

Articles

Effects of School Location on School Organizational Culture in Korea

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Introduction

Population in rural areas of Korea has been severely declining since the rapid industrialization of the 1970s. Rural schools are getting smaller and the number of students attending the schools has also drastically fallen. Many research findings identified that there are severe educational gaps between urban and rural schools (Im 2007:565; Park 2008:174; OECD 2007:266). For instance, the results of PISA 2006 (Programme for International Student Assessment) showed that in all three subjects—reading, mathematics, and science—scores of rural students were much lower than those of urban students. Furthermore, students' quality of school life is closely associated with the school location factor (Park 2007:157-158) as that of students at rural schools was lower than those at urban schools. Therefore, it can be suggested that school location is an important factor that influences students' school life.

School organizational culture has become an important research area in the field of educational administration, since the concept of organizational culture was first introduced by Pettigrew in 1979 (Alvesson 2002:3; Reichers and Schneider 1990:5-6). Many research findings suggest that the cultures of schools have effects both on the development and transmission of students' values and beliefs (Deal and Peterson, 1999:26-28; Flynn 1993:40-43; Mitchell and Willower 1992:6-7; Stolp and Smith 1995:14-15), and on students' academic achievement (Mok and Flynn 1997:186; Hoy and Hannum 1997:307; Mitchell and Willower 1992:6).

Reducing the urban-rural gap in education is, nowadays, one of the pressing social issues in Korea. Several political initiatives at the national level have been developed and implemented to revitalize rural education in Korea. There can be many strategies that reduce the educational gap between urban and rural schools. One of the approaches is to strengthen the organizational culture of rural schools. This approach is taken because many research findings suggest that school organizational culture can have influence both on students' academic achievement and on the transformation of students'

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value and beliefs.

In the area of educational administration, school organizations are viewed as open systems that emphasize the effects of their various external environments (Hoy and Miskel 2006:29-30). Therefore, it can be argued that various factors in the external environment to which the school belongs, as well as factors within the school, contribute to change in school organizational culture (Hallinger and Leithwood 1996:103; Hoy and Miskel 2006:29; Park 2004b: 44; Park 2006:97). One of the most powerful external factors affecting the cultures of all Korean schools is the teaching personnel administration system. The system is planned by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) and administered by sixteen Provincial Offices of Education. Under the system, teaching staff, including school principals, are allocated to a school. A personnel administration policy applied to teaching staff in Korea aims to make schools equal, or at least similar, to other schools in terms of teachers' quality and school leadership. That is, the policy incorporates three key elements of school management: principals' leadership, teachers' professionalism, and the equal distribution of resources, including budgetary resources. It is, in the Korean context, hypothesized that school organizational culture can be equal or at least similar among schools. If any differences are found, they may be due to other factors such as school locations and/or characteristics of school members.

The culture of the local community in which schools are located can also be considered to have an effect on shaping school culture because schools constantly interact with the local community. Many research findings conducted both in Western countries and in Korea suggest that school culture located in one region can be quite different from school culture in another area. For instance, a research conducted by Park (2007:159) reported that there were significant differences in school culture between urban and rural schools. Therefore, the cultural characteristics of each school can be created and/or modified by the factor. In addition, individual teacher's background including age, teaching experience and the initial teacher education program can also have influence on the cultural characteristics of a school, as they are internal factors within the school (Park 2004b: 46).

This study examines the effect of school location on the shaping of school organizational culture. The context for the study is secondary schools

in Korea under the compulsory rotation system applied to teaching staff, with school organizational culture being assessed by the perceptions of teachers. Comparisons among perceptions of teachers working in cities, large rural centers and small rural centers were attempted to address the effects of school location on school organizational culture. In order to explore the research question, three sub-research questions are investigated in this study:

- 1) Are there any proportional differences in the characteristics of teachers among schools grouped by school location in Korea?
- 2) Are there any differences in teachers' perceptions of their school's organizational culture among schools grouped by school location?
- 3) To what extent is the school organizational culture influenced by the school location factor after statistically controlling for the effects of teachers' characteristics?

Literature Review

The Educational Equalization Policy in Korea: The Context of the Study

An important Korean educational policy applied to general high schools (Grades 7-12) is the equalization policy for schools, which has been sustained since 1969. The policy is implemented to make schools equal, or at least similar to, other schools in terms of academic achievement whether they are public or private schools. In order to equalize schools, the policy incorporates five key elements of school education: the equalization of schools' academic achievement, principals' leadership, teachers' professionalism, development of a centralized curriculum, and the equal distribution of all resources including budgetary resources (Park 2004a: 21-23).

The equalization of academic achievement among schools has been achieved by allocating students randomly by a computerized system to a school within a school district in which students live, regardless of whether the school is public or private. Students in rural areas are assigned to the school nearest their residence. Basically, no criterion is applied to students who seek a place in a high school, except for the residential consideration.

The equalization of school principals' leadership among public schools is achieved by the restriction of a principal's tenure at a school. The principal of a public school works for the school for a predetermined period of time, usually four years per school. After working four or five years, he or she is transferred by the Office of Education to another school or nominated by another school council. This policy applies only to the principals of public schools. In the private sector, the board of each school has autonomy with respect to the appointment of the principal and the decision concerning his or her tenure.

Equality in teachers' professionalism is also achieved by requiring teachers to transfer to another school every four or five years. In addition, teachers in some provinces which have rural and/or isolated areas are transferred to rural schools after eight or ten years of working in city schools. Teachers are rotated from cities to rural areas but only within a given administrative region and not from metropolitan areas to rural areas. They are required to work in that rural school for three or four years. After completing this compulsory period, they can be transferred to city schools. The intention of the policy of rotating teachers is to make teachers' quality equal, or at least similar, among schools and between regions. The policy of circulating teachers among schools applies only to teachers employed in the public schools.

Further, the equalization policy has been realized by adopting a centralized curriculum development system that means the Ministry of Education has the authority to establish standards and content of nationwide curriculum for each grade from grades one to twelve. This standardized educational content in respect of each subject for each grade functions as the primary source for the development of educational materials including student textbooks, teacher manuals and supplementary books. Developing and selecting each school's curriculum is also limited to complying with the criteria or directions suggested both by the MEST and local offices of education.

Finally, the financial resources for schools are also distributed to schools based on the number of students enrolled. The national and local governments provide financial subsidies to private schools as well as to public schools. Individual private schools do not have the right to set tuition fees under the educational equalization policy. Instead, high school students' tuition fees are controlled by the local educational agencies. All high school

students pay the same fee in each area regardless of whether they attend a private or public school.

It can be argued that, compared with those in other countries including the United States, there are no genuinely independent high schools within Korea due to the educational equalization policy. Korean private high schools function as if quasi-public schools. Although some opponents, including private school founders, criticize the policy in the light of the need for diversity of school education and students' right to choose their schools, the policy has been maintained as a fundamental policy of Korean education.

The Concept of School Organizational Culture

For several decades, researchers in a number of different areas such as anthropology, archaeology, and sociology, have eagerly attempted to conjure up the meaning of culture or organizational culture. More than one hundred different definitions of culture, according to Ott (1989), had been found by Kroeber and Kluckhohn through their literature review in 1952 and debates relating to the concept are still raging.

Culture, in an anthropological sense, refers to the traditional ways of life of a particular group (Ember and Ember 1993:5-6). It is knowledge guarded for posterity, to be handed down to the next generation in oral or written form. It also implicitly engenders patterns of behavior for doing specific tasks in specific ways. Culture, then, is one facet of human life which is learned by people as a result of belonging to some particular group and implies an expectation of continuity within a community. Geertz (1973:89) defined culture as "a historically transmitted pattern of meaning embodied in symbols." His definition also implies some elements of culture; culture is "historical"; and it is "transmitted" from one generation to next generation continuously, so that one generation has a responsibility to "transmit" its culture; there is a "pattern" that has been made over several generations, providing continuity.

One sociological meaning of culture is the way of life or a set of ideas that is shared within a social organization. It consists of the values and norms the members commonly ascribe to corroborate a given culture (Giddens 1993:5-7). Culture, in this sense, refers to the actual guidance or ways for

defining common codes and rules for organizational members' behaviors. It also provides a sense of belonging to the members of an organization. Schein (1997:10) also identifies three critical elements from a wide variety of definitions of culture. They are "sharing," "structural stability," and "patterning or integration." According to him, culture is shared by learning and interaction between group members. Sharing implies that certain things such as values, norms, traditions, and various skills are commonly shared among group members. Such a notion that a group is sharing certain characteristics makes the group different from other groups.

It is obvious that there is no single definition of school culture, largely because of each researcher's subjective viewpoint resulted from its intangible and abstract attributes. Nevertheless, it can be accepted that the organizational culture of a school can be seen as the core beliefs and values held by members of the school community (Cummings and Worley 2005:483-484; Maxwell and Thomas 1991:77; Owens and Valesky 2007: 188). It can also be inferred from previous studies that the core beliefs and values of a school that are fundamental and important determinants of school organizational culture can be characterized and examined according to the degree that they are shared by members of the school community. School organizational culture in this study is, therefore, defined as *the core beliefs and values of a school commonly held by members of the school community, which can be examined through the perceptions of members of that community.*

Different terms including school climate and school culture have been used to describe the subtle psychosocial phenomena that schools have. Stolp and Smith (1995:18) assert that these two concepts can be broken into the historical and internalized culture versus the immediate and surface climate. That is, the term climate generally refers to the specific feelings or shared perceptions of group members about their organization in an immediate context, while the term culture is normally used to describe their shared assumptions, values, and beliefs, as well as their perceptions and feelings about the organization. Many researchers maintain that the term climate can be subsumed into the term culture (Maxwell and Thomas 1991:80; Stolp and Smith 1995:17). There has been a tendency in recent times for this term culture to be accepted by educational researchers and used to analyze the psychosocial phenomena of a school (Maxwell and Thomas 1991:80; Stolp and Smith 1995:11).

Defining School Locations

Defining rural areas is slightly different from country to country. For example, a report published in Australia defines rural areas as “all areas outside of metropolitan settlements” (Kenyon, Sercombe, Black, and Lhuede 2001:5). In Korea the rural areas are generally defined on the basis of the Korean administrative system. That is, if the population of an administrative unit is greater than 1 million, it will be designated as metropolitan, 50,000 to 999,999 residential regions are *si* (cities); less than 50,000 residential regions are defined as *gun*. In 2008, there are 7 metropolitan cities, 72 *si* (cities) and 94 *gun* (counties) in Korea. In general, the term “rural” in Korea refers to *gun* areas. In addition, *gun* consists of two administrative units. One is a large rural center called *eup* with a population more than 20,000. The other is a small rural center called *myeon* with population below 20,000.

As shown in Table 1, the population of Korea in 2005 is approximately 47 million, and about a half of the population is living in the seven metropolitan cities such as Seoul, Pusan and Daegu. The remaining half of the population is in the smaller cities and rural regions. In the 1970s and 1980s, there had been a rapid industrialization in Korea which brought dynamic change to Korea’s population distribution. In other words, along with industrialization, the population in rural areas decreased dynamically. The sudden transition of the rural population into cities has been leading to the closing down of small schools. In fact, from 1980 to 2006, more than 5,000 schools have closed or been merged with neighboring schools.

Table 1. Distributions of the Population by Locality in Korea, 2005

	Locality	Population	Ratio (%)
Gun (Rural)	Eup (Large Rural centers)	3,922,597	8.34
	Myeon (Small Rural Centers)	4,781,138	10.16
Si (Cities)		16,191,781	34.42
Metropolitan cities		22,145,918	47.08
Total		47,041,434	100

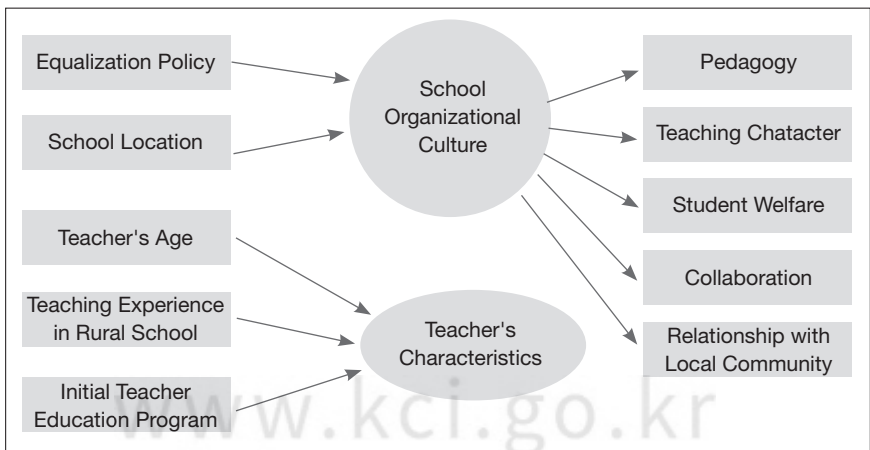
(Source: 2005 Census of Population, Korean Bureau of Statistics)

Research Design

The cultural characteristics of a school are so deeply embedded in the minds of members of the school community that they may not be recognized or distinguished without considering the context. The belief system, therefore, cannot be observed empirically, but is dependent on the interpretation of researchers based on the observation of actual behaviors (Argyris and Schön 1978:15-17; Pederson and Sorensen 1989:33). However, several researchers have attempted to examine school culture utilizing quantitative data collected from pen-and-paper questionnaires (e.g. Owens and Steinhoff 1989:7; Cavanagh and Dellar 1998:1). Owens and Steinhoff, for example, argue that a pen-and-paper questionnaire is useful when analyzing the culture of a school. Therefore, a quantitative research methodology employing pen-and-paper questionnaires can be a useful approach to examine school culture, particularly for analyzing and comparing the effectiveness of school culture variables.

The focus of the study is to examine the direct effect of the school location variable under the compulsory transfer system for teaching staff in Korea. Many research findings (e.g. Capper 1993:36) show that this variable has strong effects on the building of school culture. In order to assess the effect, school teachers' characteristics including age of teachers, teaching experience in rural schools and the initial teacher education programs that meet the requirements for obtaining a teaching license need to be employed as covariates because they

Figure 1. Research Design of the Study



are considered to be internal variables creating school organizational culture. Figure 1 depicts the research design of the current study.

Methodology

Schools located in three residential regions including cities (*si*), large rural centers (*eup*) and small rural centers (*myeon*) were sampled and invited to participate in the study. Schools in the metropolitan cities were excluded because they have their own independent educational offices and transfer of their teachers has been limited within their jurisdictional area.

The data were collected over five weeks from early March 2007 until April 2007. Around forty high schools from three provincial areas were chosen at random and 903 teachers from the schools were invited to participate in the study. Of the total sample, 347 teachers (38.5%) from city schools, 281 teachers (31.2%) and 274 teachers (30.4%) were from large rural centers and small rural centers, respectively. Table 1 represents the distribution of sample teachers by school location and teaching experience. As shown in Table 2, 39.4% of respondents had ten to twenty years of teaching experience, while approximately 23% of them had less than ten years of teaching experience. The distribution of teachers with less than ten years of teaching experience is proportionally greater in city schools (28.8%) compared to that of rural schools.

Table 2. Distribution of Teachers by Teaching Experience

School location	Teaching Experience			Total
	under 10 years	from 10-20 years	over 20 years	
City	100 (28.8%)	145 (41.8%)	102 (29.4%)	347 (100%)
Large rural center	52 (18.5%)	119 (42.3%)	110 (39.1%)	281 (100%)
Small rural center	52 (19.0%)	91 (33.2%)	131 (47.8%)	274 (100%)
Total	204 (22.6%)	355 (39.4%)	343 (38.0%)	902 (100%)

Variables Used to Measure School Organizational Culture

Five aspects of school organizational culture were identified from a review of several existing studies (Kim 2009:19-21; Cavanagh and Dellar 1998:8).

They include pedagogy, teaching character, student welfare, collaboration and relationship with local community. The questionnaire developed by the researcher comprised these scales, each of which consisted of several items. Five point Likert scales ranging from 1, not important or certainly false, to 5, extremely important or certainly true, were used. A higher score in respect of an item indicates that individual teachers have more positive attitudes towards the variables.

Pedagogy

This variable can be operationally defined as measuring each teacher's attitude toward his/her professional knowledge and commitment with respect to teaching subjects. Example of items includes "Teachers at my school have a professional attitude towards their teaching." The construct was made up of eight statements that were intended to measure individual teacher's perceptions of his/her professionalism with respect to teaching skills.

Teaching character

Students' character development is one of the most important educational goals in the Korean educational system. This is similar to how Western countries including the United States and Australia emphasize teaching citizenship to students. "Teachers at my school try to develop students' character" and "Teachers help students to develop their personality and character" are examples of this scale. The variable has six items to measure each school's endeavors towards character development of students.

Student welfare

This variable is to measure teachers' student caring, which is closely associated with teachers' concerns about the personal and social needs of their students. This part of school organizational culture can be regarded as an important factor that can make a school different from others. This construct comprises eight items. "If students have difficulty, teachers take time to help them" is an example of items included in this variable.

Collaboration

This variable can be operationally defined as the degree of interaction

between teachers within a school. The variable comprises four items to measure teachers' collaboration with other teachers. "Teachers have a strong school community sense" and "If I have difficulties, my colleagues help me to overcome the problems" are examples included in this construct.

Relationship with local community

The local community schools operate in is an important factor that can shape the cultural aspects of a school. Therefore, a variable that comprises five items measuring the degree of interaction with the outside school community was included in this study. "Teachers communicate effectively with parents and other community members" and "My school provides learning opportunities for parents and other people living the community" are some examples included in this variable.

The items included in the questionnaire were factor analyzed to confirm the factor structure of the instrument. Table 3 presents a summary of the variables confirmed by the results of factor analyses and their reliabilities (α). The reliabilities of the scales were high, ranging from .73 to .81.

Table 3. Scales, Number of Items and Reliability Coefficients of the Questionnaire

Scales	No. of Items	α
Pedagogy	8	.78
Teaching character	6	.74
Student welfare	8	.81
Collaboration	4	.75
Relationship with community	5	.73
Total	31	

Results of the Data

Research Question 1:

Descriptions of School Teachers' Characteristics

As shown in Table 4, the majority of teachers were from 40 to 49 years old. Eighty-seven teachers were under 30 years of age, and 160 teachers were over 50 years old. Of the city school teachers, 11.2% of respondents were under

30 years old, 25.9% were from 30 to 39 years old, while approximately 9% of respondents in rural schools were under 30 years old and about 14% were from 30 to 39 years old. There were significant differences in teachers' age between city and rural schools, with a higher ratio of younger teachers in city schools: $\chi^2=35.51$, $p<.001$.

Table 4. Teachers' Age by School Location

School Location	Age				Total
	under 30 years	from 30-39 years	from 40-49 years	over 50 years	
City	39(11.2%)	90(25.9%)	173(49.9%)	45(13.0%)	347(100.0%)
Large rural center	23(8.2%)	40(14.2%)	173(61.6%)	45(16.0%)	281(100.0%)
Small rural center	25(9.1%)	40(14.5%)	140(50.9%)	70(25.5%)	275(100.0%)
Total	87(9.6%)	170(18.8%)	486(53.8%)	160(17.7%)	903(100.0%)

$\chi^2 = 35.51$, $p<.001$

Table 5 shows the distribution of teaching experiences in rural schools by school location. As shown in the Table 5, 34.7% of teachers in the sample have less than five years' teaching experience in rural schools and 230 teachers (25.5%) have experience from five to nine years. Of the city school teachers, about 52.0% of teachers have teaching experience in rural schools, while more than 77% of respondents in rural schools have teaching experience in a rural area. There were significant differences in teachers' teaching experience between city and rural schools: $\chi^2=130.70$, $p<.001$.

Table 5. Teaching Experiences in Rural Schools (TER) by School Location

School Location	TER				Total
	under 5 years	from 5-9 years	from 10-19 years	over 20 years	
City	166(48.0%)	101(29.2%)	68(19.7%)	11(3.2%)	346(100.0%)
Large rural center	63(22.5%)	75(26.8%)	106(37.9%)	36(12.9%)	280(100.0%)
Small rural center	84(30.5%)	54(19.6%)	87(31.6%)	50(18.2%)	275(100.0%)
Total	313(34.7%)	230(25.5%)	261(29.0%)	97(10.8%)	901(100.0%)

$\chi^2 = 130.70$, $p<.001$

There are three training courses leading to a secondary school teaching license in Korea. One is to be trained at a university school of education,

a dedicated university course. The second is at a university teacher education program (UTEP) that includes special areas of study plus a teacher education program, and the third course is at the graduate school of education. Regardless of training courses, all applicants who want to be teachers must take units in the areas of curriculum, teaching methods, pedagogy and practice teaching.

Of the total sample of 903 teachers, 695 teachers (77.0%) obtained their teaching certificate from a school of education, 16.8% from UTEP, and the rest from a graduate school of education. As shown in Table 6, there were similar ratios in initial teacher education programs among three school groups. This was not significant, $\chi^2=6.38$, $p>.05$.

Table 6. Initial Teacher Education Program by School Location

School Location	Initial Teacher Education Programs (ITEP)				Total
	School of education	UTEP	Graduate school of education	Others	
City	271(78.1%)	55(15.9%)	18(5.2%)	3(0.9%)	347(100%)
Large rural center	211(75.1%)	49(17.4%)	13(4.6%)	8(2.8%)	281(100%)
Small rural center	213(77.5%)	48(17.5%)	12(4.4%)	2(0.7%)	275(100%)
Total	695(77.0%)	152(16.8%)	43(4.8%)	13(1.4%)	903(100%)

(UTEP: University Teacher Education Program)

$\chi^2 = 6.38$, $p>.05$

Research Question 2:

Teachers' Perceptions of their School's Organizational Culture

First, a series of one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine differences in the scale means among school groups divided by location. Table 7 represents the results of the ANOVAs for the five sub-scales and whole scale of school organizational culture. The results revealed that the differences among school groups were significant, except for the pedagogy variable. Post hoc comparisons using Scheffé procedures were conducted to identify the sources of the group differences. The results revealed that there were significant mean differences between city and rural areas for the teaching character and student welfare variables. For the variables of collaboration and relationship with community, the means of city schools were significantly

lower than those of schools in rural areas regardless of whether they were large or small rural centers. What these results imply is that the effect of school location is strong for the shaping of school organizational culture. There were no differences among school groups for the variable related to pedagogy. The result suggests that the perception of pedagogy is influenced by the equalization policy.

Table 7. Results of ANOVAs for the Scales of School Culture

Scales	Location	N	M	SD	F	Post Hoc
Pedagogy	City	347	3.64	.43	2.30	
	Large rural center	281	3.69	.45		
	Small rural center	275	3.71	.44		
Teaching character	City	347	3.49	.48	7.14***	City*small
	Large rural center	281	3.58	.48		
	Small rural center	275	3.63	.44		
Student welfare	City	347	3.80	.43	4.32*	City*small
	Large rural center	281	3.85	.43		
	Small rural center	275	3.90	.40		
Collaboration	City	347	3.42	.56	12.81***	City*large, City*small
	Large rural center	281	3.55	.57		
	Small rural center	275	3.64	.52		
Relationship with local community	City	347	3.43	.50	12.09***	City*large City*small
	Large rural center	281	3.57	.51		
	Small rural center	275	3.61	.47		

(* significant at .05 level; ** significant at .01 level; *** significant at .001 level)

Research Question 3: Effect of School Location Variable

Multivariate analysis of variance is a robust statistical procedure that can evaluate simultaneously the relationship between several independent variables and a number of dependent variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black 1998:3-5). Post hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedures were conducted to identify the sources of the group differences. One-way MANCOVA procedures were conducted to examine the main effect of the school location variable on the five dependent variables of school culture.

Teachers' age, teaching experience in rural schools (TER) and the initial teacher education program (ITEP) leading to a teaching license were used as covariates, as it is likely that these variables will affect teachers' perceptions of their school culture.

The results of the one-way MANCOVA are presented in Table 8. Of the three covariates, TER and ITEP were not significantly related to the dependent variables and only teachers' age was significantly related to the dependent variables. The main effect of the school location variable was still significant, even after statistically removing the effects of the three covariates, Wilks' Lambda (Λ) = .96, $F=3.95$, $p<.001$. The multivariate η^2 was .022.

Table 8. Results of One-way MANCOVA for the Five Variables Relating to School Organizational Culture

Effect	Value	F	df	P	Partial η^2
Intercept	.138	1,115.86	5,891	0.000	0.862
Age	.966	6.27	5,891	0.000	0.034
TER	.990	1.76	5,891	0.119	0.010
ITEP	.994	1.15	5,891	0.331	0.006
School location	.957	3.95	10,1782	0.000	0.022

* Value = Wilks' Lambda

** TER: Teaching experience in rural schools; ITEP: Initial teacher education programs

Post hoc multiple univariate F-tests were consequently examined to identify the major sources of the significant school location effect. A Bonferroni procedure was used to determine the appropriate level of significance to control for type 1 errors across the multiple univariate F-tests. The appropriate level was .01 (.05 divided by 5). The summaries of the results are presented in Table 9. As shown in Table 9, TER and ITEP variables did not affect the five dimensions of school culture. Teachers' age was only a covariate that affects the teachers' perceptions of their school culture. Pedagogy and student welfare were the major sources of the teachers' age main effect. That is, there were significant mean differences among groups divided by teachers' age on the two dependent variables with the older groups having the higher means.

The main effect of school location was due to teaching character, $F(2,900) = 6.68$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2 = .015$; Collaboration, $F(2,900) = 14.55$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2 = .031$; Relationship with local community, $F(2,900) = 11.30$,

$p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .025$. The significant difference for student welfare found previously disappeared when teachers' backgrounds were statistically controlled. The addition of the teachers' characteristics, teachers' age in particular, removed the main effect of school location on the variable.

Table 9. Selected Results of Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Eta Squared
Corrected model	Pedagogy	5	1.180	6.289	0.000	0.034
	Student welfare	5	0.816	4.698	0.000	0.026
	Teaching character	5	0.734	3.384	0.005	0.019
	Collaboration	5	1.926	6.306	0.000	0.034
	Relationship with local community	5	1.262	5.175	0.000	0.028
Intercept	Pedagogy	1	650.950	3469.201	0.000	0.795
	Student welfare	1	740.799	4263.805	0.000	0.827
	Teaching character	1	677.460	3121.368	0.000	0.777
	Collaboration	1	733.206	2400.900	0.000	0.728
	Relationship with local community	1	722.184	2960.715	0.000	0.768
Age	Pedagogy	1	2.999	15.983**	0.000	0.018
	Student welfare	1	1.502	8.647**	0.003	0.010
	Teaching character	1	0.311	1.433	0.232	0.002
	Collaboration	1	0.303	0.992	0.320	0.001
	Relationship with local community	1	0.404	1.655	0.199	0.002
TER	Pedagogy	1	0.089	0.473	0.492	0.001
	Student welfare	1	0.044	0.253	0.615	0.000
	Teaching character	1	0.121	0.559	0.455	0.001
	Collaboration	1	1.321	4.326	0.038	0.005
	Relationship with local community	1	0.014	0.057	0.811	0.000
ITEP	Pedagogy	1	0.026	0.137	0.712	0.000
	Student welfare	1	0.001	0.004	0.947	0.000
	Teaching character	1	0.196	0.904	0.342	0.001
	Collaboration	1	0.483	1.581	0.209	0.002
	Relationship with local community	1	0.002	0.008	0.928	0.000
School location	Pedagogy	2	0.127	0.678	0.508	0.002
	Student welfare	2	0.421	2.425	0.089	0.005
	Teaching character	2	1.451	6.683**	0.001	0.015
	Collaboration	2	4.444	14.552**	0.000	0.031
	Relationship with local community	2	2.756	11.297**	0.000	0.025

a. R Squared = .034 (Adjusted R Squared = .029)

b. R Squared = .026 (Adjusted R Squared = .020)

c. R Squared = .019 (Adjusted R Squared = .013)

d. R Squared = .028 (Adjusted R Squared = .023)

(TER: Teaching experience in rural schools; ITEP: Initial teacher education programs)

(Bonferroni approach was used to set significant level for univariate tests; * significant at .01 level;

** significant at .001 level)

Discussion and Conclusion

This study examined the main effect of the school location variable on the shaping of school organizational culture in Korea. In order to investigate the research question, a one-way MANCOVA procedure was designed employing school location as an independent variable with teachers' characteristics including teachers' age, teaching experience in rural schools, and initial teacher education programs as covariates. Teachers' perceptions of the cultural aspects of their schools were the dependent variables. A number of important findings were identified from the analyses of data. Issues and implications from the findings will be discussed, followed by the conclusion of this study.

Firstly, one of the most powerful external factors applied to Korean school teachers is the compulsory rotation system. Under the policy, teachers should be transferred to rural schools after pre-determined period of working in urban schools. After completing the compulsory period in rural schools, they can be returned to urban schools. The policy has several important aims: one is to make schools equal, or at least similar to, other schools in terms of teachers' quality; another is to overcome the problem of a shortage of teachers in rural schools.

As identified in this study, the majority of urban school teachers have teaching experience in rural schools. Further, the data analysis of this study showed that the individual characteristics of rural school teachers in Korea are different from those of other OECD countries including the United States and Australia (OECD 2005:74). These countries are suffering from a shortage of teachers, especially, in rural areas, of experienced teachers (Boylan and McSwan 1998:50). It has been identified by several researchers from Western countries that students living in rural areas have educational disadvantages associated with many factors including a shortage of experienced teachers and socio-economic status (SES), etc. However, in Korea, teachers in rural schools have more teaching experience than those in urban schools. In addition, teacher supply is not an issue in Korean rural schools, as the compulsory teaching staff rotation mechanism between rural and urban schools is applied to all teachers employed by each local Office of Education. Therefore, it can be argued that the compulsory rotation system for teaching personnel in Korea equalizes one basic condition for rural

students, by placing more experienced teachers in rural schools than city schools.

Secondly, the results of a series of ANOVAs showed that there were significant mean differences in teachers' perceptions of their school organizational cultures between urban and rural schools. That is, teachers at rural schools perceived their school organizational culture as being stronger than those in urban areas. The sources of the mean differences between two school locations were four sub-scales including student welfare, teaching character, collaboration and relationship to the local community. The differences may be due to teachers' individual characteristics or due to the school location. In order to identify the cause, the current research used one-way MANCOVA to eliminate compounding variances explained by the individual teacher's characteristics including teachers' age, TER and ITEP. The results showed that there were still noticeable differences in teachers' perceptions of their school organizational culture between urban and rural schools. The results suggest that school location is a significant impact factor that affects school organizational culture.

Post hoc univariate F-tests identified that the means of pedagogy and student welfare variables did not differ among school groups divided by school location. The mean difference between city and rural schools on the scale of student welfare disappeared when teachers' characteristics were included as covariates. The results imply that this dimension of perception of school culture is closely related to the individual teacher's characteristics including teaching knowledge and attitudes and is somewhat equalized by the personnel administration policy in Korea. On the other hand, there were still significant mean differences in the other three dimensions of school culture reflecting the characteristics of school locations: teaching character, collaboration and relationship to the local community.

Many studies dealing with rural education in the Korean context insisted that rural education should be focused on the development of students' character (Im 2007:581; Park 2008:179). In the Korean context, rural students' home backgrounds, including SES and parents' level of formal studies, are disadvantaged compared to those of urban students (Im 2007:575). Many rural students are suffering from severely deprived socio-economic and educational environments that cannot provide sufficient learning experiences to support character development. In this context,

the Korean Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and local educational authorities have developed and implemented several educational welfare programs for rural students such as the garden school project, the *yeonjung-dolbom-hagyo* project (that literally means a school caring for rural students year-round, seven days a week, and even during vacation periods) and the excellent rural high school project.

The key aims of the projects are to develop rural students' character as well as to increase their academic achievement and their living conditions. The effectiveness of the programs has been shown in this research as rural schools have been putting stronger emphasis on the development of a curriculum teaching character. For the efforts of educational authorities and rural school teachers to be effective, local communities should also play an important role in supporting rural school teachers' work.

Finally, the results of the current study imply that rural school educators are more concerned about teaching character than urban school teachers. Therefore, the effectiveness of school management for rural schools should be assessed through various outputs that reflect rural schools' educational goals emphasizing the development of students' character and providing educational welfare programs for their student.

In conclusion, the overall findings of this study suggest that the culture of a school in Korea is generally transformed by both school location and individual teacher's characteristics, particularly teachers' age. As identified in this study, the school location factor can make the cultural characteristics of rural schools quite different from those of urban schools. In particular, some aspects of school organizational culture including teaching character, collaboration and relationship with the local community are significantly influenced by the factor. However, the aspects of pedagogy and student welfare are not strongly determined by the factor. Further analysis of the study found that the teachers' age factor used as a covariate in this study has a strong effect on the scale of student welfare, which removed the effect of the school location factor. The result implies that school organizational culture that can be significantly influenced by teachers' age factor can also be moderated by the teaching personnel administration policy in Korea. A strong overarching external factor that affects school culture is, therefore, the compulsory rotation policy applied to all teaching personnel as it can render teacher quality similar between urban and rural schools with respect

to teachers' age and/or teaching experience. The political implication from this research is that school administrators and educational authorities of local and/or national levels should reflect on the cultural differences between urban and rural schools when developing school evaluation policies.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of the school location variable on the shaping of school organizational culture. The context for the study is secondary schools in Korea under the compulsory rotation system for teaching staff, with school organizational culture being assessed by surveying the perceptions of teachers. The results of the study identified that although the effect size of school location factor on school culture was not strong, the factor can transform the culture of school organization. Further, while some aspects of school organizational culture including the aspects of pedagogy and student welfare were strongly determined by school teachers' characteristics, teachers' age in particular, three aspects of school organizational culture including teaching character, collaboration and relationship with community were influenced by the school's location. The overall findings of this study suggest that the organizational cultures of Korean secondary schools are generally formed by both school location and the school members' characteristics, teachers' age and/or teaching experience.

Keywords: school organizational culture, equalization policy, school location, compulsory rotation policy, personnel administration policy

