system is managed on a pseudo-compulsory basis without the spontaneous spirit of the collaborating parties, and thus, remains ineffective. Therefore, it is necessary for the principals to enhance the participatory spirit of the staffs and come up with a concrete connective system.

74. Cooperative education between kindergartens and elementary schools has been proposed to enable the joint development of the curriculum for kindergarten and the early grades of elementary school, and to promote establishment of the kindergartens attached to elementary schools. It purports to raise efficiency of education by connecting the educational activities, educational conditions, and instructional methods of the two levels of education. Of the total 8,275 kindergartens nation-wide, 4,409 are attached to national and public elementary schools. However, even those attached kindergartens do not have educational programs connected to elementary school education. Thus, the principals should recognize the importance of that connection to reorganize various aspects of the educational environment in order to support a closer collaboration.

75. In general high schools the utilization of teacher resources is connected between different schools for the purpose of managing the choice-centered curriculum. The goal of the teacher resource network is to place the regular teachers in charge of the elective subjects as multiple-duty teachers to maximize students’ choice of elective subjects in different schools. For teachers to share the instructional activities, moving among several schools without being bound by the school administration, school
organization departs from an arrangement that is administration and school grade-centered, to a curriculum-centered one. Here, school principals are required to organize teachers at the school level in a way that focuses instructional activities, rather than administrative works. This enables the values of diversity and autonomy manifested in the 7th Curriculum can be actualized. To this end, there must be additional manpower to reinforce the administrative works.

3.8. Principal’s Role in Local Community Development

76. School’s role in developing the local community and practicing volunteer activities encompasses directly providing the local community with the necessary human and material resources, and making school classrooms available for lifelong learning of local residents. Such a culture center might offer courses for computer operation, flower arrangement, or musical instrument learning. However, the principal’s effort can become more effective, when both the school and the local community interact with one another, rather than when the school is simply demanded to serve the local community.

77. The ‘after-hour school,’ enthusiastically implemented by the government recently, is a good example that demonstrates the role of schools in developing and serving the local community. The after-hour school began to replace private proprietary institutions by providing students with supplementary classes and individually tailored education such as ‘speciality and aptitude’ activities. It has also begun to function as the site of diverse forms of lifelong education for the local residents by opening the school facility to the public. One of the most prominent examples is the ‘non-grade class’ and lifelong education program at Jangan High School, which was designated as the ‘urbanizing rural school for the policy research of the after-hour school’ by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development in 2005. The Jangan High School runs over 40 supplementary and autonomous learning classes of 2-hour duration that accord students’ achievement levels, to highlight the unique traits of the urbanizing
rural region, in which private cramming institutes have not been formed near the school. Based on the self-developed ‘on-line supervision system of the after-hour school,’ each class is opened according to application of students. Thus, individually tailored education is provided to students through a program, which enables each student to apply for the course that is appropriate to his or her achievement level.

78. An example of interactive relationship between school and the local community can be observed in the case of the principal’s effort at Sucheong Elementary School in Songni Mountain. Sucheong is a small school situated in a remote mountain area within the Mt. Songni National Park, yet it has become a model rural school, fully utilizing the surrounding environment for school activities and opening up the facility to the local residents. Going beyond simply lending the school facility to the local residents, the school has constructed a pavilion-style outdoor library for the residents at the corner of its sports field, and is also building a new multi-purpose facility at another corner of the school. Sucheong Elementary School is an example of co-existence of school and the local community in a harmonious relationship, testifying that the efforts of a school principal can help the school become the core resource of the local community.

3.9. Research on the Skills Required for Effective School Leadership


79. This research was conducted by the Korean Educational Development Institute (2000) to explore the direction of the principal leadership to meet changes in a school’s management environment. To this end, the changing management environment inside and outside of school was analyzed. Changes in the leadership paradigm were analyzed as well as the legal and institutional authorities of the principal and the manpower structure and its supervision were analyzed. Based on the analyses, a diagnosis of
the principal’s characteristics, analyses of leadership awareness and demand, and leadership cases were offered, to explore principal leadership that can lead and adapt to the internal and external conditions of a school.

80. As a result, the leadership that meets the changing management environment of a school was defined as the “self-directing educational leadership.” The school principal possessing such leadership leads the school’s educational planning and weighs the diverse opinions of the school staff in the planning process. This principal would undertake curriculum supervision and inspection, perform student guidance, and supervise the finance and the facilities. Also, the principal should supervise the school organization in a way that emphasizes educational activities and endeavour to maintain a cooperative relationship with the local community.

81. The following is a list of support measures “self-directing educational leadership”: securing the principal’s status as educational expert, taking into consideration the traits unique to different school levels and to different founding types, improving the principal certification system, devising the performance standard for the principal, improving the principal employment system, re-examining the training and the supply and demand of the principals, improving the principal’s in-service training system, improving the educational administration system, and enlivening the atmosphere and culture of schools.

3.9.2. Research on School-Based Management System

82. The research was conducted by the Korean Educational Development Institute (2004). This is aimed at proposing the working methods for a school-based management system and offers many implications for effective school leadership at every school level. In this research, the current situation of school management in Korea was analyzed, which produced the following results. First, various members of a school are loosely connected. Second, the school organization is more efficient in handling
administrative chores than in performing educational activities. Third, teachers cannot perform educational activities effectively due to many chores. Fourth, individual schools are restricted heavily by the government in organizing and managing curriculum. And fifth, the current personnel affairs system favors an image of the teacher as an administrator to that of the teacher as a specialist in teaching and learning.

83. Based upon these analyses, domestic and foreign cases of excellent school management, and the extant literature, a ‘new model of school management’ was proposed. The image of the school management model is not that of the street-level administrative institution, but that of the school as an educational organization, as a community, as a learning organization, and as an open system. And the primary goal sought by the new school management model is to strengthen the educational power of individual schools. The model is buttressed by the fundamental principles of professionalism, cooperative spirit, autonomy, democracy, adaptability, and accountability. Strategies to implement new school management include transforming the school organization into the one focusing upon educational activities, strengthening the capacity of the principal and collective leadership, and expanding the school-based authority with respect to teacher employment. Also, the model suggested, the focus of conceptualizing and managing the personnel affairs system for teachers must be placed on the professional development of teachers, that the human resources of the school community be developed and utilized optimally, and that cooperation and connection among the school members be effective.

3.9.3. Research on Conditions of Teacher’s Job Performance and Developing the Standards

84. This research was carried out by Korean Educational Development Institute (2005). The goals of this research are to explore the domains and contents of the teacher’s occupational tasks, to systematically analyze the actual condition of the teacher’s job performance, and to develop standards for the teacher’s job performance that are valid
and reliable. To attain these goals, teachers were grouped into regular teachers and educational administrators, the domains of job performance for each group were explored, the actual condition of job performance was analyzed, and job performance standards were developed.

85. The analyses and results related to school administrators were as follows:

- School administrators organize and manage school curriculum, students guidance, manage the personnel affairs of teachers, and support in-service training and research activities of the teachers. They value organizing and managing school curriculum, supervising school achievement, supervising school budget and accounting, and supporting in-service training and research activities of the teachers more than other tasks. And they find dealing with parents and external cooperation very difficult.

- The report proposed the following six job performance standards for the school administrators: managing and evaluating curriculum, guiding and supporting students, supervising and supporting the school staffs, supervising and organizing school management, handling external cooperation with parents and others, and supporting professional development. And the following measures to utilize the six job performance standards were proposed: developing a program to train school administrators, improving the review method for employing school administrators, producing the basic material for developing the training program, devising the criteria for distinguish between the core tasks and chores, providing the criteria for evaluating school administrators, and providing the criteria for certifying excellent school administrators.

3.9.4. Qualitative Research on Excellent Principal Leadership

86. This research was conducted by KEDI in 2006. Going beyond the conventional discussion of the skills and roles of general school principals, this research looked
into the organizational culture, leadership characteristics, and educational philosophy of the principals through structured in-depth interviews with 40 principals. Participants were selected based upon exemplary reputations. As a result, organizational characteristics, leadership characteristics, and personal educational philosophies believed to be directly impacting their ability to lead educational institutions were identified. All those factors were understood as exerting influences upon the unique leadership actions of the excellent principals, impacting decision-making within the school organization, task performance, and so forth.

4. Strengthening Learning and the Principal Leadership

4.1, Policy Agenda Related to the Quality of Instruction, Learning, and Evaluation

4.1.1, Backdrop of Formation of the Policy Agenda

87. Since the adoption of the local self-governance in educational administration in the early 1990s, Korea has been under a process of shifting from the traditionally centralized system to a decentralized one. As a part of the effort for change, authority and responsibility of higher office are entrusted to lower ones within the hierarchy, from the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, trickling all the way down to the school site. In this context, both authority and responsibility of the school principal are currently being strengthened.

88. The strengthening of the authority and responsibility of the principal is being more specified by the adoption of the autonomous school-based management. With the introduction of the school accounting system, the principal’s autonomous authority over the school budget has been secured to a certain extent. Simultaneously with the strengthened authority, the principal’s accountability for school management is
also strongly increased.

89. The call for greater principal’s accountability is far reaching within the school context, yet it is mostly focused on improving the quality of instruction, learning, and evaluation. More specifically, it refers to the efforts at improving teachers’ instructional professionalism, improving student achievement, innovating evaluation methods, and managing the quality of curriculum. The degree of a principal’s efforts is assessed through the school evaluation administered by metropolitan or provincial office of education.

4.1.2. Policy Agenda

90. In recognition of the fact that teacher’s professional development is at the center of improving the quality of instruction, learning, and evaluation, the Korean government has made various efforts at developing teacher professionalism. All in all, the efforts at developing teacher professionalism are made at the level of each regional office of education in a way that suits the uniqueness of the region. Examples of such efforts are: supervising a research team for the development of new methods, directing teacher research in improving instructional methods, administering open classes of outstanding teachers, promoting curricular subject study groups among teachers, holding a competition for research papers in education, and holding an exhibition of educational materials. These efforts are aimed at site-centered in-service training that departs from the training of the past centered in the office of education and improvement in practically supporting the teaching and learning activities of teachers at the school level.

91. The principal plays the role of encouraging and supporting the school’s teachers to develop their professionalism by using the aforementioned institutional devices. The principal’s important duties are to provide the teachers with the necessary information on in-service training and to support them financially and materially. Although the number of the principals who consider these roles as their core tasks is increasing,
the available resources at their disposal remains extremely limited.

92. Recently, critics have often argued that the achievement level of elementary and secondary school students of Korea went down across the board. Thus, each metropolitan or provincial office of education has come up with strategies to raise achievement levels, while individual schools make various efforts at raising achievement based on the policy direction and support of the education offices. One of the most noteworthy reforms is an establishment of a legal basis for administering a nation-wide evaluation of student achievement (Item No. 1, Article No. 9, Elementary and Secondary School Education Law). However, there are many who have watchful eyes on the emphasis on raising students’ achievement level, worrying that such an emphasis might give rise to the problems of excessive competition for test scores, weakened sense of community, and neglect of character education.

93. In Korea, ‘performance-based assessment’ is being emphasized as an alternative evaluation method that could overcome the ‘miseducative’ limitations of conventional evaluations (based on paper and pencil test) by assessing each student based on direct observation and review of his or her school performance (Baek, Sun-geun, 2000). Introduced in 1999, performance-based assessment is now practiced in most elementary and secondary schools. Its assessment method includes written evaluation, essay type evaluation, oral evaluation, practical evaluation, experiment and exercise, interview, observation, research report, and portfolio. However, implementation of performance-based assessment has also revealed problems due to the excessive number of students per teacher, lack of preparation on teacher’s part, insufficient development of evaluation methods, and distrust of the evaluation result. Hence, each school makes many efforts under the guidance of the principal to heighten objectivity, fairness, and reliability of performance-based assessment.

94. The Korean government has paid attention to managing the quality of curriculum to improve the quality of instruction, learning, and evaluation (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 1998). As the mechanism to continuously
examine whether or not the national curriculum is properly implemented at the school level, there are evaluations of metropolitan and provincial offices of education, school evaluations, and evaluations of school achievement. The evaluation of metropolitan and provincial offices of education is being administered by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development. While school evaluations are undertaken by metropolitan and provincial offices of education, on a regular basis. However, since there are many who maintain a negative stance toward the evaluation of school achievement due to the concerns for about the social atmosphere, overheated competition among students, and subsequent deterioration of character education in school, achievement evaluation is not fully conducted yet.

4.2. Teaching–Learning and the Role of the Principals

95. Since the adoption of local self-governance in educational administration in the early 1990s, decentralization in education has been propelled in Korea. Although many authorities of the central government in the areas of personnel affair and finance have been transferred to the local level, the authority over developing and organizing the curriculum is still under the control of the central Ministry. Despite the fact that choice over some curricular subjects has been given to the principal since the Seventh Curriculum was implemented in 1997, the principal authority in curricular supervision still remains weak. Particularly, there are few opportunities for the principals to participate actively in the process of developing the policy related to instruction, learning, and evaluation. Still, most of the policy developing authority belongs to the central government.

96. However, as organized voices of various interest groups have begun to be reflected in the process of the government’s policy development since the early 2000s, the principals’ opinions were also reflected in developing the policy related to instruction, learning, and evaluation. The principals participate in the policy development primarily as either a member of a development team, or a member of an advisory committee.
Yet they sometimes present their opinions through various organizations of principals. Hence, the Korean principals today can be viewed as gradually shifting from the individual and passive participation in policy development toward collective and active participation.

4.3. School Accountability

97. Korea implemented the school-based management administered by the principal in the mid-1990s. The school-based management was devised to insure autonomy of individual schools in their educational activities and at the same time, to hold the schools accountable for outcomes. The mechanisms to verify individual school’s accountability include school evaluation, comprehensive consulting, and comprehensive inspection. Among them, school evaluation and comprehensive consulting are mainly aimed at verifying the quality and efficacy of school education.

98. School evaluation was one of the tasks of the educational reform measures proposed by the Educational Reform Council in 1995. Implemented in 1997, it was designed to review accountability of school education, to promote quality and efficacy of school education, and to construct a system to support the improvement of school education. (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 1997). School evaluation is based on Item No. 2, Article No. 9 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law, and is administered by either the metropolitan and provincial offices of education, or by local offices of education, according to the legal requirement.

99. School evaluation assesses a school’s efficiency and accountability by reviewing its educational activities, and is administered every two or three years for the purpose of stimulating change. Its evaluation domains are similar across all the 16 metropolitan and provincial offices of education, including in most cases ‘the goal of school education,’ ‘curriculum and educational method,’ ‘educational management,’ and ‘specialization project.’ Each of the evaluation domains is further divided into various
evaluation items (Korean Educational Development Institute, 2003). Evaluation methods include mainly written evaluations and on-site evaluations. The written evaluation primarily consists of reviewing the educational plan of a school prior to visit, while the on-site evaluation includes 1 to 4 days of visits to the school site by the evaluation team, which involves interviews, observation, and a review of all the various documents necessary to examine the overall aspects of educational activities.

100. Comprehensive consulting is done every two years by metropolitan and provincial offices of education or local offices of education. It is intended to determine whether or not each school is carrying out the educational measures of the office of education and identify deficient aspects for improvement. Comprehensive consulting has been implemented based on Article No. 6 and 7 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law. Class consulting, designed to improve instructional and learning activities of the teachers, is also a part of the comprehensive consulting.

101. For instance, the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education conducts inspections of one school every day, according to ‘one school per day regulation.’ The school inspection team usually consists of about five persons, including two or three inspectors evaluating the implementation of policies at the school level and two in-service teachers, vice principal, or principal, covering classroom inspection. Major methods of the comprehensive inspection are reviewing documented data about the current situation and educational activities of a school, undertaking classroom observation, holding a consultative meeting, examining how various areas of school affairs are being managed, holding a meeting with the teachers, and offering guidance or advice to the school (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2006b).

102. The result of school evaluation is utilized as a basic data for improving school management and school inspection, and some metropolitan and provincial offices of education provide excellent schools with a special grant. In the case of comprehensive consulting, a school is advised to improve upon the problematic aspects identified
by the consultative review, which are also used for future consulting. However, the outcome of the review is not used for disciplinary or punitive purposes. In terms of positive feedback, cases of excellent schools are disseminated to other schools, or influence the conferring of awards or citations of merit (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2006b).

103. However, Korea has not yet been able to come up with a mechanism to hold the principal directly accountable for school education. All in all, the school evaluated as excellent receives a monetary reward, yet its principal receives none, while the principal of the school evaluated as substandard is subjected to neither any disciplinary action, nor any disadvantage. Mostly, the latter type of schools is subjected to consultative review. The principals make use of the evaluation result as a guideline or reference material for improving school management.

4.4. The Responsibility towards the Outcomes of Student Learning

104. The authority to supervise and inspect the outcome of teaching and learning is bestowed to the school principal. The principal endeavours to raise fairness and transparency in evaluation and supervision of students’ school achievement. At the same time, the principal is also accountable for directing and leading the school staff to evaluate the students for the curricular content taught at school and student learning, using diverse assessment tools and methods. Student evaluation is conducted according to the ‘Regulations for Supervising School Achievement’ overseen by the office of education. Evaluation results are recorded in students’ school record according to the Article No. 25 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law.

105. In Korea, however, to compare students’ achievement among different schools has been tantamount to a taboo ever since the introduction of the high school equalization policy. Therefore in Korea, while the principal’s and teacher’s accountability for the learning process of the students exists, the principal’s and teacher’s accountability
for the outcome of learning has not existed for a long time. Although there has recently been a move to hold teachers accountable for student achievement, it has not materialized due to the strong opposition of the teacher associations.

106. The authority to supervise and control student delinquency in school also belongs to the principal. In most cases, however, teachers assume the role of disciplining the delinquent students. As student delinquency has increased recently, various problems have taken place in the process of disciplining the students. Teachers have been attacked by students or a student being subjected to severe corporal punishment by the teacher. Thus, there has risen a move legislatively strengthen teacher authority to discipline students and at the same time, an attempt to enact the ‘Law Prohibiting Corporal Punishment’ to prevent teachers’ arbitrary disciplinary action.

107. As shown above, the principal’s role in student discipline and supervision of the process and outcome of learning is very important in Korea. The principal is the head and supervisor of a school in the areas of supervising evaluation scores, supervising evaluation data, managing school performance, collecting parents’ opinions, managing student attendance data, and directing students’ participation in school activities. Also, the principal plays the role of overall supervision, direction, recording, and preservation of all of the activities, based on the guidelines provided by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and the regional offices of education.

4.5. Development and Management of Curriculum

108. In Korea, the Minister of Education and Human Resources Development determines the standard and content of school curriculum in accordance with law, and the superintendent of each metropolitan or provincial office of education is entitled to determine the standard and content appropriate to the local reality within the curricular scope set by the Minister (Item No. 2, Article No. 23, Elementary and Secondary
School Education Law). Therefore, Korea maintains the system of the nationally determined curriculum in which the development of the curriculum is administered by the state.

109. The nationally developed curriculum is organized and managed in a way that fits the local reality by the metropolitan and provincial offices of education. The metropolitan and provincial offices of education produce the guidelines for organizing and managing the curriculum with respect to various matters, including number of hours per subject, free activities, and special activities, and tending to other necessary matters; the guidelines are then handed over to the local offices of education and individual schools of all levels within each respective administrative district. However, there is no special mechanism for supervising and administering the process of transferring the authority to organize and manage the national curriculum to the regional offices of education. The national government and the metropolitan and provincial offices of education have their own monitoring procedure for the transfer of the authority.

110. The principal’s involvement in the process of developing the curriculum is insignificant. Although the principals can participate as advisors in the process of developing the curriculum, they do not play the role of directly managing and administering the process. However, the principals play an important role, in so far as the management of the curriculum is concerned. For the curriculum developed at the national level is managed at the schools. The principals play the role of a manager who practically organizes and manages the curriculum at the school site based on the guideline for management produced by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and the metropolitan and provincial offices of education. Hence, the principal is a manager of the curriculum at the school level and is, at the same time, the director who oversees teachers’ management of the curriculum.

111. Since the development and management of the curriculum are undertaken in accordance with the standard and guidelines determined by the national government
and the regional offices of education, it can be stated that there are few differences in educational practice between elementary and secondary school education and between different types of school-founding bodies and between general education and vocational education. However, in the case of private elementary and secondary school education, some degree of autonomy is exercised in the management of special activities and some educational activities and curriculum in general, Yet there exists no notable difference in the management of the fundamental curriculum.

4.6. Teaching Duty of Principals

112. Korea’s principals do not have any teaching responsibilities. According to Item No. 1, Article No. 36 of the Enforcement Act of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law, which specifies that one additional vice principal can be hired at the elementary and secondary schools with over 43 classes, vice principals can teach in the classroom. However, most principals and vice principals choose not to teach. Since the principal is in a position to supervise and administer teacher’s classroom instruction, it can be stated that the principal is accountable for supervising the classroom instruction.

4.7. Provisions to Improve Teachers’ Classroom Instruction

113. The perspective that equates the core of the professional duty of the teacher with classroom instruction is emphasized recently in Korea. Hence, many efforts have been made to improve teachers’ instructional skills. First, at the national level, the ‘skills-development teacher evaluation’ is about to be adopted. At the individual school level, the improvement of teachers’ instruction is sought by executing such strategies as ‘open class,’ ‘peer review,’ and ‘mentoring.’ Principals assume the central role in making those activities take place.

114. Korean teachers tend to be reluctant to make their classroom teaching open to the
public. The systemic device that allows the principal or parents to observe teacher’s instruction on a regular basis is missing. Although the principals sometimes walk down the school hallway and observe the classroom instruction of teachers as a form of informal inspection, they rarely step into the classroom to observe teaching. However, there are some systemic devices that allow formal observation of teacher’s instruction, such as ‘open class,’ ‘parent invitation classes,’ and ‘presentation session for subject matter,’ which are conducted two to three times annually. The open classes are usually taken as an opportunity for inspection and giving necessary feedback to the teachers based on a formal observation of classroom instruction. The principal, vice principal, chief teacher, and the teachers of the same subject observe the whole or a part of the classroom instruction of a particular teacher, have a meeting, and then provide the observed teacher with feedback regarding the content and method of instruction.

Peer inspection refers to mutual guiding and advising between teachers. Since it is less burdensome than the open class administered by the principal and vice principal, teachers prefer peer inspection. However, even peer inspection has not been actively utilized in Korea, because there are only extremely limited opportunities for teachers to observe other teachers’ classroom instruction. There is a teachers’ council for each grade in elementary schools and there is a teachers’ council for each curricular subject in secondary schools, both of which have been organized for peer inspection. However, both councils usually end up discussing mostly administrative and supervisory matters, without providing a forum for guiding and advising on classroom instruction among teachers.

While there are not many formal opportunities for mutual guiding and advising among teachers within a school, many teachers receive assistance from teachers by participating in various activities outside the school. For example, there are teachers’ voluntary organizations for studying curricular subjects at national and regional levels and various meetings sponsored by teacher associations. Albeit not a common practice,
some teachers engage in peer inspection voluntarily among themselves within the school and observe classroom instruction and discuss their peer’s performance.

117. Recently, ‘mentoring’ has been disseminated to schools in Korea; mentoring is a practice by which a novice teacher, or a teacher with a relatively short teaching experience, is paired with a senior teacher and receives assistance from the latter regarding classroom instruction and student guidance as well as support for overall aspects of school life. However, only very limited number of schools actually manage the mentoring practice.

118. In addition, Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education manages the ‘research teacher for instructional improvement’ system for the purpose of improving teachers’ instructional skills. A teacher who wishes to be the research teacher submits a plan to the Office, which reviews the plan and upon its approval, pays the teacher an individual research grant, and makes the teacher perform open classes four times a year and submit his or her research product to the Office. After the research product is reviewed by the Office, it is evaluated as either first or second grade, and is computed as the bonus points for promotion record. Also, professional development activities applying the principle of school consulting, such as consulting inspection and instructional consulting have been developed and implemented in various forms in the 16 metropolitan and provincial school districts since 2003.

4.8. Teacher Evaluation

119. Teacher evaluation in Korea is currently undergoing a systemic change. The structure of the ‘performance evaluation system,’ which has been used in schools for the last several decades as a teacher evaluation mechanism, is being preserved intact, while simultaneously, there is a talk about adopting a new teacher evaluation system (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005).

120. Whereas the existing teacher evaluation is focused on selecting the teachers eligible for promotion based on the regulations for the promotion of educational civil servants,
one the most striking aspects of the new teacher evaluation system is its emphasis upon improving teacher professionalism. Whereas according to the existing performance evaluation system, the principal evaluates teachers and the evaluation result remains undisclosed, in the new evaluation system, the principal, vice principal, teacher colleagues, parents, and students participate in the evaluation process in a multi-dimensional way. The evaluation result is to be reported to the principal and the evaluated teachers. The teacher who is notified of his or her evaluation result should examine his or her weak points, set a training plan designed to improve upon the identified weakness, and submit the plan to the principal. The principal should support the teacher’s improvement effort. The new teacher evaluation is currently undergoing pilot management and is to be implemented in all schools in 2008 (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006).

121. School principals of Korea do not reserve the authority either to reward excellent teachers or to punish ineffective ones based on the evaluation results. Since the evaluation result is reflected in the promotion score within the existing performance evaluation system, it exerts an important influence upon the handful of teachers who are about to be promoted. 3) However, to most teachers, the evaluation result has few influences, and there are no reward or punishment based upon it. There is no special action taken against the teachers with low evaluation scores. The new teacher evaluation system is also not designed to either reward or punish teachers based on the evaluation result, but to insure systemic professional development (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005).

122. Apart from the new teacher evaluation system designed to boost teachers’ professional development and the existing performance evaluation system focused on selecting the teachers to be promoted, there is a measure to expel permanently teachers who committed immoral or corrupt acts. The Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development announced the ‘Measure against Ineligible Teachers’ at the end of 2005.

3) There are some regions where the evaluation result is reflected in the decision for transfer and award conferring.
Central in the Measure is to expel permanently the teachers who are ineligible to teach by forcing them to be reviewed by the Review Council for Teacher Service.

4.9. Teachers’ Professional Development

123. The Korean government has developed and managed various training programs designed for teachers’ professional development. The training programs include qualification training, in-service training, special training, and autonomous training. The school principal should provide the teachers with all kinds of support. However, the scope of the principal’s support power remains very limited. Primarily, the principal recommends the candidates for training or provides the teacher with a portion of the training expense.

124. There is a mounting criticism that the existing training programs do not reflect the demand of teachers adequately. While the training programs are not necessarily helpful for developing teacher professionalism, teachers are not required to take the training. Therefore, the number of the teachers wishing to participate in the training programs has diminished. The regional offices of education have allocated the quota of the teachers participating and are in the process of selecting. There have been conflicts between the principal and vice principal who are intent on selecting the teachers. Of course, the case of conflict does not apply to qualification training and autonomous training, and is shown primarily in the cases of in-service training and special training. Recently, to increase the rate of teacher participation in the training programs, the credit hours teachers accumulate in the training have been transferred to promotion. 0.08 points per up to 8 hours per year are added as a bonus points toward promotion.

4.10. Related Researches

125. Research on the practice of effective leadership to promote learning at school level is mainly focused on the principal’s leadership in classroom instruction. Research
in the instructional leadership of the principal does not have a long history in Korea, only as late as in the mid-1990s when researchers began to pay attention to the issue (Lee, Yun-sik, 2002). For instance, No, Min-gu (1994) has attempted to investigate the necessary parts of the principal’s instructional leadership by systematically analyzing the educational activities and processes in school. Lee, Seok-lyeol (1997) has attempted to clarify the relations among school’s organizational culture, principal’s instructional leadership, and teachers’ professional attitude. Cheon, Se-yeong and Hwang, Hyeon-ju (1999) have set five sub-domains of the principal’s instructional leadership: instructional organizing, instructional improvement, confirming educational achievement, and determining the educational goals, and analyzed the influences of the principal’s instructional leadership upon students’ school achievement.

126. Heo, Byeong-gi (2001) proposed ten leadership principles the principals should observe to improve classroom instruction. Lee, Seong-eun and Han, Hye-seong (2005) analyzed the relation between vice principal’s instructional leadership perceived by elementary school teachers and the teachers’ instructional behaviours.

127. As shown above, the research on the principal’s instructional leadership in Korea have mostly stressed analyzing the relation between the principal’s instructional leadership and school achievement, or proposing the points of improvement by identifying the problems in the principal’s instructional leadership. This research was not conducted in close connection with either the offices of education, or school sites. Moreover, they have not offered theoretical bases directly usable for developing relevant educational policies. And there has yet to be any research concretely dealing with the effective leadership for promoting learning at the school level.

128. Furthermore, there is no research in Korea directly reporting the environment and conditions conducive to undertaking the learning-centered leadership. However, since the principal’s learning-centered leadership is being emphasized in Korea, it is expected that research on the issue will increase in the future.
4.11. Priority in Policy Development

129. In Korea, policy efforts to support the learning-centered leadership remain weak. At present, policy-makers have begun to recognize the importance and utility of the learning-centered leadership and be interested in developing and legislating relevant policies. Thus, there have not yet been any practical analyses of the effect, influence, and expense of implementing the relevant policies in Korea.

130. To improve teachers’ instruction and strengthen students’ learning by strengthening the principal’s learning-centered leadership, policy priority should be given to the following efforts. First, it should be recognized anew that the principal is not merely a school manager, but the leader of learning and accordingly, there ought to be the efforts to redefine the role of the principal. Second, there should be various programs for enhancing the principal’s learning-centered leadership in the training program for the principals. Third, the government should create the condition in which the principal can manage the school based on his or her own philosophy and vision and then, hold the principal accountable for the outcome. Fourth, it is necessary to develop a policy mechanism that allows for accurate analysis of the learning outcomes of students, so that the accrued data can be actively utilized for principal evaluation, school evaluation, and policy development.

5. Attractiveness of the School Principal as an Occupation

5.1. Supply of Principals and the Policy Agenda

131. The supply of principals in Korea is connected with the vertical promotion system through which teachers are promoted to vice principals, and vice principals are promoted to principals. Since most of the vice principals become the principals,
promotion from regular teacher to vice principal is the most important and competitive stage in the entire process of supplying principals. Because the demand for principals is limited, whereas there are many teachers who wish to be the principals, a principal shortage is not a problem in Korea.

132. Because seniority of employment and the work record are two important criteria for selecting the principals of national and private schools, the existing selection procedure has been criticized for its inadequacy in selecting the right person for the job. With the inauguration of the present government, the Educational Innovation Committee, a Presidential advisory organ, has been in the center of initiating talks about improving the selection and employment methods of the principals. The open recruitment of principal has been discussed in depth by the committee, while the principal election system of selecting the principal by voting among teachers has been proposed as an alternative by the teacher labor union. However, the government, teacher associations, and the parent associations and NGOs have not reached any consensus on those proposals.

5.2. Indicators for the Supply of the Principals

133. In Korea, the principals of national and public schools are employed by promotion. Since many teachers wish to be the principals, principals’ turnover rate remains very low. Except such cases as disease or death, most principals maintain their post until they reach the retirement age. During the last ten years, the number of the elementary and secondary school principals who have resigned from the principal post due to the reasons other than official retirement is only about 300 on the average (Statistics on Korean Education, 1996-2005). The numbers of job-leavers and retirees are utilized as important indicators of the supply of principals. Also, as a result of the population concentration in the capital region, new schools are being constructed every year in this area, while remote rural areas are witnessing the condensation of multiple schools and out-right closing of others. Such numbers of newly constructed and closed schools are also utilized as the indicators of the supply of principals.
5.3. Changes in the Composition of the Principals during the Recent Decade

5.3.1. Gender Composition of the Principals

134. For the last 8 years, the total number of male principals has been 73,272 (92.2%) and that of female principals, 5,734 (7.8%). The gender ratio of the principals remains highly unbalanced. The gender imbalance in the composition of principals is manifested differently at different school levels. For instance, the proportions of the female principals in elementary schools, middle schools, and general high schools are 9.3%, 11.1%, and 6.3%, respectively, as of 2006. The cumulative totals of the elementary and secondary school principals by gender from 1999 to 2006 are presented in Table 5.1 in the Appendices section.

135. The gender imbalance of the principals appears to have been moderated gradually. The employment rates of the female principals in elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools were 5.6%, 7.5%, and 5.3% respectively, in 1999. They have changed to 9.3%, 11.1%, and 6.3%, respectively in 2006, suggesting an annual increase. However, the proportion of the female principals is still insufficient vis-à-vis that of the males, which generates the notion that there should be a policy measure aimed at increasing the proportion of newly employed female principals at elementary and secondary school levels. Nevertheless, the recent years have seen continued rise of the proportion of not just female teachers, but also female vice principals, so that the gender imbalance of the principals is expected to be mitigated in the long run.

5.3.2. Age of the Principals

136. For the last ten years, the age groups of principals have been as follows: 982 persons (1.0%) at the age of 49 and under; 7,916 (8.0%) at the age from 50 to 54; 41,614 (42.3%) at the age from 55 to 59; and 47,900 (48.7%) at the age of 60 and over. The cumulative totals of the age groups of the elementary and secondary school principals from 1996 to 2005 are presented in Table 5.2 in the Appendices section.
If the age groups of the elementary and secondary school principals are categorized by school level, the proportion of the principals who are 60 and older is 45.2% for elementary schools, 52.6% for middle schools, 54.2% for general high schools, and 53.1% for vocational high schools. Thus, the higher the school level gets, the higher the proportion of aged principals.

5.3.3. Length of Educational Service of the Principals

137. The length of educational service of the elementary and secondary school principals for the last ten years has been as follows: 1,566 persons (1.6%) with less than 25 years of service; 3,740 (3.8%) with 25 to 29 years of service; 22,421 (22.8%) with 30 to 34 years of service; and 70,695 (71.8%) with more than 35 years of service. The cumulative totals for the service years of the principals from 1995 to 2005 are presented in Table 5.3 of the Appendices section. As can be noted from the statistics presented, one has to have served in educational institutions at least for over 30 years to become the principal in Korea. As of 2005, the proportions of the elementary and secondary school principals who have more than 35 years of educational service record for different school levels are 83.9% for elementary school, 57.7% for middle school, 55.6% for general high school, and 53.3% for vocational high school.

138. The length of educational service of the elementary school principals is relatively longer than that of the secondary school principal. This can be explained by the fact that the male elementary school principals, who make up over 90% of the entire elementary school principals, had been given waivers for military service at the beginning of their teacher career, which had not been given equally to the secondary school teachers. In Korea, those who got the waiver for military service could enter the teaching profession at least two to three years earlier than those who did not receive the waiver. Besides, those who became the principals between 1996 and 2005 were the graduates of either teachers colleges, or two-year colleges of education. Therefore, the early entrants of the teaching career are bound to have the service
record that is two to four years longer than the principals who graduated from four-year universities.

5.4. Avoidance of Being Employed as the Principal

139. The principals of national and public schools are selected among the candidates registered in the list of the promotion candidates, after they have completed the principal qualification training; the candidates are employed one by one within the range of three times the number of the candidates who are waiting for promotion. Thus, abandoning of the principal post by the candidates for promotion is not acknowledged. In the case of private schools, once the school corporation selects the candidate for principal and the candidate receives the principal qualification training, then he or she is officially employed.

140. There is a designated service term for principals of national and public schools in Korea. A principal’s service term is four years, and he or she cannot serve longer than eight years, according to law. The principal term system was adopted for the purpose of distributing equally the opportunity to be the principals among teachers, who have to compete intensely among themselves to be the principal. Hence, although teachers prefer to be employed as the principals, due to the pre-designated length of the employment term, those who have become the principals tend to avoid working in the regions with poor educational conditions, such as the rural region, remote region, and small-sized schools. Also, many teachers endeavour hard to make their retirement age, 62, coincide with the end of the principal term by postponing the beginning year of the principal service. Although a principal who has completed his or her terms are able to get back to a regular teacher post, such a practice is not welcomed as a matter of professional courtesy.
5.5. Teachers Who Wish to Be Promoted to the Principal

141. Many Korean teachers have a strong desire to become the principals. The total number of elementary and secondary school teachers was 369,621 in 2005, out of which there are 10,213 principals; that is, only 2.8% of the entire teacher population are the principals. Many of the regular teachers compete intensely to become principal.

142. Teachers have to become a vice principal first, in order to be a principal. The vice principal is employed based on promotion just like the principal. The promotion from regular teacher to the vice principal post requires at least 25 years of service in the teaching profession. Thus, if the job-entering age of a teacher is 25, he or she can be promoted to the vice principal post at the age of 50 or older, and still more years and efforts are needed to become the principal. Due to the long service requirement and intense competition, many teachers tend to be preoccupied with accumulating the points required for promotion. Yet, there are also many teachers who give up the promotion in the middle of their career.142.

5.6. Employment Procedures of the Principal

143. The principals are employed by either promotion, or invitation. The former refers to the procedure in which candidates from vice principals, school inspectors, and research officers who do not have the principal certificate are given the principal qualification training and then are employed as the principals. The latter refers to inviting appropriate principal certificate-holders to the vacant principal post at school.

5.6.1. Employment by Promotion

144. Law clarifies that when the principal of national and public schools is promoted for employment, the candidate’s service record, training score, work score, and miscellaneous scores be added up. The procedures for employment of the principal
by promotion include the following three stages.

145. In the first stage, the list of the candidates for the promotion for principal is produced and the eligible candidates are selected. The candidate list for the promotion of elementary and secondary schools annexed to national universities is made by the president of each university. The candidate list of public schools is made by the superintendents of the metropolitan and provincial offices of education. The candidate list is made on January 31, every year. Each candidate’s service record score (90 points maximum), work performance score (80 points maximum), and training score (30 points maximum), plus additional bonus scores are summed up altogether to determine his or her total score. The candidates are registered on the candidate list, starting from the highest score, in a descending order.

146. In the second stage, the candidates for promotion to be the principal are reviewed. A personnel affairs committee of 7 to 9 persons, including the committee head, is formed in each metropolitan or provincial office of education. The personnel affairs committee reviews the matters pertaining to the formation and management of the review committee, which is to be in charge of selecting the candidates appropriate to the principal post. That is, the review committee reviews the candidate’s physical and mental health, whether or not the candidate has a handicap in school supervision skills, and whether or not the candidate has other reasons inappropriate to the principal post.

147. In the third stage, the candidate for promotion composes and submits a school management plan, and is interviewed by the committee. The review committee for principal employment formed in each metropolitan or provincial unit reviews the candidate’s eligibility by examining his or her school management plan and interviewing him or her. The school management plan should include an account of how the candidate for the principal would manage the school once he or she is employed as the principal. It should also include various original accounts, such as a self-introduction, his or her educational philosophy, ambitions and vision for school
management, personal success stories in education, desire for educational reform, and actual strategies for implement it.

148. Once the candidate has been evaluated to be eligible for the principal post after undergoing the three stages, the superintendent of education recommends the candidate to the Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Education and Human Resources Development, who in turn, requests the President to appoint the candidate as a school principal. Meanwhile, the principals of private schools do not undergo the aforementioned procedures, and are employed based on the statute of the school. Namely, the Private School Education Law specifies that the school corporation, which founded and manages the school, or the manager of the private school, hire the principal. And the principals of autonomous schools can be employed even if they do not hold the principal certificate.

5.6.2. Employment by Invitation

149. The employment of the principal by invitation was adopted in August, 1996 to seek school management that suits the school and the local reality by inviting the principal whom teachers and parents desire. Eligibility for the invitation is open to those who hold the principal certificate and work as teachers in the relevant region.

150. In the first stage, the school desiring to invite a principal requests employment of the principal by invitation to the superintendent of the metropolitan or provincial office of education, who reserves the authority to employ the principal of the region. Invitation of the principal is requested primarily when the current principal is about to retire, or transfer to another school.

151. In the second stage, the school that is to invite the principal is designated. Upon receiving the application of the needy school, the head of the local office of education investigates the local situation, educational condition, parents’ opinions, and recommends one school at either elementary or secondary school level. The local
office of education that has already been designated is excluded. However, all the schools in remote mountainous and island regions and the schools with less than 7 classes (4 classes in the case of middle school) can be recommended automatically with the application. The schools attempting to request the employment of the principal by invitation should undergo review by its school council prior to applying.

152. In the third stage, the invitation of the principal is formally announced. The Minister of Education and Human Resources Development (in the case of national schools) and the superintendent of education (in the case of public schools) announce the school designated for principal invitation, and the school begins to receive the applications. Those applying to the principal position should submit a principal invitation application form, a copy of personnel affair record, self introduction, documents proving eligibility for the invitation, school management plan, health record, and miscellaneous documents to the school.

153. In the fourth stage, school council recommends twice as many candidates for the principal post of its school. The School council of the school wishing to invite the principal reviews the applicants to the post, selects twice as many candidates for the post, and submits the result either to the Minister of Education and Human Resources Development, or to the superintendent of education of the region.

154. In the fifth stage, either the Minister of Education and Human Resources Development, or the superintendent of education selects one person among those who have been recommended for the principal post and recommends him or her to the President, who then finally appoints him or her as the principal of the school.

155. Employment of the principal by invitation is criticized that it is utilized as the means to extend the currently 8-year term of the principal service, betraying its original purpose. The term for the invited principal is not restricted by the regular term conditions. Also, it is often suggested that the recommendation of the principal to be invited is tainted by favouritism toward school alumni or local figures, and that having the applicants limited to the principal certificate holders obstructs further discovery of capable talents.
5.7. Principal’s Term of Office

156. It is specified in the Educational Civil Servant Law that the term of office for national and public school principals is four years, which can be served a maximum of two times consecutively. Thus, principal’s term of office can be regarded as maximum of eight years. Terms of office of all the principals of national and public elementary and secondary schools are identical. However, the principals hired by invitation can have multiple terms of office.

157. When a principal completes his or her first term of office and finds himself or herself having less than four years remaining before retirement, he or she is usually employed again as the principal, unless there is an outstanding personal deficiency. When a principal has completed his or her second term of office and finds himself or herself still having more remaining years of service until retirement, and he or she desires to work as a regular teacher. He or she is permitted to teach at a school as a senior teacher, in considerations of his or her capability for classroom instruction and health. The senior teacher receives preferred treatment in reduced class hours and such, and upon the request of the principal, he or she may play the role of a counsellor for newly employed teachers, a guide for instruction-learning activities, or an advisor on school management matters. However, most principals, having completed the eight-year consecutive terms, choose not to be employed as the senior teacher and prefer the honorary retirement. Such a practice is considered problematic, since it contradicts the policy intent to select relatively young and able principals.

158. The principal of a private school is to be appointed by either the school corporation, which founded and manages the school, or the school manager, according to the Private School Education Law. Terms of Office and retirement age of the principals of private schools are to follow the statute or regulation of the school corporation, unless specified otherwise by law.
5.8. Evaluations and Re-Employment of the Principals

159. There exists no formal evaluation of the principals of all the elementary and secondary schools, whether it is national, public, or private. In the case of national and public schools, after a principal has completed his or her first four-year term of office, the personnel affairs committee of the metropolitan or provincial office of education conducts a review procedure to determine re-employment as the principal. The personnel affairs committee is composed of seven to nine members, who are appointed or entrusted by the superintendent of education, chosen from among the civil servants and local figures who have substantial knowledge of personnel administration. The committee has to include at least three outside persons (when the total number of committee members is less than nine, only two outside persons).

160. The candidate is evaluated as inadequate for the second principal term when he or she has a deficiency in physical or mental health, in his or her ability for school management, or in other aspects. Although the review of the national and public school principals for the second term of office is formally administered, practically in most cases, the candidates are semi-automatically re-employed as the principal, unless an outstanding personal deficiency exists.

161. The Korean government has started vigorously to improve the teacher evaluation system since 2005. The newly improved measure, entitled ‘Evaluation of Teachers’ Skills Development,’ evaluates not only regular teachers, but also vice principals and principals, and connects its results with teachers’ professional development activities. The outcome of the pilot management administered in 2006 will be revised and supplemented. It will undergo a legalization procedure in 2007 and be implemented step by step starting from 2008. When the evaluation of principals is implemented fully, the school management skills of all the principals of elementary and secondary schools will be evaluated by the vice principals, teachers, and parents.
5.9. Compensation of the Principals

162. All Korean teachers belong to a single pay scale, irrespective of school level and position in school. That is, a single integrated wage system applies to regular teachers, vice principals, and principals alike. Thus, there is no separate pay scale reserved for the school principals. The pay of the principals is promoted by one salary step each year, based on individual principal’s years of teaching. The same applies to the teachers, so that a regular teacher who has longer years of teaching can receive higher salary than the principal. Principals’ salaries are usually high just because most of them have accumulated long years of service.

163. The pay of the principal consists of salary and allowances. Most of allowances are similar to the basic salary in nature. Principals are paid a separate allowance appropriate to their post and the merit-based bonus in accordance with their abilities. In 2005, for instance, 80% of the entire bonus budget was paid equally to all the principals, while the remaining 20% was paid on a differentiating basis.

5.10. Comparison of the Pays of the Principal and Other Civil Servants

164. The results of the comparison of the average monthly salaries based on the years of service between teachers and other civil servants are presented in Table 5.4 of the Appendices. In terms of the average lifelong monthly salary, military personnel receive the highest amount of 4,355,000 won and the police personnel receive the second highest, 3,986,000 won, while the teachers receive 3,916,000 won. Hence, the teachers are not in a relatively favorable standing vis-à-vis the military and police personnel. Also, when the pay of the general civil servants is set at 100, the comparative index of the military personnel is 124, that of the police is 114, and that of the law enforcement personnel is 111, while the index of teachers is 109, which shows that the pay of the teachers is relatively lower than that of the military and police personnel.
165. The above analysis shows that the favored pay policy for the teachers has not been implemented fully thus far. Particularly, the basic salary of the newly employed teacher is lower than that of police personnel, although it is still higher than that of general posts. However, as the years of service increase, the teacher’s pay tends to either decrease, or become similar to that of the general posts. Such a pay scale is applied to the principals without any difference, because as aforementioned, Korea adopts the single pay scale that does not distinguish the principals from regular teachers. Therefore, it can be concluded that the pay of the Korean principals is not high when compared to that of other civil servants.

5.11. Turnover of the Principals

166. Turnover of the elementary and secondary school principals during the decade from 1996 to 2005 is on the average mere 300 persons per year, except the cases of official retirement. The reasons for the principals’ turnover during the last decade were, as shown in Table 5.5 of the Appendices, reaching the retirement age for 12,098 principals (78.1%), death 294 (1.9%), honorary retirement 113 (0.7%), disease 57 (0.4%), disciplinary action 32 (0.2%), marriage and change of occupation 10, and others 2,888 (18.6%). It all adds up to a total of 15,489 principals. During that decade, the number of authentic job-leavers besides those who reached their retirement age was 3,394, which is mere 3.7% of the entire principals on Korean elementary and secondary schools.

167. The cumulative totals of principal turnover by school level are 7,522 (48.6%) for elementary school, 4,722 (30.5%) for middle school, 2,016 (13.0%) for general high school, and 1,229 (7.9%) for vocational high school.

168. In sum, turnover of the principals rarely occurs except for the cases of death or disease, so that most principals tend to preserve their posts until their retirement age. This testifies why the principal post is called the ‘flower of the teaching profession’.
5.12. The Retirement Age of the Principals

169. The retirement age of the elementary and secondary school principals is 62, as designated in the Article No. 47 of the Educational Civil Servant Law. The retirement ages of the regular teachers and the principals are identical. Until 1999, the retirement ages of the principals, teachers, and university professors were all 65. However, as a result of the national economic crisis of 1997, the unemployment rate soared up and employment insecurity was intensified, so that there arose a public demand that the teaching profession should also share the suffering of the society. It was necessary then to mitigate the accumulated unemployment of numerous teacher certificate-holders and simultaneously, raise the quality of education through the in-flow of young and new teachers. Consequently, the retirement age of the elementary and secondary school teachers was cut down by three years. The retirement age of the university professors is still 65.

5.13. Taking over the Duties

170. The principals of Korea’s national and public schools are employed and placed at schools by the educational authority and are required to rotate their posts from one school to another on a regular basis. Accordingly, the principals of all the national and public schools except those of private schools are supposed to rotate regularly, which could give rise to problems in performing the principals’ duties. To prevent such a problem, the Korean government has devised a separate regulation to ease up the process of taking over the duties of the principals.

171. The transfer of the duties of the elementary and secondary school principals is not undertaken separately for different school levels, school types, and school kinds, but is required to follow Article No. 6 of the Administrative Supervision Regulations. The Regulation is applied equally to all the school principals. When a principal of elementary or secondary school is newly employed, or transferred to a new post,
the extant principal completes his or her duty by writing a report for the transferring of the duties and signing it according to the Administrative Supervision Regulations.

172. According to Article No. 6 of the Administrative Supervision Regulations, when a civil servant takes over official duties due to appointment, he or she has to prepare a document which contains concrete information on the works underway, related documents and data, and other relevant matters before leaving the post. At the same time, according to Item No. 2, Article No. 2 of the same Regulations, the person who hands over the duties to a new-comer has to write a copy of work take-over form and have it stored in the administrative office. The work take-over form should include the information on such matters as the current situation of duties (main duty, major work plan and progress report, current agenda and problems, and major unsettled issues), record of related documents, matters that require take-over procedures such as major materials and budget, and other matters to consider. Both the person who hands over the duties and the one who takes over them should sign on the form while a third-party person is present.

5.14. Policies for Employing Able Principals

173. Some go so far as to say that ‘the quality of a school cannot surpass the quality of its principal,’ which illustrates the profound influence the principal exerts upon a school’s educational efficiency and internal culture. Hence, the government has sought various strategies for raising the quality of school education by hiring able principals and thereby securing accountability for the educational service. As a part of those efforts, first, the employment system has been revised in a way that selects able principals, and second, an evaluation system has been devised to help the principals to continue to improve their skills.

174. To select young and able principals, the Korean government has endeavored to change the existing employment system based on promotion. Reflecting the discussion
spearheaded thus far by the Educational Innovation Committee, the Presidential advisory organ, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development announced an improvement measure for the promotion system in November, 2006. According to the proposed measure, the weight of career length is to be reduced in terms of score and length, to improve the conventional promotion system mainly based on the service record, on the one hand, and the weight of the work record evaluation is to be increased in terms of score and length, on the other. To heighten objectivity and reliability of the assessment, the existing assessment method favoring seniority has been switched to that of a multi-faceted evaluation. At the same time, the qualification training of the candidates for principal has been extended from the previous 180 hours to 360 hours.

175. A part from the efforts to improve the existing promotion-based employment system of the principals, ‘open recruitment of principals’ has been adopted and implemented on a pilot basis since September, 2006. The open recruitment of principals enables the metropolitan and provincial offices of education, the local offices of education, or even individual schools, to review the candidates for the principal post and select a candidate who meets the uniqueness of the local community, through a democratic procedure. The open recruitment of the principal is being evaluated as an innovative improvement upon the existing employment system in that it has loosened up the qualifying factors to be the principal, as well as enabled the teachers who do not hold the principal certificate to become the principal.

176. The open recruitment of the principal has given rise to high expectation and sceptical criticism simultaneously. After all, because it has loosened the qualification measures of the principal certificate, it has opened up the possibility that diverse able persons can become the principal, which is expected to contribute to making school organization more open and flexible. On the other hand, the former seniority standard required to be the principal was drastically lowered down to 15 years, so that it is not unlikely that young teachers could be interested in promotion rather than educating
students. Also, presence of young principals is highly likely to create a sense of incongruity in the school organization of Korea, which values seniority.

177. Aside from the discussion of the new method of employing the principals, the government has sped up the adoption of the ‘principal evaluation system,’ designed to seek continuous development of the principals’ professional skills after they are appointed at the post. There exists a high expectation in Korea that the principals’ effort to improve school education will be much more intense and their leadership be far stronger, because the demands of teachers and parents will be reflected in the evaluation of teachers and vice principals starting in 2008.

178. Some of teachers’ associations call for the election of the principal by teachers at the school level, criticizing the problems caused by the irrational elements inherent in the promotion-based principal employment system of the past. The Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union argues for adopting the ‘principal office election system,’ which regards the status of the principal as an elected officer, rather than promoted certificate-holder. Hence, according to the argument, once a principal ends his or her office term, he or she is to return to the teaching job. This implies that the existing vertical certification system of career-based model should be switched to that of horizontal specialization model.

179. According to the proposal of the Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union, the candidate for the principal election or invitation should have over 20 years of teaching experience, of which at least five years be as a home room teacher, and should be a grade one regular teacher. The personnel affairs committee of the school level elects two candidates through the following procedures: candidate registration, submission of the candidate’s personnel record card, a self-evaluation form, and a school management plan, presentation of the candidate’s school management plan, and voting by the teachers. Then school council approves of the candidates, and the personnel committee of the metropolitan or provincial office of education finally appoints the principal.
180. The Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union has criticized that the administrator principals who were exempted from teaching duty presided over regular teachers and committed arbitrary actions, and furthermore, the existing promotion-based employment system caused various ill effects: candidates for the principal and vice principal training were selected on the basis of inequitable assessment of their performance; candidates’ competition for certificate acquisition was overheated; candidates were aged; and the regular teachers were frustrated. The Union claims that the principal office election system is the appropriate alternative for the current one.

181. However, the Korean Federation of Teachers’ Association, a professional association of the teachers, opposes the Union’s proposal for the principal election on grounds that it would greatly damage security of the teaching profession and stir confusion. The Federation argues that if election is implemented, popular persons, rather than those who are qualified and with objectively verified skills, would be elected, and ambitious persons would focus more on accumulating popularity among people, rather than concentrating in teaching students.

182. As noted thus far, the discussion surrounding the selection and employment of the principal is a highly sensitive issue among the Korean teachers. In the midst of various claims, the government tends to move with cautiousness, since all of the training, certification, selection, employment, and professional development are organically interrelated with one another, and many teachers have long managed their career scores based on the existing system to become eligible for the principal post. A coordination office was established within the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development in mid-2006 to collect various voices and seek the measures to minimize side-effects. At present, the Ministry inclines toward maintaining the existing method based on promotion and supplementing its weaknesses by simultaneously administering the open recruitment system.
6. Preparation and Professional Development of Principals

6.1. Recent Policy Concerns

183. Increased during the last few years was the national concern for the overall personnel policy including preparation, certification, employment, and in-service training of principals. Although these issues received attention in the past, policy priority was usually given to other pressing matters. However, as diversification of principal hiring system and rational improvement of the system of teacher grades and promotion were included in the election pledges during the Sixteenth Presidential Election, 2002, they were highlighted as major issues of reform.

184. The “Participatory Government” inaugurated in 2003 had autonomy, equity, and welfare as its basic policy directions and presented the goals of first, building cooperative social relations based on democracy through participation and second, constructing a society in which both the cost for and benefit from realizing such relations are borne equitably by members of society. Therefore, emphasized in the area of education were expanded educational welfare, educational democratization, and strengthened public nature of education. Policy development was undertaken in a manner that emphasized participation of stakeholders.

185. In this context, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development has made efforts at policy improvement, for instance, by commissioning the national Korean Educational Development Institute to conduct a research on the measures to improve the overall personnel system of teachers including teacher promotion system and principal hiring system, based upon collecting opinions of various related parties (2003-2004).
186. Called by many as “flower of the teaching profession,” principalship is the post sought after by virtually all teachers. Naturally, the competition to be promoted to the post is fierce among teachers. The past system was limited in that it was in effect advantageous for senior candidates, so that only those who have accumulated scores for promotion for a long period can be vice principals, which is the necessary step before being promoted to the post of principal. Controversy over the methods of hiring principal has surfaced among teachers and teacher associations recently, ranging from the question of ‘Is this promotion system valid?’ to the issue of ‘Who can be, and ought to be principals?’ Meanwhile, the matters of how to prepare excellent principals and how to develop their professionalism on a continuous basis have been relatively neglected.

6.2. Pathways of Preparing School Leaders

6.2.1. Main Pathways

187. There is no separate professional preparation institution for principals, which contrasts with the teacher training system. Thus, the process of preparing principals can be considered identical with that of acquiring principal certificate and being promoted to the principal. The most common pathway to be the principal is one in which a teacher becomes vice principal and then is promoted to the principal. Here, when a teacher is about to be promoted to vice principal, or a vice principal is about to be promoted to principal, either the teacher or vice principal can work as a research officer or school inspector at local office of education. Since both are treated as educational specialist posts and work experiences in those posts are counted for additional scores for promotion, the competition to be selected for the posts is intense.

188. For a teacher to be promoted to vice principal, and then to principal, he or she should acquire competitive scores in the areas of career, work performance, in-service training, and additional score category, and the candidates for promotion are selected among
those who have earned the highest total scores, in the order of the highest, the second highest, and so on. These candidates are required to receive over 180 hours of training designated by the state, and starting from the highest score earners, and within the range of three times the vacancy, the candidates are hired as vice principals or principals. Therefore, the preparation for vice principal certification given for the promotion from teacher to vice principal and the preparation for principal certification given for the promotion from vice principal to principal are the main pathways of preparation.

6.2.2. Alternative Pathways

189. Alternative pathways to become principals without acquiring the principal certificate are very limited. There exists a ‘Special Exceptional Measures for Accrediting Principal,’ which allows those who lack experiences related to education and those who have worked in the fields outside of education to become principals. According to the Clause 1 of the Article No. 21 and the Article No. 61 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law and the Article No. 105 of the Law’s Enforcement Ordinance, when it is deemed necessary for the improvement and development of the education system, the individuals who do not hold vice principal and principal certificates can manage schools. However, such an exception is applied only to the autonomous schools.

190. The autonomous schools were introduced in 2001 with the goals of diversifying and specializing the uniform school type. Also called the ‘regulation-free school,’ the autonomous schools are allowed to exercise autonomous rights free from various regulations specified in education laws in such activities as hiring principal and teachers, managing curriculum, and selecting students. As of 2005, there are a total of 99 schools designated as autonomous schools nationwide, of which only one person in middle school and six in high school have become principals without principal certificates according to the Special Exceptional Measures for Accrediting Principal.
Such numerical scantiness does not warrant the term, ‘alternative’ pathways.

191. However, the government launched a pilot program for invitation and open recruitment of principals in September, 2006, which is likely to expand somewhat the opportunity to become principals for those who do not hold principal certificate, e.g., education officials, professors, and CEOs of private firms. Already 51 schools have been designated to implement the invitation and open recruitment of principals, and the number of such schools is to increase up to 150 by 2007; the specialized middle and high schools among those schools are allowed to invite individuals without principal certificates for the principal post. Whether or not the alternative pathways can be activated in the future will depend on the result of implementing those pilot programs. If those who have become principals through the Special Exceptional Measures for Accrediting Principal prove that they are capable of managing schools successfully, then the likelihood of expanding alternative pathways will become greater.

6.3. Pre-Service Programmes

6.3.1. Description of the Programmes

192. There is no separate institution for preparing individuals to become principals, and teachers are promoted to vice principals and principals. Thus, the training course for certification a teacher must take to become vice principal or principal can be regarded as a pre-service program.

193. The ‘Regulations for In-Service Training of Teachers and Such and Detailed Rules for Operation’ are legal grounds providing comprehensive criteria for the institutions offering training programs for vice principal and principal qualification, days and hours of the training, domains of training, and weight of each domain.

194. Within the denoted legal boundary, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development comes up with a basic guideline for the overall areas of in-service
training of teachers, including the training for principal qualification. For example, the Teacher Education and Development Division of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development announced a ‘Directions for Managing In-Service Training for Teachers for Year 2006’ in January, 2006, which encompassed the goals and basic directions of the training, training conditions, major tasks for innovation, matters to consider when establishing the training plan, and recommendations for organizing the training curriculum. Also, the Ministry provides the basic formula and computer programs to calculate the training results.

195. There are only three institutions that provide the training programs for principal qualification at both elementary and secondary levels. Training for certification at elementary school level is provided by the Elementary Education In-Service Education Center attached to Seoul National University of Education; and training at secondary school level is provided by the Secondary Education In-Service Education Center attached to Teachers College of Seoul National University. Meanwhile, the Center for In-Service Education attached to Korea National University of Education provides training programs for principal qualification for both the elementary and the secondary school levels. In general, the entire cost for qualification training is supported by the government.

196. The training curriculum is to be organized and managed within the period of over 30 days and 180 hours. The curriculum consists of 10~20% of general education, 10% of major subject and special aptitude subject, and 70~80% of specialized courses needed for school management, such as educational administration, finance, and organizational management. However, specific contents of the program and its timetable are to be determined autonomously by the individual in-service training institutions.

197. Contents of the training are divided into the preliminary training and the main training. The preliminary training is provided for about 30 hours within one-week period, administered by the metropolitan and provincial in-service training institutions, which
belong to each of the Metropolitan and Provincial Offices of Education. And the main training is provided for over 150 hours during over five-week period, administered by individual in-service training institution; each institution constructs and manages its own training program.

198. For example, the training program for principal qualification of the Center for In-Service Education attached to Korea National University of Education is composed of a total of 198 hours of courses given in six weeks. First, the preliminary training of 30 hours for one-week period on a daily attending basis is provided by the metropolitan and provincial in-service training institutions. For the remaining five-week period, the trainees are given 168 hours of the main training program, during which they take residence at Korea National University of Education. The main program is composed of 30 hours of general education, 12 hours of basic education, 94 hours of training related to school management, 20 hours of independent study, and 12 hours of miscellaneous activities. Each subject is assigned two hours, and small-group discussion and practical training are given from time to time.

6.3.2. Quality Control Mechanisms

199. It is hardly an exaggeration to state that there exists no system or standard to evaluate the contents, and to insure the quality of, the pre-service program for principal qualification. Although the institutions that provide qualification training conduct their own evaluation upon completion of their training programs, the evaluation is conducted for the purpose of providing reference data for future improvement of the program and for selection of lecturers and not an obligatory procedure. Therefore, it is difficult to evaluate objectively the quality of the training program for principal qualification, and so is to assess the effect of the program.

200. According to an investigation undertaken by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (2006) on those who have completed the pre-service program for principal qualification, the trainees pointed out the following problems. First, it
is difficult to acquire specialized knowledge because there are too many courses to be taken. Second, since contents of the pre-service programs differ from one institution to another, it is necessary to seek standardization of the training contents. Third, offered programs are not strong enough to insure capacity development, task control, and leadership enhancement needed for school management of the principal. And fourth, quality control of the training institutions and their programs remains insufficient.

201. Both the support for newly appointed principals and the initial assistance program for them are formally non-existent. However, some metropolitan and provincial in-service training institutions offer training programs to newly appointed principals. For instance, the in-service training institution of Gyeongsangbuk-do Province provided a job training course for newly appointed principals in 2005. Head of each metropolitan and provincial in-service training institution decides whether or not the institution will run a training program for newly appointed principals for given year, so that the program may not be given every year.

6.3.3. Policies to Improve the Pre-Service Programmes

202. Critics have argued that the period of pre-service training should be extended and both the contents and method of the training should be improved to enhance the quality of the pre-service training program for principal qualification. Lee, Jong-jae et al (2004) suggest that the length of the pre-service program be extended from the present 30 days and 180 hours to 6 months, and the content of the program be improved in a way that fosters the skills and knowledge required at school scene. However, it is not certain if the length of the pre-service program will be increased substantially in the near future.

203. As to the training for the newly appointed principals, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development announced the plan to strengthen the training, along with the introduction of the new principal hiring system. Namely, a training of approximately ten weeks in length is to be provided to the principals employed through
the invitation and open recruitment prior to and after the point of employment, in order that the new principals are given the opportunity to lead school innovation. Particularly, the Ministry announced, a separate training designed to cultivate basic capacity required for school management and education in general is to be given to the principals employed without the principal certificate through the Special Exceptional Measures for Accredititing Principal. 4)

6.4. Certification of the School Principal

6.4.1. Management of the Certification System

204. One has to attain a certificate to be a school principal. The certificate recognizes legally that the certificate-holder is equipped with the minimum skills required for the post of school principal, which is a professional job. Certificate acquisition is required to be the principal because of the following purposes: protecting the interest of students, insuring stability of the state and society, and securing the legal and social status of the principals (Kim, Ee-gyeong et al., 2004).

205. Certification standard for the school principal is uniformly determined by the national-level law. The certificate for principal is conferred by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development to the individuals who have met the certification standard designated by law, through a review procedure which does not include a test, in accordance with the Presidential decree. The certification standards for the elementary and secondary school principals compel that a candidate for both elementary and secondary schools have the vice principal certificate with over three years of educational career and receive re-education deemed necessary for the task, as designated by the Article No. 21 of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law.

206. To acquire the principal certificate in the general track of promotion to the principal,

acquisition of the vice principal certificate is required. To attain the perfect score in the domain of educational career when acquiring the vice principal certificate, one has to have a career of 25 years, while three more years, that is, 28 years is required to acquire the principal certificate.

207. To acquire the certificate, one has to receive re-education, which is called the principal qualification training. Those who receive the principal qualification training are identical with the candidates for promotion. Trainees are designated by the superintendent of each metropolitan or provincial office of education, in the order registered on the promotion candidate list (Enforcement Ordinance, Article No. 40, Regulations for In-Service Training of Teachers and Such).

208. If the regulation of the Elementary and Secondary School Education Law is followed strictly, any person who satisfies the specified qualification criteria is entitled to acquire the principal certificate, and is thereby appointed the school principal. However, other subordinate laws and ordinances are enforced in a way in which the candidate for the certification training is determined based on the ranking of candidates’ scores only when there is a vacancy of the principal post, and only those who completed the certification training are conferred the principal certificate and thereby appointed the principal. Therefore, the principal certificate is conferred under a premise that the certificate-holder is to be appointed the principal.

209. Although certification and hiring of private school principals are specified separately in the Private School Education Law, certification of the private school principal is to follow the regulation on certification of the national and public school principals (Article No. 52, Private School Education Law).

6.4.2. Improving Certification System

210. Recently, the need to improve the principal qualification system has been discussed widely. First, one of the problems cited often is that the function to examine if
candidates possess the capacity appropriate to the principal is weak in the present certification system. In other words, since there exists no function to supervise certification of the principals at national level and there is no job standard to examine the capacity and skills of the principals, the certificate is conferred based only on the external and unclear criteria, such as career and re-education record. Second, it is also problematic that the certification criteria are disproportionately oriented to career, so that seniority-based promotion is emphasized whereas young and eligible candidates are at a disadvantage (Lee, Jong-jae et al., 2004).

211. To solve these problems, various opinions have been proposed by teacher associations, including one that the weight of career should be reduced in reviewing candidates’ qualification and another that the principal certificate should be abolished. Also, there is a call for adopting the system of certifying principal’s qualification. That is, it has been advanced, there should be a national-level organ devoted to certifying qualification and both the standard and procedure for certifying qualification in a way that strengthens the certification criteria and rationalizes the procedure. However, since the principal qualification system is closely related to the promotion system and hiring system, despite the lively discussion of various methods, there are few changes made officially at the government level.

6.5. In–Service Professional Development of Principals

6.5.1. Professional Development Programmes

212. Once a person is hired as the principal after taking the principal qualification training, he or she is not subjected to any disadvantages with respect to his or her status, or any other ill-treatment, even if he or she does not receive any further in-service training for professional development. Hence, the absence of a systemic mechanism to make the principals invest time and effort in professional development, school principals’ participation in in-service training programs remains very low, if such
programs get operational, at all.

213. One of the programs for school principals’ professional development is job training designed to improve their performance in carrying out their occupational tasks. However, principals’ participation in the program is not mandatory, so that participation rate remains low. There is no standard curriculum, development of systematic programs is weak, and most of the programs are short-term training with the duration of one to two days, under 30 hours (Son, Byeong-gil et al., 2004).

214. Principals’ job training is provided by the metropolitan and provincial in-service training institutions, the Center for In-Service Education attached to Korea National University of Education, the Center for In-Service Education for Educational Administration at Seoul National University, and the Education and Human Resources In-Service Education Center directly run by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development.

215. Each of the above institutions runs training programs designed to improve principals’ job performance. For example, the Center for In-Service Education attached to Korea National University of Education offers a 15-hour study program for principals. The Education and Human Resources In-Service Education Center offers five day courses for improving principals’ skills for innovation and negotiation. There are long-term job training programs that reach up to 14 weeks or 600 hours like the course for educational administrators and leaders provided by the Center for In-Service Education for Educational Administration at Seoul National University. For this particular program, the beneficiary of the service should pay the cost.

216. Meanwhile, in the in-service training institutions established at the 16 metropolitan and provincial offices of education, job training courses ranging from 15 to 60 hours are being offered. Among such programs are: ICT training for elementary and secondary school principals and accounting training for secondary school principals offered by the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education; ICT job training for the education CEO, Busan Metropolitan Office of Education; ICT training for elementary
and secondary principals, Incheon Metropolitan Office of Education; and job training for elementary school managers and the training in accounting for secondary school principals, Jeonnam Provincial Office of Education.

6.5.2. Obstacles to Professional Development

217. Since there was no systemic device to evaluate job performance of school principals, there existed no mechanism to assess which professional skill and knowledge are wanting in each individual case and, therefore, which professional development activity should be given priority. Because the training institutions determine specific content, method, program component, and period of the job training, it was difficult for an individual principal to choose the kind of training tailored to his or her needs and desires.

218. However, as a part of the “Evaluation of Teacher’s Skills Development,” which is expected to be introduced in its entirety in 2008 by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, evaluation of principals and vice principals will be administered. According to a government proposal announced in October, 2006, based upon its pilot management launched since 2005, principals’ training activities for skills development are to be required depending on the result of the evaluation undertaken jointly by teachers and parents with respect to overall areas of school management (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, October, 2006).

219. At the same time, often pointed out as a problem of the job training is the fact that there is no systemic mechanism to monitor and supervise the quality of the effects of the job training programs. This is not a problem confined solely in the principal’s job training, for the same issue is raised regarding the job training of teachers and vice principals.

220. It is also problematic that under the current system, whether or not a principal has participated in the professional development programs is by no means connected to
either extension of his or her service term, or any incentive and reward. Once a person is hired as the principal, a four-year term is guaranteed and consecutive serving of one time is possible, so that most principals can remain in service up to 8 years in maximum. Although a review procedure for the second term is administered after the first four-year term is over, it remains very superficial, and most are allowed the second term unless he or she has a serious defect that warrants rejection. Whether or not a principal has participated in the professional development program can hardly influence the review procedure for re-hiring.

6.5.3. Tasks for Improvement

221. There is not a large body of literature dealing exclusively with the theme of school principals’ professional development. The ‘Research on the Means to Improve Teachers’ In-Service Training System’ undertaken in 2004 upon commission from the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development analyzes the problems in the overall areas of the teacher in-service training system including the principal’s, and suggests improvement strategies. Proposals of this research are highly likely to be adopted in policy implementation because it was commissioned by the government for the purpose of conceptualizing a policy.

222. In Korea’s case, when the government intends to either improve, or develop a specific education policy, it comes up with the research fund and appoints an official in charge of the research, and commissions the research to an outside institution in the form of policy assignment. Here, the research institute to be conducting the commissioned research is determined either through public contest, or by formal designation. Once the research institute is determined and the research staffs are called in, the research project for policy development is conducted in a close collaboration with the government official in charge. The results accrued from the policy research are adopted extensively in the activities of policy development and improvement. However, there is a shortcoming that both the process and results of the research cannot be completely
free from the influence of the government, since it is commissioned by the government. Research results are often used as the data source to justify government policies.

223. Among many missions that should be completed in order to make principals’ training and professional development more successful, it is most urgent to clarify both the role and the qualification standard of the school principals in a way that meets the demands of the Korean society. Korean Educational Development Institute conducted a research for examining teachers’ and principals’ job performance and setting up their performance standard in 2005. According to the research, principal’s tasks to be performed are divided into six grand domains and 14 medium domains; the former includes curriculum management, support for student guidance, supervision of and support for school staffs, school management, external relations with parents and such, and professional development (Kim, Ee-gyeong et al., 2005). Based on the research, the government has begun to set up the nation-wide standard for teachers’ job performance, and the standard for the principals’ job performance is also expected to be established afterward. Establishment of the job performance standard is likely to raise applicability of the pre-service and in-service training programs for school principals.

224. Son, Byeong-gil et al. (2004) claim that the qualification training course for the principals should be extended from the current 30 days to six months, a standard curriculum should be developed to insure qualitative level of the training programs, and the training method should be changed from the lecture style to practical field activities. Also, they suggested that the job training for the principals should be required, rather than recommended, so that all newly-appointed principals receive job training during their first year service.5)

5) In a survey asking whether or not the periodic in-service training of teachers should be required and how often such training should be given, principals and vice principals selected three-year term, while general teachers and senior teachers favored five-year term most (Son, Byeong-gil et al., 2004, p. 83).
6.6. Priorities for Future Policy Development

225. The Korean government and educational officials pay very low attention to the policy of training and professional development of school principals. Some researchers have argued for the need to distinguish between the administrator track and teacher track within school, and to select principals by training, rather than by promotion (Choe, Hi-sun et al., 1994; Roh, Jong-hi, 2003). However, such opinions do not accord with the policy direction seriously reviewed by the government.

226. Highlighted exclusively, and thereby arousing controversies and various talks, was the need to diversify the routes to hire school principals in order to recruit the individuals who are younger, more capable, and with diverse backgrounds and specialities. Such talks appear to be going on under a premise as if there were already a number of principals equipped with the right qualification and skills to manage schools successfully in a way that meets the rapidly changing environment in and out of school, and as if, all that needed to be done is to select and hire them in a rational way.

227. However, the reality is on the contrary. As evinced from the extreme voice that any person can be the school principal and therefore the principal certificate should be abolished, principals are not acknowledged as professionals of school management, though they are the object of envy in the Korean society. There ought to be the policy-level attention and effort to help the principals raise their professional skills and lead their schools in the rapidly changing environment by providing them with pre- and in-service training opportunities. Along with diversification and rationalization of the hiring system, the issue of professional development should be given due priority, as well.
7. Conclusion

7.1. Strengths and Weaknesses

228. All in all, it is a very favourable point that the principal has long been an attractive post desired by most teachers in Korea. As the “flower of the teaching profession,” the principals enjoy high social status and the pay that is adequate for the status. The pay system in which it takes 37 years to reach the highest salary also contributes to making the principal’s pay relatively high. A teacher must become vice principal in order to be the principal, so that vice principal is also a very attractive post. Hence, the strength lies in the fact that the policy-makers do not have to worry about either shortage, or turnover of the school administrators.

229. However, there are weaknesses, such as the fact that the competition for promotion gets excessively heated, and the fact that the weight of the years of service is heavy and the required years of service is long, so that the young and the talented can hardly enter the school administrator profession. Also, due to the limitation in the official terms of the principal, it is impossible to serve as the principal more than eight years, and many tend to be reluctant to be placed in the regions where educational condition is poor.

230. It is being considered necessary that the educational administrative system should move away from the traditional centralized one toward the site-based school management, and there have been efforts that reflect such an understanding. Examples are institutionalization of school council, adoption of the site-based accounting, and strengthening of the principal authority in organizing and managing school curriculum. Still, however, many administrative matters are managed under the leadership of the educational authorities in a top-down manner, and the practical authority of the principals remain limited. In the case of public school, the principal’s authority in
employing teachers and selecting students is very limited.

231. Traditionally, the mechanism to ask principal’s accountability was weak. Although school evaluation has been practiced, its evaluation criteria were centered around the input and process while the outcome such as school achievement level was omitted, so that neither the school, nor the principal, can be asked for accountability. The Korean government has recently announced a full adoption of the ‘Evaluation of Teachers’ Skills Development’ starting from 2008, hence the management abilities of the principal and vice principal will be diagnosed through evaluation and be connected to necessary training. Although the Evaluation does not go so far as to ask the school administrator’s accountability for school management, it will be a mechanism to induce improvement and change in that it provides feedback by reviewing teachers’ and parents’ opinions on school management.

232. In a response to various changes, the capacity and role of the principals have been highlighted from different angles. Today, beyond the concept of a simple supervisor, the principal is required to play the multiple roles of the CEO in charge of the school finance and supervision of facilities as well as the school head actively engaged in curricular development, support for instruction and learning, teacher inspection, relationship-building with the local community, and innovation-leading with a vision for the school. These multiple roles are being played by the excellent principals who have a vision. Especially, teacher evaluation system is expected to provide support for inspection and improvement of teachers’ classroom instruction, therefore, the supportive role of the school administrator is likely to expand further in the future.

233. It is a very serious problem that there exist conflict and confrontation among school members. One of the biggest challenges the principal and vice principal ought to handle while they manage the school is to prevent and resolve the conflict with the teachers’ labor union. Another challenge is to resolve frequent complaints of parents. As the teachers and parents form their own organizations, their demand for participating in the decision-making procedure of school management is increasing,
yet the channel for communication remains inappropriate and the tradition of mutual interaction has not taken its root. The school administrators tend to avoid exposing the internal conflict to the outside, and many tend to depend on individually acquired know-how in resolving the problematic situations.

234. Recently, the government, school principals, and the teacher union have continued their conflict over the issue of ‘who can be, and who should be the principal?’ The conflict has been originated from the irrational convention that the promotion and employment system of the principal is advantageous to seniors, only those who have accumulated points for a long time can be the vice principal, and only those who have served as the vice principal can become the principal. While various teacher associations remain highly sensitive to the issue of selecting and employing the principal and are engaged in lively discussion, the issue of how to train excellent principals, examine their abilities, and continue their professional development remains neglected, and the policy to improve the situation is underdeveloped.

7.2. Priorities for Future Policy Development to Improve School Leadership

235. As a part of the site-based school management, autonomous authority of the school principal in managing the curriculum, finance, and personnel affair has been in effect increased vis-à-vis in the past. However, along with the strengthened authority, new roles and duties have been added, while the resources needed for the principals to perform such roles effectively remain feeble. There should be a large-scale transfer of the authority to the principal and also, the strong support for them, if the principals are to generate practical change successfully at school level. At the same time, it will be necessary to strengthen the mechanism through which the principals are held accountable for the outcome of their management.

236. It is no exaggeration to state that the overheated competition to be the principal and vice principal is shaping the culture of the teaching profession in Korea. It is often
the case that the efforts at occupying an advantageous status in the competition for promotion are not connected with improvement of the quality of education for students. It is necessary to consider prudentially adopting the head teacher system, so that the teachers can teach in the classroom and exercise learning-centered leadership, enjoying the social status and recognition on a par with the school administrator.

237. The principal and vice principal do need the cooperation and dedication of the chief teachers, the middle-rung supervisors, in managing the school. Under the current system, the role of the middle-rung supervisors is very limited and their attractiveness far from recognizable. There should be a policy consideration for diversifying and their role and strengthening the incentives, so that teachers favour the chief teacher post and chief teacher can be a beneficial and rewarding experience in terms of the teachers’ career development.

238. Many principals put too much energy in resolving the conflict with the teacher union, therefore, their energy to help improve the quality of instruction and learning is being exhausted. It is urgently needed to make efforts at helping the principal and the teacher union to form a close companionship in order to secure students’ right to education. It is necessary to clarify the core conflicting issues and seek the problem solving methods.

239. Along with the external and internal changes, the goals of school education are changing, and so are the role of school and the scope of its activities. It is necessary to determine clearly the role and qualification standard of the school principal, if the principals are to accomplish the goals of school education successfully by meeting the new demands of the Korean society as schools’ Chief Executive Officer. The nation-wide performance standard of the principals should be developed and the policy-level interest should be directed to building a close connection between such a standard and the training, certification, employment, and in-service training of the principals. Also, basic research regarding this issue should be increased in quantity and upgraded in quality.
240. Although the school principals of Korea are envied by others, yet their professionalism as the school manager has not been adequately recognized, which is in large measure caused by procedures and criteria for promotion and employment that do not help raise their capability. It is important to improve the employment system, so that the persons who have the sense of mission and passion for improving the quality of education and seeking changes in schooling as well as professional knowledge and know-how can be employed as principal. However, it is even more urgent to form the policy that helps the principals to acquire professionalism during the training process and to upgrade their skills while they serve as the principal.
REFERENCES


Lee, Yun-sik (2002). “Recent Research on the Principal’s Instructional Leadership and Their
Implications.” Research in Korea’s Teacher Education, 19(2). Korea Association of the Research in Teacher Education. 31-55.


Son, Byeong-gil et al. (2004). *Research on the Measures to Improve the In-Service Teacher Training System to Cope with the Knowledge-Based Society*. The Research Team for Improving In-Service Teacher Training, Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development.


### Appendix 1. Tables and Figures

#### Table 2.1 Numbers of Elementary schools, teachers, and students (2005)

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**Table 5.3.1** Changing Proportions of Female Principals at Elementary and Secondary School Levels

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<td>Under 25 yrs.</td>
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<td>Under 25-30 yrs.</td>
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<td>Under 30-35 yrs.</td>
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<td><strong>VOCATIONAL</strong></td>
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<td>Under 25 yrs.</td>
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<td>Under 25-30 yrs.</td>
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<td>Under 30-35 yrs.</td>
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<td>Over 34 yrs.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: numbers in parentheses indicate the number of female principals.
### Table 5.10: Comparison of Monthly Average Salaries of Civil Servants by Years of Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>General Civil Servant</th>
<th>Police</th>
<th>Public Security</th>
<th>Military</th>
<th>Teacher-Principal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Starting Salary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 yrs.</td>
<td>Level 7, Scale 3</td>
<td>Inspector, Scale 3</td>
<td>Level 7, Scale 3</td>
<td>Second Lieutenant, Scale 3</td>
<td>Teacher, Scale 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,760 (100)</td>
<td>2,148 (122)</td>
<td>1,954 (111)</td>
<td>1,708 (97)</td>
<td>2,131 (121)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5 yrs.</strong></td>
<td>Level 7, Scale 7</td>
<td>Inspector, Scale 7</td>
<td>Level 7, Scale 7</td>
<td>Captain, Scale 4</td>
<td>Teacher, Scale 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,154 (100)</td>
<td>2,563 (129)</td>
<td>2,283 (106)</td>
<td>2,606 (121)</td>
<td>2,585 (120)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10 yrs.</strong></td>
<td>Level 6, Scale 11</td>
<td>Senior Inspector, Scale 11</td>
<td>Level 6, Scale 7</td>
<td>Captain, Scale 9</td>
<td>Teacher, Scale 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,742 (100)</td>
<td>3,153 (135)</td>
<td>2,961 (108)</td>
<td>3,098 (113)</td>
<td>3,016 (110)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>15 yrs.</strong></td>
<td>Level 6, Scale 16</td>
<td>Senior Inspector, Scale 16</td>
<td>Level 6, Scale 16</td>
<td>Major, Scale 11</td>
<td>Teacher, Scale 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3,099 (100)</td>
<td>3,501 (133)</td>
<td>3,222 (104)</td>
<td>3,997 (129)</td>
<td>3,471 (112)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>20 yrs.</strong></td>
<td>Level 5, Scale 20</td>
<td>Superintendent, Scale 20</td>
<td>Level 5, Scale 20</td>
<td>Lieutenant Colonel, Scale 13</td>
<td>Teacher, Scale 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3,913 (100)</td>
<td>4,226 (108)</td>
<td>4,147 (106)</td>
<td>4,852 (124)</td>
<td>3,991 (102)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>25 yrs.</strong></td>
<td>Level 5, Scale 25</td>
<td>Sen. Supt., Scale 23</td>
<td>Level 4, Scale 23</td>
<td>Lieutenant Colonel, Service Allowance 3</td>
<td>Chief Teacher, Scale 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4,165 (100)</td>
<td>4,956 (119)</td>
<td>4,956 (119)</td>
<td>5,414 (130)</td>
<td>4,755 (114)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>30 yrs.</strong></td>
<td>Level 4, Scale 28</td>
<td>Sen. Supt., Scale 28</td>
<td>Level 4, Scale 28</td>
<td>Colonel, Scale 4</td>
<td>Vice Principal, Scale 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4,818 (100)</td>
<td>5,107 (106)</td>
<td>5,251 (109)</td>
<td>6,070 (126)</td>
<td>5,203 (108)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>33 yrs.</strong></td>
<td>Level 3, Scale 26</td>
<td>Chief Sen. Supt., Scale 26</td>
<td>Level 3, Scale 26</td>
<td>Brigadier General, Scale 2</td>
<td>Principal, Scale 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,375 (100)</td>
<td>6,235 (116)</td>
<td>6,396 (119)</td>
<td>7,095 (132)</td>
<td>6,181 (115)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>3,503 (100)</td>
<td>3,986 (114)</td>
<td>3,896 (111)</td>
<td>4,355 (124)</td>
<td>36,916 (112)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 5.11: Cumulative Totals of Turnover of the Elementary and Secondary School Principals during the Past Decade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No. of Teachers in Service</th>
<th>Retirement Age</th>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>Death</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
<th>Disciplinary Action</th>
<th>Honorary Retirement</th>
<th>Job Leaving</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Sub Total</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elem. School</td>
<td>55,028</td>
<td>5,996</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,277</td>
<td>1,526</td>
<td>7,522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>24,449</td>
<td>3,668</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>1,064</td>
<td>4,722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General High School</td>
<td>11,702</td>
<td>1,494</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>2,016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational High School</td>
<td>7,232</td>
<td>940</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>1,229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>91,179</td>
<td>12,098</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2,888</td>
<td>3,394</td>
<td>15,489</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Figure 2.1] The School System of Korea

[Figure 3.1] An Example of Typical Distribution of School Affairs at School Level
# Appendix 2. National Advisory Council Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>Kim, Hong-seop</td>
<td>Director, School Policy Office, Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training Institution</td>
<td>Jin, Dong-seop</td>
<td>Professor, Seoul National University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Song, Gwang-yong</td>
<td>Professor, Seoul National University of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEDI Expert</td>
<td>Han, Man-gil</td>
<td>Director General, Department of Education Innovation, KEDI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Association</td>
<td>Baek, Bok-sun</td>
<td>Head of the Policy Center, Korea Federation of Teachers’ Associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Association</td>
<td>Bae, Jong-hak</td>
<td>President, Korea Association of the Elementary School Principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seo, Gi-won</td>
<td>President, Korea Association of the National and Public Middle School Principals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IMPROVING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP
COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT FOR KOREA

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