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Educational Leadership Handbook for Philippine Public Schools

Telesforo N. Boquiren
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EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP HANDBOOK
FOR PHILIPPINE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

by
Telesforo N. Boquiren

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment
of the
Degree of Doctor of Education

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
August 1973

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Telesforo N. Boquiren
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PART ONE

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON THE PHILIPPINES

Part One of this dissertation will give the reader some basic background information on the Philippines in order to help him understand and appreciate the significance of the development of public education, and especially of school administration in the public school system, within the national context.

Chapter I gives historical, geographical, political and socio-economic information. Chapter II presents the status of education during the almost four centuries of Spanish domination, the growth of education during the almost five decades of the American regime, to the ten-year transition period of Commonwealth government from 1936 to 1945 in preparation for independent status, and through the period of independence from 1946 to the present. Chapter III deals with the implications and significance of the growth of public education under two foreign flags and under the Philippine flag in relation to the development of public school administration.

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CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL, GEOGRAPHIC, POLITICAL
AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS

The island country of the Philippine Republic lies off the southeast coast of Asia. It has an estimated population of 38 million\(^1\) dispersed in almost 7,100 islands which include the main island groups of Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao. About 5 million persons are Muslims and other religious and cultural minorities, and the remainder are Christians.

The country covers a total land area of almost 300,000 square kilometers, a little larger than that of Great Britain and smaller than that of Japan.

There are 87 dialects spoken in the country, with seven major ones spoken by the majority. Pilipino, which is Tagalog-based, is the national language, along with English which is the medium of instruction in the schools. Spanish, a secondary official language, is also used, especially in social circles.

The Philippines became a Spanish colony in 1521 and remained as such until 1898, almost four centuries. It was named after King Phillip II of Spain.


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In 1898 Filipino revolutionists assumed control and proclaimed the First Philippine Republic. This was, however, short-lived as Spain ceded the country to the United States of America after the former was defeated in the Spanish-American war at the turn of the twentieth century.

The Americans colonized the country until 1935 when a commonwealth form of government was established in preparation for the grant of independence in 1946. The Commonwealth Government was disrupted by the erstwhile occupation of Japan from 1942 to 1944.

Agriculture has been and is still the main industry. Agricultural activities account for more than one-third of the national income and employ about two-thirds of the total labor force. About 80 per cent of the population lives in the rural areas. Population growth rate is 3.4 per cent annually.

The country has a tropical and warm climate generally tempered by constant sea breezes. There are two seasons—the dry season from late October to May, and the rainy season which starts about June and ends in early October, with intermittent typhoons and monsoon rains.

The Philippines became an independent country on July 4, 1946. The constitutional framework of the country resembles that of the United States in the organization of the executive, the legislative, and the judicial branches of the government. Since the government is democratic in
nature, the powers exercised by the officials emanate from
the people and the officials are responsible to the people.

Historical factors account for the highly centralized structure of the government, having started thus during the Spanish times, carried on during the American regime and to the present. Although governors head the provincial governments, city and municipal mayors head the cities and municipalities, and barrio captains head the barrios and villages, limited authority is exercised by these officials. Governmental power and authority reside mainly in the national government and especially with the office and person of the President of the Philippines.
CHAPTER II

EDUCATION DURING THE DIFFERENT PERIODS

Education in the Philippines, during the almost four and a half centuries of its domination by other countries, was an instrument of colonial policy of the ruling powers. The schools were used for the propagation and development of the ideals and culture of the colonizing nations. Spain and the United States each taught what was believed best for a subject people. Each designed a school system for the entire country and prescribed the means to realize its objectives.

Since language and education are closely interrelated, each sovereign power exerted every effort to teach and develop its language as the national language of the Filipinos.

The Spanish Period: 1521 to 1898

Since Spain was a zealous exponent of Christianity, education during the Spanish regime aimed primarily to teach moral and religious subjects through the medium of the Spanish language. The conversion to Christianity of the governed people was the dream of the Spanish kings, and missionaries were sent to the Philippines from time to time to spread that gospel.
Schools were organized with religion as the core of the curriculum, and were used as the agency for the propagation of the Spanish language.

Prior to 1863, the government did not maintain an adequate system of public education for the masses. No particular law or decree governed public education. There were no uniform courses of study. Since schools were founded and controlled by private individuals, parish priests or curates, and religious orders, the courses of study differed widely. Christian doctrines which centered on religious services and dogmas characterized every course of study. The pupils were required to go to church on Sundays and on days of obligation. Aside from the basic subjects of reading and writing, singing psalms and serving in the church were considered indispensable curricular activities. Classes were ungraded and the children were required to attend schools until they had learned to say the prescribed prayers and memorized the *Doctrina Cristiana*. Discipline was strict and co-education was not allowed. Older students were used as monitors.

Schools for girls, known as Colegio Beateros, were also established for the education of women. According to the royal instructions, these schools were to provide shelter for girls and proper instruction in fundamental knowledge, social life, church behavior and home life.
so that "they may go out, be married and rear children."  

The encomienderos (Spanish officials who supervised affairs of designated regions called encomiendas) were urged to support parochial schools in their encomiendas. When the encomiendas became provinces, the alcalde mayor (governor) of each province was required to help maintain the schools through the collection of tributes.

The schools were crude, but a number of Filipinos learned to read, speak, and write the Spanish language. Some of them became clerks, printers, and lower government officials.

Although there were attempts at educational reforms prior to the promulgation of the Educational Decree of 1863, none was successfully carried out. The Decree was a notable attempt of the Spaniards to institute reforms in the educational system of the country. It had three important features: the establishment of a complete system of education in the country comprised of three levels, the provision for government supervision and control, and the establishment of teacher-training institutions.

Secondary instruction was provided by a limited number of seminaries established in the larger parishes and by private secondary schools accredited to the University

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of Santco Tomas. This university was established in 1611 and served as the apex of the educational system for many years. A few vocational schools and schools of arts and trades were established. Normal schools also were established to train teachers for the elementary schools.

To encourage attendance in these schools, it was decreed that no person could hold any salaried position if he could not speak Spanish within five years after the issuance of the Decree.

Graduates of the normal schools who had excellent certificates were entitled to teach in the asenso (intermediate grades). Those with good or fair certificates were allowed to teach in the entrada (primary grades).

The inspection of the elementary schools was exercised by the Governor General of the islands with the aid of a Commission established in Manila and composed of the Archbishop and members appointed by the Governor General with the latter as chairman.

The elementary schools in each locality were under the supervision of the parish priest. Schools in the provinces were supervised by the alcalde mayor with the help of the diocesan prelate and the administrator of revenues. The secondary and higher institutions of learning were each administered by their own officials. The normal schools were under the Jesuits, who were given power to establish governance of the schools subject to the approval of the
national government.

There were later attempts in 1870 to further revise the educational system of the Philippines, but they were not fully implemented. The primary reason was that the proposed revisions were considered drastic, especially as regards the grant of autonomy in the governance of schools.

The American Period: 1898 to 1935

If Spain ardently spread the Catholic faith, the Americans inculcated the democratic principles and way of life among the Filipinos. In transplanting her ideals of democracy, the United States established a system of education designed to train the people in the art of government. Through popular education, America sought to teach the elements of citizenship and the fundamentals of the vocations under a democratic form of government.

After the occupation of Manila in August 1898 by the American army, schools were reopened in Manila. As soon as peace and order were secured in the provinces, more schools were also established there—all under the military. The establishment of schools was considered a potent factor in the pacification of the people.

English was developed as the national language upon the instruction of President William McKinley. This
policy was based on the assumption that the possession of a common language was essential to the success of democracy. In schools, the children were prohibited from speaking the vernacular and penalties were imposed for violation.

The curriculum prescribed also was designed to realize the objectives of transplanting democratic ideals. The textbooks used during the early years of the school system were books written by American authors for American children. In the latter years of the American regime, the curriculum was revised. Textbooks and reading materials regarding Filipino life and culture were used, and revised editions of some American books were co-authored with Filipinos.

The first teachers of English in the newly reopened schools were men of the United States Army. Instructions in subjects other than English were carried in Spanish by Filipino teachers. Spanish editions of textbooks were used for some time in the public schools but were later discarded in favor of English textbooks.

In 1899, Lt. George Anderson was assigned as Superintendent of Public Instruction to take charge of the overall educational system and Dr. Fred Atkinson became the first General Superintendent. It was Dr. Atkinson who proposed an educational bill which became the basis of Act 74 of the Philippine Commission and the framework of an educational system of free public schools. The Act authorized
the establishment of private schools but made no provision for their control and regulation.

American teachers were recruited in 1901 to relieve the military men from teaching duties. Some arrived in the U.S. transports "Faust" and "Sheridan", but close to a thousand arrived on the "Thomas" in December 1901. Some military men who were discharged from the army also were assigned as teachers.

The assignment of American teachers was a delicate task. They were sent to remote barrios and municipalities to organize primary schools. Some were assigned in the administration of public schools, in normal schools, and in provincial capitals as teachers of secondary schools. During those pioneering days they encountered numerous hardships. They had to work with the Spanish parish priests who felt that the children were being drawn away from the church schools.

Pecson and Racelis, in their book, fondly recalled that:

The achievements of the Thomasites and their enthusiastic students rise above national considerations. Their unselfish contributions, made in the true humanistic tradition, are being carried on today by their students and have been instrumental in the founding of a free, democratic Philippines.1

The General Superintendent had broad powers over the establishment of schools, appointment of teachers, preparation of the curriculum, and other matters related to the extension of education. He was assisted by an advisory board composed of four members appointed by the Commission, and he served as chairman.

The immediate control and supervision of the schools in the provinces and in Manila were placed under Division Superintendents. In each municipality, a local school board was created composed of the town mayor, as ex-officio member, with four to six members recommended by the Division Superintendent. The duties and powers of the school board included visiting the schools and looking into the attendance of pupils, recommending construction of schools, reporting to the municipal council the amount of money that should be raised by local taxation for school purposes, and reporting to the General Superintendent the condition of schools in the municipality.

Secondary education, which started in 1903, prescribed four years of study. The government established and maintained, usually at the provincial capital, at least one high school in each province.

Act 74 also created the Philippine Normal School in Manila to provide formal training of teachers and supervisors. The Philippine School of Arts and Trades also was established in Manila to prepare teachers of industrial arts.
The demand for higher education was met through the establishment of the University of the Philippines by Act 1870 in 1908. The establishment of the state university gave the country a complete system of education. Higher education also was provided by private colleges and universities. In 1910 the office of the Superintendent of Private Schools, under the Department of Public Instruction, was created.

Religious instruction in the public schools was provided by Act 74. It stated that no teacher or other person shall teach or criticize the doctrine of any church, religious sect, or denomination, or shall attempt to influence the pupils for or against any church or religious sect in any public school.

The years from 1910 to 1920 saw a great expansion of the educational system. The national government was reorganized and the General Superintendent became the Director of Education. The Director performed his duties under the supervision of the Vice-Governor General of the Philippines who acted concurrently as the Secretary of Public Instruction.

Emphasis was placed on the improvement of the teaching force and the school plant facilities. Industrial education also was emphasized by the vocationalization of the intermediate curriculum. Teaching, trade, business, domestic science, and agricultural education were offered.
in the intermediate grades in addition to the general curriculum.

An athletic program was introduced in the intermediate grades and athletic meets were encouraged. Regional athletic associations were organized. The physical education program was intensified.

The demand for more teachers was met with the introduction of the intermediate teaching curriculum. Later, it was realized that the intermediate teaching curriculum did not provide sufficient training for teachers. The two-year and the four-year secondary normal curriculum were established in some high schools. Provincial normal schools offering the four-year general curriculum were organized in strategic places to serve the needs of the different regions of the country.

The years from 1921 to 1935 were characterized as the period of further expansion and adaptation. There was need to evaluate the educational system. For this purpose an educational survey was authorized by the Philippine Legislature (formerly the Philippine Commission) in 1924. Dr. Paul Monroe of Columbia University headed the survey, which was finished in 1925. In line with some of the major recommendations of the survey, methods and techniques of teaching and supervision were improved. Teacher training was intensified. The curriculum was revised to suit the needs of the times. Child accounting and the evaluation of
instruction were given new emphasis. More Filipino schoolmen were trained and prepared for administrative and supervisory positions in the country and in the United States.

Another evaluation, made in 1930, was a study of vocational education. Financed by the Philippine government and the Rockefeller Foundation, this study was headed by C. A. Prosser of the William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute and recommended, among others, that all high schools should be vocationalized in order to increase the earning power and capacity of the population.

In 1935, shortly before the establishment of the Commonwealth government, President Quezon appointed an education survey committee to study and recommend further changes and improvements in the educational system. It recommended, among others, the simplification of the administrative organization of the Bureau of Education and the creation of a national educational policy making body.

The growth of the system may be seen from its enrollment. Starting with a handful of hesitant, timid pupils in 1901, the system grew to enroll 985,721 in 1935, because of the sovereign power's commitment to the policy of bringing the advantages of education and the extension of educational facilities to the greatest number. Financial support became one of the major problems. The lack of facilities to accommodate the children of school age became more acute each year. The business recession of the 1930's
caused a decline in school revenues and many classes in the public schools were closed for lack of funds. In 1933, one of the first problems which Governor General Frank Murphy had to tackle was the school crisis.

Each Vice-Governor General (who was concurrently Secretary of the Department of Public Instruction) up until 1935, the Directors of Education, the school superintendents of select provinces and key cities, and the heads of key divisions in the General Office were all Americans. They formulated the broad policies of the Philippine educational system.

The Commonwealth Period; 1936 to 1945

This period was a ten-year transition to prepare the country for the final grant of independence in 1946 in accordance with the Tydings-McDuffie Law of the United States Congress. This period brought about a re-orientation of educational plans and policies needed to carry out the mandates of the Philippine Constitution which had been adopted in 1935.

Character education, citizenship, and vocational education were emphasized—the latter especially in the secondary schools. More vocational and technical schools were established and the facilities of the existing ones were enlarged.

The recurring school crisis in the early 1930's
became very acute in the later years of the decade. This led to passage by the Philippine Legislature of Commonwealth Act No. 586, known as the Educational Act of 1940. Enacted as a measure of expediency, it provided for a revision of the system of public elementary education including its financing. It nationalized the support of elementary education, reduced the elementary schooling of seven years to six years, and allowed the introduction of the double-session day wherein a teacher had to handle one class in the morning and another class in the afternoon.

The full significance of the enactment of the law cannot be appreciated until it is realized that the efforts to extend educational facilities had gone far beyond the capacity of the government to finance the system. The enrollment of 1,004,400 in 1936 swelled to 1,552,639 in 1940 (an increase of 50 per cent), while the appropriations increased only by 15 per cent— from 26 million pesos in 1936 to 30 million pesos in 1940. It was evident that needed educational opportunities were more than the economy could afford.

Inadequate financing resulted in a number of problems, such as inadequate supervision, poor plant facilities, lack of instructional materials, limited equipment and supplies, lack of trained teachers, and increased number of pupils per class.

World War II broke out in December 1941, and the
Japanese forces occupied the Philippines from 1942 to early 1945. This period was considered an educational black-out for the country.

Soon after the war, in mid-1945, the schools were re-opened. The same problems faced before the war plus others caused by the aftermath of the war had to be met with judicious, often deliberate, care and use of scarce resources.

Period of Independence: 1946 to 1972

Independence was achieved on July 4, 1946, at a time when the country lay devastated. One of the major problems inherited by the Republic of the Philippines was the problem of education.

The present system of education in the Philippines is modeled after the prevailing state educational systems in the United States, but structured within the framework of the Constitution of the Republic. Section 5, Article XIV of the Constitution provides that:

All educational institutions shall be under the supervision and subject to regulation by the State. The government shall establish and maintain a complete and adequate system of public education, and shall provide at least free primary instruction, and citizenship training to adult citizens. All schools shall aim to develop moral character, personal discipline, civic conscience, and vocational efficiency and to teach the duties of citizenship. Optional religious instruction shall be maintained in the public schools as now authorized by law. Universities established by the State shall enjoy
academic freedom. The State shall create scholar­ships in arts, science and letters to specially gifted citizens.

The Philippine school system is composed of two co­ordinate branches--the public schools organized and main­tained by the government which are under the Bureau of Public Schools, the Bureau of Vocational Education, and the state universities and colleges; and the private schools organized and maintained by private individuals and cor­porations. The latter are schools not given any direct fin­ancial aid by the government but are regulated and super­vised by the State through the Bureau of Private Schools.

Figure 1 shows the basic organization of the Philip­pine educational system before the reorganization of the Department of Education took effect in July 1973.

Both in terms of money spent and the number of peo­ple involved, public education is the biggest government undertaking in the Philippines and, doubtless, the most important service, operating as it does under a highly centralized form of control and authority.

One significant aspect of this centralized control is that education is a part of the national government and is represented in the President's cabinet by the Secretary of Education, who is the chief education officer for the public schools and is vested with powers and duties to carry out the educational policies of the Republic. Ano­ther fact that result in educational control being
Figure 1. Organization of the Philippine Educational System, 1972.

--- Line of authority; ----- Line of coordination.

Source: Division of Planning, Department of Education

*The reorganized Department of Education which took effect in July 1973 is shown in Figure 7 on page 218.
centered in the country's capital is that the National Government appropriates a high percentage of funds, averaging 30 per cent of the annual national budget, for educational support.

To meet the need for broader participation in educational planning and policy determination, the Board of National Education was created in 1954 by Republic Act No. 1124. The Act makes it the function of the Board to formulate, implement, and enforce general educational objectives and policies; to coordinate the offerings, activities, and functions of all educational institutions in the country, with a view to accomplishing an integrated, nationalistic, and democracy-inspired educational system in the Philippines. The Board's chairman is the Secretary of Education and he, as the executive, implements the decisions of the Board.

There are other national agencies that have to do with education. One is the Civil Service Commission which exercises control through the examination and certification of eligibility of teachers and school employees and through disciplinary measures against employees. The Government Service Insurance System provides retirement and insurance benefits to teachers and employees of the Department of Education. The National Economic Council influences education primarily through its control over foreign aid programs, notably in joint efforts with the United States Agency for
International Development and with other regional and international agencies and other countries on a bilateral or unilateral basis.

The Wage and Position Classification Office classifies teachers and other school employees for salary scales under the "equal pay for equal work" concept of government service. The Unesco National Commission exists as a part of the United Nations' program for member countries to increase the benefits of educational, scientific, and cultural pursuits. The National Coordinating Center for the Study and Development of Filipino Children and Youth conducts and encourages research by schools, agencies, institutions, and entities interested in child and youth development as a basis for a more effective system of education.

The Institute of National Language develops and adopts a common national language based on one of the existing dialects. All materials of teaching in the national language are studied for their linguistics by the Institute.

Language of Instruction. The English language has continued to be used as the medium of instruction. The Revised Educational Program of 1957 for the elementary and the secondary schools adopted as a policy the use of the local dialect as the medium of instruction for Grades I and II, with Pilipino introduced as a subject in Grade I and given increasing emphasis in the higher grades. English is introduced informally as a subject in Grades I and II.
Beginning with Grade III, English becomes the medium of instruction while the dialects are used as the auxiliary medium of instruction in the primary grades. Pilipino is the auxiliary medium in the intermediate grades and in the secondary schools. Spanish is offered in the high schools.

The Community Schools. The community school concept was adopted in 1950 as a principal instrument for rural reconstruction and improvement of rural life which comprises about three-fourths of Philippine society and also to meet the demands brought about by the post-war conditions and the political status of the country. Significantly, the Philippine Association of School Superintendents contributed much to the adoption of this concept.

Other Significant Developments. General secondary schools were organized in municipalities other than the provincial capitals to meet the increased demand for secondary education. In the mid-60's secondary schools also were organized in some barrios.

In 1961 the Peace Corps Volunteers from the United States started to serve as assistant teachers of English, Science and Math in selected schools in the country.

Some of the laws enacted during the post-World War II period that had significant implications for public education were:

1. Republic Act No. 896, known as the Elementary

\footnote{Vitaliano Bernardino, \textit{The Philippine Community School} (Quezon City: Phoenix Press, Inc., 1958).}

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Education Act of 1953, which provided the return of Grade VII but was never implemented because no funds were appropriated by Congress for the purpose.

2. Republic Act No. 4670, known as the Magna Carta for Public School Teachers, was passed in 1966. It improved the status of the public school teacher.

3. Republic Act No. 5447, known as the Special Education Fund Act, was passed in 1968. It provided special sources of additional funds for the support of public elementary and secondary education and created school boards for this purpose.

The overall educational system has been evaluated further the better to make it relevant to the changing needs and times. In 1949 the Unesco Consultative Mission to the Philippines undertook the first post-independence study of the country's educational system. It made recommendations on the language problem, a school financing plan, and a general reorganization plan. This was followed, in 1951, by a Joint Congressional Committee on Education study which recommended that no radical steps should be taken on the change in language instruction until valid and scientific evidence had been established, among others.

Also in 1951, a survey on the financing of public education was undertaken under the United States Economic
Survey Mission which recommended, among others, that the greater cost of education should be borne by the local governments while the national standards are maintained on a national basis.

These evaluations culminated in the issuance of the General Education Policies by the Board of National Education in 1957 and, subsequently, the Revised Educational Program which took effect in the school year 1957-58.

Again, from 1958 to 1960, another survey was undertaken jointly by the National Economic Council of the Philippines and the United States Operations Mission to the country. Headed by J. Chester Swanson of the University of California and Philippine counterpart co-leaders Pedro Guiang and Vitaliano Bernardino, who were then assistant directors of the Bureau of Public Schools, the survey resulted in three major recommendations: (1) improve the quality of educational services, (2) expand educational services, and (3) provide better financing for education.

Finally, in 1969, the President of the Philippines created a Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education. The Commission worked within the purview of the general reorganization of the national government. Undertaken mainly by Filipinos with the assistance of experts from Australia and the Ford Foundation, the Commission submitted its report in 1970. Entitled Education for National Development: New Patterns, New Directions, this report

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is the basis for the reorganization of the educational system of the Philippines which is underway at the present writing.

The Bureau of Public Schools

The responsibility, promotion, administration and supervision of public education in the country fall under the Bureau of Public Schools, a subsidiary of the Department of Education. The Bureau offices are headed by a Director, are located in Manila, and are referred to as the General Office.

The Director has two assistant directors—one in charge of the instructional aspect of education and another in charge of the promotional aspect. A third person, the head of the Administrative Office, assists the Director on all administrative matters. The four compose the Directorate.

Figure 2 shows the organization of the Bureau of Public Schools and the relationship between the General Office and the field before the reorganization of the Department of Education took effect in July 1973.

Operating under the Directorate were the provincial and city school divisions and the regional normal schools headed by school superintendents. The basic purpose of the school division was that of defining or delimiting an area to be treated as a unit of school control and administration.

A school division was coterminous with the provincial
Figure 2. Organization of the Bureau of Public Schools, 1972

Responsibilities

Assistant Director (Instruction)  Administrative Officer
Elementary Education  School Finance
Secondary Education  Accounting
Special Subjects & Services  Personnel
Home Economics  Legal & Investigation
Practical Arts  Property

Assistant Director (Promotional)
Adult and Community Education  School Plant
Research and Evaluation  Records
Publications & Documentation
Medical & Dental Services

Source: Division of Planning, Department of Education.
or city political unit. In some cases big provinces were divided into two or more school divisions, each headed by a school superintendent. Some large school divisions had assistant superintendents.

A school division had many elementary schools and a number of general secondary schools, each headed by a principal. The secondary schools usually are located centrally. Some community high schools located in barrios are headed by a head teacher. In most cases these schools used the facilities of the elementary schools. Incomplete elementary schools are headed by head teachers.

Elementary schools are grouped into units called school districts. A school district is headed by a district supervisor and may include one or more municipalities or a part of a municipality. Schools comprising a district are located in town centers and in the barrios. City elementary schools are also grouped into districts.

The secondary school principals, secondary school head teachers and district supervisors are directly responsible to the district supervisor. In the city schools of Manila the secondary and the elementary school principals are directly responsible to the school superintendent.

School superintendents are assisted by a staff of supervisors and clerical personnel.
School superintendents are chairmen of provincial or city school boards while district supervisors are chairmen of municipal school boards. The position holders who are members of the school boards, namely: the provincial, city, or municipal treasurer; the chairman of the education committee of the provincial board, city council, or municipal board; the president of the Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations in the province, city, or municipality, and the representative of the provincial governor, city mayor, or municipal mayor are designated by law.

The organization of a typical school division before the reorganization of the Department of Education took effect in July 1973 is shown in Figure 3.

In the school year 1971-72 there were 122 provincial and city school divisions and 4 regional normal schools under the administrative and supervisory jurisdiction of the Bureau of Public Schools.
Figure 3. Typical Organization of a School Division, 1972.

Source: Division of Planning, Department of Education.

1 In bigger school divisions.
CHAPTER III

IMPLICATIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS' GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The immediate task of the Bureau of Public Schools and the tremendous growth and development of public elementary and secondary education from 1946 to 1971 have implications for school administration and educational leadership which perhaps can be understood and appreciated better with the following tables.

Table 1 shows the growth in enrollment and the number of teachers from 1946-47 to 1970-71.

TABLE 1

GROWTH IN ENROLLMENT AND NUMBER OF TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Enrollment</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946 - 47</td>
<td>2,102,206</td>
<td>52,251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950 - 51</td>
<td>2,882,434</td>
<td>77,934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960 - 61</td>
<td>4,001,331</td>
<td>115,536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970 - 71</td>
<td>7,041,280</td>
<td>229,934</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicates the variety of administrative and supervisory officials charged with the duty of executing the policies of the Bureau of Public Schools and of keeping instruction and administration on a desirable level of efficiency.

**TABLE 2**

**GROWTH IN NUMBER OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1946 - 47</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>1,354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950 - 51</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>677</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>2,351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960 - 61</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>745</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>2,974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970 - 71</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>1,220</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>3,569</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The school superintendent, as direct representative of the Director of Public Schools, is vested with powers and authority to do the job of providing educational leadership within constraints imposed by a centralized system of organization, general conditions, and resources. His duties are defined in Sec. 917 of the *Revised Administrative Code*. His added duties are also defined in Republic Acts 4670 (*Magna Carta for Public School Teachers*) and 5447 (Special Education Fund). His other duties are also defined

\[1\text{Ibid., p. 56.}\]
in various Circulars from the Bureau of Public Schools and Orders from the Department of Education.

Under the principle of presumptive authority, the school superintendent has the power to decide matters in question at least until or unless reviewed and reversed by the Director of Public Schools.

The most important duty of the school superintendent, however, is that of providing educational leadership in the school division. He must essentially be an educational leader, an administrator, a manager, and an executive. The prestige of the public schools in the division and the support that is received from the public and the other branches of the government largely depend upon his leadership.¹ This suggests that he must be properly prepared and trained as an educational leader.

Educational leadership addresses itself to two major concerns in the field of school administration at all levels of education. The first concern is the proper selection of school superintendents, and the second—the provisions for the preparation and training of future educational leaders.

The present practice in the selection for promotion to superintendency, as for other higher positions, is based on the "next in rank" concept. Before one is considered

for promotion to school superintendency he must have "risen through the ranks," that is, he must have been first a classroom teacher, then a principal, then a supervisor, and perhaps then the holder of some higher position. He also must possess the appropriate civil service eligibility.

The Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education (1970) presented the view that the present policy of recruitment and promotion in the Department of Education should be revised to permit the appointment of educational administrators and staff specialists with high level qualifications and degrees other than education degrees, in the absence of equally qualified personnel within the Department. The Commission thought the concept of "next in rank" as the basis for promotion questionable in light of the Constitutional provision that "merit and fitness" should prevail.

The provision of training and preparation of future educational leaders is crucial. The significance of this concern stems from a report\(^1\) that in the ten years ending in 1980, 75 per cent of the superintendents now in the service will reach the compulsory retirement age of 65.

Provisions for the preparation and training of educational leaders

\(^1\)Committee Report, 1971 Convention of the Philippine Association of School Superintendents, Baguio City, May 10-14, 1971.
leaders in the Philippines are limited.

Staff Development Program

The Cooperative Leadership Educational Program undertaken by the Bureau of Public schools, on the one hand, and the University of the Philippines and the Philippine Normal College, on the other, was a step in the right direction. Started in the late 50's, the courses offered were essentially graduate courses leading to a general Master's degree in education. A number of school officials have participated in the program. However, in certain instances, some school officials recommended to participate in the program suffer problems of limited funds, and thus decide either not to avail themselves of the program or to discontinue soon after entering upon it.

In 1970 the Philippine Association of School Superintendents (PASS) developed a Five-Year Staff Development Program. It allows a limited number of school superintendents as exceptional cases, and as approved by the Secretary of Education, to have two years' study leave with pay plus reasonable allowances in order to pursue doctoral degrees in educational leadership in the Philippines and abroad. For those selected to study abroad, funding assistance is secured from international agencies. This program is essentially an expansion of the Cooperative Leadership Educational Program.
Along with this expanded program, the University of the Philippines and the Philippine Normal College developed a curriculum for a Master's degree in Educational Administration featuring core courses in Management and Educational Administration. The two institutions also developed a program for degrees above the Master's level.

In July 1972 the Department of Education announced the establishment of the School Executives Training Institute sponsored jointly by the Department and the Philippine Public School Teachers Association (PPSTA). The initial five-year program (1972-1977) is to provide special training for executive positions in the school system. Twenty-five carefully selected participants from all positions below that of superintendent are each given a one year leave with pay to pursue degrees beyond the Master's, with another year of extension under certain circumstances. The PPSTA provides a reasonable stipend.

Of course, a number of highly selected schoolmen participate in the various exchange and study programs abroad, particularly in the United States, Canada, Japan, England, New Zealand, and India. One problem posed by this program is that some, especially the younger ones, do not return home because of better opportunities abroad. Thus, the Philippines suffers a drain in trained manpower. This has led to stricter governmental regulations for study abroad.
Strengths and Weaknesses of Public Education

It seems pertinent to detail some of the achievements and weaknesses of public education in the past two and one-half decades as they relate to the leadership provided.

One notable achievement has been the strengthening of national solidarity. The unity of the Filipinos has been strengthened by a public school system through a highly centralized organization. The use of a uniform course of study, with slight variations to meet the needs of the minority, and the use of the English and the Pilipino languages were cohesive factors.

Another achievement has been the training of people for a democratic way of life. The concepts and attributes of democracy were learned in the public schools in varied situations and activities.

A third achievement considered notable is the training of leaders and the development of a middle class. Nearly all of the educated people of the middle class who have become leaders in various life activities are products of the public school system.

A fourth notable achievement is the development of a wholesome attitude toward work. The public schools have appreciably changed the previously negative attitude toward manual labor through their courses and activities in work education.

Other accomplishments worth mentioning are the public
schools' contribution to the improvement of health conditions in the country, the giving of fundamental education to the masses, the development of better ways of spending leisure time and of educating the people for worthy home membership.

The Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education was impressed by the basic strength of the Philippine educational system, particularly on the first and second levels. This strength flows from the virtually high regard in which schooling is held by the people, resulting in some of the highest enrollment ratios in the world and supported by a considerably high level of public expenditure on education.¹

There are, however, some weaknesses in the public educational system. The language problem dates back to the pre-independence years and still is of major concern. The new Constitution (1972) of the Philippines provides that the National Assembly shall take steps toward the development and formal adoption of a common national language to be known as Pilipino. It provides further that, until otherwise provided by law, Pilipino and English shall be the official languages.²

Another weakness is the low holding power of the schools. Statistics on survival rates show that in 1966-1967, of those who enrolled in Grade I, 55.8 per cent reached Grade VI, and 25.3 per cent reached Fourth Year High School.\(^1\)

The evaluations made on Philippine education, particularly the Unesco Consultative Mission to the Philippines, the Joint Congressional Committee on Education, the popularly-known Swanson Survey and, recently, the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education, asserted that, to become functionally literate, a child must finish at least the sixth grade of elementary education. The relatively high percentage of drop-outs is a tremendous waste of money and human resources.

Another critical area is the problem of inadequate and unstable financing of public education, which affects systematic and long-range educational planning. This problem generally affects the condition of secondary education. The Special Education Fund Act has eased to some degree the seriousness of this problem, but certain amendments to the law are needed.

The kind of leadership and initiative generated as a consequence of a highly centralized organization, on all levels of education, leaves much to be desired. Other

\(^1\)Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education, *op. cit.*, p. 34.
factors that are believed contributive to this weakness, particularly of educational leadership, are some of the policies and "long established" practices on promotions to higher-level positions in the educational hierarchy, along with the inadequate preparation and training of most school administrators and supervisors who are charged with providing leadership.

On this problem, the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education, in its policy recommendations, proposed: (1) a reorganization of the Department of Education, (2) the adoption of new policies in recruitment and promotion, and (3) the establishment of education regions with operational authority within the national framework.

This writer believes that the degree of seriousness of the problems and weaknesses of public education might have been reduced and, perhaps, the achievements made greater had the administration and management of public education during the last two and one-half decades been done in the context of educational leadership. This dissertation submits the thesis that the public schools' strength in leadership determines, to a great measure, the overall efficiency and effectiveness of the system.

The Presidential Commission underscored, among other things, that successful re-structuring of educational administration depends to a large extent on the availability
of administrators and staff specialists with backgrounds not only in education but also in other relevant disciplines.

The Swanson Survey stated that the public schools should provide administrative units of sufficient size to achieve a high degree of economy with reasonable efficiency in school control. It also said that school superintendents have been effective in providing administrative direction for public education, but recommended certain changes to improve administration at the division level. The Swanson Survey underscored leadership as a vital aspect of administration but emphasized the leadership role as more important than the managerial detail of the office.

As gleaned from the surveys conducted since 1946, the Bureau of Public Schools has manifested vision in instituting reforms and improvements in order to give credibility to its position as the center of public education. However, it also has manifested an attitude of maintaining established traditions and practices.

"Call for Leadership"

When the Secretary of Education\(^1\) sounded a call for responsible, earnest leadership in education before the


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convention of the Philippine Association of School Superintendents (Baguio City, May 10-14, 1971), he underscored the need to demonstrate in some measurable degree initiative, imagination, boldness, and innovation. He deplored the fact that, too often, common, tried and tested procedures—which are sometimes not too effective—are resorted to because they are expedient and safe.

In concluding, he re-stressed that the validity and effectiveness of policies of the Board of National Education and the Department of Education rest with the field personnel, particularly school superintendents.
PART TWO

THE CONCEPTS OF ADMINISTRATION AND LEADERSHIP

This part of the dissertation is intended to expose the reader to the development of the concepts of administration and leadership in broad terms and to relate these concepts to the educational setting.

Chapter IV presents different views of administration representative of the academic world, and the emergence of administration as a scientific discipline. It discusses the similarities and differences of school administration on one hand and other branches of administration on the other. The development of educational administration in the Philippines is contrasted to development in the United States in order to give the reader an idea of the unified effort demonstrated in the latter country's search for a conceptual design.

Chapter V suggests that the goal is more than merely the practice of school administration; that leadership inspires people for greater efforts and higher levels of expectations and helps them to perceive their responsibilities and commitments in broader perspective.

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CHAPTER IV
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

In this chapter, the term administration will be defined and related specifically to the educational setting. Recent developments of the concept in the Philippines and in some countries abroad will be discussed so that a firmer understanding of school administration and the emerging concept of educational leadership may be gained.

What Administration Is

The Dictionary of Education defines administration as "... generally the direction, control, and management of an enterprise." Moehlman stated that administration is exercised in a series of closely related and complementary specializations and activities and called this phase of administration "executive ability" which he defined as "... all the acts, processes required to make policies and procedures effective."²

In defining administration in its generic sense, Griffiths made four assumptions as bases for a theory.

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1. Administration is a generalized type of behavior to be found in all human organizations.

2. Administration is a process of directing and controlling life in a social organization.

3. The specific function of organization is to develop and regulate the decision-making process in the most effective manner possible.

4. The administrator works with groups or with individuals with a group referrent, not with individuals as such.

Administration, according to Lipham, is concerned primarily with the maintenance of the existing goals, procedures, and structures of an organization. It is that behavior by which a person helps to achieve the goals of an organization through the utilization of existing structures and procedures.

Naval and Aquino said that administration is a universal process which characterizes all group efforts—public or private, large scale or small scale. They aver that, in technical terms, administration is the organization, direction, coordination, and control of human and material resources to achieve desired ends.

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Getzels, et al., looked at administration as a social process within the context of a social system and examined it from three points of view: structurally, functionally, and operationally. Structurally, administration is seen as the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally, administration is seen as the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the system. Operationally, the administrative process takes effect in situations involving person to person interaction, where one is superordinate and the other subordinate, each perceiving and organizing the relationships in terms of his needs, skills, goals, and past experiences.

In another vein, Blake and Mouton defined management rather than administration or management as such. They described the manager's job as: (1) promoting and sustaining efficient performance of the highest quality and quantity, (2) fostering and utilizing creativity, (3) stimulating enthusiasm for effort, experimentation, innovation, and change, (4) taking educational advantage from interaction situations, and (5) looking for and finding new


challenges. They asserted that managerial competence can be taught and can be learned.

There are other definitions of what administration is or is not, but at this point the attempt to present any "accepted" definition would be inconclusive as there is no one, single, precise, and universally accepted definition. However, students and practitioners of administration commonly recognize that an acceptable way to understand it is through the study of the behavior of people in administrative roles in actual situations. Also, students of and authorities in administration show considerable agreement on the process—the goals and tasks of the organization being administered and the maintenance of the organization.

Many authorities hold the view that administration, per se, is a universal or generic term which includes the concepts of administration, management and leadership. At times these terms are used interchangeably.

Subsumed under the universal term administration are various categories about which several statements have been made regarding the similarities and differences between school administration on one hand and other branches of administration such as city administration, church administration, business administration, hospital administration, and administration of the armed forces. While administrative functions and processes are similar, the settings and
situations are much different. While many of the various components of administration are similar regardless of the kind of organization being administered, the relations between and among the components make the difference.

The similarities among various forms of administration are obvious. There are people involved in any organization in superordinate and subordinate levels, each having definite functions to perform. Any organization is administered within the structure of a social system and the administrative process becomes a social process. Organizations are involved in goal-setting, which administration strives to achieve. In achieving the goals, the component of communication is an important instrument of administration. Then there is the primary goal of maintaining the organization.

What are the differences in administration in various agencies? What makes school or educational administration unique, or is it unique? There are not only obvious but also substantive differences. For instance, the goals of school administration are vastly different from the goals of other branches of administration. Children are involved in the system and this factor alone bears heavily on the decisions which school administrators make. The end-product of school administration which has to do with the education and training of people is in itself unique. But perhaps the most important difference lies in the
mission which the administrators of schools undertake compared with the missions of other branches of adminis-
tration. Campbell said that the peculiarities of educa-
tional administration stem from the function of education in our society, the nature of the educational enterprise, the character of the school administrator's major reference groups, the semi-professionalism of educational adminis-
tration and the dual role of the educational administrator. That role requires the individual to serve as administra-
tive officer of the school or school district and to, at the same time, continually reshape or help reshape the organization so that it will perform its purposes more adequately.

Developments in Administration

Thus far, there have been noted some attempts to define administration in relation to schools. We shall now dwell on historical developments in administration and the emergence of a scientific discipline.

The Task System or Job Analysis Approach

The first known systematic approach to administra-
tion was the task system—essentially a job analysis,  

which was termed "scientific management" at the turn of the 19th century. Frederick Taylor\(^1\) originated and formulated this idea from his experiences at various levels in industry. He was convinced that workers could produce more if there could be a scientific approach to each element of the workers' assignments. Hence, the analysis of jobs which is utilized by some business and industries even at present.

Fayol\(^2\) contributed to the refinement of the job analysis approach, but his main thrust was in consideration of the management level at the top of the hierarchy as against Taylor's interest in the operational level. Although both were concerned with the process involved in production and management, Fayol is known for contributing the principles and elements of management which he advocated be taught in management courses. He called the elements of management planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling and these also constitute the administrative function.

The elements of management postulated by Fayol were


further enlarged by Gulick and Urwick in their studies on the science of administration. They drew upon Fayol's five elements of administration by adding a new dimension to the functions of top executives. From the initial letters of their extended list of elements of administration came the acronym POSDCoRB which is: Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, and Budgeting.

The ideas contributed by Taylor, Fayol, and Gulick and Urwick tended to emphasize the process of organization more than individuals who make up the system. This situation brought about the second major approach to administration known as human relations.

The Human Relations Approach

Follett advocated the need of developing and maintaining dynamic and harmonious human relations in administration. Her belief in organization is shown in the word "coordination" which is constant in her four principles:

1. Coordination by direct contact of the responsible people concerned.
2. Coordination in the early stages.

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3. Coordination as a reciprocal relating of all factors in the situation.

4. Coordination as a continuing process.¹

She was an exponent of integration as against compromise or domination by any party in dealing with conflict. She asserted that integration provides an opportunity for the views of both conflicting parties to be merged in a solution that is beneficial and acceptable to both parties and is better than the proposal of either.

In differentiating power and authority, Follett contended that authority can be delegated. She believed that people work with others and thus gave administration a fresh dimension—the humanistic element.

The human relations approach to administration was supported by empirical evidence from the research of Mayo and Roethlisberger² at the Hawthorne Plant, a division of the Western Electric Company, over a period of five years, from 1927 to 1932. This study, from which the term "Hawthorne Effect" resulted, proved that pecuniary incentives and improved physical working conditions were not as important factors in production as were the informal relationships in which members of a work group function.

¹Mary Parker Follett, Creative Experience (New York: Longmans, Green, 1924), p. 297.

²Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of Industrial Civilization (Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1946).
Members of informal groups within the big formal organization can be made to feel that they "belong" if made aware of the goals of and events within the organization. This suggests the important role that communication plays, because it develops cohesiveness and loyalty—variables which are dependent upon the goals, the problems, and the need-satisfactions which the members experience in common.

The Behavioral Sciences Approach

Many students of administration believe that there are more than merely the two approaches to administration. Chester Bernard\(^1\) is considered to have been the first to relate administration to the behavioral sciences. In his book *The Functions of the Executive*, he observed that executives had difficulty in communicating adequately about their functions because of the lack of a commonly accepted conceptual framework of administration. He tried to provide that framework. He expressed the view that organizations have characteristics that are common and that disciplines of sociology, social psychology, economics, history, and political science can provide insights regarding those characteristics. From the behavioral sciences he developed his theory of cooperation and

organization as he defined the functions of executives in formal organizations. He explained effectiveness and efficiency as parts of his theory:

The persistence of cooperation depends upon two conditions: its effectiveness and its efficiency. Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which is social and non-personal in character. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives, and is personal in character. The test of effectiveness is the accomplishment of a common purpose; effectiveness can be measured. The test of efficiency is the eliciting of sufficient individual will to cooperate.¹

Barnard's theory suggests that effectiveness is system-oriented, is represented by management, and has to do with the attainment of organization goals. Efficiency, on the other hand, is person-oriented. It is represented by subordinates and has to do with workers¹ feelings of satisfaction derived from membership in the organization. He recognized the value of informal groupings in formal organizations, although his emphasis was on the formal and, by his definition, formal organizations are systems.

Simon² and Barnard provided "more insights" which further strengthened the behavioral approach to administration and contributed added meaning to such terms as administrative behavior, decision-making, rational behavior, and

¹Ibid., p. 60.

While Simon attached importance to efficiency, he extended the works of the earlier theorists by treating administrative functions within the framework of decision-making. He maintained that administrative processes were decisional in nature and that their purpose was to facilitate the application of organized effort to the group task. His central thesis was that an understanding of the underlying conditions for the applicability of administrative principles is to be obtained from the analysis of the administrative process in terms of decisions.

Litchfield drew upon the works of Fayol, Gulick, and Simon to formulate a cyclical conception and saw the administrative process as being constituted of the elements of decision-making, programming, communicating, controlling, and re-appraising. It is his last element that makes the process cyclical by bringing the sequence back to where it started. He introduced the notion that the process consists of the way in which an individual or group handles a particular problem along with the activities of the organization.

With the development of administration as a science, there were studies of organizations by other behavioral

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scientists based on the work of Max Weber\textsuperscript{1} who first developed the concept of bureaucracy.

Numerous others contributed invaluable thoughts to the development of a theory in administrative behavior. For example, Bakke and Argyris\textsuperscript{2} each had something to say related to this subject. Bakke said that every leader of an organized society—whether he is a manager of a business, an official of a union, an executive of government, a pastor of a church, a commander of a military force, a university president, or a father or mother of a family—bases his decisions and actions on an organizational theory. Argyris, on the other hand, said that if the organization's goals are to be achieved, management and labor will always strive for self-actualization.

The general theory of organization and its relevance to administration had been enriched by the theories on social action and social structures by Parsons\textsuperscript{3} and Merton\textsuperscript{4}, both sociologists. Further readings from

\textsuperscript{1}See, for example H. Girth and C. Wright Mills, translators and editors, \textit{Max Weber: Essays in Sociology} (New York: Oxford University Press, 1958).

\textsuperscript{2}E. W. Bakke and C. Argyris, \textit{Organizational Structure and Dynamics: A Framework for Theory} (New Haven, Conn.: Labor and Management Center, Yale University, 1954).


Cooley's book\(^1\) should also help one to better understand organizations from another sociologist's point of view.

Development of Educational Administration

There seems little doubt that theory and practice in management and public administration have had a considerable influence on the processes and practices in educational administration.

In the Philippines

There are evidences of the indigenous development of educational administration in the Philippines. A number of younger technocrats who have demonstrated efficient and effective management of various enterprises have been recruited for top government service. One such man, Onofre D. Corpuz, a Ph.D. in public administration from Harvard, was appointed by the President of the Philippines in the mid 1960’s as Secretary of the Department of Education. For four years (1966 - 1970) he managed the department ably. He also was designated chairman of the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education. The Commission's report manifested, in many ways, the behavioral science approach to administration. Essentially a management-oriented report, it considered the needs of the people


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involved in the educational enterprise. It provided new patterns and new directions for Philippine education and was the basis for the reorganization of the Department of Education. The report emphasized that educational administration can make use of interdisciplinary expertise—the use of the services of demographer-statisticians, economists, management systems experts, sociologists, psychologists, and others.

Some former directors of the Bureau of Public Schools who had a share in developing an educational administrative process also were influenced by the concepts of public administration and management. Benigno Aldana (mid 1950's and early 1960's) advocated a foundation program of school financing based on the premise that no planning could be done without a viable fiscal base. Vitaliano Bernardino (mid 1960's) believed in educational planning based on the manpower needs of the country. He also was concerned with the proper administration of the community school program which he considered a distinctive and indigenous approach to Philippine educational problems. He helped to develop ways of properly administering such schools. In the late 1960's, Juan Manuel emphasized the need for leadership, particularly in the local school divisions. He stressed what President Marcos pointed out—that Philippine education suffers from many kinds of crises, among which is the crisis in leadership. In the early 1970's Liceria Brillantes
Soriano, from an orientation to research and science, encouraged further studies of the factors that affect learning. A humanist, she advocated schools without failures.

The Philippine Association of School Superintendents has contributed in no small measure to the development of educational administration since the advent of independence in 1946. The expansion of the public school system has necessitated the assumption by Philippine superintendents of the responsibility for administering the schools in the provinces and cities of the country. The annual convention of school superintendents bears witness to their efforts to crystalize the social and educational issues and problems and to contribute to improved quality of education, better school administration, and ultimately to national development.

The first known national effort to bring together school administrators, deans and professors of the colleges of education from the public and the private schools was the 1968 National Conference for School Administrators.1 That conference, convened by the College of Education Alumni Association of the University of the Philippines in observance of the college's golden jubilee and assisted

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financially by the Philippine Public School Teachers Association, had for its theme "School Administration in a Changing Age." It resulted in definitive statements on Research, Trends, Educational Planning, and Socio-economic and Moral-Spiritual Values in relation to School Administration, but did not dwell on the conceptual basis and development of a theory or a model of school administration. For instance, treatment of the subject "Trends in School Administration" was limited to the administration of higher education.

The Personnel Officers Association of the Philippines has, for the last decade, convened every year for the improvement and development of personnel administration processes. Since membership in the association includes the administrative officers of the school divisions, doubtless the school system derives added knowledge from this particular aspect of school administration.

The staff development programs of the Department of Education and the Philippine Public School Teachers Association, mentioned earlier, have led the University of the Philippines and the Philippine Normal College to develop a common curriculum geared to the education and training of school administrators.

The role of colleges and universities in the development and teaching of public administration and management is recognized. The Institute of Public Administration of
the University of the Philippines, the Colleges of Business Administration and Management of the bigger private schools and, recently, the Asian Institute of Management have trained and will continue to train manpower for business, industry and government.

Teacher-education institutions also have had a share in the development of concepts of educational administration in the undergraduate and graduate levels as part of courses in education, but not primarily in preparation programs for school administrators. The books commonly used, aside from those of American origin, have been authored by Benigno Aldana, Antonio Isidro, Vitaliano Bernardino, Herman Gregorio, Macario Naval and Gaudencio Aquino, Macario Ruiz, Florencio Fresnoza and Canuto Casim, and others. The Philippine Association of Elementary School Principals has published a handbook which, among other books, describes procedures for the administration of elementary schools. In some cases, materials prepared by instructors and professors in school administration are not circulated widely. Professional magazines such as the Philippine Journal of Education, the Filipino Teacher, the Grade School and the journals and bulletins of institutions and professional and educational associations deal occasionally with the subject of school administration.

In the United States

The United States experience in the development of
educational administration has been more coordinated, directed and unified in the search for a conceptual framework or design than has that of the Philippines.

Halpin\(^1\) recounted two forces that led to this development: (1) the rapid changes in the social sciences and (2) World War II. In the period that followed World War II, the impact of the scientists' new knowledge about administration was felt more in industry, governmental, and military organizations than in education.

Insofar as the developments in educational administration after World War II are concerned, Mort\(^2\) made an attempt to develop a conceptual framework for the study and practice of school administration by placing strong emphasis on the principle of adaptability in the adjustment to needs of the school organization. Of course, as early as 1929, Cubberly advocated a broad preparation, including graduate studies, of school superintendents. Reeder (1937) suggested the proper organization and administration of schools, while Moehlman (1940) equated school administration with executive ability.


In the early post-World War II years, Norton had been providing prospective superintendents with the "nuts and bolts" of school administration in the course entitled "Educational Administration as a Social Policy."

Also, about the same period, the concern of the colleges, universities and administrators of schools for better ways of studying and practicing school administration came into focus. In a conference thought to be the first national effort at unification, the National Conference of Educational Administration (NCPEA) was launched in 1947 as an annual meeting. This "organization" had as its goals the facilitation of communication in fostering higher standards of training for school administrators and the development of the leadership concept.

Other significant events which developed in the late 1940's gave impetus to the effort. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation made substantial grants to universities and to agencies interested in the furtherance of the study of school administration. The AASA recognized this search for a conceptual design in school administration and proposed a study which would focus attention to educational administration and administrators. The result of the interest shown by the NCPEA, the AASA, and the Kellogg Foundation led

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to the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA), a nationwide effort to study all aspects of school administration. The CPEA started in 1950 and was funded by the Kellogg Foundation. Eight regional CPEA centers were established, each contributing significant thoughts and ideas toward the common effort. Grants from the Foundation were made to selected universities which were recognized as having potentially strong regional leadership character. Each center worked with other universities in the region as well as with administrators, professional associations and state departments of education. Several seminars were held in these centers on an interdisciplinary basis where social scientists and educational administrators participated and showed common concerns.

The Middle Atlantic Center based in Teachers College, Columbia University, organized the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) in 1956 with added support from the United States Office of Education. Writers from this center also formulated the tri-dimensional concept or elements of administration as a frame of reference for the development of a theory. The tri-dimensional concept includes the Job to be done, the Man who is to do the job, and the Social Matrix or Social Setting in which the

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man is to do the job. This concept proved to be basic in recruitment, selection, preparation, and continuing development of educational administrators. Anderson and Davies¹ discussed the tri-dimensional concept in their book.

In 1958 the UCEA sponsored the first in a long and continuing series of seminars at the Mid-West Center in the University of Chicago. Neither that nor any other seminar has evolved a theory that is generally acceptable, up to the present time (1973). Halpin commented on the elusiveness of the search to the effect that"... the stage has not been reached where we can talk with precision about a theory in administration, and I earnestly hope that we shall never claim to have found one theory; such smugness would violate the essence of scientific inquiry."²

The Mid-West Center seminar did, as did others, suggest ways to formulate a theory in terms of models, ideas, taxonomies, issues, and approaches. For instance, the theory of administration as problem-solving suggested by Hemphill³ is a psychological approach that concentrates


²Halpin, op. cit., p. xi.

upon the behavior of the individual leader in small groups. Griffiths, however, viewed administration as a decision-making process, along with Simon, although the former believed in directing and controlling the process as a means of improving the quality of decisions made. He explained that decision-making is central not only because it looms over other functions in importance but also because all other functions of administration can best be interpreted in terms of the process. A third view, presented by Getzels\(^1\), was that administration is a social process in which behavior is conceived as a function of both the normothetic (normative) and the idiographic (personal) dimensions of the social system. This theoretical model of behavior, often referred to as the Getzels-Guba model, has components that can be operationally defined and described in psychological and sociological terms. The views by Linton\(^2\), an anthropologist, on social process and, later, by sociologists Parsons and Shils\(^3\) find relevance in this theoretical model of behavior.

\(^1\) Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," Halpin, ibid.


The Pacific Southwest Center in Stanford University suggested three dimensions—the authoritative dimension, the role dimension, and the affectivity dimension—in formulating a theory. Coladarci and Getzels\textsuperscript{1} elucidated this idea.

Several books and articles had been published to try to unify and synthesize the findings of research in educational administration and to suggest implications for the professional preparation and training of school administrators. The application of the social and the behavioral sciences concepts and research in the field of educational administration has become increasingly important and useful. The study programs for the professional preparation and training of school administrators in American colleges and universities place due emphasis on social and behavioral sciences theory and research.

A number of authorities presently view educational administration as an emerging profession,\textsuperscript{2} recognizing the amount of responsibility attached to it and the increased importance which education plays in national development.

\textsuperscript{1}Arthur P. Coladarci and Jacob W. Getzels, \textit{The Use of Theory in Educational Administration} (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1955).

The National Society for the Study of Education (NSSE)\(^1\) suggests the implications of the contributions of behavioral science in increasing and expanding the knowledge of administration, particularly of educational administration. Although the definite conceptual design in administration has not as yet been found, the cooperative American effort has increased better understanding and practice of this body of knowledge.

Of special mention is the continuing effort of the American Association of School Administrators in collaborating with the colleges and universities and with other educational agencies in search for the elusive conceptual design in educational administration.

**Summary**

The reader may have noticed the interchangeable use of such terms as administration and management, rather than school administration and educational administration. Such usage had been deliberate inasmuch as all are now commonly used in such fashion.

It should be noted that administration is concerned with the maintenance of organizations and systems--their

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goals, processes, and procedures.

In the succeeding chapter, an attempt will be made to limit the usage of the term educational leadership to new ways of performing old functions.
When one thinks seriously of public education in the Philippines, its role in national development must be considered. We think of the children and the amount of money invested for their development. We think of the teachers and the school administrators working together to attain the goals of the system. We think of the communities and the people who look to the schools as one source of fulfillment for a better life. We think of school administrators as leaders of schools and what they do as such.

Where there is an outstanding educational program or where there is something new in the educational process, we are likely to find a school administrator who has an abiding commitment to education plus something that makes a difference between him and the ordinary school administrator.

We think of leadership, therefore, as the quality or attribute that makes such a difference.

Leadership Defined

A definition of the term leadership is a necessary exercise although a number of students and authorities believe that the term has different meanings to different people in different situations.
The dictionary defines leadership as "the position of a leader--directing, commanding, leading, and guiding a group or an activity." Stogdill\(^1\) defined leadership as a process of influencing the activities of an organized group in the task of goal setting and goal achieving. Knezevich\(^2\) said that leadership has been conceived of as an attribute of personality—a status, title, or position recognized in a formal organizational chart and a function or a role performed in an organized group. The first meaning suggests a symbolic kind of leadership, and the second a functional leadership.

As early as the 6th century B.C., Lao Tsu, a Chinese philosopher, said of leadership:

A leader is best when people barely know that he exists,  
Not so good when people obey and acclaim him,  
Worst when they despise him,  
"Fail to honor people,  
They fail to honor you,"  
But of a good leader who talks little,  
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,  
They will say, "We did this ourselves."\(^3\)

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, in its 1960 Yearbook, defined leadership in

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education as "... that action or behavior among individuals and groups which causes both the individual and the group to move toward educational goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable to them."\(^1\)

Researchers in the behavioral sciences often view leadership as a product of interpersonal relations and as a function or role within a specified social structure. In other words, leadership can be conceived in terms of the dynamics of human behavior. Others define it as a process whereby an individual guides, directs, influences, or controls the thoughts, feelings, and behavior of others.

In discussing leadership one invariably asks who a leader is. In general, a leader is a person who is able to influence the actions of others. Boles said that a leader "is a person who helps an individual or a group to move toward goals that group members find acceptable."\(^2\) He added that there are bases on which an individual in a given situation will allow another to lead him, two of which are: (1) willingness of the first individual to have his behavior influenced, and (2) the position which the other holds over his own in a status hierarchy, as in


Leaders arise within a group for various reasons. Andres Bonifacio became the leader of the Katipunan that spearheaded the Philippine revolution against Spain in 1896. He was the embodiment of leadership at that particular time. In the early 1950s Ramon Magsaysay, as secretary of the Philippine Department of National Defense, was responsible for breaking the backbone of the Huks, a Communist-led armed group. In the 1954 national elections, Magsaysay became President of the Philippines in an unprecedented victory and became the leader not only of a department but of the whole country.

Mammoth crowds swelled the Rizal Park in Manila in 1951 when the Pope came to the Philippines to grace the fourth centennial celebration of the country's Christianization, thus recognizing a spiritual leader.

No one would deny that these men are fine examples of leaders. But a leader does not necessarily have to direct a large group or command national or international attention. In our daily lives, many are sometimes called upon to be leaders and at other times to perform the roles of followers.

During almost two decades when the national educational program of the Philippines was built around the concept of the community schools, there were some school

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1 Ibid., p. 2.
superintendents whose visibility was far greater than that of others. For instance, the leadership shown by Miguel Gaffud, Vitaliano Bernardino, Jose Aguilar, Pedro Guiang, Roman Lorenzo and Juan C. Laya during those years was exemplary in giving meaning to the community school concept.

Obviously every organization must have someone in a leadership position and, as far as the schools are concerned, the very nature of the school superintendent's position places him in a leadership role.

Leader Types and Styles

In a formal organization such as the school, the leader and the position he holds are viewed as parts of a hierarchy in an organizational chart. The position must have been acquired by ascription, legislation, designation, appointment, election, or by accident.

Types of Leaders

The person who holds a designated position is a status leader. His recognition as such ceases when he vacates the title, position, or office and, thus, the status. A school superintendent is recognized in a formal way as a status leader by the very nature of his position.

The emergent leader has a role which is built on trust and confidence within a group. What the leader knows
or can do is recognized, but goals and control emanate from group process. That process has the elements of intellect and creativity, and reflects leadership interacting with followership. The skills required are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation and insofar as this type of leader is permitted to emerge, the organizational structure will be infused with imagination, vitality, creativity, and adaptability—factors necessary for organizational survival.

Knezevich views emergent leadership as a role performed within the organized group.\textsuperscript{1} It is primarily by virtue of the leader's participation in group activities and demonstration of his capacities for expediting the work of the group that he is endowed with leader capacities.

The emergent type of leader results from a belief that a leader is someone with something to contribute to the effective functioning of the group. Unless a leader can help fulfill one or more of the group's functions, such as helping the group define its goals, achieve its objectives or maintain its stability and strength, he is not a functional leader despite such factors as charm, personality, height, weight, physical power, age, seniority in service, socio-economic status or impressive title.

In a romantic concept, the leader is one who possesses certain well-defined personality traits. This is the

\textsuperscript{1}Knezevich, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 98.
charismatic type of leader who stimulates and unifies the activities of the group along certain paths because he has certain distinctive and specific characteristics or traits of personality. As represented by Hitler, Sukarno, and Martin Luther King, all of whom used collective behavior to advantage, the charismatic leader is persuasive and capable of arousing strong emotional reaction.

The school system rarely, if ever, is represented by this type of a leader, because of the very nature of the organization. In the school system leadership is diffused and shared. To a certain extent, a charismatic leader is necessary in certain situations because he can effect revolutionary changes. Although this type of leader usually does not last long, as history has revealed, with any social change that he does achieve come changes in the educational scene.

Another type of leader, the autocratic, is authoritarian or even dictatorial. This leader type may use his authority and title to hide certain shortcomings because he feels insecure. Leaders of this type usually are domineering toward staff members and co-workers but submissive toward superior officers. The autocratic leader is rigid and reluctant to delegate authority or to permit staff subordinates to participate in policy and decision-making matters. There are still a number of leaders of this type in the Philippines today, and perhaps in other countries.
This type of leader thrives where there are a number of teachers who find satisfaction on the job by being told what to do—"there are no tyrants where there are no slaves."

This writer believes that the type of leader considered most appropriate for the educational setting is the democratic type. A democratic leader is characterized by concern for the achievement of goals set with the group. This leader is sensitive to and understands the needs of the individuals and groups within the organization and helps to fulfill their needs as well as the functions of the group. The democratic leader maximizes the use of communication and encourages open inquiry, discussion and disagreement.

Democracy suggests that its leaders have faith in the ability of individuals to utilize their intelligence and have respect for the right of the individual to exercise and formulate his own judgments. As does the emergent leader, the democratic leader derives policies from group action and decision, and he participates in their formulation.

Hack and others\(^1\) have indicated the components of the set of criteria for observing the democratic leader-man in his relation to his job and the setting in which the man does his job. There are skills, abilities, values and

\(^1\)See, for example Walter G. Hack, et al., eds., Educational Administration: Selected Readings (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971).

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perceptions in addition to the personal, educational, and experience characteristics which are useful in describing the Man. Another dimension of democratic leadership, particularly in the school setting, is that the administrator-leader and the teacher are professional equals. While they differ in their tasks, their goals are common and their functions equally important.

Democratic school leadership rests heavily on the proposition that the professional personnel are people who know enough to be there in the first place. Improved professional preparation of teachers and supervisors has made democratic educational leadership more acceptable than ever before. Today's teachers and staff personnel are more aware of their roles, better informed and more assertive and aggressive.

Styles of Leadership

Many authorities view leadership as a process, a quality, a force, or an attribute of personality. However leadership is viewed, it is situationally centered and, as stated earlier, takes on different meanings for different people in different situations. The factors of time, place, people and purpose make up the contextual framework of the situation.

Different styles of leadership have been used to attain goals by utilizing human resources within the organization. The labels given to these styles of leadership
varies.

Getzels and Guba, and Moser contributed ideas in developing the terms to describe these styles of leadership which are: nomothetic (bureaucratic and normative), idiographic (personalized or individualized), and transactional. Another style of leadership is *laissez faire*.

The nomothetic stylist leads comfortably in a bureaucratic setting characterized by specialization. This style stresses the requirements of the institution and requires conformity of behavior to role expectations. Administration is done by general rules and established policies which are comprehensive and stable. The organization goals are the leader's goals and the means used to achieve these goals are related to the authority vested in the status or position and adherence to specific rules and regulations. This leadership style has the major weakness of placing emphasis on the formal structure which tends to ignore the informal, highly personalized structure with its individual


aspirations, goals, and need satisfaction. In other words, the nomothetic style of leadership is normative and its effectiveness lies in the maintenance of the organization.

The idiographic style of leadership is personalized. It is concerned with the well-being of the members, even at the expense of the organization. Organizational demands upon the individual are minimized. Authority is delegated by the leader and his relation to others is geared to individual personality needs. This suggests that ultimately the leader's behavior might be viewed as incompatible with the best interests of the organization. The idiographic stylist may work in a democratic setting but only temporarily because sooner or later personal considerations will give way to the more constant organization goals.

The transactional style of leadership is characterized by behavior which stresses goal accomplishment, but which also makes provision for individual need fulfillment. According to Moser, the transactional leader balances nomothetic and idiographic behavior and thus judiciously utilizes each style as the occasion demands. The blending of the two styles of leadership is illustrated in a model (see Figure 4) showing the nomothetic and the idiographic dimensions of social behavior.

Getzels and Guba are known to have introduced this model to help explain social behavior. The model incorporates the ideas earlier expressed by Linton and later
further elaborated by Parsons and Shils.

Figure 4. General Model Showing the Nomothetic and the Idiographic Dimension of Social Behavior.¹

**Nomothetic (Normative) Dimension**

- Institution
- Role
- Expectation

**Idiographic (Personal) Dimension**

- Individual
- Personality
- Need-Disposition

In explaining the model, Getzels and Guba said that:

The nomothetic axis is shown at the top of the diagram and consists of institutions, roles, and role expectations, each term being the analytic unit for the term next preceding it. Thus the social system is defined by its institutions; each institution, by its constituent roles; each role, by the expectations attaching to it. Similarly, the idiographic axis shown at the lower portion of the diagram consists of individual, personality, and need-dispositions, each term again serving as the analytic unit for the term next preceding it. A given act is conceived as deriving simultaneously from both the nomothetic and the idiographic dimensions. This is to say, social behavior results as the individual attempts to cope with an environment composed of patterns of expectations for his behavior in ways consistent with his own independent pattern of needs.²

In other words, Ostrander and Dethy further explained the model as:

A social system has two dimensions of activity. The institutions, roles, and expectations which will accomplish the goals of the social system.

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¹Getzels and Guba, op. cit., p. 428.
²Ibid., pp. 428-429.

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are involved in the normative or nomothetic dimension. There are people in the system. These people have their own personalities and need-dispositions. The interaction of these people we call "social behavior." When the individual, personality, and need-disposition are involved the dimension of social behavior is personal or idiographic.¹

Getzels and Guba used another model to illustrate the interplay or interaction between role and personality. They stated that the portions of role and personality factors determining behavior vary with the specific act, the specific role, and the specific personality. The nature of the interaction is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5. The Interaction of Role and Personality in a Behavioral Act.²

In explaining the above model, Getzels and Guba said:

⁰Ostrander and Dethy, op. cit., p. 68.
²Getzels and Guba, op. cit., p. 429.
The factors entering into a given behavioral act may be conceived as occurring at a line cutting through the role and personality possibilities represented by the rectangle. At the left, the proportion of the act dictated by considerations of role expectations is relatively large, while the proportion of the act dictated by considerations of personality is relatively small. At the right, these proportions are reversed, and considerations of personality become greater than considerations of role expectations. In these terms, for example, the behavior of our army private may be said to conform almost entirely to role demands (line A), while the behavior of a free-lance artist derives almost entirely from a personality disposition (line B). In either case, behavior, insofar as it is "social", remains a function of both role and personality although in different degrees. When role is maximized, behavior still retains some personal aspects because no role is ever so closely defined as to eliminate all individual latitude. When personality is maximized, social behavior still cannot be free from some role prescription.

Another style of leadership is the laissez faire, which gives complete freedom to group or individual decisions with the minimum of leader participation or direction. This style of leadership merely supplies materials, remains apart from the group and participates only when requested. This leader makes no attempt to evaluate or regulate the members of the group or their progress towards achieving their objectives. The laissez faire leader's behavior is premised on the belief that the members of the group possess the ability to solve their own problems and to determine their own goals, and that attempts by the

\footnote{Ibid., pp. 429-430.}

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leader to influence or to guide their thinking and activities would restrict their effectiveness.

Do Leaders Have Special Personality Traits?

Some people believe that leaders are chosen because they possess special personality traits. Is this belief accurate?

A number of studies have been undertaken to test the belief that a specific type of personality is correlated with leadership. One of the more comprehensive studies on this matter was made by Stogdill in 1948. He examined 124 studies of the relationship between so-called leadership traits and leadership behavior and concluded that:

A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must have some relevant relationships to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers.¹

He further stated that the qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader and that it is primarily by virtue of participating in group activities and demonstrating his capacity for expediting the work of a group that a person comes to be considered a leader.

In another study, Myers\textsuperscript{1} analyzed more than 200 studies of leadership and also found that personal characteristics of leaders differ according to situations; that leaders tend to continue as such only in situations that are similar in nature.

In general, the findings showed not only disagreements on leadership traits but also many contradictions. Since there do not appear to be common personality traits of leaders, social and behavioral scientists seem to have abandoned the traits approach. Sociologists have been most helpful in establishing a new perspective. Therefore, in answer to the question—"Do leaders have special personality traits?", it appears that one cannot learn much about the nature of leadership by studying the personalities of those in leadership positions or those who are potential leaders. The special leadership qualities are more oriented to the skills and abilities that can be developed and possessed by a leader or a potential leader.

Three Types of Basic Leadership Skills

Recent writings regarding basic leadership skills and abilities suggest competencies as more important than personalities. The emphasis on what an individual can do

rather than on what traits he possesses is now commonly accepted. Skills and abilities are easily identifiable and have less chance of misinterpretation than do "traits."

Katz\(^1\) maintained that effective leadership in administration depends upon three basic types of skills, namely technical, human and conceptual. He viewed skill in a broad sense and defined it as the ability to use the knowledge one has in most effective ways.

Technical skill, perhaps the most easily measurable type, is proficiency in dealing with things. It involves knowledge and facility in the use of specific tools and techniques, usually specialized, that help in the accomplishment of tasks. An example of this is skill in the use of research tools as a source of creativeness and a means of improving practices.

Human skill refers to proficiency in dealing with and understanding people and the ability to use the understanding in getting the best out of them individually or in groups. It is primarily concerned with building cooperative effort within the human organization which the administrator leads. Productive personal interaction and attitudes such as the empathy, genuineness, and trust advocated by Rogers\(^2\) exhibit human skills.


The third type of skill considered of high-order for educational leaders is conceptual skill. This is proficiency in using and developing ideas. It is the ability to perceive the totality of an enterprise while, at the same time, using interrelations of the parts that make the whole. It is the ability to establish and maintain the delicate balance that fosters both unity and diversity. The making of decisions and choosing of options which tend to achieve maximum benefits for the organization are made easier by this skill. Thus, conceptual skill, coupled with the leader's perception of himself and others, helps in providing direction for the organization.

In explaining the relative importance of the three skills present in various levels of leadership, Boles said:

It seems that, in general, the higher the level of the organizational position occupied or the larger the group led, the lesser the technical skills needed. The aspiring leader usually starts at a relatively low-level position or leads a relatively small group. Thus, in a first position as leader, he may need many technical skills, a few human skills and almost no conceptual skills; yet when he achieves a middle-echelon position he may need only a modicum of technical skills, mostly human skills and a fair number of conceptual skills. The upper-echelon leader is likely to need sophisticated and numerous conceptual and human skills, but few technical skills.1

He illustrated the relationship between the amount of skill and the level of leadership in Figure 6.

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1Boles, op. cit., pp. 207-208.
The significance of the tri-dimensional concept of leadership comes to focus from the reason that there is wisdom in considering the elements—the Job, the Man, and the Social Matrix, as bases for the recruitment, selection, preparation, and continuing development of educational leaders as practiced in the United States.

The quality of each dimension and the interrelationships of the dimensions help one to view educational leadership in its proper perspective. The success of the

\[1\text{Ibid., p. 208a.}\]
administrator as a leader is determined by the extent to which there is agreement, or there are interrelationships, among the dimensions Man (the administrator-leader), his Job and the Social Matrix.

The Job is merely a description of the tasks and responsibilities in the administrative job. The job of a school superintendent usually is defined in broad and specific terms and the performance of the job demands a combination of knowledge, skills and abilities.

The Man who does the job inevitably brings to it his total capacities and behavior and thus exerts his influence on the role just as the job requirements influence him. A look into the content (capacity) and process (behavior) of the Man is useful in understanding the element Man. His total capacities include the physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual. His physical capacity relates closely to his performance as an administrator-leader. Physical disorders dissipate capacity. There is considerable evidence that mental and emotional adequacies contribute heavily to effective administration. Spiritual capacity, which includes a high sense of values, human compassion, and integrity, is thought to add depth to man's being, stability to his behavior and warmth to his relations with others.

The administrator-leader's behavior must be consistent with the capacity demands on the Man, especially in
matters such as sensing and defining problems, making inferences, making decisions and relating to people.

The Social Matrix is the social setting in which the administrator-man does the job. It is quite apparent that the behavior of the Man as he does his job is dependent upon the social climate in which he functions. A democratic setting demands behavior different from that exhibited in an autocratic setting. The social setting also refers to the constraints of society. The constraints not only establish and set limits for the job but also influence the values and thinking of the Man.

Summary

At the beginning of this chapter it was stated that leadership is the quality that makes the difference between an administrator and a leader. This implies that leadership addresses itself to change; that leaders make change happen. The element Man is important in this respect. The values and beliefs which Man holds give clarity, meaning, and direction to the organization as it attains its goals and objectives. His views of the ends and means of education are dependent upon the concepts and perceptions which he holds. His perceptions of himself as a leader performing the job within the social setting give added significance to his leadership.
PART THREE

CHALLENGES TO EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

This part of the dissertation deals with the challenges posed by some critical tasks of school administration. The major functions of the Filipino school superintendent are undergoing some changes because of developments in society and in the profession. In order to satisfy the demands of these developments, new strategies and processes in meeting the challenges of school administration must be applied.

Chapter VI discusses the legislative enactment of the Special Education Fund Act of 1968, which adds a dimension to the changing role of the school superintendent and how he can manifest leadership in his dual role as chairman of the school board and as school superintendent. Chapter VII, on school-community relations suggests that the school and the community draw support and strength from each other in order to develop a relationship which is conducive to teaching and learning. Chapter VIII, on staff relations, discusses how to organize people and strengthen their efforts so that the goals of the school system can best be achieved. This chapter suggests that the element of flexibility must be present in the organizational
structure which should provide the necessary channels of communication, coordination, control, and machinery for evaluation.

Instructional leadership, discussed in Chapter IX, emphasizes that the duty of improving instruction transcends all other tasks of administration and that all other administrative tasks are undertaken for the sake of providing instruction. Chapter X deals with another administrative task—the planning of educational facilities—which has rarely, if ever, involved the Filipino school administrator and challenged his leadership. Favorable conditions are developing in the Philippines which give an optimistic note to a fuller acceptance of the challenge which this administrative task poses.
CHAPTER VI

LEADERSHIP IN THE SCHOOL BOARD

The concept of the school board is not new in the Philippines, but leadership in the school board as presently perceived is emerging and, therefore, new. In 1901, Act 74 of the Philippine Commission provided for the establishment of school boards in each municipality.

The powers and duties of the school board as defined by Section 12 of the Act were, in general, visitation of schools and making reports to the division superintendent on the conditions of the schools and the attendance of pupils; recommending sites and plans for school buildings; making reports to the municipal council on the financial needs of the schools for which funds should be raised by local taxation; and making reports, when necessary, to the General Superintendent in Manila.

The Act vested in the division superintendent the power to appoint one-half of the members of the school board and to remove any member after due notice and hearing, subject to the approval of the General Superintendent.

The passage of Commonwealth Act 586, known as the Education Act of 1940, nationalized the system of elementary education, including its financing. The local school
boards were disestablished. Only the financing of public secondary education remained as a local concern, but under the administration of the division superintendent of schools.

The enactment in 1968 of Republic Act 5447, known as the Special Education Fund Act, created special monies derived from the proceeds of an additional one per cent tax on real property and a certain portion of the taxes on Virginia-type cigarettes and duties on imported leaf tobacco. The Act defined also the activities to be financed, created school boards for the purpose, and appropriated funds thereof. The provincial, city, and municipal school boards thus created have members designated by the Act. It also designated school superintendents as chairmen of provincial and city school boards and district supervisors as chairmen of municipal school boards.

In enacting the law, which had most of its historical bases in the recommendations of the various educational surveys discussed earlier, the recommendations of the Department of Education and the various educational associations that the local government should be given increasing participation in contributing to the financial support of the public schools were declared by the national government as policy. Definitely, this was an important development toward the decentralization of school administration.
In order to assess the significance of this development as it relates to the changing role of school superintendents, it is necessary to know the responsibilities and functions of the school board. The major responsibility of the school board is to implement the provisions of the law and of the rules related to the educational activities financed from the special education fund. The functions of the school board are:

Section 6. Functions of Provincial, City, or Municipal School Boards:

a. Determine, in accordance with the criteria set by the Bureau of Public Schools or by the Bureau of Vocational Education . . . and approved by the Secretary of Education, the annual budgetary needs for the operation and maintenance of public schools within the province, city or municipality and the cost of adequately meeting such needs which shall be prepared in the form of an annual school budget corresponding to their respective shares of the proceeds of the additional real property tax.

b. Apply to the Bureau of Public Schools or to the Bureau of Vocational Education, as the case may be, through the Division Superintendent of Schools or Superintendent of Vocational Education, for a share in the fund established by the Act, which share, upon approval shall be remitted to the provincial, city or municipal treasurer concerned.

c. Authorize the provincial, city of municipal treasurer, as the case may be, to disburse funds from the provincial, city or municipal share in the Special Education Fund pursuant to the Budget prepared . . . in accordance with the rules and regulations to be promulgated.

d. Discharge such other functions and duties as the Bureau of Public Schools or the Bureau of Vocational Education, as the case may be, may
assign to them.¹

The creation of the school board has added a new dimension to the role of school superintendents. As chairman of the school board and as administrator of the division, the superintendent's leadership is brought more to focus than ever before. As chairman of the school board his commitments to certain programs in education and his advocacy of them are challenged. His leadership in securing and allocating resources needed by the school system which he administers demands more than merely the preparation of the school budget that should reflect not only the needs of the school system and having it approved but also his commitments in the attainment of the goals of the system. This suggests that his leadership demands more than merely the maintenance of the school system and the attainment of the goals.

In his new dual role, the superintendent's degree of accountability becomes more pronounced. He is expected, more than ever, to help establish and clarify school policies not only to the staff personnel and to the community but also to the members of the school board who represent a cross section of the people. The constant involvement of the school board members in the allocation of funds

¹Republic Act No. 5447, Special Education Fund Act, enacted by the Congress of the Philippines and approved by the President of the Philippines on September 25, 1968.
derived from the Special Education Fund should give them the necessary insights on how the requirements for financial resources are established and how funds are utilized. Therefore, the school superintendent's leader behavior will, of necessity, be influenced and affected by his relationships with the members of the school board, individually and as a group.

The Special Education Fund suggests that the school superintendent is accountable to the community which is the source of this fund. He is also accountable, not only to subordinate personnel but also to the Department of Education which appointed him to his position.

Also, in this dual capacity, role conflicts may arise. Understandably, as educational leader of the division the school superintendent is expected to serve the interests of the system. As chairman of the school board, he is also expected to serve the interests of the community. When role conflicts arise, as they are bound to, the school superintendent's administrator and leader behavior is put to a test. This writer perceives no major incompatibility in the interests of the community and the school system and, therefore, not much of a problem in the dual role of the school superintendent. Moreover, as the professional man, the school board depends upon the school superintendent for direction.

In the United States, the school board appoints a
superintendent and, as their professional representative, the administrative control and management of the schools are delegated or turned over to him by the board. Generally the school board depends upon the superintendent's professional administrative and leader expertise.

As early as 1933, Almack, in discussing one of the relationships between the American school board and the school superintendent, stated that:

The superintendent of schools, if he is competent, must be capable of demonstrating the wisdom of the educational policies which he advocates. It is only when the proper relationship exists between the professional executive and the lay board of education that any high degree of efficiency may be expected in the administration of the local school system.

These statements have significance to the leadership of school superintendents in the Philippines where they are chairmen of the school boards.

After four years of operation, the performance of the school boards of the Philippines has been found to be generally satisfactory. However, there is a growing feeling that the school boards should be given greater operational authority to allocate local resources in accordance with their particular needs. As it is, the school boards follow strictly the priorities set by the Special Education Fund Act for the allocation of local resources.

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In the fiscal year 1971 the Department of Education reported that the gross collection from the additional one per cent tax on real property amounted to 60.7 million pesos, a performance which leaves much to be desired.\(^1\)

The leadership of the school superintendents, in this regard, should be utilized to help improve tax collection in their respective school divisions through intensified tax information and education drives. In earlier surveys, the Philippine Tax Commission (now the National Tax Research Center) has found that people do not mind paying an additional tax when it goes to education.

It is also about time that the priorities set by the Special Education Fund Act for the allocation of local resources be revised and re-adjusted to suit local needs.

This writer submits the proposition that the accelerating rate of economic development and social progress can be achieved with necessary revisions in the Special Education Fund Act. School superintendents, individually and as a group, can be instrumental and effective in the needed revisions and re-adjustments.

CHAPTER VIII

LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Public education always has been close to the Filipino people, a legacy left by a system of universal education which the Americans had established in the country. As stated earlier, public education is the biggest undertaking in the Philippines and, doubtless, the most important service rendered the population in terms of investment and number of people involved. Because of these factors and because public education cannot be more than what the people want it to be, the school-community relationship is considered a reference point and a continuing concern for educational leaders.

It is recognized that the term school-community relations, in broad concept, refers to the regard in which public education is held by the national society, but this term can also refer more specifically to relationships between the local school division and its constituents.

Two important areas where educational leadership is challenged are (1) working with the community—its leaders and agencies—and (2) the proper utilization of community resources to improve the educational program. These areas suggest drawing the community closer to the school and taking the school into the community so that the educational
program can be closely related to the social processes and problems of the people, thus preparing the children through life-centered learning. This is to be preferred over child-centered education, because human nature is conditioned by the environment.

In recognition of the importance of the two areas in this relationship, Bulletin No. 17, issued in 1950 by the Bureau of Public Schools, is invoked. It is believed by the present leaders in the Department of Education that the Bulletin is as relevant to educational leadership now as ever before. This Bulletin enumerated five principles related to the community school concept around which the public schools of the Philippines have operated for almost two and one-half decades, since 1950. The principles are:

1. The school should operate as an educational center for adults.
2. The school should utilize community resources to invigorate the conventional program.
3. The school should center its curriculum in the study of community structure, process, and problems.
4. The school should improve the community through participation in its activities.
5. The school should lead in coordinating the educative efforts of the community.

It is evident that principles 1, 2, and 3 would tend to draw the community to the school while principles 4 and 5 tend to draw the school into the community.
Knowing the Community

The school administrator who perceives his role as providing leadership takes on new strategies and approaches in meeting the challenge brought about by the desire for closer school-community ties. Basic to this desire is to know the community—the social matrix in which the educational leader is to perform the job. Knowledge about and understanding of the community—its resources, its power structure and the patterns of such power structure—and its many publics, can be useful in the leadership process. Obviously, the public or the community is a major group with which the school administrator must work.

Since communities are neither monolithic nor uniform, but are composed of many publics, it is necessary for the administrator to ascertain who these publics are and how they believe and act with respect to school matters. Campbell, et al., said that it is thus necessary that communication with the many publics of the school-community must be a two-way process. Just as the problems, the achievements and the shortcomings of public schools must be explained, the feelings, the beliefs, and the aspirations of the people who make up the various publics must also be ascertained.\(^1\) They stressed the need for listening as well as telling; the need for assessment as well as projection.

\(^1\)Campbell, et al., op. cit., p. 442.
The challenge for the educational leader is not so much in being able to deal well with the many publics in the community as in what he does with the feelings, beliefs, and aspirations of the people who compose these publics.

The school administrator can start knowing the community by making an inventory of all resources—human, material, natural, and institutional—particularly those that have to do with education, and develop a plan to coordinate their activities. Such a plan will necessarily suggest ways of avoiding duplication of efforts and propose ways and means of minimizing the dissipation and waste of human, physical, and financial resources. The development of such a plan should involve staff personnel and non-school people who are willing to serve. In the course of such planning, the school administrator gets to know more people, interact with them, and help to establish and clarify school policies. In a subtle way, he solicits support.

Having developed an inventory, the schools would have a ready reference to community resources that could help and be very useful in many ways. The school curricula can be revitalized and instruction, with community resources enriching it, could be given more depth and meaning. In the planning and execution of various school projects, the involvement and participation of people from non-school agencies and from the community at large could be utilized.
to advantage. The involvement of the community youth in the planning and execution of community projects could be of educative value. The youth would learn that the community also has need of their services, and the adults would discover that youth involvement in community welfare and development could be important and effective.

In drawing the community to the school, the process considered most effective by many authorities is involvement. The Mott Program of the Flint (Michigan) Board of Education suggested "Four I's" to assure successful community participation and involvement.

IN  Get the people of the community into the school, primarily by means of education and recreation;
INTERESTED Get them interested. Explain the problems and help the community solve them;
INVOLVED Ask people to help. They are willing and able when given the opportunity.
INFORMED The informed person is the responsible citizen concerned with improvement.¹

In other words, when people share in the planning, execution, and evaluation of projects, they care!

In taking the school to the community as indicated by principles 4 and 5 of Bulletin 17, the reciprocity of the two areas of relationship becomes complete. But there are more than these two areas of relations to be considered.

There are other factors that contribute significantly to desirable school-community relations. The present leaders in the Department of Education contend that there are three major functions of the schools—the teaching function, the cooperating function, and the coordinating function. Cooperating and coordinating find relevance in drawing the school to the community.

Public Schools on the Spot

Before World War II, public education was a dominant sector in the Philippine school system. There were few private institutions. Today, the situation is reversed. There are more private schools than public schools, particularly on the secondary education and the higher education levels with more students enrolled in these schools—a clear indication, according to Isidro¹, that public education is losing ground and support. The public schools are criticized by well-meaning educators and leaders of thought in the sincere belief that there is much to be done to improve the public school system. The criticisms are many, among them that the students are weak in the three R's; that they lack the virtues essential for good citizenship and worthy home membership; that they are not vocationally prepared for daily and community living. In other words,

these are generally viewed as indications that public education is failing in its role.

These observations, and perhaps others, should be considered as symptomatic of the absence of some aspects of leadership in school-community relations. This, in itself is a challenge. Educational leaders should know more about the community, including the extent of people's knowledge and understanding of the meaning and philosophy of education. A majority of the Pilipino people subscribe to the notion that education is just a matter of schooling. They fail to understand that education is a process that includes mental discipline, the cultivation of mental abilities, the acquisition of skills and knowledge, and the development of attitudes. They fail to realize that education is one way of developing democratic values.

The majority of the school people also are still of the belief that the schools are closed systems, with clearly defined rules governing their operation, thus perpetuating the "traditions" in the administration of schools.

However, with developments such as the establishment of school boards, direct support of public education through the additional tax on real property for the exclusive use of education and the concept of accountability required in the new Constitution1 which will surely affect

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education, there is need to relate leadership in the school-community setting, perhaps in better ways than any yet attempted. There are many ways of relating leadership to the school-community setting and there are many ways of interpreting the role and functions of the schools to the people. These are responsibilities of school leaders in the area of public relations.

Public Relations

Public relations is another area that poses a challenge to educational leadership. The leadership process should include a wholesome and desirable manner of relating the schools to the many publics in the community. Often, there are complaints aired by school administrators (1 out of 5 according to Gross),\(^1\) that the apathy of the community is a major obstacle in the way of improved educational programs and facilities. Gross considered such complaints confessions of inadequate public relations programs.

In the Philippines, every public school has an organized Parent-Teacher Association (PTA). The school principal is usually the adviser of the individual school's PTA. Local PTA's league together to form a province or city-wide federation, to which the school superintendent becomes the adviser. Through this association, a wholesome program of public relations can be developed.

In the Federation of PTAs, the power structure of the province or city becomes identified, along with the power structure of the individual school PTAs. Of course, the school superintendent is aware of the formal power structure of local governments and of special interest groups, not only in the province or city where he is assigned but also in the national context. As adviser of the federation of PTAs, the school superintendent has the rare opportunity to exert his influence on the leaders of the federation of PTAs and on the leaders of the individual schools' PTAs in order that the administrative process of policy determination and decision making may be better understood.

According to Ostrander and Dethy,¹ the sources of power and the manner in which power may be exercised should be the subject of continuous critical study by the school administrator who accepts the responsibility for playing the role of educational leader. The most effective power, according to Kimbrough² is exercised through a highly personal and informal process.

As adviser of the federation of PTAs, the Filipino school superintendent could plan strategies with the school principals on matters that concern the educational program,

¹Ostrander and Dethy, op. cit., p. 206.
such as improving instruction, curriculum development, and other related matters. Also, the efforts of PTA groups can be directed to the program of instruction rather than to the fund-raising activities in which most PTAs have previously engaged.

School administrators can lead and participate in community assemblies, usually PTA-sponsored, especially in the rural areas where, together with other people who are experts in their own lines, they can tell the school story.

Where there are newspapers, radio, and TV stations in the community, these can be utilized to disseminate educational information to the people. Some school administrators are invited to have a regular broadcast time by certain radio and TV stations as a public service feature of such stations. There are a number of local newspapers which do a creditable job of providing columns and features that concern education.

Printed or mimeographed brochures or school publications keep the community, particularly the parents of the school children, informed about the happenings in their school.

Special events such as Education Week and Agro-Industrial Days can be utilized to focus the attention of the community on the value of education. Visit-your-schools posters prepared by school children can be distributed and posted in conspicuous places and in places where people
meet or congregate. Other events that can arouse interest are the open houses, school exhibits, graduation days, and other special days. Novel and effective, but not expensive, ways of observing these days pose a challenge to the schools and particularly to their administrators.

The usual ways of reporting to parents through the use of letters, report cards, home visits and others should be continued with comprehensiveness, consistency and objectivity. The school administrator should continuously examine the value of these manners of reporting in regard to their effect on improving school-community relations.

The school administrator's visibility in the community can be enhanced by devoting part of his time and effort to some community service organizations. In the Philippines, school superintendents are looked to for leadership in supporting various national programs such as the National Red Cross, the Red Feather, the scouting movement for boys and girls, the Green Revolution, and the National Beautification. Locally, the superintendent often is invited to join such clubs and organizations as the Rotary, the Lions, the Knights of Rizal, the YMCA, and others. The choice of which activities to support and promote and which clubs and organizations to join have implications of one's efforts to secure beneficial and meaningful results for the school system which he leads. In some cases, the school superintendent's involvement in these activities and organizations
opens the doors to the community's power structure and makes possible the easy solicitation of support for better educational programs.

Thus far, nothing has been said regarding the role of the school teacher in school-community relations. In 1962, this writer published an article\(^1\) which stated that public relations start in the classrooms. The thesis was advanced that the teacher, through the instructional process and the proper interpretation and reporting of school activities, develops better attitudes in students and, through them, in the parents. It was advocated in that article that homeroom PTAs (PTAs of individual classrooms) can contribute immensely in improving the conditions of learning. Parents of the homeroom PTA possess a commonality regarding some interests and problems. The perceptions that parents hold regarding the role of schools in educating their children, and parent desires and aspirations for the public schools can be intimately known, properly assessed and improved at the grassroots (classroom) level.

Another open avenue for public relations at the grassroots level is through the teacher who is, by designation of law (the Barrio Charter), a member of the Barrio Council.

\(^1\)Telesforo N. Boquiren, "Public Relations Start in the Classroom," The Filipino Teacher, December 1962, pp. 11-15.

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Council membership gives the teacher an opportunity to inform the members of the Council about the educational program.

The role of teachers could be guided and influenced by school administrators who should set the tone and provide the necessary stimulation for the kind of school story to be disseminated.

Summary

Public schools are so called because they are intended to serve the educational needs of the community without discrimination, and they draw support and strength from the community.

This chapter has suggested some of the areas that pose particular challenges to the educational leader as he relates to the school-community setting, especially in finding new ways of drawing the community to the school and taking the school to the community. The leader position requires a good grasp of community structure and of the expectations held for the schools. The schools' potential for making possible the realization of such expectations must be seen by everyone. The proper interpretation of these expectations and the continuous, critical re-examination of potential are a challenge to leadership.

The leadership of the school superintendent also is challenged in setting the proper tone and providing the
necessary stimulation for the kind of school story that teachers and staff personnel disseminate to the public. This requires a continuous definition and clarification of educational policies and needs.

In working with the community power structures, school administrators should realize that the status of power structure changes. Also, in working with community power structures, sociologists Cook and Cook\(^1\) cautioned that the real questions are (1) how working with community power structures is to go on, and (2) at which point this work is to end. They said further that one should learn from the public what it wants, what it can (and will) pay for, and should keep it informed. These are common sense actions which are basic in a democracy and these authors could think of no sufficient reason why school people should not use them. Neither can the present writer.

CHAPTER VIII

LEADERSHIP IN STAFF RELATIONS

One of the important tasks of school administrators is providing leadership in staff relations. Castetter\(^1\) called this leadership in staff relations the personnel function in educational administration and this personnel function is perceived as achieving organizational purposes by strengthening the individual in his relationship with the school system.

Staff relations is presently viewed in the United States as cooperative administration or management and, for this cooperative enterprise to be effective, the educational leader must possess skill in managing and working with people. Included are the administrative and supervisory personnel, the teachers, the pupils, and the services personnel within the organization. Cooperative administration involves the human skill of leadership, and of course working with people includes working with the parents and other citizens in the community. Some factors that affect staff relations, such as external forces and the size of the organization, should also be considered.

How leadership in staff relations can be provided and

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how best to organize people and strengthen their efforts so that the goals of the school system can be achieved pose another challenge to school administrators.

The present concept of staff relations is based on democratic processes as opposed to the older concept of administrative control based on power, status, and authority. Although schools as social systems are formal organizations in that they have established hierarchical relationships and their organizational charts indicate the distribution and allocation of responsibilities and authority, the people who are part of the organization have interrelationships.

Reference should be made to the discussions of administration and leadership in Chapters IV and V, to which the present topic of staff relations is closely related. A pertinent question is how a school administration may use cooperative administration or management of the school system to achieve the goals of the system.

Structure is Necessary

The Thirty-third Yearbook¹ of the AASA suggested that in working with people it is necessary to develop a flexible organizational structure as a framework for the assignment of people who are part of the system and for the allocation of responsibilities and duties to be performed in a

cooperative manner. This structure should provide channels of communication, coordination, control, and machinery for evaluation. Sears,¹ in discussing the nature of the administrative process, emphasized that the organizational structure should be such that the talents and energies of all may be applied economically, effectively, and harmoniously in the activity.

The usual type of organization is some form of line and staff structure. While some persons outside may believe that this organizational form tends to be undemocratic, this belief may not be characteristic of people in the structure itself. Hence, the importance of having flexibility in the organizational structure, even though the definition of duties and responsibilities should not be overlooked.

Cooperative administration or management suggests activities that include involving personnel in the establishment of goals and objectives, in allocating resources and responsibilities, in evaluating performances, and in decision making. This is the newer concept of cooperative administration which, though pioneered in industry, has applicability to education.

Management by Objectives

A recent development is Management by Objectives (MBO),

a management team concept which depends much on the under­
lying theme of "participative management." According to
Mansergh he the team concept of MBO basically refers to the
involvement of all levels of management in the planning,
implementing, and decision making process when such activ­
ities directly affect their professional responsibilities.
He explained that if MBO were implemented within the frame­
work of "participative management," it would not only pro­
vide for the cooperative maintenance and orderly growth of
the organization, but it would also provide a basis for
the effective evaluation of the system.

Management by Objectives helps subordinates to see
how they fit in and how they can contribute most to the
organization and the attainment of organization goals. MBO
also develops in subordinates a sense of commitment and
responsibility.

Personnel Procedures

The development of a strong professional staff and
the maintenance of high morale in the organization require
good judgment in addition to skill in human relations.
As stated in Chapter IX, the proper selection, assignment,
and retention of teachers and supervisors is a great re­
ponsibility. In addition, there are other responsibilities.

1Gerald G. Mansergh, ed., Dynamics of Management by

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of school administrators that may be shared by staff personnel, related to personnel procedures. These are the proper orientation of new teachers, the provision of satisfactory working conditions, the evaluation of personnel performance, and the recognition of potential or merit through promotion or increase in salary.

Selection and Tenure. The selection of public school teachers in the Philippines has, since the advent of the community-school concept, been a delicate task requiring the balancing of many extraneous factors and pressures that come to play in selection. The selection of teachers is on a competitive basis, in accordance with national guidelines, and the Department of Education is concerned with this task. School superintendents, who are delegated the authority to appoint teachers, have been instructed to attend this task with great care. The fact that a school system is no better than the teachers it employs, the changing expectations of the people, and the oversupply of teacher applicants have given rise to this Department concern.

Public school teachers are civil service employees and are required to qualify through appropriate civil service examinations before they are permanently employed. This requirement includes all the professional staff personnel and school superintendents because, by law (the "Magna Carta for Public School Teachers"), the term "teacher"
embraces all persons engaged in teaching, supervision, and administration in all levels of education financed by the government. This definition excludes the health, clerical, and janitorial services personnel.

The Civil Service qualification requirement has resulted in the following tenure classification of teachers:

1. Permanent Teachers. These are teachers who possess the minimum required educational qualification—a Bachelor's degree in Education—and have qualified through civil service examinations. They are given permanent appointments.

2. Provisional Teachers. These are teachers who possess the minimum required educational qualification but have not qualified through civil service examinations. They are given provisional appointments until they qualify through examination or are replaced by civil service eligibles.

3. Temporary Teachers. A temporary appointment is given to a teacher to substitute for a permanent or a provisional teacher who is absent or goes on leave.

Teachers who have permanent appointments have security of tenure and cannot be dismissed from the service except for cause in accordance with Civil Service rules and regulations.

The "Magna Carta for Public School Teachers" provides policies regarding transfers, safeguards in disciplinary procedures and against administrative charges, hours of work,
remuneration, health measures, benefits from injury, leaves, insurance, and retirement benefits. It also provides rules for membership in the national association of teachers and a code for professional conduct. The policy on transfers, for instance, provides that no transfer can be made without the teacher's consent. The salaries of teachers are based on a single salary scale as provided by law. The implementation of this salary scale is done by the Wage and Position Classification Office under the principle of "equal pay for equal work."

**Promotion.** Promotions are of two kinds: promotion in pay and promotion in position. Usually the promotion in position involves a promotion in salary also. The present promotion policy of the Department of Education recognizes merit as an important factor.

To determine the comparative degree of competence and qualification of candidates for promotion, the criteria of performance, education and training, experience, outstanding accomplishments, physical characteristics and personality traits, and potential are used in the ranking process. Each criterion has a given weight and in determining the weight there are components of each criterion to be considered.

**Evaluation of Performance.** Since the efficiency of staff personnel has implications for each individual's assignment, salary increments, and other perquisites,
the evaluation of staff personnel is a task that needs utmost care. Each teacher, supervisor, and administrator is rated annually in a form prescribed for this purpose. The Philippine public school system relies much on the objectivity and reliability of this rating process. The two major components of this rating are "Instructional Skill" and "Personal and Social Qualities."

The school principal evaluates teacher performance, together with the teacher concerned, and the school superintendent rates school principals and supervisors in the same manner. In some cases, a teacher makes an issue of the evaluation of his performance if he has not been involved. Of course there is no ideal way of evaluating performance, but involvement of the person in his own rating seems essential.

Evaluation of performance also refers to the evaluation of the educational program, using the goals of the organization as a frame of reference. This evaluation is necessary for educational improvement. External forces and pressures, especially in the United States, are demanding evaluation of the schools' performance in the name of educational accountability. School administrators are at a vantage point to provide leadership in the development of plans for objective and comprehensive evaluation of all aspects of the school program.
Communication. Staff personnel are entitled to know what the administration policies and plans are. Effective communication requires that the meaning imputed to a message by the recipient correspond closely to that intended by the sender. Communication forms the basis for all social interactions and, therefore, should be properly utilized. This is vital to leaders, particularly school superintendents, because communication may spell success or disaster in the job. This has strong significance for a social system such as the school in which leaders' work and time should be devoted primarily to face-to-face relationships. The Hawthorne Studies demonstrated, among other things, that organization members function best when they are aware of the events occurring within the organization. Lack of knowledge of organization goals, accomplishments, and problems tends to have an adverse effect on morale. Furthermore, communications in a social system develop cohesiveness and loyalty which are dependent upon the goals, the problems, and the need satisfaction which the members experience in common.

In the Philippine Bureau of Public Schools, communication is primarily through publications issued from time to time or as the need arises. These communications are in the form of (1) circulars, which cover matters that involve policy and are somewhat permanent in nature; (2) memoranda, which cover matters that are temporary in nature; (3) general
letters, which are sent to the field regarding the submission of reports, attention that should be given certain policies, and other routine matters; and (4) bulletins, which include material that is informational in nature. The Service Manual\(^1\) is a compilation of laws, rules and regulations, and instructions governing the conduct and operation of the public schools and is up-dated from time to time. Courses of Study describe the contents of various subjects and contain suggestions for teaching those subjects.

A school superintendent communicates to his staff personnel through similar channels and through occasional handbooks and brochures published for teachers. Sometimes newsletters are published for general distribution. Division letters are sent to the field in place of General letters.

While school superintendents appear detached from the classroom teachers, as shown in the chart of line and staff organization, it is important that they should not use this as a reason for being detached. Their presence in the schools is important to communications and staff relations.

Maintaining Morale. Maintaining morale in the organization is a major concern of administrators and staff

\(^1\)The Service Manual will be replaced with another publication since the recent completion of codification of all school laws, statutes, circulars, etc. by the Department of Education.
personnel. Morale is a term that is difficult to assess but the administrator must try to maintain and promote this general feeling or atmosphere for all members in pursuit of the goals of the organization.

Causes of low morale in the organization often can be traced to poor leadership. Good morale relies heavily on the confidence that the members hold in their leader for the attainment not only of their individual goals but also of the organization goals. Confidence is built through the skills of leadership and the style in which leadership is practiced. Knezevich said that democratic school administration which attempts to release the abilities of teachers, to develop a democratic spirit in supervision, and to open lines of communication may be even more conducive to the development of good morale than an increase in pay.¹

Summary

Good staff relations, to be productive of results, must be based on a cooperative enterprise. Those relations depend on every person in the organization, although a major part of the responsibility lies with the school administrator. A recognition of and respect for individuals— their differences and their worth—can help in promoting good staff relations.

¹Knezevich, op. cit., p. 349.
A statement advanced by the AASA in its Thirty-third Yearbook that "... educational leadership that places reliance on the premise that the purposes of an organization are best served through the cooperative efforts of its members,"¹ is as contemporary as when it was originated almost two decades ago, particularly as it refers to educational leadership in the Philippine public schools.

The dimension of Man, in the Tri-dimensional concept of administration discussed earlier, is considered by the present writer as the most important dimension in educational leadership because Man's values, his skills and abilities, and his perceptions give direction and meaning to his leadership behavior.

¹AASA, Thirty-third Yearbook, op. cit., p. 234.
CHAPTER IX

LEADERSHIP IN INSTRUCTION

Among the many tasks of school administration, the instructional program is considered the most important and deserves the highest consideration. The Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators said, "Instruction comes first!"1 Nolte2 stated also that the duty of improving instruction transcends all other tasks of administration and that every other duty is subordinate to it. Miller et al.3 asserted that all such other administrative task areas as pupil personnel, staff personnel, school housing and facilities, school-community relations, and funding and business management are undertaken for the sake of providing instruction. The present writer contends that schools are established to provide instruction and the school administrator's responsibility in providing instruction is basic and central to his tasks.

The Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the AASA related a story,

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to dramatize the importance of instructional leadership, of a school superintendent whose contract was extended by the school board for only one year after the original four-year contract expired. The reason was that while he had been a very strong superintendent in some administrative tasks, such as saving the school district some thousands of dollars because of good business management and having a credible public relations program, he failed in the most important task—instruction.

Not all school superintendents are aware that their most important task is that of improving instruction. It is known that school superintendents vary in inclination and interest. Some have strong orientation toward research, business management, planning school facilities, public relations or staff and student personnel administration. Others are academically inclined. Although the school superintendent has a staff to assist him in providing direction and supervisory services for the various areas of instruction, the superintendent also must be the overall superintendent of education. To be knowledgeable about every administrative task and to be able to set priorities in proper perspective are marks of the professional.

Improving instruction takes on significance as it is related to the improvement of teaching and learning which, according to the Association for Supervision and Curriculum
Development, is the ultimate goal.\textsuperscript{1} The improvement of instruction suggests leadership in curriculum development as one of the professional obligations. Instructional leadership is defined by Knezevich as administrative leadership in curriculum planning, development and change. He said further that this leadership necessitates, at the very least, comprehending and evaluating the learning experiences provided in the system, the methods used in the teaching-learning process, and the availability of instructional resources and materials.\textsuperscript{2}

In recognizing the importance of instruction and curriculum development, the Southern States CPEA Center developed a competency pattern in educational administration. In this pattern are critical areas of school administration which included the area Instruction and Curriculum Development. In this area are listed these tasks:

1. Providing for the formulation of curriculum objectives.

2. Providing for the determination of curriculum content and organization.

3. Relating the desired curriculum to available time, physical facilities, and personnel.

4. Providing materials, resources, and equipment for the instructional program.


\textsuperscript{2}Knezevich, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 379.
5. Providing for the supervision of instruction.

6. Providing for in-service education of instructional personnel.\(^1\)

The 1960 Yearbook of the ASCD suggested the following educational leadership tasks related to the improvement of instruction and curriculum development.

1. To help the people of the community define their educational goals and objectives.

2. To facilitate the teaching-learning process and develop greater effectiveness in teaching.

3. To build a productive organizational unit.

4. To create a climate for growth and for the emergence of leadership.

5. To provide adequate resources for effective teaching.\(^2\)

The administrative task areas listed by the Southern States CPEA and the educational leadership tasks developed by the ASCD, both of which are germane to instructional leadership, suggest the important role of the school superintendent in providing the direction to which the goals and objectives of the educational program can be established, defined, and achieved.

**Establishment of Educational Goals and Objectives**

The goals and objectives of education are derived


from various sources. While the local school systems in the United States have operational authority through the school boards, the definition and formulation of local educational goals and objectives are based upon broader statements made in the national and state contexts.

Philippine education draws its goals and objectives from the Constitution; from the objectives formulated by the Board of National Education and from resolutions of the Congress of the Philippines. Although the organizational structure of the Philippine educational system is centralized, leadership in the school divisions is given leeway, in light of conditions obtaining and of resources available, to develop specific educational objectives within the national framework.

School divisions need an awareness of the goals and objectives upon which the organization of any instructional program is based. It is, therefore, one of the principal tasks of school leaders to direct the formulation of a divisional educational program that will achieve or attain the established and defined goals and objectives. School administrators are in the best position to provide administrative and supervisory support and stimulation, and facilitating this work is one of the leader's major tasks. School administrators should assume initiative not only in the development of appropriate community educational programs by involving other people but also in clarifying the
roles of specific agencies and persons in the attainment of the goals and objectives of the program.

The adoption of the new Constitution of the Philippines added a dimension to the challenge of educational leadership as it relates to instruction and curriculum development. Education has a major role to play in any governmental program, and with the goals envisioned by the "New Society" it is imperative that leadership tasks in education must be done in all seriousness and sincerity.

The Secretary of Education proposed recently a "curriculum redirection which seeks to gradually correct the general notion that education— invariably equated with the formal school system— is an activity separate and distinct from all other activities in life."¹ He explained that with this curricular reorientation, should come the concomitant adjustments in teaching and learning techniques.

There is no one best way to formulate and define educational goals and objectives, but whatever the design, there are certain principles that may be considered, such as the following:

1. Setting goals and objectives should involve those for whom objectives are set and those responsible for goal seeking.

¹Juan L. Manuel, "The Superintendency and New Expectations in Education": Address of the Secretary of Education before the 1973 Convention of School Superintendents, Baguio City, April 30.
2. School appraisal and the revision of educational goals should be a continuous process paced to the rate of change occurring in the community and in the broader society served by the schools.

3. Appraisal and goal-setting processes should be deliberately designed to recognize that perceptual changes are among the desired outcomes.

4. The results of community appraisal and goal-setting efforts should be recorded, organized so as to be easily accessible, and made available to all members of the community.

5. Official leaders are responsible for attempting to translate statements of aspirations into operational procedures and program needs and for relating new objectives to existing programs.¹

Educational objectives derived from the broad goals, especially if stated in behavioral terms, provide reference points and directional guides for school administrators, supervisors, teachers, pupils, and the community.

Facilitating the Teaching-Learning Process

Another important task for which school leaders take responsibility is centered in the school and is directed toward the facilitation of the teaching and learning process in order that greater effectiveness in instruction can be developed. This has to do with the proper selection and assignment of teachers and staff personnel. If selecting the school superintendent is a major responsibility of the school board or the Department of Education, it follows

that the proper selection and assignment of teachers and supervisors by the school superintendent also is a great responsibility. Related to the proper selection and assignment of staff personnel is retaining them.

The responsibility of proper selection and assignment of staff personnel should not be underestimated. A major breakthrough in facilitating the teaching-learning process occurs when staff personnel are properly selected and assigned. The concept of educational leadership suggests delegation of responsibility and authority in order for status leadership to attend to the conceptual demands of the job.

Facilitating the teaching-learning process suggests also that instructional materials—books, equipment, and supplies—should be selected and procured with great care. Teacher involvement in the selection of instructional materials is a highly desirable practice, as they need to assume responsibility for those activities that have to do with instruction.

The Special Education Fund Act of the Philippines recognized the importance of instruction by placing high priority on the procurement of textbooks, teachers' guides, forms and pamphlets. The decision-making process regarding procurement of those instructional materials that are best, despite scarce allocations, poses a constant challenge to leadership. If it is true that teaching changes
as teachers and the various resources made available to them change, then the actions of leadership must be focused upon the means for effecting such changes.

Building an organization that is conducive to instructional improvement also facilitates the teaching-learning process. The pattern of organization should be in harmony with objectives previously established and should concern itself with delineating leadership and delegating responsibilities in a clearly defined fashion. When many people within the organization are contributing leadership, means by which varied capacities can be properly utilized should be established. The concept of "differentiated staffing" which is being practiced in the United States may have some bearing on the utilization of the varied capacities of staff personnel. This brings about the kind of organizational climate which should exist in the organization—the open climate—which is characteristic of human organizations. Halpin\(^1\) described the open climate as a situation in which members enjoy extremely high esprit; where teachers work well together and are not burdened by routine reports; where the school administrator's functions facilitate the accomplishment of tasks and where the group members enjoy friendly relations but feel no need for an extremely high degree of intimacy.

The teachers then obtain considerable job satisfaction, are sufficiently motivated, and are proud to belong to their school.

The channels of communication in an organization with a permissive climate are open and effective because this is essential to an organization which relies upon participative leadership. Effective communication is especially significant when the teaching staff is involved in a cooperative approach to instructional improvement.

Research and Evaluation

Another critical and important task of the educational leader in improving instruction lies in the area of evaluation and research and, more importantly, the use of the findings of research.

Perhaps one major reason for the claim that education in the Philippines has not contributed significantly to national development is the inadequate and unscientific methods used by educational practitioners in acquiring more knowledge of their work and in solving problems. An uncritical acceptance of opinions that are not supported by objective evidence—for instance, acceptance by classroom teachers of opinions of school principals and school supervisors, and by school principals and school supervisors of opinions coming from the school superintendent—and an overdependence on personal experience have been characteristic
of problem solving techniques of a number of schoolmen. Resort to personal experience, under the guise of being "practical", often constitutes an insufficient basis on which to make decisions, even if the individual is able to objectively evaluate the experience.

In an address before the 1973 Convention of the Philippine Association of School Superintendents, the Director of Public Schools underscored the value of innovation. She stated that "Complacency in all levels of the teaching profession, manifesting itself in our being satisfied with what we had been doing for many years because those [old practices] were deemed good and necessary at the time of their inception and in our incapacity to originate new ideas and practices in the basic locale of education (the classroom) has made our educational effort less potent and our various attempts at introducing improvements or reforms frustrated."

The scientific method offers the best approach that man has developed for the solution of problems, including educational problems. Although, comparatively, educational research is in its early stage, it has already produced much useful knowledge and has brought about great changes in the educational practices and thinking of schoolmen.

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1 Liceria Brillantes Soriano, "Innovation vs. Complacency": Address of the Director of Public Schools before the 1973 Convention of the Philippine Association of School Superintendents, Baguio City, May 1, 1973.
 Authorities in educational research hold a common belief that research in education represents an activity directed toward the development of an organized body of scientific knowledge about the events with which educators are concerned. They suggest some types of educational research that may be undertaken, depending upon circumstances and need. Borg\textsuperscript{1} mentioned basic research, applied research, and action research, while Travers\textsuperscript{2} is more concerned with the basic and the applied types of research, and does not advocate action research.

Basic research, sometimes called pure research, is aimed at the discovery of basic truths or principles. Usually oriented towards the testing and development of theory, it is not immediately concerned with direct field application. Much of the basic research having implications for education is done by researchers in such behavioral sciences as sociology and psychology. Generally school people do not undertake, but make much use of the findings of this type of research. Basic research in the social sciences is very difficult because of the infinite number of variables when human beings are involved.

Applied or field research is concerned primarily


with establishing relationships in testing theories in the field setting. The object of research on teaching methods, for instance, is aimed at finding out which of two techniques leads to a higher degree of achievement; research on pupil grouping may test which type of grouping is more effective in improving instruction. Applied research often establishes findings which are generalizable to other samples of the population from which the research subjects were taken. An example of such generalizability is the result of the research on the use of the Hiligaynon, the local vernacular in the province of Iloilo, Philippines, as the medium of instruction in the first four elementary grades. That research contributed to the adoption in 1957 of a national policy of using the local vernacular as the medium of instruction in Grades I and II in all public and private schools.

Travers\(^1\) explained that basic and applied research do not differ in the level of complexity involved, but rather are differentiated by the goals they help to achieve. While he believed that basic research is designed to add to an organized body of scientific knowledge, it does not necessarily produce results of immediate practical use. He said that applied research is undertaken to solve an immediate practical problem and the goal of adding to scientific

\(^1\)Travers, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 3-4.
knowledge is secondary. He claimed that applied research solves one problem at a time and that the results are not likely to have general application—a rather divergent view on the generalizability of the findings of applied research.

Action research applies also the steps of the scientific method but employs less control than does basic or applied research. Action research is carried out by individuals who feel the need for the results and are in a position to translate the results into action. The emphasis on action research is on obtaining specific knowledge concerning the subjects involved in the study. Hence, much of this type of research is carried out by classroom teachers, either individually or in groups. While the results of action research have no generalizability to other similar classroom situations, they have important and specific implications for the individual teacher or group of teachers undertaking the research.

While Travers and others do not advocate action research, Borg maintained that it provides the teacher or administrator with objective, systematic techniques of problem solving that are far superior to an appeal to authority or reliance on personal experience, which so often guides decisions in education.¹

¹Borg, op. cit., p. 21.
Evaluation is related to the task of improving instruction and helps to determine how or to what extent the goals and objectives of the educational program are being realized. It is concerned also with the changes in the growth and development of children as a result of instruction.

The importance of evaluation lies in providing the community with feedback on the progress of its educational program, the goals and objectives of which it helped to establish. Evaluation also provides a sense of security to members of the school staff, pupils, and parents in that they have tangible evidence of the effectiveness, or lack of it, of the program of which they are all parts. Thus, further decisions can be made. Basic to evaluation is the correct and objective interpretation and communication or reporting. Sometimes the interpretation of evaluation results is suspect, particularly if results are self-serving or subjective.

The concept of "accountability" in public education, which is a current issue in the United States and perhaps will come to the Philippine educational setting sooner or later because of its mention in the new Constitution (Article XIII, Accountability of Public Officers), has somehow lent support to evaluation. The issue of accountability

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in the United States reflects a logical consequence of mounting costs of education and rising teacher militancy. Accountability is a legitimate response of government, which wants to know how efficiently its money is being spent; a legitimate response of taxpayers, who want to know how their taxes are being spent, and a legitimate response of parents, who want to know how well their children are being educated.

An example of how the concept of accountability has been taken seriously is the 1973–74 contract of the school superintendent of Kalamazoo, Michigan, with the Board of Education--the first such contract known in the United States. A tentative salary increase of ten per cent will be dependent upon positive results of student achievement as shown by a series of evaluative instruments.

The 1960 Survey of Public Schools in the Philippines, mentioned earlier, stressed two major aspects of evaluation which were in need of attention insofar as the public schools of the country are concerned. First, the evaluation of the program of instruction in each area of the curriculum should be undertaken through the use of evaluative criteria currently available. Second, objective instruments to appraise the learning of children should be developed. These two major aspects of evaluation are still relevant at the present time, and are constants in the educative process.
Supervision and In-service Education

Two other factors that are significant to instructional improvement are provisions for supervision and for in-service education of teachers and staff personnel. Any discussion of instruction and its improvement must touch upon supervision because the style of supervision and the relationships that develop have much to do with teaching effectiveness. Traditionally, supervision has been viewed as a task-oriented function, with instructional leadership central to supervision and supervision relying much upon external control of human behavior. This view depended heavily on McGregor's "Theory X", with assumptions by supervisors that:

1. The average man is by nature indolent—he works as little as possible.

2. He lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, and prefers to be led.

3. He is inherently self-centered and indifferent to organizational needs.

4. He is by nature resistant to change.

5. He is gullible, not very bright, the ready dupe of the charlatan and the demagogue.¹

A contrasting management or supervisory philosophy is "Theory Y", also by McGregor, which forms the basis for more-enlightened supervision and asserts a need for more

humanity in order for schools to achieve their objectives with less difficulty. "Theory Y" relies heavily on self-control and self-direction, and some of its assumptions are:

1. People are not by nature passive or resistant to organizational needs. They have become so as a result of experience in organizations.

2. The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behavior toward organizational goals are all present in people. Management does not put them there. It is a responsibility of management to make it possible for people to recognize and develop these human characteristics for themselves.

3. The essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives.1

The essential difference between the two theories is the difference in treating people as children (Theory X) and treating people as adults (Theory Y).

Of course many useful ideas can still be found in the books on supervision by Kimball Wiles, William Burton and Leo Brueckner, and others. Wiles viewed supervision as those activities which are designed to improve instruction at all levels of the school enterprise, while Burton and Brueckner, two pioneers in the area of supervision, wrote a classic book, Supervision: A Social Process, in which they identified certain principles of supervision that are remarkably contemporary.

1Ibid., p. 33.
If the schools and the educational system are led and supervised by leaders and supervisors in a humanistic way, as advocated by such humanists as Carl R. Rogers, Harold C. Lyons and others, it is to be expected that teachers and staff personnel will be humanistic in their orientation.

The in-service education of teachers and staff personnel, according to Spears, is predicated upon the idea that people should grow on the job. As far as the schools are concerned, added knowledge and skills and improved behavior and attitude for teachers and staff personnel ultimately contribute to instruction. Teachers and staff personnel must have assistance to keep up with the development of knowledge as well as to keep in step with the new ways in which knowledge and skills can be acquired for use in the schools.

Some of the principles of successful in-service activities have been suggested by the National Education Association of the United States as including these:

1. Teachers have an integral part in the planning and administering of the program.

2. Curriculum planning is carried on cooperatively by teachers, administrators, and supervisors.

3. Research and experimentation by teachers

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and teachers' groups are encouraged.

4. New teachers are well oriented to their positions.

5. There is teacher-parent-community cooperation.

6. Sufficient time is available to carry on group activities without injury to the teacher's health and morale.

7. The administration is fair and open-minded, and when suggestions of teachers carry weight, they are given careful consideration.

8. All activities are carried on by administrators, supervisors, and teachers working as a team toward their fulfillment.¹

There are many types of in-service activities which leaders can provide, or which teachers and staff personnel can develop with administrative support. Some such activities are meetings and institutes, conferences and workshops, courses, study groups, visitation on interschool or interclass basis, workshops, clinics, seminars, and consultant services.

It is important that in-service activities should be developed or made available not only for teachers and staff personnel but also for school administrators so that they may be better prepared to make the necessary professional judgments about the effectiveness of the many new instructional programs, materials, and techniques that are

¹In-Service Education of Teachers (Washington, D.C.: Research Division, National Education Association, 1960), p. 3, as cited by Ostrander and Dethy, op. cit., p. 256.
constantly being introduced.

In Southeast Asia, the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) has established seven regional centers to meet educational development needs common to the eight member-countries,¹ three of which are directly concerned with elementary and secondary education—the Regional Centre for Education in Science and Mathematics in Penang, Malaysia; the Regional Centre for Innovation and Technology in Saigon, South Vietnam, and the Regional English Language Centre in Singapore. These centers have catered to the in-service education needs, since the mid 1960's, of highly selected teachers from the member countries, including the Philippines.

Summary

Most school superintendents can do more to improve instruction than they realize. The formulation and definition of educational objectives set the framework of instruction. This is followed by facilitating the process of teaching and learning and the appraisal of the instructional program through evaluation. The needs for research, supervision of instruction and adequate provision for the

¹The eight member-countries of the SEAMEO are Indonesia, Khmer Republic (Cambodia), Laos, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and South Vietnam.
continuing education of teachers and staff personnel are matters that professionals support. Although the activities which directly improve instruction are generally delegated to other staff personnel, the school superintendent should provide the leadership. Through his facilitative and supportive roles, he can provide inspiration and encouragement for his co-workers to participate in instructional leadership, grow in the service, experiment, study, write, undertake research, and continuously appraise the instructional program so that the best in instruction can be secured.

There may be other leadership tasks which are contributive to improved instruction, but the tasks discussed in this chapter are considered critical.
Environment educates. This is a statement which has been commonly uttered and widely known, and the reference made to it seems trite and lacking in freshness. But this statement is highly pertinent and appropriate to the subject--planning educational facilities.

In explaining the statement "Environment educates", the AASA School Building Commission\(^1\) reported that the school is for learning—not just teaching—and that the physical environment should be a powerful force in the learning process. This Commission likened the school's physical and social environment that influences learning to the conditions upon which the growth of plants depend. This Commission also stated that if the environmental conditions are stimulating and satisfying, and the learner has the tools he needs for work in a comfortable setting, learning will be as natural as the growth of a vigorous and healthy plant. The understanding of the precise nature of the relationships between the bases of educational requirements and the needs for space and facilities should precede the

the provision for a school building fully adequate for all of the demands placed upon it.

Chase\(^1\) stated that among the essential elements for the successful operation of a modern educational program are the buildings which house that program and that school buildings themselves are instruments of education.

As was stated in Chapter IX, the most important task of the school administrator is the improvement of instruction. Planning and providing educational facilities—sites, buildings, and equipment—for the purpose of instruction pose another challenge to educational leadership.

In countries such as Japan, the United States, West Germany, Great Britain, Switzerland, and Canada, the planning of educational facilities has become almost a science and an art. In the United States, for instance, several State Departments of Education regularly issue guides for planning educational facilities, in addition to many books and articles on this subject. In addition, there are numerous associations and agencies that are concerned with educational facilities. The Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., a non-profit corporation established by the Ford Foundation, helps schools and colleges in the

United States and Canada with their physical problems through the encouragement of research, experimentation, and the dissemination of knowledge regarding educational facilities. The Council of Educational Facility Planners disseminates information through its numerous publications, seminars, and conferences. The American Institute of Architects plays a very important role in the building of America's schools.

The Philippine Experience

School plant as a concept is not new in the Philippines. Generally schoolmen view school plant as school physical facilities—the school site, the school building or buildings, and the school equipment. However, the concept of planning educational facilities to accommodate specific programs, though not new in theory, is rarely, if ever, practiced as one of the important tasks of school administration.

There are certain factors that have, somehow, hindered the actual task of planning educational facilities especially on the local school level. Some such factors are: (1) The school organization is so centralized that all major educational decisions—even school plans are standardized—are made in the General Office. (2) Provisions for capital outlay are lacking in the regular national school budget. (3) The annual capital outlay for the
construction and repair of school buildings is included in the budget of the Bureau of Public Works. (4) There is lack of knowledge, understanding, and recognition by the public of the relationship between educational facilities and the educational program, resulting in apathy. (5) There is lack of knowledge of how to do educational planning of facilities.

The School Building Program

A look into the past would reveal the existence of a school building program in the Philippines. In 1907, Act No. 1801, known as the Gabaldon Law (named after the author of the bill), appropriated the sum of one million pesos for the construction of permanent school buildings in communities which could fulfill certain requirements, including the provision of sites, local labor, and some materials. Many communities took advantage of this law and were able to construct permanent (concrete) school buildings based on standard plans. These school buildings are popularly known as Gabaldon buildings.

In 1925, the Philippine Legislature enacted another law which appropriated several million pesos for the construction of a type of semi-permanent school buildings in many communities.

Outlays for construction and repair of school buildings included in the Public Works annual budget have made possible the construction of additional school buildings.
through allotments made to representative districts.

After World War II many destroyed school buildings were rebuilt to their former state through the use of so-called war damage funds provided by the Philippine Rehabilitation Act of the United States Congress. The reconstruction work was done by the Bureau of Public Works. Also, after World War II, the Parent-Teacher Associations were increasingly active in providing funds for the construction of school buildings and providing sites through donations. Although such buildings were temporary in nature, they nevertheless filled the need for more classrooms.

The Four-Year School Building Program of 1966-1969 envisioned the construction of all the classrooms needed, including an estimated backlog of 63,000 classrooms. This program was supported by a yearly appropriation of 20 million pesos included in the Public Works budget and by reparations from Japan. The Infrastructure Operations Center (IOC) established by the President of the Philippines for this building program had a Coordination Board composed of high government officials appointed by the President. The building program up to that time had been successful because of the interest of the President. The IOC developed the so-called Marcos pre-fab school building. One is a two-story-four-room building for urban areas, and another is a one-story-two-room building for the rural areas.
The IOC also developed a pre-fab building made of steel intended for construction in typhoon belts.

The allocations of pre-fab materials depend upon the financial and manpower capacities of local governments to construct buildings. Many communities and barrios have taken advantage of this program and in many instances people donated their labor. While this building program has helped to solve the problem of accommodation for a burgeoning school population, it is temporary in nature. Some of the temporary school buildings have been destroyed by natural calamities, and the school building program has continued since 1969 through outlays provided by the Congress of the Philippines.

A second source of funds for the reconstruction and repair of destroyed school buildings and other public structures is the so-called calamity funds disbursed by the President of the Philippines, as provided by law, through Congressmen, Provincial Governors or City Mayors. Citizens of communities which cannot secure monies from this fund sometimes take it upon themselves to make the needed reconstruction and repair of their school buildings on a self-help basis.

It is a national policy that all construction, reconstruction, and repair of school buildings financed out of government funds is undertaken by the Bureau of Public Works unless the amount required is not over 10 thousand
pesos, in which case the project may be undertaken by the school administration under the supervision of the Bureau of Public Works.

Since the plans for school buildings are standardized, the involvement of school administrators in the building projects is marginal, including responsibilities such as the routine signing of payrolls and vouchers, superficial inspections of on-going building projects with the provincial or city engineer and acceptance of buildings. There have been a number of disagreements on this process, because of references made by school administrators to the educational factors related to construction.

The Special Education Fund Act of 1968 has provided limited operational authority to school superintendents in regard to the construction, reconstruction, and repair of school buildings. The law allows appropriation from this fund for the construction and repair of school buildings provided certain priorities have been satisfied first. The law placed "Repair of school buildings and accessories" as priority number five, while "Construction of school buildings and acquisition of sites" is last of twelve priorities. This is understandable in light of the annual provisions in the Public Works budget and the national school building program for purposes of construction and site acquisition.

The limitations on the operational authority of
school superintendents in the school building program provided by the Special Education Fund Act are illustrated in some of the provisions of Rule XIX on the construction and repair of elementary school buildings and acquisition of sites.

Section 3. All school building construction projects financed from the Special Education Fund shall be either a permanent or semi-permanent building and constructed in accordance with standard plans as approved by the Secretary of Education. No building shall be constructed except on a site owned or acquired by the government and turned over to the Bureau of Public Schools . . . . (underscoring by the present writer)

Section 4. Under this Act, the construction and repair of school buildings . . . shall be undertaken by the Bureau of Public Works in coordination with the Bureau of Public Schools . . . , and the local school boards; provided, however, that where the cost of the project does not exceed Ten Thousand (P10,000) Pesos, the construction may be undertaken by negotiated contract by the Parent-Teacher Association . . . under the supervision and direction of the Bureau of Public Works . . . (underscoring by the present writer)

Section 7. The acquisition of school sites is considered for funding purposes as capital outlay . . . . School boards shall make every effort to acquire school sites by donation.

School Sites

The Department of Education requires the availability of a duly registered site before any public school is

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1Bureau of Public Schools, Service Manual (Fourth Revision; Manila: Bookman, Inc., 1960), Chapter VIII.
opened. School sites may be acquired by purchase, absolute or conditional donation, reservation, and, in certain cases, by expropriation. School sites should meet the standards provided by Commonwealth Act No. 586, including all the following conditions:

1. The size of the site should meet the requirements of the enrollment and kind of school, as well as the recreational needs of the students. The minimum requirements as to standard areas of sites are: (1) One-half hectare (10,000 square meters to a hectare) for a barrio school which has only one or two classes and no grade above Grade IV; (2) One hectare for a central school which has not more than four classes or for a barrio school which has from three to four classes; (3) Two hectares for schools which have from five to seven classes; (4) Three hectares for schools which have from eight to ten classes; (5) Four hectares for schools which have more than ten classes; and (6) Eight hectares for high schools.

2. The site must be well located and easily accessible.

3. The site must be well drained and sanitary.

4. The topography must be such that a satisfactory athletic field can be laid out.

5. The soil must be suitable for some form of gardening or agricultural work.

Commonwealth Act No. 586 also authorizes the Secretary of Education, with the approval of the President of the Philippines, to waive any of the requirements in cities and overpopulated areas where school sites are difficult to secure.

After the site is acquired, it has to be surveyed.
and registered. The site registration is important for purposes of securing national aid for school construction.

School Equipment

Funds for the purchase of school and classroom equipment are provided to local school divisions by the Department of Education from its annual appropriation. The funds are intended for basic classroom equipment such as chalkboards, tables, desks, chairs, bookcases, tackboards, and sand tables. In some instances, the purchase of equipment and distribution of it to the field is done by the General Office. Other needed equipment may be obtained through donations secured by the PTAs or by the school administrators and staff personnel.

The Special Education Fund Act gave third priority to the purchase of equipment for vocational classes, and fourth priority to teaching materials, aids, and devices. Thus, the scarce allocations from the national government for school and classroom equipment often must be augmented by local funds and local effort.

Maintenance and Control of School Plant

The maintenance of the school plant is the responsibility of the school administrators, staff personnel, and pupils. The aesthetic improvement of buildings and grounds adds much to the socializing value of education and exerts an influence in the community. The PTAs help in improving
and maintaining the buildings and sites in order to make them sources of community pride. A suitable plan for the development and improvement of the school plant and the proper care of buildings and equipment are matters that require the careful attention of school administrators. Responsibility for the improvement of the school plant in attractive and sanitary condition rests upon the principal teachers of individual schools.

The school plant is under the control of school administrators for school purposes and its use for other public or semi-public purposes must be sanctioned by the school superintendent or his authorized representatives. The use of the school plant for partisan political activities and private social gatherings is prohibited. However, the school plants may be used for religious activities, under certain conditions, provided that such use does not interfere with school activities.

Improvement of the School Plant

The present status of many school plants in the Philippines is sub-standard. The present Secretary of Education deplored the inadequacy of essential educational facilities as one of the country's persistent problems.

The growing recognition of the significant relationship between facilities and the educational program is an optimistic note in the administrative task of school plant planning. In spite of present circumstances in the
development of Philippine school plants, there are indications that the situation will improve. There is a developing concern among school people and the communities represented by members in the school boards that school plants should be made more functional, healthy, safe, comfortable, aesthetically pleasing, and efficient. Ever present is the value of making the most from scarce resources and allocations for educational services, including outlays for school plants. Also, there are the educational expectations of the Filipino people which are changing and will continue to change. The criticisms and indictments of some well-meaning people, directed at the public schools and the products of the public schools, are manifestations of these expectations. The limited publications and circulation of books and articles on the subject of the school plant are indications that some people are concerned with the subject, but the people who have published books and articles on the subject of the school plant in the Philippines could be counted. There are thought to be three so far—Domingo Soriano,¹ Teodoro Santos,² and James McCall³—


and the book by McCall is now out of print.

The organization of the National School Development Group in 1963, though it "has not left a mark in the provision of better school facilities,"¹ showed concern for the development of better school plants. The Unesco-sponsored Asian Regional Institute for School Building Research formerly located in Bandung, Indonesia, and now located in Colombo, Sri Lanka (Ceylon), in which the Philippines is involved, hopes to achieve, through administrative control, better understanding of the plant and facilities component of educational planning and of improving the quality of school buildings suited to the Asian region.

In the United States, planning and providing educational facilities has been big business for the past two decades, although it is now declining somewhat. "No public building is more publicly planned, built and financed than is the school because it affects the typical American in two sensitive spots--his children and his pocket."² The planning of educational facilities has reached such a level of sophistication and research that if a community desires the open-classroom concept, this is translated into educational specifications for the construction of a suitable

¹Soriano, op. cit., 43.
building complex. Funds for the project are raised by the community through the sale of interest-bearing bonds or a special tax on property. Bonds are retired by levying property taxes, also.

The experiences of developed countries in the planning of educational facilities can serve as a guide in the performance of this important administrative task by Filipino school administrators. Of course, the approach varies in every country according to its traditions, its resources, and its way of controlling education.

Planning educational facilities is a comprehensive process and demands depth and breadth of knowledge, understanding, and appreciation. Its practice leans heavily on the technical, human, and conceptual skills of leadership.

Boles detailed a systematic guide to school plant planning in the United States, from the initial organization process to the final occupation of a new building.¹ He outlined each step in the planning process, the pertinent concepts and terms in each step, and suggested guiding principles that relate these concepts to the goals of function, beauty, economy, safety, comfort, and health. He gave special attention to the role of participants involved in each step, the time required for the various steps in planning educational facilities are taken, with the author's permission, from Harold W. Boles, Step by Step to Better School Facilities (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965).

¹The extended quotations and paraphrasings on the steps in planning educational facilities are taken, with the author's permission, from Harold W. Boles, Step by Step to Better School Facilities (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965).
operations and the resources needed for each task.

Space limitation does not allow a detailed description of such a systematic guide to school plant planning. It is sufficient, perhaps, to present the steps suggested and a short description of each step.

**Step One, Getting Organized.** This is defined as that process through which relevant ideas, materials, people, or tasks are placed in a meaningful and interdependent order that will help to achieve a given set of aims.

With proper organization, the necessary steps may be taken rapidly with the assurance that they will lead where they purport to lead.

**Step Two, Studying Curriculum.** This is essential to any kind of school construction as it consists of a process of describing the predetermined experiences that children will have within the school facilities.

This step is a motivating factor or force for staff members to sense the urgent need for continuous curriculum study.

**Step Three, Surveying School Plant Needs.** A school plant survey is a long-range plan for providing better quality education to a district through an attempt to fit plant developments to community and curricular needs.

This definition allows a survey to include considerations of sites and equipment, as well as buildings. This study or survey may be undertaken by a team of professors and graduate students from colleges and universities at the request of a local school board. The building survey
report, according to Castaldi,\(^1\) contains an evaluation of existing buildings in relation to the educational functions desired by the school district, including a calculation of building capacities, a statement of unmet needs, and a recommended long-range building program.

**Step Four, Planning a Building.** This step which is referred to as educational planning, is a process of preparing educational specifications for each new, remodeled, renovated, or enlarged school plant facility suggested in the survey of plant needs; of interpreting the educational specifications to an architect; and of following through to assure that educational specifications are correctly translated into working documents.

The present writer considers this step as the most important of the steps because it spells out or gives to the last detail the specifications for the needed facilities. As the term implies, educational specifications (Soriano calls this an educational brief)\(^2\) specifies what is needed for the requirements of function, health, safety, comfort, beauty, and economy. The National Council on Schoolhouse Construction suggested that the development of the educational specifications is essentially an educational job, and is to be done by, or under the leadership of, the educator rather than the architect.\(^3\) The services


\(^2\)Soriano, *op. cit.*, p. 35

of an educational consultant are often used in the preparation of this important document.

**Step Five, Planning Financing.** Financial planning is a process of trying to achieve a balance of needs and money resources. It means trying to foresee plant needs and to discover means of paying for those needs.

The educational specifications are essential before a final budget can be fixed for each project. The basic economic relationships of the factors or variables in planning educational facilities should, therefore, be fully understood.

**Step Six, Acquiring Site(s).** Site acquisition is a process of selecting and acquiring title to real estate that is likely to be used for building purposes.

In the Philippines, the acquisition of school sites has been the first step, as stated earlier, because this has been a prerequisite to the granting of aid for school building purposes.

**Step Seven, Architectural Planning.** This is a process where specifications of educational needs are translated into the design and working documents that will make possible the construction of a building, the development of its site, and the installation of equipment.

In this step, it is essential to be aware of some guiding principles, among which are: (1) The line that separates architectural planning from education planning must be maintained. (2) The best architectural service costs no more than the worst. (3) The architect earns his fee only when his services and abilities are fully
(4) Expectations for the architect must be commensurate to his responsibilities.

**Step Eight, Contracting for Construction.**
This is a process of locating contractors who might be interested in performing certain work, selecting those who are to do the work, and awarding to them the contracts for the completion of the work.

In this step, two guiding principles stand out: that the best bid is likely to involve considerations in addition to the lowest money bid, and that there should be no room for favoritism in contract awards.

**Step Nine, Constructing the Building.** Construction is the act of devising and forming a structure in accordance with the drawings and specifications of the architect.

In this step, the old adage about prevention and cure is particularly applicable. Ways of dealing with all types of problems must be anticipated before construction begins. These can be spelled out in detail in the architect's specifications.

**Step Ten, Equipping and Furnishing a Building.** Equipping and furnishing a building is that process by which the contents of a building deemed essential for intended operation are acquired and installed.

The importance of this step is the belief that environment educates and that it facilitates learning. Equipment and furnishings of good quality, necessary quantity, and "anthropometric designs"1 (based on the proportions of

the human body) are certainly a part of the environment.

**Step Eleven, Occupying a Building.** The occupancy of a building is a special phase of the overall orientation process, involving those who will occupy the building on a regular basis and others who will use the building, or parts of it, on a shorter basis.

Students, teachers, administrators and supervisors, office workers, custodians and other service employees need to know and understand the philosophy behind the development of the building. There should be a process by which faults discovered after occupancy will be corrected during the guarantee period to forestall expense necessitated when repairs are made later.

**Step Twelve, Orienting People.** Orientation is defined as a finding out of the actual facts and conditions and putting oneself in the right relation to them.

Orientation is a continuous process beginning with the first recognition of the need for new plant facilities to the occupancy and use of a building. Orienting people before and during occupancy of a building takes many forms, some of which are guided tours and the printing of handbooks and brochures which provide answers to questions that are often asked. It is an important part of the orientation process to establish and provide written policies on responsibilities for the upkeep of the building.

As long as the building is continued in use, the orientation process may never end.
Summary

Educational leaders of a developing country such as the Philippines suffer from the constraints that society has established in the form of policies, available resources, and traditions. In the particular task of planning educational facilities, educational leadership has been hampered by these constraints.

The challenges of the "New Society" to leaders at all levels, and the reorganization of the government, which decentralizes aspects of decision-making, encourage the establishment of goals and objectives and grant operational authority to regional and local leaders. These are positive and significant developments that give a hopeful note to the exercise of leadership.

The administrative task of planning educational facilities is a complex but challenging and stimulating task which utilizes the skills of leadership. Knowing the systematic steps in educational planning of facilities and understanding and applying those twelve steps can lead to the kind of facilities which are functional, safe, healthful, comfortable, beautiful, and economical. These elements make the school plant adaptable to future use and determine the school environment that educates.
PART FOUR

A LOOK AT SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

As one looks at school administration, two principal questions come to mind: (1) how do individuals choose school administration as a career or profession? and (2) what is the professional preparation of school administrators as educational leaders?

Chapter XI attempts to place in proper perspective the issues related to choosing school administration as a career or profession and tries to indicate what the career offers in terms of public service and personal satisfaction.

Chapter XII discusses the educational and professional preparation of school administrators to be leaders in education. This preparation, which includes pre-service education and the on-the-job or in-service training is a process that is continuous and arduous.
CHAPTER XI

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AS A CAREER

School administration, particularly as regards the school superintendency, is a relatively young profession in the Philippines when compared with the professions of medicine, engineering, law, and others.

After the Monroe Educational Survey in 1925, the American school administrators at the helm of the Department of Public Instruction provided Filipino schoolmen with opportunities to improve their education and training, to prepare them to assume higher educational positions and more responsibilities.

Camilo Osias, the first Filipino school superintendent, demonstrated the capacity of Filipino schoolmen to assume such posts. The latter years of the 1920s witnessed the start of turnover of key administrative and supervisory leadership positions in the Department to Filipino school administrators and supervisors, both in the General Office in Manila and in the provinces and cities. The Filipinization of the public school system was almost completed during the Commonwealth period, except for certain advisory and consultative positions where some American administrators were retained. Even shortly after independence was achieved in 1946, there were still a few American school administrators.
administrators in the service, perhaps because some Filipino schoolmen were not yet ready to assume such positions or because those who were qualified were still with the armed forces.

Today, school superintendency in the Philippines compares favorably with other professions, especially with the increased recognition of the importance of education to national development. There now is national recognition of the professional status of school administrators and teachers.

In terms of public service, the opportunities in Education are tremendous. In terms of preparation and training for one's profession, Education takes a relatively longer period than other professions because, in the Philippine context, one has to go through the ranks before one becomes ready for a superintendent's position. In other words, there are position routes to the job. In terms of pecuniary rewards, the school superintendent receives a salary commensurate to the responsibilities of his position. His salary is equal to or more than, in certain instances, what is received by other provincial or city position holders (such as provincial or city treasurer, engineer, attorney, auditor, or health officer) and others equally situated. In terms of authority, the school superintendent acquires authority with the position. In terms of influence, directly or indirectly, the school superintendent has a
wider sphere of operation than the other provincial or city officials. In terms of job satisfaction, the school administrator, particularly the superintendent, performs a variety of activities from which a great deal of satisfaction can be derived. In terms of hazards and stresses, school administration also has its share.

School superintendents are governed by a code of ethics for the profession. However, being a school superintendent requires a person to pass a required civil service examination, as a general policy, before he can be considered for appointment to the position, although there are exceptions to his requirement. School superintendents (like all teachers) do not pay the professional tax that other professionals do.

The requirements established by the Department of Education for the superintendent's position have become more strict in recent years, and educational training and preparation, performance, experience, outstanding accomplishments, physical and personality traits, and potential are the determining factors in the merit-promotion system.

The foregoing factors tend to paint a rosy picture of school administration as a career. However, in selecting school administration as a career, there are some other elements that should be considered.

**Administrative Positions Available**

School superintendents in the Philippines numbered
221 in 1971. In addition there were many lesser administrative positions which are considered position-routes or stepping-stones to the school superintendency. There were, in the same year, 3,569 elementary school principals, 1,220 district supervisors, 578 secondary school principals, 960 division supervisors, and 43 general education supervisors in the General Office.1 Of course the field, with its provincial and city school divisions, is not the only place where administrative position openings exist. Administrative position opportunities are available in the General Office and in other agencies that have something to do with the overall program of education.

In the position hierarchy (pyramid) of the Department of Education, there is just enough room for a handful of school superintendents' positions. To reach the apex of the educational leadership pyramid and be in the "handful" requires many years of arduous work. Reeder said, "School administration is not a career of a weakling. It is one of the most difficult careers."2

One of the unfortunate realities, perhaps not only in the Philippines but also in other countries, is that not every well-qualified schoolman who aspires to become a school superintendent is selected for appointment; nor


does everyone who is appointed to such a position become a credit and an asset to the system.

It is incumbent upon the selected "handful" of administrators to demonstrate their commitments to the crucial tasks involved in providing the needed leadership so that the school system can contribute its share to national development.

**Opportunities for Public Service**

School administrators, particularly school superintendents, have tremendous opportunities for public service. These opportunities are many and varied. The extent of influence that a school superintendent has in a community is generally recognized. If the local school system is to assume the proper role of leadership within the community of which it is a part, it is necessary for the school head to participate in some of the various organizations that make up the community. His leadership can influence the attitudes and the intellectual, moral, civic, social, and economic statuses of the people in the community. His visibility is extremely high.

As a young teacher, the present writer heard stories of how some early American and Filipino school superintendents left some imprints of their services and thus are remembered. One retired teacher recalled with nostalgia that it was the man who was school superintendent during the teacher's career who distributed seeds of the star
apple tree which now abounds in that province.

The present crop of school superintendents serve in a social milieu quite different from their predecessors. The contemporary superintendent stands ready to be called upon by the government to serve in various ways—as deputy of the Commission on Elections (a recognition of the regard placed by the nation on the integrity of school people in manning a national event of high importance); as representative of the Department of Education in the giving of Civil Service examinations; as commissioner of the scouting movement in the province or city; as an active supporter of and contributor to the Red Cross, athletic, recreational, cultural and other programs; as an adviser to Parent-Teacher Associations, various alumni associations, teacher groups, and other associations that have to do with education; as an active fund raiser for and contributor to national provincial or city campaigns; as patron of the arts; as consultant, resource person, and speaker on subjects concerning which he possesses expert knowledge. He also may actively support and participate in the religious activities of his community and help to campaign, through the school curriculum and by his own efforts, for the payment of taxes.

In joining one or two local clubs or associations, aside from his memberships in some national professional associations, the school superintendent may interact with
professionals from other fields and continually tell the "school story" to them.

**Salary and Tenure**

The salaries of school administrators are usually higher than the salaries of classroom teachers in most countries, and this is true in the Philippines.

A single salary scale for all positions from classroom teacher to education supervisor, in both the field and the General Office, is provided by Republic Act. No. 5186, known as the Public School Teachers Salary Standardization Act of 1967. The salaries of school superintendents are covered by a Special Salary Act. The national government pays the salaries of position holders covered by both Acts, with two exceptions: teachers of secondary schools are paid by provincial and city governments, and school superintendents who are assigned in cities created by special legislation are paid by those cities. The salaries of school superintendents are based on the income classification of provinces or cities. Thus, at the present writing (1973), a school superintendent receives a salary of ₱1,250 a month if assigned in a first class province or city; ₱1,150 if in a second class province or city; ₱1,000 if in a third class province or city, and so forth. Allowances for official travel are provided by the government which pays the salary of the school superintendent. In certain cases some nationally-paid school superintendents
may be given across-the-board financial assistance in the form of gasoline allowance and representation (entertainment) allowance by the richer provinces or cities. No salary increments are provided by this Special Salary Act. The only way a school superintendent assigned to a lower-income class province or city can obtain an increase is through reassignment to a higher-income class school division. For those assigned in first-class provinces or cities, there is no way, except that when the incumbent retires, his salary is increased to a certain point in accordance with the Retirement Act, and is then the basis for the computation of his retirement pay— from a formula.

There is a move to adopt, through new legislation or through amendments to the present Special Salary Act, a salary scale that would apply to all school superintendents, regardless of the income classification of provinces or cities, which should incorporate a provision for regular salary increments.

The salaries of school superintendents compare favorably with those for administrators in the other branches of the national, provincial or city governments. However, when compared with the salaries of administrators in private business and industry, and in government-owned and controlled corporations, the comparison is odious.

The salaries of school administrators are assured for twelve months of the year. Those persons who qualify for
accrued-leave are entitled to 15 days of sick leave and 15 days of vacation leave, both with pay, for each year of service. Those who are on teacher-leave basis are entitled to pay during the Christmas vacation of 15 days and the two months of summer vacation. School administrators, like all public school teachers, have other perquisites such as life and retirement insurance, medical or hospital benefits, maternity benefits for married women, and compensation for injuries incurred in line of duty or diseases and sicknesses acquired as a consequence of employment.

Moreover, some school superintendents may be able to supplement their incomes by teaching and lecturing part-time in colleges and universities which are easily accessible to their office locations or by writing books and articles, provided they have the time, the special ability or expertise, and the inclination.

Salaries and other allowances are tangible pecuniary benefits which are, according to Campbell, et al., the extrinsic rewards of school administrators.

The stability of employment and the security of tenure of school administrators are assured by existing laws. By the very nature of their appointments, administrators have become permanent in status and may not be dismissed or separated from service except for cause in accordance with Civil Service rules and regulations. In theory,
stable tenure provides continuity and better service, although, unfortunately tenure assures continuity to some incompetents. The "Magna Carta for Public School Teachers" makes provisions for the rights and responsibilities of teachers and administrators, and for safeguards in disciplinary and administrative matters. The Filipino teacher is also a person in authority.

In the United States, there have been instances in which efficient school superintendents have been dismissed by school boards before the expiration of their contracts for differences between the board and the superintendent as to policy, or in procedural and operational matters. At least one example pertained to the superintendent's support of racial desegregation efforts.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is viewed in terms of the gratification and joy derived from performing a variety of administrative tasks and from having chosen school administration as a career. Gross and Napier, in their study of men school principals and their jobs, listed five work activities, among many, of the principals, from which they reported deriving much gratification or intrinsic reward:

1. Working with exceptionally bright teachers.
2. Supervising the instructional program.
3. Working with guidance personnel.
4. Talking with parents about a problem concerning their child.
5. Talking with a group of parents about a school problem.¹

Although nothing in this study mentioned the intrinsic rewards of superintendency, the present writer believes that more than the foregoing list of activities may contribute to the job satisfaction of school superintendents. This would be a fascinating topic for research.

Career Hazards and Stresses

Any career or profession has its own hazards and stresses, and that of school administration, particularly of the school superintendency, is no exception. For one thing, the job of the school superintendent has to do with working and dealing with people from different persuasions, backgrounds, orientations, and perceptions. This situation brings about certain hazards and stresses for the superintendent's career. Also, the demands of the service and the constraints society sets for the administrator in the performance of his job bring about the hazards and stresses for the career. Risk taking is believed to be one of the functions of leadership. Risk for the leader seems to be a by-product inherent in social interaction. The by-products

in the form of new theories or ideas, improved processes, and even dissent always include risk. Such factors inevitably affect the emotional and physical stability of the administrator and thus his leadership behavior.

Social scientists generally agree that a major source of stresses in the career is role conflict. Corwin\(^1\) suggested four types of inconsistencies or role conflicts: (1) when a person holds two or more relevant positions, as when a school board member is a local contractor and a conflict of interest arises through the taking of bids for building contracts by the school board; (or when, in the Philippine context, an administrator is both the school superintendent and chairman of the local school board), (2) when two or more roles of a single office may be inconsistent, as when the school superintendent is both executive officer of the school board and a representative of teachers; (3) when rights and obligations which comprises a single role may be inconsistent with one another, as when the school superintendent may be expected to give first consideration to the time-consuming job of curriculum development, while at the same time he must devote a great deal of his time and energy to the budget, and (4) when, within a single normative relationship between or among parties, the rights of one position may be without

corresponding obligations on those in other positions, as when the school superintendent expects the school board to employ only personnel who are recommended by the former but the latter is frequently under no obligation (legal or otherwise) to follow such policy.

Campbell, et al., again stated that role conflict is not the only factor which is presumed to be a contributor to occupational stress among school executives, and suggested four conditions which seemingly lead to stress: (1) decisions in the face of uncertainty, (2) decisions in the midst of crisis, (3) obligations to make decisions that affect the fate of others, and (4) occasional periods of role overload.¹ Horton and Hunt² believed that for role adjustment to be easy, adequate role preparation is necessary, especially in terms of attitudes and values.

The Filipino school superintendent generally has dealt with pressures which cause stress quite admirably, even though there have been cases such as a school superintendent's office being padlocked or a school superintendent being personally assaulted by certain high government officials. These incidents, though isolated, may be indications of stresses caused by role conflicts.

Summary

This chapter has attempted to answer some of the questions posed earlier regarding the meaning of the factors that give importance to school administration and to present some of the issues related to choosing administration as a career or profession. This chapter indicates that school administration as a career offers, perhaps, not only a wider variety of opportunities and possibilities for public service, but also for professional growth and personal satisfaction, than do at least some other professions. The intrinsic rewards and the occupational stresses and strains which are innate in the roles of administrators give a view of the affective domain of administration. The administrator is very much a human.
CHAPTER XII

THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

The preceding chapter presented some considerations related to choosing school administration as a career. Part Two of this dissertation indicated that school administration has been the object of much study and research, and the findings of these studies have contributed much to what this chapter will discuss—the preparation and training of educational leaders.

No empirical evidence can be presented to show the profile of the preparation and training of the typical Filipino school superintendent, but perhaps it may be sufficient for present needs to describe an example as perceived by the present writer.

The typical Filipino school superintendent is a product of the public school system, at least up to the undergraduate level. After finishing a course in elementary teaching (2-year post secondary) or a Bachelor's degree in Education, he started as a classroom teacher in the elementary schools or in the secondary schools. He acquired permanency in status, or tenure, after passing the required civil service examination. As a classroom teacher, he sought various opportunities for leadership in teacher organizations and in the community, and
demonstrated his capacity for work and leadership qualities in many ways. These activities provided him with insights and valuable experiences which would be useful later. A believer in professional growth, he pursued higher degrees in Education. In the meantime, he prepared for the next higher civil service examination which, eventually, he successfully passed.

After some five to ten years as classroom teacher, he was promoted to elementary school principal, and then district supervisor and later to division supervisor. If his route was the secondary schools, he was promoted from classroom teacher to department head and, later, to secondary school principal. Either of the two routes usually took some 20 to 30 years.

The typical superintendent found that the demands on persons in lower administrative positions are many. The administrator studied his community in order to understand and recognize the various forces that impinge upon the school system and his work. He was always alert to opportunities for growth and took advantage of them as a valuable part of his preparation and training.

A married man, whose wife worked also to help in the rearing and maintenance of 4 to 6 children, he carefully budgeted scarce financial resources and time in order to achieve professional and personal goals.

Meanwhile, he prepared for the school superintendent's
examination, passed it and became one of the qualified few. Perhaps the number allowed to pass this examination was limited in order to balance the need for superintendent eligibles in a given period of time.

After two to four years in an assignment as assistant school superintendent or as a general education supervisor in the General Office, he was appointed finally as school superintendent in one of the lower-income class provincial or city school divisions. He worked for assignments in higher-income class school divisions in order to get salary increments. He succeeded by dint of excellent performance in maintaining the school division and increasing his visibility in various ways, and the seniority factor contributed to his promotion.

The foregoing summary of how one arrives at being a school superintendent recognizes two major components of preparation and training for the position—the pre-service education and the actual on-the-job training. In assessing the first component, a closer scrutiny would reveal that the undergraduate curriculum for Education was a heavy one. It required more units of credit in the languages and in methodology and theories of teaching than in Science, Mathematics, Curriculum Development, and the Behavioral and Social Sciences. About the only courses that provided a general view of school administration and supervision were the courses Philippine Educational System and Administration
and supervision of Philippine Schools. These two courses presented the subjects in general terms.

In the Philippine experience, generally, the courses or subjects included in a certain curriculum either are developed by experts in the Department of Education or in colleges and universities, or they are imposed by law. Students, teachers, administrators and supervisors have practically no input in the selection and development of courses offered. It has been said that learning is facilitated and more meaningful if students participate responsibly in choosing directions, making contributions and living with the consequences of their choice. This holds true with people who are concerned and involved in course selection and development.

For graduate courses, it appears that the completion of the required number of units has been given more importance than the selection of proper subjects to prepare students for a specialty, such as school administration.

The Department of Education realized the inadequacies noted above and recommended that provisions be made for an improved curriculum in Education for the preparation of teachers and school administrators at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The Bureau of Public Schools, acting upon this reality, designed graduate courses in "School Administration and Supervision" and "Educational Leadership" which are offered at the Summer Baguio Vacation
normal school in teachers camp, baguio city. these are attended by selected school principals and supervisors from all school divisions, at the expense of the bureau.

it cannot be claimed that the education curricula for school administrators and supervisors provided by the public and private colleges of education in the philippines adequately meet the needs and demands of the professionals. the courses provided thus far are indications of concerned attempts to meet these needs and demands, but there is definitely much to be desired.

the growing interest and concern shown by the school superintendents individually and collectively, through their national association, for getting themselves better prepared and trained has helped to bring the preparation and training of potential school administrators into focus. the superintendents' desire to understand the changing social setting--particularly the structure of the education sector--often referred to as the economics, the sociology, and the politics of education, has strengthened their interest and concern.

in regard to the second component of administrative preparation--on-the-job training--the earlier description of a typical superintendent clearly indicates position routes to the school superintendency. it is in some of the lower-echelon administrative positions that the schoolman begins to develop a wider perspective of the school as a
social system. Undoubtedly, the experiences in these positions should lead to increased qualification and skill as a higher school administrator. From elementary school principalship or secondary school department headship, one begins to gain a wider-than-the-classroom perspective of the system. This perspective extends to ever wider horizons as one becomes a district supervisor, a secondary school principal or a division supervisor. The decisions made in these positions sometimes are incompatible with similar decisions made in lower-echelon administrative positions, perhaps understandably, because the higher administrator is at a vantage point to "see the forest" rather than a few trees. School administrators at levels lower than school superintendent often are the so-called "hatchet men" who do the "dirty jobs." As one goes up the ladder to the school superintendency, he has a tendency to play the game according to the viewpoint previously held. It is not surprising, therefore, to hear remarks from some school superintendents that the basis which they use for performing administrative tasks came from adoption of some desirable administrative behaviors of their former school superintendents, and that this procedure is workable. This is a narrow view which leans to expediency and maintenance of the status quo, and it suggests lack of depth in looking at the process in performing administrative tasks from the situational point of view and in considering conceptual skills that
are necessary for such tasks.

The work experience and occupational history of the individual as he goes up the position route are believed by many to be directly relevant to the nature and functions of the higher position. However, on-the-job training may be insufficient to prepare one for educational leadership. On-the-job training attempts to meet the existing needs of demands upon school administrators without considering alternative, and perhaps better, means of doing this.

The program for the preparation and training of the present crop of Filipino school superintendents has its strengths and its weaknesses. Its greatest strength lies in the assumption that it is related to the values of a society in search of identity. It is a program in its infant stage, characterized by exploratory efforts to develop an indigenous frame of reference upon which to anchor a stronger program. On the other hand, some of its weaknesses lie in the lack of empirical studies as bases for improvement and in over-dependence upon processes thought to be workable and safe simply because they have been tried and tested by others.

The strengths and weaknesses of preparation programs for current practitioners have been useful in guiding the present effort of those concerned with developing a more suitable and adequate program for the preparation and training of school administrators. The absence in the Philippine
program of certain components that exist in similar programs in some more-fully developed countries is in itself a challenge.

Of what, then, should the preparation and training of school administrators, in general, be composed? How should this program be approached?

Pre-Service Preparation and Training

The formal professional preparation and training of the school administrator starts with his recruitment and admission into a study program. This stage is a basic one.

Admission Requirements

The recruitment of individuals to pursue courses in school administration must follow certain fundamental requirements for entrance or admission. Normally, Philippine state colleges and universities establish certain requirements for admission as a matter of policy. Some private institutions still practice selective retention rather than the selective admission favored by the public institutions.

Some of the usual requirements for admission to public institutions are:

1. successful teaching experience
2. an appropriate civil service eligibility
3. a Bachelor's degree, preferably in Education
4. an acceptable undergraduate scholastic record
5. physical fitness
6. favorable impression in an interview
7. letters of recommendation or references from the applicant's employing organization
8. financial capacity.

Since these requirements refer to the admission of potential future school administrators, they should be considered important. Selective admission obviates problems that usually result from indiscriminate admission practices.

A somewhat different view is that the procedures usually employed by colleges and universities concern admission without selection.¹

An example of admission requirements has been set by the School Executives Training Institute (SETI), discussed in Chapter IV, which are:

1. Must show above-average potential for development in the field of educational leadership.
2. Must not be over 50 years old at the time of selection.
3. Must be a holder of a Master of Arts degree, preferably in the field of Education.
4. Must be of good moral character and be physically fit, as shown by a medical examination on which a certificate is required.
5. Must be an active member of the Philippine Public School Teachers Association (PPSTA) for the last five years.


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6. Must be willing to serve his respective Bureau for at least two years after his training. A commitment to this effect has to be embodied in an appropriate contract between the fellow and his employer.¹

Candidates for the SETI are recommended first by their respective local teacher-association presidents and school superintendents. Those admitted on fellowships have certain guidelines to follow, and one provision which is in essence a requirement, is to maintain a satisfactory academic performance.

In many colleges and universities in the United States, satisfactory performance on the Graduate Record Examination, Miller Analogies Test or other examination is a requirement for admission, although an increasing number of institutions have dropped this requirement.

Course Requirements

A curriculum developed cooperatively in 1971 by the University of the Philippines and the Philippine Normal College was designed to lead to a Master's degree with specialization in Educational Administration.² It called for the following courses and credits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Required Courses</th>
<th>Credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional Orientation Courses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹Agreement between the Department of Education and the Philippine Public School Teachers Association on the establishment of the School Executives Training Institute, June 1, 1971.

²Ibid., Annex C.
Philosophy of Education: 2
Research and Scientific Writing: 2
Advanced Educational Statistics: 2

Educational Administration Specialization

Research Seminar in Educational Administration: 2
Management Accounting and Control I: 2
Management Planning, Budgeting and Control II: 2
Organizational Behavior I: 2
Organizational Behavior II: 2
Educational Environment: 2
Seminar on Problems in Educational Administration: 2
Seminar on New Directions in Teaching the Languages, Sciences, and Social Sciences: 2 (22)

Elective Courses (any two courses)

Management Information Systems, Budgeting and Long-Range Planning: 2
Academic Planning and Curriculum Development: 2
National/Regional Educational Planning: 2
Educational Policy Formation: 2 (4)

Other Elective Courses

Various courses currently available: 6 (6)

Thesis Requirement: 4 (4)

Total Minimum Credits Required: 36

A curriculum for a Doctoral degree program in Educational Leadership was developed cooperatively in 1971 by the University of the Philippines and the Philippine Normal College, in line with the staff development program of the Department of Education.

Since the SETI program is not intended as a degree program, completion of the training is given credit in the
merit-promotion plan of the Department of Education for purposes of promotion to higher positions. However, courses taken at either the Philippine Normal College or the University of the Philippines are credited to a degree program. Some of the practicum courses offered in the SETI program under the direction of the Department of Education are:


Of course, several colleges and universities in the United States have, as a result of the CPEA studies and recommendations, revised their career programs for preparing school administrators and, subsequently, have contributed to the advancement of the profession of school administration.

One United States Program

One example of a realistic career program for school administrators in the United States is the Educational Leadership Career Program developed by the College of Education at the Western Michigan University\(^1\) (WMU) in Kalamazoo.

The Department of Educational Leadership of the WMU's

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\(^1\)The extended description of the Educational Leadership Career Programs of the Western Michigan University is adapted from the Master's, Specialist's and Doctor's degree Handbooks of the Department of Educational Leadership, College of Education, WMU, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1973.

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College of Education was established with three purposes:

1. To provide learning opportunities for students who aspire to become educational leaders.

2. To contribute new knowledge through research and other scholarly endeavors.

3. To provide service to educational leaders as they go about their daily tasks in the many agencies currently engaged in providing educational opportunities to human beings of all ages.

This department offers a career program at three degree levels—Master of arts (M.A.), Specialist in Education (Ed.S.), and Doctor of Education (Ed.D.), with three curricula within each degree program.

**Master of Arts.** This program is intended to prepare personnel for positions as educational leaders; positions that are largely non-instructional in nature. Since students who earn this degree may pursue a higher degree later, they should consider the requirements of the advanced degree in making the selection.

The curricula available in this degree program include:

**Line Administration:** intended to prepare a person for a position as a principal of a primary, elementary, middle, junior high, or senior high school, or a manager or director of a proprietary school.

**Staff Administration:** intended to prepare a person for a position as a coordinator, director, or supervisor of Business Affairs, Finance, Personnel, Curriculum, a special program such as Community School or Special Education, or a special service such as purchasing in public or private schools.

**Program Leadership:** intended to prepare a person for a position as a Director of Training and/or
Management Development in higher education, the armed forces, business, government, industry, a professional association, or a trade union; or as a director or coordinator of educational programs in a social welfare agency.

Each student admitted into this program is assigned an adviser who is selected in terms of the student's professional interest, and will work with him in outlining an individualized and multidisciplinary program of studies to be pursued, to be constituted from department and other offerings in the following focal areas with the semester hours of credit as indicated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administration and Supervision</td>
<td>8 - 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Relations</td>
<td>8 - 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept Formation</td>
<td>6 - 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Study</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum total hours</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At least 9 semester hours of the minimum of 30 semester hours must be outside of the College of Education.

A grade point average of 3.0 is required for graduation after completion of other requirements.

Specialist in Education. This program is intended to prepare personnel for positions as educational leaders; positions that are largely non-instructional in nature. The degree is intended to be terminal, and a student choosing it should be fairly definite as to his professional goals and aspirations. This program is conceived as a well articulated fifth and sixth-year program covering a minimum of two years and 60 hours of graduate work beyond the
Bachelor's degree. The Department of Educational Leadership anticipates that most candidates for this degree will already have earned the Master's degree. However, a student may be admitted to the program after completion of 20 hours of graduate work. Course work taken toward the Master's degree may be credited toward the minimum of 60 required hours if it supports the objectives of the Specialist program. Taking the Graduate Record Examination is a requisite.

The curricula available in this degree program include:

**Line Administration**: intended to prepare a person for a position as: a superintendent or assistant superintendent of a school district; a principal of a primary, elementary, middle, junior high, or senior high school; a manager or director of a proprietary school; or as a central administrator in an institution of higher education or other post-high school educational agency.

**Staff Administration**: intended to prepare a person for a position as: a coordinator, director, or supervisor of Business Affairs, Finance, Personnel, Curriculum, a special program such as Special Education, or a special service such as purchasing in public or private schools or in higher education.

**Program Leadership**: intended to prepare a person for a position as: a Director of Training and/or Management Development in the armed forces, business, government, industry, a professional association, or a trade union; or a director or coordinator of educational programs in a social welfare agency.

The department selects an adviser who may serve as chairman of the student's Project Advisory Committee when the student has been accepted after a screening interview and receipt of acceptable Graduate Record Examination.

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scores. In addition, two more committee members are needed—one with special competence in the area of the project, and another from a non-education department.

The student and his chief adviser will work together in outlining an individual and multidisciplinary program of studies to be pursued, constituted from departmental and other offerings in the following focal areas with the semester hours of credit as indicated.

- Administration and Supervision: 11
- Human Relations: 12
- Concept Formation: 12
- Research: 3
- Independent Study/Specialist Project: 6
- Electives: 16

Minimum total hours: 60

At least 20 semester hours of the minimum of 60 semester hours must be outside the College of Education.

A student completing the Specialist degree is required to finish a Specialist Project which may be either a field experience or an independent study appropriate to the student's background and work direction. This may range along a wide continuum from research to internship and is to culminate in a major project paper. The student must have a grade point average of 3.25 and also must satisfy a residency requirement for graduation.

Doctor of Education. This program is intended to prepare educators of personal and professional stature who are knowledgeable and competent to exercise leadership in education. A variety of educational experiences is arranged
to educate and prepare qualified students in the technical, conceptual, and human skills required of educational leaders and administrators regardless of their particular assignments. In this program, educational leadership is conceived as a cognitive professional activity which demands an appropriate knowledge of the leadership process in educational agencies of society, and a high degree of competence in human relations.

The doctoral program is an integrated program of courses, seminars, internships, professional field experiences, independent studies, and dissertation production designed to meet the developing needs and goals of each student.

Admission to the program requires successful performance on the Graduate Record Examination and approval by an interview screening committee representing both the Graduate College and the Department of Educational Leadership. A student admitted to the program works with an adviser and two committee members, one of whom should be from a non-education department.

As in the other two graduate degree programs, the student and his adviser outline an individualized and multidisciplinary program of studies constituted from departmental and other offerings in the following focal areas with the number of hours of credit as shown.
Administration and Supervision .................................................. 14
Human Relations ............................................................................. 15
Concept Formation ........................................................................... 20
Research ............................................................................................ 27
Independent Study/Internship ......................................................... 9
Electives ............................................................................................... 5

Minimum total hours ......................................................................... 90

At least 20 semester hours of the minimum of 90 semester hours must be outside the College of Education.

The 27 semester hours of Research are composed of 12 hours of courses and 15 hours for the dissertation. The 9 semester hours of Independent Study/Internship are composed of a 6-hour major internship and a 3-hours cognate internship.

The curricula available in this degree program include:

**Line Administration**: intended to prepare a person for a position as: a superintendent or assistant superintendent of a school district; a principal of a primary, elementary, middle, junior high, or senior high school; or as a central administrator in a post-high school educational agency.

**Staff Administration**: intended to prepare a person for a position as: a coordinator, director, or supervisor of Business Affairs, Finance, Personnel, special services (such as Research) in public or private schools, colleges, or universities.

**Program Leadership**: intended to prepare a person for a position as: a Director of Training and/or Management Development in the armed forces, business, government, industry, a professional association, or a trade union; or a director or coordinator of educational programs in a social welfare agency.

A student may elect a reading course when a topic of interest is not offered as a course or in the depth
desired. This option is true also of the other two degree programs.

Some of the requirements in this degree program are:

1. a comprehensive examination composed of both written and a behavioral tests

2. a dissertation seminar—a 3-semester hour course culminating a 9-semester hour sequences within the Research area

3. a one-year residence requirement

4. completion of a major and a cognate internship or professional field experience

5. writing a dissertation and oral defense of it.

Basic to these requirements is the approval or confirmation of the student's applicancy for the doctoral degree after 20 semester hours of graduate work beyond those accumulated at the time of admission or after completing two full semesters on campus, whichever comes first. The criteria for being awarded status as an applicant are:

1. an overall grade point average of 3.25 in all graduate work completed

2. commitment to a specific degree program

3. appointment of a doctoral committee

4. a decision by the department that the student should be permitted (or not) to continue his study toward a doctoral degree.

The dissertation oral defense is the culminating stage of the degree program and is intended to assess the doctoral candidate's "psychological ownership" of the area
covered by the dissertation.

Approval for graduation is dependent upon:

1. Completion of all courses, seminars, and other requirements with an overall grade point average of 3.25, excluding the internships and the dissertation which are marked "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory".

2. Satisfactory performance at all evaluative levels.

3. Approval of the dissertation by the appropriate groups.

4. Deposition and reproduction of the dissertation as required by the Graduate College.

Preparation Guidelines

In trying to unify the findings of research in educational administration, the National Society for the Study of Education, in its 63rd Yearbook, suggested that the curriculum for preparing administrators should help develop those behaviors which are appropriate in dealing with such processes as decision making, communicating, morale-building and initiating change. This yearbook added that the curriculum should be bolstered by new advances in the depth and breadth of content such as from the Social Sciences--economic trends, political trends, and sociological trends. Some of the instructional methodologies suggested for use are the case method, simulation, field study and internships.1

The use of the case method can encourage and help guide a developing profession such as school administration focus on the relevant content and process, especially through case materials which contribute to the development of conceptual skills. The use of simulations is one way of lessening the gap between facts and theories, or between theories and practices. Field studies and internships are professional experiences intended to relate concepts to action. The internship exposes the student intern to the realities of the job in a non-threatening atmosphere. These experiences develop the technical and human skills and are appropriate for helping potential administrators in making the transition from academic preparation to practice.

Although these methodologies may not be entirely adequate, the concepts acquired through these forms of learning should add to the leadership potential of candidates for positions in school administration and supply the needed perspective for the effective and efficient use of research findings in administration.

Whatever the course offerings, the activities and specifics of a program for the preparation and training of school administrators, the career program should take into account the job of the administrator as it exists and, perhaps, as it will exist; an awareness of the importance and relevancy of the social and behavioral sciences and

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of existing social values. These considerations should provide an adequate balance in the development and acquisition of the conceptual, human, and technical skills which are greatly needed in the tasks of educational leadership.

The preparation and training continuum of the school administrator does not end after the terminal degree has been acquired. While the pre-service and entry preparation of the school administrator develops job-readiness and may have a predictive value regarding the success of task performance and, hence, of the school system, his training for leadership is never finished.

In-Service and Continuing Education

The continuing education of the school administrator should be designed to refine the skills, abilities, and concepts previously acquired and learned as he comes to grips with the realities of the situation and the job. Continuing education enlarges the vision of the school administrator and makes him more effective and flexible in a state of continuous social development and change.

The 38th Yearbook of the AASA stated in effect that even after going through a sound program of administrator preparation and adequate procedures for the selection of administrators, it cannot be assumed that each such administrator will "live happily ever after." This yearbook
noted that many an administrator has failed in his work because he did not seek the assistance he needed to keep up to date; did not know what to seek or whom to ask, or the agencies that should have been helpful to him were unable to offer anything of real value.¹

One principle that demands in-service and continuing education for the school administrator is that "administrators cannot work long on hoarded intellectual capital."² The 1963 AASA In-Service Commission reported that "The demands now being made upon schools in the period of cultural transition and upon the school administrators who are so largely responsible for the schools make it impractical to place full dependence upon pre-service preparation programs and upon the independent initiative of the individual superintendent to keep apace with the demands of leadership placed upon him."³

Another factor that makes imperative in-service and continuing education not only for school administrators but also for staff personnel is the need for continuous development of personnel and of leadership. The experiences

¹AASA, Thirty-eighth Yearbook, op. cit., p. 192.
³Ibid., p. 31.
of business and industry give relevance to this factor when funds are set aside as an investment for the development of human resources.

The 1960 Yearbook of the AASA stated that any consideration for in-service or continuing education for school administrators should start with the part the administrator should play, and developed the following seven-point credo:

1. Subscribe to the premise that everyone must continually seek to improve himself.
2. Realize that one cannot improve himself without the assistance of others.
3. Spend time wisely.
4. Read.
5. Carry on research and use research findings.
6. Get primary assistance from the staff.
7. Get involved in professional activity.

Continuing education keeps leadership in step with development and change. In supporting the seven-point credo, Ostrander and Dethy said that implicit in all of those activities is the necessity for the administrator to be continually revising and refining his own personal value-set and his perceptions of the institutional and personal complexities that surround him; that old problems

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2Ostrander and Dethy, op. cit., p. 394.
recurr in new environments and new problems are born in old environments. The administrator who does not understand the dynamics of these situations and attempts to use old solutions for new and unforseen problems certainly cannot be described as a leader.

In perspective, the 1963 AASA In-Service Commission said, "The ultimate test of usefulness of the in-service program will be the extent to which it has brought about better schools—richer and more varied opportunities for children to learn and grow, stronger and better-prepared teachers, more flexible school-plant facilities, and improvements at every point along the way toward the achievement of the educational program that is wanted and needed in this day and age."¹

Society almost daily faces important decisions which, frequently, are critical ones. Education, particularly through its administration, can and should play an important role in determining what choices or options to take. To do so requires leaders who can generate and make constructive use of change. To put it in a sociological context, the significance of broad-based preparation and training for leadership lies in the likelihood of the leader making full and constructive use of the forces of society rather being used by society.

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Figure 7. Organization of the Department of Education and Culture (formerly Department of Education), July 1973.

Note: The Education bureaus are organized by function and not by sector as before.

Source: The Department of Education and Culture, Manila.

1 Formerly "Board of National Education."
2 There are 11 Education Regions.