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A Study Of Issues And Problems Women Face In Attempting To Pursue Careers In Educational Administration In Kenya

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A study of issues and problems women face in attempting to pursue careers in educational administration in Kenya

Mutai, Bertha Kirigo, Ed.D.

Andrews University, 1991

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Andrews University

School of Education

A STUDY OF ISSUES AND PROBLEMS WOMEN FACE
IN ATTEMPTING TO PURSUE CAREERS IN
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN KENYA

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

by

Bertha Kirigo Mutai

June 1991

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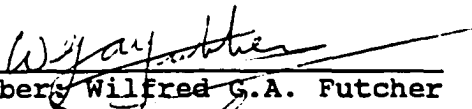
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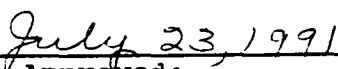
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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF ISSUES AND PROBLEMS WOMEN FACE
IN ATTEMPTING TO PURSUE CAREERS IN
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN KENYA

by

Bertha Kirigo Mutai

Chair: Edward A. Streeter, Ed.D.

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Doctoral Dissertation

Andrews University

School of Education

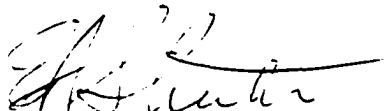Title: A STUDY OF ISSUES AND PROBLEMS WOMEN FACE IN
          ATTEMPTING TO PURSUE CAREERS IN EDUCATIONAL
          ADMINISTRATION IN KENYA

Name of Researcher: Bertha K. Mutai

Name and degree of faculty chair: Edward A. Streeter, Ed.D.

Date completed: June 1991

Problem

In Kenya, the majority of women in education occupy
classroom teaching positions. Educational officers, in
their hiring practices, appear to overlook women as
resources, thereby depriving the schools of the skills and
talents of potentially capable leaders. Students are also
denied the role models of female leaders.

This study investigates how difficult it is for women
to secure professional careers in educational administration
in Kenya.

Method

The population consisted of all the female teachers employed by the Ministry of Education in Kenya, and female Kenyan students in North American universities. A questionnaire was used to collect data from the women teachers selected from five educational levels, namely, university, commercial and technical colleges, secondary and primary schools, and Kenyan students in North American universities. The data collected were analyzed and tested for significant differences related to the women's marital status, age, education, and experience. All 52 items were tested by Chi-square and the alpha level was .05 for all tests.

Conclusions

The conclusions are given in the order presented in the Purpose of the Study.

1. A majority of women teachers strongly agreed that advanced degrees were the key to administrative positions.

2. It appears that self-confidence to become school administrators was lacking as portrayed in the women's responses.

3. Women teachers believed they would gain self-satisfaction in school administration positions.

4. Culture was recognized as the major barrier as compared to all other factors.

5. Family pressures were also a deterrent to women teachers aspiring to become educational administrators.

6. Kenyan women teachers showed little interest in and commitment to educational administration as a career.

7. Lack of role-models was yet another factor preventing women from pursuing careers in educational administration.

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whose confidence, love, and understanding have been a constant source of support.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In Kenya, as in most developing countries, the majority of women in the educational field occupy classroom teaching positions, whereas very few are in educational administration. A growing body of literature addresses the problems faced by women who assume or attempt to assume leadership positions in school administration. Howe (1973) and Spence and Helmreich (1978) pointed out that sex discrimination, sex-role stereotyping, conflicts regarding home and professional careers, perceived isolation, a lack of support systems, the questioning of women's competence, and women's aspirations were issues and problems confronting women.

In order to understand women's plight in assuming leadership roles in educational administration, it is necessary to examine the historical background. Women in Kenya, as in most developing countries, have faced struggles and frustrations, to a large extent because of culture and traditions, in gaining respectability in leadership roles in education and the broader world of work that has been dominated by men.

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Background of the Study

In the field of education after the colonial period in Kenya, Cassam (1987) noted there were few women teachers, while men dominated the teaching profession. Education did not seem relevant among the traditional roles of women. Boys had, and still have, more opportunities than girls to attend school. Illiterate women outnumbered men and were deprived of the "magic of the written word."

The system of education in Kenya channels women into fixed careers such as home economics. In the process, it robs them of creativity, of a fair chance in life, and considerably lowers their career aspirations.

Cassam (1987) further pointed out that the traditional role of the Kenyan woman as mother and wife was still held, particularly in rural areas where 87.5% of the women in Kenya lived. Modernization as a consequence of economic, social, and cultural changes initiated by colonialism and accelerated by independence has increased the scope and complexity of women's responsibilities.

Brigalia and Lotika (1979, p. 9) reported that in most developing countries women were excluded from or restricted in their participation in the labor market and from the advanced sectors of commercial production. In Kenya particularly (Brigalia and Lotika, 1979), men believed women should not work outside the home, and the low value placed on women's work had the effect of conditioning women to

dependence on men. A major portion of African traditional
cultures were based solely on the assumption that the
woman's place was in the home. Women learned to cook, sew,
and clean. Although efforts and finances were put into
providing literacy classes, culture kept the women from
assuming social and economic responsibilities in the
development of their communities. Traditional attitudes
were a serious barrier.

Okolo (1985) reported that the modern woman's rapidly
changing self-image tended to increase her sense of
oppression, discrimination, and cultural prejudice in the
developing world. Okolo (1985) further added that

> Women everywhere and at all levels suffer from male
> dominated patterns of culture and social
> organization. Although women have contributed to
> the development of third world countries, they have
> been accorded minority or inferior status. Women
> oppression has been made more evident by their
> general absence in decision-making positions even in
> issues that radically affect them. This is true not
> only in society at large, but in the churches as
> well. All religions without exception are guilty of
> discriminating against women. (p. 366)

The world conference of the UN Decade for Women in
Copenhagen (Okolo, 1985, p. 366) took "Equality, Development
and Peace" as its theme, which presented a clearer picture
of the status of women and their frustrations in their
denial of the full rights and responsibility of women as
citizens of the world.

Women are still anxious to protect and promote their
rights and development as women in the church, school and

society at large against oppression, manipulation, and domination of men. They are working to play many roles in the development of church, school, and society at large. Hence, as Okolo (1985) said,

> They will no longer be slaves of uncomprehending and intransigent husbands and brothers, nor of a retrogressive society. They are freed by their faith that opens all horizons to them. They are increasingly objecting to being taken as second-class members of the society, just content to remain on the sidelines, or being merely men's playthings. (p. 370)

Tackson (1985) reported that Kenyan women played a paramount part in the 10-year struggle to free their country of colonial rule. By 1963, when victory was accomplished, the skills which women demonstrated in that liberation struggle seemed to be recognized. Women's consciousness appeared to have been aroused, and both sexes were much more aware of sex-role stereotyping and discrimination than ever before. Nevertheless, the actuality is that women are still in a minority when it comes to holding leadership positions in business and education.

Statement of the Problem

In both the public and private school system in Kenya, women are rarely appointed to administrative positions. Educational officers, in their hiring practices, appear to overlook women as resources, thereby depriving the schools of the skills and talents of potentially capable leaders. The paucity of women in school administration denies some of

the "feminine attributes" which women could bring to educational administration. Students are also denied the role models of female leaders.

The problem this study investigated was the difficulty women have in attempting to secure professional careers in educational administration.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the issues and problems confronting women and to determine what factors contribute to keeping women from pursuing careers in educational administration. More specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

(1) If women teachers are to be in educational administration,

    (a) Are advanced degrees the key to such a position and are they willing to pursue such a course?

    (b) Are they confident enough in themselves to become school administrators?

    (c) Do they feel they would gain self-satisfaction from a position in school administration?

(2) Are there factors which prevent women from pursuing careers in educational administration, such as:

    (a) culture problems?

(b) problems due to family pressures?

(c) commitment or lack of commitment?

(d) lack of role models?

(e) fear of failing in an administrative position?

Significance of the Study

Since there is a scarcity of women in educational administration in Kenya, this study attempts to shed light on factors which contribute to this scarcity. The findings of this study have the potential of providing a better understanding of the issues and problems confronting women and how these problems are perceived by educational officers and others. In Kenya, provincial and district officers are hiring few women. This study's findings could contribute additional information concerning the aspirations of female teachers to become school administrators. This may also lead educators in Kenya to re-examine their existing hiring practices and promotions in the leadership hierarchy. It may also promote an awareness in administrators of the problems and issues in hiring women administrators and may contribute a program of change.

Overview of Literature

A number of related studies have been done on women in administrative roles. Pawlitscheck (1986) observed that educational administration was sex stereotyped as a male

occupation, and women in administrative positions
experienced more of a problem than men in gaining acceptance
as leaders from both sexes. Howard (1975) inferred from her
study that women were prevented from filling administrative
positions by stereotyped social attitudes. She emphasized
that "Even though research indicates there is no difference
between men's and women's leadership abilities . . . many
women feel incapable of administration or believe they would
not be happy in an administrative job" (p. 23).

Howard (1975), Lockheed (1975), Fusco (1984) Okolo
(1985), Tackson (1985), and Stegemiller (1990) were all
cognizant of the social and gender issues regarding women
and educational administration. Chafe (1972), Miller
(1976), Nilsen and Bosmajin (1977), Barr (1978), Hoyenga and
Hoyenga (1979), and Helgesen (1990) pointed out the problems
of sex-roles and sex-role stereotyping, perceived critical
characteristics in leadership, and issues confronting women
which might contribute to their scarcity in school
administration.

Schmuck (1976), Bartol (1978), Kanter (1979), Neidig
(1980), and Dowd (1991) discussed pressures, arguments, and
reasons used to discourage women from entering the field of
school administration.

Definition of Terms

Certain terms used in this study are defined here
according to the use they have in this study.

<u>Attitude</u>. A relatively stable or enduring pattern of responses made by an individual with respect to some psychological object, i.e., toward any symbol, slogan, product, institution, person, group, or issues which a person may face (Bartol, 1973, p. 32).

<u>Feminine behaviors</u>. Behaviors having qualities defined by society as traditionally appropriate to a woman (socially able, homemaker, dependent, and pleasing others) (Hoyenga, 1979, p. 32).

<u>Leadership style</u>. The ability to influence the behavior of others.

<u>Masculine behaviors</u>. Behaviors having qualities defined by society as traditionally appropriate to a man (independent, physically able, competitive) (Hoyenga, 1979, p. 395).

<u>Personality characteristics</u>. The sum total of the ways in which a person characteristically reacts to and interacts with others. This includes such overt patterns of social behavior as aggression or attention seeking as well as such behaviors and motives as achievement striving (Hoyenga, 1979, p. 2).

<u>Role model</u>. A person after whom another person tries to pattern his or her behavior.

<u>Self-concept</u>. An individual's perception of his or her own abilities, attitudes, and other personal resources or characteristics (Hansen, 1980 p. 35).

<u>Sexism</u>. Any arbitrary stereotypes of either male or female which cause prejudgment on the basis of sex (gender) (Hansen, 1980 p. 35).

<u>Sex-role stereotype</u>. The assumption that all females or all males, because they share a common gender, also have the same characteristics such as the same traits, interests, values, and roles (Hansen, 1980 p. 35).

<u>Stereotype</u>. An assumption that because a number of individuals share one attribute (race, sex, etc.), they are similar in many others (Hansen, 1980 p. 36).

<u>Women's consciousness</u>. The awareness of women with respect to their status, role, traits, and identity (Sui, 1975 p. 83).

<u>Delimitation of the Study</u>

The focus of this study was to gather information to identify and examine the sources which contribute to the scarcity of women in educational administration.

The study did not focus on differences among women based on race or religion. It concentrated on social factors which may contribute to the absence of women as school administrators.

<u>Assumptions</u>

It was assumed that women are able to provide a positive attitude in dealing with the emotional needs of

students and faculty. It was also assumed that women as administrators provide role models for female students.

Overview of the Research Design

The purpose of this study was to determine causes that prevent women from pursuing careers in educational administration. This study was conducted in Kenya. The population consisted of all women teachers employed by the Ministry of Education and women students studying in North American universities. There were above 1000.

With the aid of a table of random numbers, a stratified random-sampling technique was used to select 22 women teachers from each of the five following groups: University, commercial and technical colleges, secondary, primary, and Kenya female students in North American Universities. This provided a sample of 110 women teachers.

A two-part questionnaire was used to gather data for the study. The first part of the instrument asked for demographic and professional data concerning women attempting to pursue careers in educational administration in Kenya. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of items eliciting information on the environment, interest, confidence, support-encouragement, commitment, and fear of failing in an administrative position.

The data analyzed the following four demographic categories: age, marital status, education, and years of experience. Major perceptions were examined by ranking the

statements in the second part of the questionnaire according to their weighted scores. The data were analyzed by describing the items and then tested for significant differences. All 52 items were tested by Chi-Square and the alpha level was .05 for all tests.

Organization

This study is organized as follows:

Chapter I includes an introductory background concerning the scarcity of women administrators in Kenya. The statement of the problem and the purpose of the study follow. The significance of the study and an overview of the literature, the definition of terms, the limitations of the study, the assumptions of the study are included. An overview of the research design and the organization of the study completes this chapter.

Chapter II presents the review of literature. The problems of women who have difficulty in securing careers in educational administration were investigated.

Chapter III describes the research methodology used to gather the data, the population of the study, and the treatment of the data obtained.

Chapter IV presents an analysis of the data.

Chapter V is comprised of the summary of the study, a discussion, and the conclusions reached. Recommendations are also presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter investigates the issues and problems
women face in attempting to pursue careers in educational
administration. In Kenya and in most developing countries,
the majority of women in education occupy classroom teaching
positions, but very few are in educational administration.
Sex discrimination, sex-role stereotyping, conflicts
regarding home and professional careers, perceived
isolation, the questioning of women's competence, and
cultural barriers are some of the issues and problems
confronting women.

Cassam (1987), for example, observed that stereotypes
inhibit women from entering educational administration.
Okolo (1985) identified cultural barriers and Tackson (1985)
described social barriers. Several other studies--Fusco
(1984), Howard (1975), and Bernstein (1972)--revealed that
women show a lower level of interest in administration.
This chapter examines the literature in each of the above
areas, provides a summary, and concludes with the focus of
this study.

Reasons Women Have Difficulty Attempting Careers in Educational Administration

Stereotypes Inhibiting Women from Educational Administration

This section considers gender stereotyping in Kenya and in North America and summarizes the similarities and differences.

Stereotyping in Kenya (Africa)

Stereotyping in Kenya can be divided into two categories: a) early stereotypes which have a profound effect on later career choices and b) stereotypes that operate in the world of work.

Early stereotypes and some of their effects

Sex differential treatment begins at birth. Chafe (1972) claimed that in most families completely different responsibilities are given to boys and girls. Cassam (1987) said that the traditional role of the Kenyan woman as mother and wife still holds, particularly in many rural areas where 87.5% of the women in Kenya live.

Cassam (1987) pointed out that the traditional African culture is based on the assumption that the place of girls and women is in the home. They learn to cook, sew, and clean. Though money was used to fund literacy classes, women in the rural areas of developing countries were ill-prepared to assume responsibility for the development of

their community. Traditional attitudes were a serious barrier.

A sharp division of gender roles exists in social, political, and economic institutions. Qualities considered necessary in a man's world are not considered necessary qualities for women (Chafe (1972). For instance, women's training includes the domestic responsibilities of being a homemaker, mother, and the husband's helpmate. Men's responsibilities include being a provider and a decision maker.

According to Hoyenga and Hoyenga (1979), mothers transfer social and verbal stimulations to their daughters and physical stimulation to their sons; and it also appears that fathers encourage more sex typing in their children than mothers (p. 129). Women were trained to be givers and to please and serve men (Miller, 1976, pp. 89, 62-65).

Cassam (1987) mentioned that one impact of colonial education in Kenya was to widen the stereotypes between boys and girls. Education was emphasized by the Catholic missionaries in the French colonies, and although the missionaries were interested in educating girls as well as boys, formal instruction was oriented toward helping the girls become better mothers and housewives (in the European sense). Technical or agricultural training, even in sub-Saharan Africa where the women had the major responsibilities in farming, heavily favored boys.

Thus, traditions built into male-dominated society force women to see their own lives in terms of self-sacrifice. For example, in Kenya it is the mother's habit to feed the husband first, then the children, and, finally, herself.

Fuchs (1975) felt that it was a myth that women themselves had no particular will, desire, or ambition for success and that this type of rhetoric is used as a mechanism to keep women in their place and out of competition for the good things in life. Parents, books, and educators are all contributors to keeping the boundaries drawn in regard to what boys and girls can or cannot do. Even in regard to school curricula, women measure low in things they are not supposed to like or be able to do (pp. 3,4).

It is possible to see that these early stereotypes suggest definite roles for women and lead one to wonder whether similar stereotypes might be found in the world of work.

World of work in Kenya

This section notes first what existing research reveals about how traditional values, beliefs, customs, and morals affect work stereotypes. It was assumed in this section that what applied to women in the United States in the 60s and 70s applied to women in Kenya in the 80s and 90s. It was also recognized that many of the women in Kenya

who were not highly educated may not fit into this
assumption, but rather the upper educated class. It then
investigates the sex stereotypes that operate in the world
of work.

Silver (1976) noted that in Africa, traditional
values, beliefs, customs, and morals keep the status quo in
regard to sex-stereotyping. This hampers women's entry into
leadership positions. Charlton (1984) said that the
family's decision-making process is implicit in all its
distribution of responsibility and resources. The most
powerful family member, the one who could orchestrate--if
not dictate--decisions, was determined by prevailing
cultural values such as those attached to old age, sex, and
the relative importance attached to men's and women's
productive roles. In highly stratified and patriarchal
societies, like many areas in Asia, the Middle East, and
most of Africa, women are not expected to be self-
supporting; they have few opportunities to earn significant
incomes and cannot inherit land or other property. Even
when women do earn, they usually are not able to translate
their incomes into family power since they have to turn
their earnings over to their husbands who control all family
income. In these societies, a woman's most reliable power
hold is her ability to reproduce.

Silver (1976) projected that in the next 10 to 20
years, more women will break the barriers and enter higher

level positions, but the attainment of the highest level positions will be slow and limited (p. 27). There is evidence that women were entering into positions of higher education in Kenya in the 80s and 90s. Traditions die hard. The problem as seen by Bayes and Newton (1978) is that "women were often perceived, and perceive themselves, as unsuited for positions of authority, and because of their attitudes, . . . many capable women do not aspire to higher level management positions" (p. 8). Davies (1983) commented about women:

> But we were used to looking down on ourselves and undermining our own abilities. There were women who anticipate us for being in trade unions or political parties. They said: 'Those idle women have nothing to do. Why do they interfere? Thus, even women criticize themselves because, since birth, they had been brought up in this way.' (p. 40)

Women are also to blame, according to Davies (1983).

> Women view themselves like a piece of cloth, used to clean a dirty table and then hidden away in a corner until next time. This is how men use us, and it is we ourselves who were to blame. We allow ourselves to be used and manipulated. We criticize ourselves. (p. 41)

Sex-role stereotypical thinking by both men and women was believed by Schein (1978) to limit women's opportunity "to acquire or utilize work-related power acquisition behaviors" (p. 259). If superiors had biased attitudes toward women, then they were less likely to discuss openly their "strategies and tactics of operating within their organizations with their female subordinates" (p. 265).

Fusco (1984) pointed out that women find themselves excluded from many conversations and non-job related activities and they miss out on developing an informal communication system. This is equally true for Kenya.

According to Kanter (1979), some men retain traditional attitudes toward women simply because they have not experienced anything different (p. 156) and, at times, not as individuals, but as part of a generic category (p. 154). "The first time a woman is encountered in a new way can be awkward and surprising, but once the surprise is over, new sets of expectations were put into motion" (p. 156). Brown (1979) reported that it did impede the advancement of women into the higher lead positions in society, and women still hold their role positions as nurses, typists, clerks, etc., in the world of work.

The above review of literature shows that there is stereotyping in the world of work in America which would be true of Kenya.

Early Stereotyping in North America

This section considers early stereotypes in North America. According to Bernstein (1972), sexism starts with kindergarten activities in which little girls were directed to the housekeeping corner, while boys were steered toward blocks and trucks. In primary classrooms, the workbench was a more popular play area for boys than girls. In many classrooms, invisible boundary lines separated the "boy

stuff" from the "girl stuff," and these lines limited the number of activities considered acceptable for girls. Schools thus provided a shrinkage of alternatives instead of an expansion.

The way that many teachers and administrators unconsciously reinforced sex stereotypes matters. Teachers' expectations were different for girls than for boys, and these expectations can bring a psychic burden on sensitive and introspective boys and on out-going and aggressive girls. Bernstein (1972) felt that the context problem may be the contradictory message that school systems give. Schools encourage girls to be good students: to learn, to perform, to achieve. Yet these same girls were criticized if they were too competitive or took too much pride in their academic accomplishments. "Be good, but not too good," schools seem to be saying. The recent study of Stegemiller (1990) reported that the children were getting the message that women ruled the classroom but men ruled the world. Thus many girls viewed success as failure and opted out of academic excellence by the time they reached high school.

Bayes and Newton (1978) posited that the majority of sex roles were learned within the context of the nuclear family, in which, it was suggested, the role of father was to manage the external boundary while the mother managed the internal boundary. With seeming inevitability, both men and women continued to use and expected these role definitions

to operate in any other social system, specifically in this case, the organizational structure of a mental health unit.

The above investigation shows the similarities of early stereotyping. Stereotyping begins early at home with different roles for boys and girls.

Stereotyping in American schools

The focus here is on how American schools encourage stereotyping by separating girls' stuff from boys' stuff. What happens in schools? And what were the school's responsibilities in regard to sex stereotyping and/or discrimination? In regard to the latter, Dale (1973) emphasized that "teachers and school systems have a special responsibility to make students aware of the subtle ways in which discrimination is expressed" (p. 21).

Hoyenga (1979) pointed out that "stereotypes can be seen in children's readers, in textbooks, in magazines, and on television programs and commercials" (p. 229). If it is true, as Dale (1973) stressed, that "children put their trust in the printed page more than adults do . . . and much of what we do in school is on building children's trust in books" (p. 161), it appears urgent to replace the literature (non-sexist literature and materials) that is presently used in school systems across the country. Although changes have taken place in schools due to the awareness of parents and through Federal and state legislation, old habits die hard

and differential treatment for boys and girls might still exist in some areas of the curriculum.

In regard to the secondary schools, Foxley (1979) described the organization of the secondary-school system as reflecting a microcosm of the stereotyping that exists in the larger society of the world of work. For example, men hold the decision-making positions and the instructional staff hold their appropriate role positions with women teaching home economics and literature and men teaching science, mathematics, and industrial arts. From this review, it can be concluded that stereotyping begins in school.

World of work in North America

The world of work also assumes that men are better administrators than women--according to many studies. Attitude surveys indicate that preferential hiring of males was based on the belief that men were effective administrators for social and psychological reasons, commented Howard (1975). Several research studies conducted in the 50s and 60s indicated little substantial evidence for the notion that men perform better in the leadership role of principalship. Additional research supports the position that women do succeed as educational administrators.

Pavan (1990) reported that while all the studies conducted in the 70s found that men were much more persistent in their job search efforts, the results of

studies done in the 80s indicated a change in that pattern. Women were more likely to be making greater job search efforts than men.

Howard (1975) reported that teachers described female administrators as noticing potential problem situations and as evaluating results of action significantly more often than male administrators.

In spite of the fact that men occupy 86% of the public school principalships, evidence from the studies presented indicated that probably there was no reason to believe that women were less effective than men as educational administrators (Howard, 1975). A more recent study by Polan (1988) indicated that by 1980 at least 42% of all paid workers in the United States were women. They earned approximately 60% of men's salaries. Concurrently, Polan pointed out that women held only 26% of all management and administrative positions in the business world with little hope of advancement.

Further research investigating these relationships appears warranted. What was clear was that no matter how excellent the qualifications and job performance, a woman's opportunities for career advancement were influenced by the attitudes of society toward her role as a woman. The research findings suggest that in hiring principals it is necessary to decide what leadership attributes and skills were appropriate, so nominees may be selected on the basis

of these rather than on preconceived notions as to which sex possesses the necessary qualifications. Morris (1990) said that the people who would lead companies as well as countries in the 90s, will win acceptance by setting an example of excellence, being ethical, open, empowering and inspiring irrespective of whether they are men or women. Great leaders were those women and men who saw the future and seized the opportunity.

Although valid grounds may exist for some of the generalizations about working women, it was time to investigate further if the grounds were valid or were merely accepted without facing up to the changing lifestyles of men and women. Generalized statements become part of a myth system used to make predictions and decisions about individuals on the basis of their sex rather than on their personal qualities and skills. No matter how the generalization was made, it was always necessary to allow for individual differences. The teaching and administrative forces cannot be built on the assumption that men will work until retirement and women only after they marry. There were too many exceptions.

Howard (1975) commented that another factor hindering the promotion of women into administrative positions was the widespread belief that women do not want to work for another woman and that men resent a woman as their immediate superior. Grounds for these assertions were frequently

cited, but they had not yet been sufficiently substantiated. Additional research in this area was needed to determine what other factors contributed to a negative stance towards women administrators and how the less favorable attitudes of male teachers, male and female administrators, and board members might be changed.

Fusco (1984) said school administrators were viewed by the public as males. This image was difficult to erase from the minds of both the public and female teachers. The perplexing problem is that, on one hand, society clings to the "male" authoritative image that does not allow for general input, and, on the other, society demands that changes be made in school systems. The question is, Will society allow women to enter the administrative hierarchy and attempt to change this image? Another question to be answered is, Will women in administrative positions make a difference?

Lack of support from co-workers tends to have two injurious effects. First, women were diverted from exploring and expressing their needs. The need to explore, achieve, or succeed in a role not considered feminine could present problems. Miller (1976) implied that these "needs could threaten terrible isolation or severe conflict, not only with men, but with all our institutions as they were arranged, and equally important, with their inner image of what it means to be a woman" (p. 96). Second, "women were

encouraged to 'transfer' their needs." This means that women automatically fail because "they never recognize their own needs" (p. 101). Fusco (1984) claimed that lack of organizational support was listed as one of the problems women face if they aspire for leadership positions.

Women pursuing upward mobility positions indicated incidents of discrimination. Pavan (1990) reported that discrimination against women continued. An assistant superintendent selecting educational administrators stated "We (meaning school personnel administrators) all have our preferences--older or younger, men or women, internal or external. They are not legal questions. You cannot ask them on an application but this kind of sorting does take place" (p. 11). What was disheartening as Pavan (1990) stated was that such practice continued and that the message of gender equality had not been heard. Garland and Price (1977) contended that biases against women do not stop after a woman has begun her career, but continued even after she had established a "superior performance record" (p. 33). The expectations account for a large number of women with administration certification failing to pursue administrative positions.

As such, women are stereotyped as not being effective administrators, not because of low performance but simply because they are women, a situation similar to that in Kenya, too. Stereotyping begins early in homes and schools.

From this investigation, it can be concluded that the difference between American women is that they are better educated. They are not tied with the belief the Kenyan women have that a woman's place is only in the home.

Cultural and Social Barriers

What are the social and cultural barriers that confront women who attempt to pursue careers in Educational Administration? Okolo (1985) pointed out that culture played a big part in not letting the Kenyan woman reach her full potential, and Kanter (1979) saw it as a question of power and described how culture affected the power a woman had. Basil (1972) stated how masculine and feminine traits were viewed in leadership positions, depending on whether one was a woman or a man.

In other literature, both Neidig (1980) and Fusco (1984) show that women lack professional preparation for such positions.

Values and Traditions

The fact that cultural and social barriers exist is another reason women have difficulty attempting careers in educational administration. For example, culture affects the power a women has. Even when women are in leadership positions, they do not have as much power behind those positions. Howard (1975) reported males and females were viewed by society as having set personality characteristics,

and this stereotyping by society determined whether a person succeeded or failed in leadership positions.

Lack of professional preparation in Kenya is due to cultural barriers. In Kenya, there are more schools for boys than for girls; this means fewer women than men can secure places in the Universities.

People's values and mores affect the way they spend their daily personal and work lives. Changing a traditional value system is a difficult task. Patterns become set, and change does not come easily.

Lockheed (1975) stated that simply equalizing educational opportunities for males and females would not alter the pattern of male leadership. The solution, as Lockheed (1975) saw it, was for the sexes to be temporarily segregated in the learning of identical skills. Women had been taught to "lower their expectations" in regard to careers and achievements and not to pursue things beyond their reach. This learned pattern of behavior inhibits women's advancement to administrative positions.

Okolo (1985) pointed out that culture had played a big part in not letting the Kenyan woman reach her full potential. For example, generally women were not entitled to inherit their parents' or their deceased husband's property. Who could argue, for instance, that in general, the Kenyan woman freely chooses her husband without interference from parents or guardians or that parents give

their daughters the same education and cultural benefits
that they give their sons (Okolo, 1985, p. 369).

Third World men should now realize that any society
that categorically excludes half its members from the
process by which it rules itself will be ruled in a way that
is less than human. Okolo (1985) said:

> We must therefore cease to play the role of
> figureheads and pawns whom men push around at will
> in the effort to show that we were forever
> incapable. Thanks to our mutual support, women will
> participate, they will give proof of unsuspected
> ability in making decision. (p. 370)

Tackson (1985) claimed that woman's consciousness
appears to have been aroused and both sexes were much more
aware of sex role stereotyping and/or discrimination than
ever before. Nevertheless, the actuality was that women
were still in a minority in holding leadership positions in
business and education.

The above review shows that culture hinders women's
entry into administrative positions in education. Since the
80s, women are more aware of sex stereotyping, they know who
they really are and what they can do.

A Question of Power

How, then, does culture affect the power that a woman
has? Even when women are in leadership positions, they do
not have the power behind that position.

According to Kanter (1979), power was the "ability to
get things done, to mobilize resources, to get and use

whatever it is that a person needs for the goals he or she is attempting to meet" (p. 166). Kanter (1979) stated that, in this way, a monopoly on power means that only a very few had this capacity, and this prevented the majority of others from being able to act effectively. Thus, the total amount of power and system effectiveness was restricted, even though some people seemed to have a great deal of it.

Alexander (1985) said of Kenyan women that they were denied any power: political, social, or economic. According to Alexander, "The feminist critique assumes that without full social, political, and economic equality, neither a nation nor its people can progress. And if nations suffer under the weight of feminine poverty, and social inequalities, there can be no peace within or between countries" (p. 20). Regarding power and social inequalities in Kenya, Alexander added:

> Equality for women is impossible within the existing economic, political and cultural processes that reserve resources, and control for small sections of peoples. But neither is development possible without greater equity for and participation by women. Our vision of feminism has at its core a process of economic and social development geared to human needs through wider access to economic and political power. (p. 22)

A paper prepared by Schmack (1976) for the national conference on women in educational policy suggested that women must learn about theoretical and practical power and how people in educational systems exercise power. She elaborated by stating, "New styles of power and leadership

must replace the authoritarian and controlling ones which were prevalent today in educational institutions" (p. 5). Norma (1990) reported on a study done on women who had succeeded in educational administration, indicated two patterns to succeed (1) " Work hard, be loyal and you will be rewarded", (2) "Work hard, work smart and make it happen". She suggested that women should begin a serious study on power in the schools and gave as an example the fact that even among teachers, female teachers did not hold comparable power to male teachers. Male teachers usually were chosen to lead committees in departments (which might bring them a differential in pay), granted special favors, or asked to fill supervisory positions during emergencies simply because of their gender.

According to Alexander (1985), women in Kenya have a very significant part to play in the development of that country, but they benefit far less from it than men. He elaborated that women were everywhere, doing everything, and were being undervalued and underpaid for their efforts. Alexander sums it up: "Women do two-thirds of the work in the world, earn ten percent of the world's income, and own just one percent of the world's property."

Brayfield (1977) stated with regard to "power," that males have dominated and continue to dominate school boards, as they had most social concerns, and their historical

pattern has been to keep the power in their own hands (p. 23).

Bach (1976) pointed out that women who showed interest in pursuing careers outside the classroom were urged to become counselors, educational specialists, or supervisors. All of these positions required a high degree of personal knowledge but granted little real authority to change existing policies and practices. For, as the feminist slogan goes, "Women's place is every place except where the power is." Bach did not imply that all of male administrators were ruthless maniacs; not all principals' offices were battle grounds.

Bach (1976) elaborated that the physical strength and wholesome vitality that men possess could be used remarkably in schools populated by hundreds of bubbling adolescents. He was not against leadership by men, but he was for the special kinds of insight that only women could give--the wholeness and balance that is needed.

Kemper (1986) stated that throughout history most social and economic systems had been based, in part, on women's economic dependence and their subjugation to men and the male-ordained values of profit, power, and patriarchy.

Neidig (1980) stated "that women do not have a strong power core" (p. 8). Since they were the minority in leadership positions, they did not have a "power next arc" to draw from as men did. According to Fusco (1984), power

was drawn from political influences or sources and the force and authority that surrounded the leader. The subject of power, it seems, cannot be avoided when discussing leadership. The argument was that even when women were in leadership positions, they still did not have the power behind the title in the same sense that men did in the same positions. Women were not taken seriously in the position and did not have the past experience to build and draw from their "power base" structure.

Masculine and Feminine Traits

A person's personality characteristics and/or traits and how one reacts or interacts with others appears to be an important factor in whether a person succeeds or fails in a leadership position. Research done in this area warned against stereotyping men and women according to characteristics. Basil (1972) stressed that people should relate to each other on the job as humans, not as male or female. Often males and females were viewed by society as having set personality characteristics.

Spence and Helmreich (1978) stated that women administrators in higher education were not less feminine then other women. They commented that they did appear to incorporate other traits such as self-reliance, achievement, motivation, and assertiveness.

Ghazal (1989) said it was easy to characterize women who worked in administrative positions as masculine or as

possessing masculine traits, but little substantive research has been conducted on this area.

Research by Ghazal (1989) showed that stereotypes were used to keep women in subordinate positions in higher education while their male counterparts were promoted to supervisory and administrative jobs.

Bartol (1978) stressed ten differences that existed between male and female leaders, either in the way in which they perceived their (own) leadership behavior or in the way they rated themselves in their satisfaction with various aspects of their jobs.

Research done by Eskilson and Wiley (1976) revealed the main effects of sex in regard to leadership. Male leaders concentrated more significantly than female leaders on recognizable leadership behaviors. Female leaders actively demonstrated a greater performance of positive effect and appeared to have less confidence in themselves and were less likely to choose themselves as future leaders than male leaders. Both sexes displayed more directive behavior toward their own sex group. Eskilson concluded that sex-role stereotypes did affect leadership performance. Stead (1978) emphasized that organizational structures and processes were influenced by sex and there might not be a difference in male and female leadership styles. However, there might be a difference in actual male and female leadership behaviors. Stead (1978) said women might exhibit

different leadership behaviors with other women than they did with men. Women behaved in a more accommodative manner when in a leadership role. An important conclusion in the study was that women principals were more effective in resolving conflicts with staff members than male principals were.

If women were to become successful leaders then learning how to use and exercise power is an issue they cannot avoid. In society, personality characteristics appear to be classified as feminine or masculine, with the female characteristics having more negative connotations than their male counterparts. Dowd (1991) advised women not to take negative connotations or snubs from men personally "The first time you beat out a man for a promotion, you will be a bitch. The first time you get a contract that somebody else wants, you will be a bitch" (p. 78). So as a woman Dowd (1991) thought women were vulnerable to these kinds of comments. But when men succeeded in the same areas they received no such comments. Howard (1975) noted that males are expected to demonstrate more aggressive-dominant behaviors, emphasizing leadership attributes, while females are expected to demonstrate more submissive behaviors and nurturing attributes--emphasizing that of a helpmate.

Fusco (1984) noted that there was a controversy regarding the issue of whether women should emphasize male or female traits to be accepted in leadership positions.

This is confusing for women since there is no apparent evidence that males are better administrators than women.

Lack of Professional Preparation

Could it be said that women are a minority in school administration because few women have the necessary professional preparation to be effective in these positions? Professional preparation involves taking relevant administrative courses, working for a degree in the area of educational administration, and gaining relevant experiences. Neidig (1980) said that this was one of the reasons why women were not perceived by society as being as capable as men or having the necessary skills needed to do the job of an administrator. Norma (1990) reported on a study done to identify factors perceived by women professors as important for obtaining their first position as professors of educational administration. A majority identified publications as important in securing overall positions which raised the issue of doctoral programs effectiveness in preparing students for professional academia.

Cassam (1987) pointed out that in Kenya, 1,963 girls accounted for 32% of Form One entrants to high school. The relative shortage of high schools for girls compared to boys partly accounts for girls' low enrollment at the high-school level. For example, in 1968 there were 143 government secondary schools for boys, 61 for girls, and 28 that were

co-educational. This means that fewer women than men could secure places in the universities. Cassam (1987) claimed that apart from a shortage of high schools, girls do not perform well because of the demand made on them to assist in household chores.

Cassam (1987) stated that because of low education, women were kept in bottom cadres of the labor force and in marginal roles of the economy and, thereby, were unable to acquire administrative roles in schools.

Fusco (1984) said men were perceived as being employed on merit and having "high standards" (competent, qualified, efficient, authoritative). Many people (school committees, teachers, parents) think that these "high standards" would have to be lowered if women were hired to assume administrative positions. To change this picture, she recommends that women become more visible in decision-making offices, serve on committees for professional organizations, and serve on local boards of education.

Superintendents employing women principals describe them as highly qualified in educational background and in work experience. Robinson (1978) reported that it was a popular myth that women rarely posses the education and certification required for administrative positions. The evidence specifies that 56% of all masters' degrees awarded in 1973 were awarded to women. Collins (1976) said that one reason women had attained doctorates in education was that

having such a degree makes it harder for (school) boards to ignore them, and without the degree they were invisible.

Howard (1975) claimed that teachers were not usually encouraged to prepare for or apply for administrative positions (p. 29). Those responsible for selecting administrators do not look for, recommend, or choose women for these assignments. He pointed out that promotion should rest on consideration of competence and impartiality, but no method currently exists that tests a teachers competence. In the absence of valid criteria for predicting satisfactory administrative performance, administrators often rely on informal, social modes to recruit people. Women are not on an equal footing with men in terms of the kinds of informal contacts which may be necessary to insure advancement in a career. As in other occupations, the system operates to the disadvantage of women teachers.

Fusco (1984) assumed that women do not aspire to administrative positions because they were content in their teaching positions and anticipated receiving little satisfaction in administrative positions. She also said that women would like to become school administrators but lack the confidence to pursue such positions. Fierman (1990) said that many women were not rising to the top of large corporations because they quit or deliberately leapt off the first track. They missed their children or they missed not having had children. The acquisition of

confidence could become the key in the decision of women to acquire the necessary professional preparation to pursue administrative positions.

Women administrators do not seem to rate themselves high on job effectiveness. Robinson (1978) reports that superintendents employing women principals generally perceive their job effectiveness higher than the women principals perceive their own job effectiveness.

There could be many reasons for this, such as a lack of confidence in their own skills. Women are simply more self-critical of themselves and their skills or perhaps they strive to be perfect because of environmental forces surrounding them. Stegemiller (1991) said that women must hone their skills and expect to be hired based on those skills and their potential to help schools and students, not based on the fact that they simply were women.

Thus, studies seem to show that women's lack of confidence limits them from pursuing careers in educational administration.

Absenteeism

Women are stereotyped as being more frequently absent from work than men. Does the literature bear this out? It is also necessary to see if this is one reason why women are not hired as administrators.

Fusco (1984) questioned whether women were absent from work more often than men? Absenteeism was seen as another

reason for not hiring women as administrators. Being absent makes workers seem unreliable. With regard to the issue of women being absent from work more than men due to illness or injury (including childbirth and pregnancy), Howard (1975) cited public health surveys to dispel this belief. "A United States Civil Service Commission study of sick leave records showed little difference between male and female workers" (p. 23).

From the above review of literature it is difficult to conclude that women are more absent from work, though they are stereotyped as being more absent and this hinders them from being hired as educational administrators.

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Women's Low Level of Interest
in Administration

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Another concern on the topic is women's low level of interest in administration. For example, as Howard (1975) pointed out, women's lack of occupational success is not always due to discrimination but their lack of confidence. Foxley (1979) said that lack of role model makes it hard for students who never saw a woman in a leadership position to believe that women can be leaders.

Bernstein (1972) stated that almost all primary teachers are women, so it is a rare experience to see a woman as an administrator.

A woman's commitment is yet another issue hindering women. O'Leary's (1978) investigation revealed that women

are not seen as making "long-term" commitments to leadership positions.

Lack of Confidence

Why do women have a low interest in administration and lack of confidence? This issue needs to be considered. Fusco (1984) claimed that whether or not women were interested in administrative positions appears to be related to sex-role stereotyping which took place early in life. Girls might experience confusion about their career goals since they were primarily oriented toward familiar goals.

Cassam (1987) pointed out that, in Kenya, education did not seem relevant to the traditional roles of women. Illiterate women outnumber men. The system of education channeled women into fixed roles, depriving them of any creativity or a fair chance in life, undeniably lowering their aspirations in all sectors.

Howard (1975) stated that while women were often the victims of discriminatory attitudes on the part of the society in general reinforced by actual discriminatory practices, this was not always true. A case can be made that women's lack of occupational success is not always due to discrimination. One of the most formidable barriers to women's full participation in educational-leadership positions is their lack of confidence. Howard (1975) commented that because of self-doubt, self depreciation, and a built-in bias about the inherent inferiority of women in

decision making and leadership roles, women see themselves as unable to perform effectively or to be happy in such roles. As long as women feel incapable of doing the job or think they will not be happy in these roles, it is doubtful they will seek them.

Fusco (1984) said that the reason given by Clement for women's low level of aspiration is that the socialization process for most women does not prepare them to challenge men for administrative positions. Competitiveness and ambition are not highly valued as womanly attributes. Howard (1975) claimed that 57% of beginning male teachers surveyed stated that they aspired to become a school administrator in contrast to 9% of the single women, 8% of the married women, 19% of the widowed, separated, or divorced women (p. 13).

Robinson (1978) observed that once women successfully obtained administrative positions, once a woman became a administrator, there was an increased interest in pursing a higher office than the one they hold; but Paddock (1979) indicated that women principals do not aspire for career goals higher than principal. Male principals, on the other hand, have aspirations higher than being principal (i.e. superintendent, assistant superintendent, etc.).

Many women simply do not aspire to positions of leadership in education because of the negative image of the school administrator. Paddock (1979) made the point that

the negative image of the school administrator is a projection of the present administrator (middle-class male) and his lack of classroom experience. He argued that there is a need to cast an image of the administrator as a person who was willing to take initiative and responsibility for up-grading the entire educational process before minority and non-middle class women would be attracted to positions of educational leadership.

Howard (1975) argued that few women want a career as it is defined in American society--nor would most men if they could admit it.

> When we say 'career' it connotates a demanding,
> rigorous, pre-ordained life pattern, to whose goals
> everything pleasurable, human, emotional, bodily,
> frivolous are combined. . . . Thus when a man asks
> a woman if she wants a career, it is intimidating.
> He is saying, are you willing to suppress half of
> your being as I am, neglect your family as I do,
> exploit personal relationships as I do, renounce all
> personal spontaneity as I do? Naturally, she
> shudders a bit and shuffles back to the broom
> closet. (p. 75)

Howard (1975) said as long as a career continues to be defined as an all-consuming, full-time commitment, many women will not seek the opportunities available. He said it is a rare person, woman or man, who is able to handle a responsible administrative position without being threatened by its dehumanizing aspects. Howard (1975) argued that many women, for a variety of reasons, are unwilling to make the sacrifice necessary that a career approach to education involves.

Pfiffner (1976) claimed that at present, an elaborate educational system teaches women to underestimate themselves. This includes role expectations, peer-group pressures, the media, parental training, and the lack of role-models (not seeing women in positions of authority). Social practices which reinforces dependency, passivity, and non-assertiveness in girls combines with the "better dead than unwed" ideology which teaches a woman to pursue a husband, not a career.

Motivation is a factor that is closely related to the interest issue. Basil (1972), in a survey to determine attitudes toward women in management, indicated that 20% of the companies surveyed thought women lacked the necessary drive and motivation to be successful and able to stand the pressures and tensions of management. Pfiffner (1976) stressed the importance of motivation for seeking administrative positions. Women must be motivated to apply for the positions and to keep applying even when discouraged. One study (Irvin,1980) indicated that the majority of women are influenced or persuaded to become school principals by others (school administrators, other teachers, or family and friends). The women themselves stated that they never felt a strong desire for the position.

Lack of Role Models

Some studies consider why a lack of role models hinders women from pursing careers in educational administration.

Fusco (1984) commented that "There is a scarcity of role models, . . . without role models, an increase in women administrative applicants seems unlikely". She said for many women, their only female role model was their mother, few of whom hold leadership positions.

Foxley (1979) expressed the idea that ". . . the balance of the sexes in staffing . . . is restrictive in providing role models for the students. Students who never see a woman in leadership positions had a hard time believing that women can be leaders" (p. 189).

Bernstein (1972) said that if the school experiences influence role development, then women are even further limited by the adult role models they see in the educational setting. Almost all primary teachers were women, so it was a rare experience for children to see a man playing the loving, nurturing role of a teacher of the very young. Women teachers dominate the upper elementary grades as well, with only an occasional male in the classroom at that level.

The fault of this situation lies directly with the teacher training institutions and with hiring and promotion policies. Bernstein (1972) felt that warm, empathic men are not encouraged to go into elementary education; if the men

persist, they are "counseled" to work in the intermediate and junior-high grades, whereas women are advised to work in the elementary grades. There are many ways to be healthy and many ways to be masculine or feminine. It rarely occurs to those doing the hiring in education today that children can best develop satisfactory sex roles by having many models from which to choose.

Promotion policies are very limiting. A capable male teacher in the elementary school is advised to get his master's degree in administration so he can move into the ranks of principal. A similarly qualified female teacher is encouraged to obtain a master's degree in early childhood education or curriculum. Thus, the talent pool of available principal candidates is heavily overloaded with men. The options for sex-role definition would be enlarged if students could see more men as interesting and loving teachers and more women as effective and competitive administrators.

Thus the review indicates that the lack of role models is a barrier to those students who never see a woman in a leadership positions. They have a hard time believing that women can be leaders.

Women's Devotion (Commitment)

Are women willing to make as deep a commitment to an administrative position as men? Research indicates it is a myth that women were not willing to make the necessary

commitment to administrative positions. On the other hand, O'Leary's (1978) investigation pointed out that women are not seen as making "long-term" commitments to leadership positions.

Fusco (1984) said that the argument that women have the personal responsibilities of the home, family, and children is used by school committees and administrators for not recommending women to administrative positions.

The established way of thinking is that these "personal responsibilities" create conflict and interfere with women making a full-time commitment to duties and responsibilities required of leaders in administrative positions. In effect, women are seen as experiencing role conflicts.

In the past, many women followed the tradition of quitting work when they became mothers. However, more recent studies reflect changing career expectations, and existing work is characterized by initial entry, interruption for child-bearing and/or rearing of children, and reentry a few years later.

It cannot be denied that women are unlike men in the discontinuity of their work participation. In a study of the career patterns of husbands and wives who were professionals, Howard (1975) found that as many men as women had interrupted their careers, but for different reasons. The men were away from work for military service, the women

to raise children. Howard (1975) pointed out how employers often perceive these interruptions differently.

> In a curious paradox of human values men have been criticized only slightly for career interruptions in which their task was to kill other members of the human race, but women have been severely criticized for taking time away from their profession in order to raise the next generation. (p. 34)

Howard (1975) said Women are devoting less time to child-rearing and are returning to work after shorter intervals. Thus, the argument that women should not be promoted to positions of leadership because they abandon their profession to raise children is outmoded.

Howard (1975) argued that the interrupted career pattern of married female gives the male a lead on experience which is why men are promoted. Evidence from research suggests the contrary; men advance faster because they are men.

Ghazal (1989) claimed that at least one type of male behavior required by women is toughness. In addition, women should demonstrate some traditional male behavior but not surrender traditional female behavior. She said that to be a top executive, women must be willing to take a job in a different part of the business to broaden their experience. For example, they should move into such careers as finance employee relations and information services as well as moving from a staff position to a line position where they are responsible "for profit and loss, implementation and bottom-line decision making" (p. 85).

Ghazal (1989) continued to say that some executives classified women as "being too by the book and cautious" (p. 86). They are expected to be extremely competent, even more competent than men in careers "such as starting or turning around a department, handling the media, managing subordinates and customers, and chairing a task force" (p. 87). As well as being willing to assume responsibility, women executives must assume accountability for business performance. As women move up the corporate ladder, they must be willing to accept advice and criticism from male executives.

Truett (1979) referred to three types of role conflicts faced by women administrators: (1) Personality conflict which occurs when aspects of an individual's personality are in conflict with other aspects of that same individual's personality; (2) the Role-Personality conflict which is the belief that women do not possess personality traits necessary to perform the role expected of any administrator including that of an educational administrator; and (3) the Role-Role conflict which is the belief that women cannot handle two or more roles simultaneously. Truett (1979) claimed that "women who do work out these role conflicts were most likely to be the true 'cream of the crop' and provide outstanding leadership sorely needed in the field of educational administration in the 80s" (p. 150).

Howard (1975) mentioned that while women are often the victims of discriminatory attitudes on the part of society in general reinforced by actual discriminatory practices, this is not the whole story. He also pointed out that woman's lack of occupational success was not always due to discrimination. One of the most formidable barriers of women's full participation in educational leadership positions was their lack of confidence. Because of self-doubt and self depreciation, a built-in bias was created about the inherent inferiority of women relative to men in decision making and leadership. Many women see themselves as unable to perform effectively or to be happy in such roles. And as long as women feel incapable of doing the job or think they will not be happy, it was doubtful they would seek it. This position and attitude is slowly changing.

Are women less likely to aspire to leadership roles as the level of responsibility increases? Howard (1975) found that 57% of male beginning teachers aspired to become a school administrator, in contrast only 9% of the single women, 8% of the married women, and 19% of the widowed, separated, and divorced beginning teachers had such aspirations.

Whatever the motives, teachers often express satisfaction with their teaching position or they are reluctant to accept the additional responsibilities of administration. Miller's (1976) study revealed that most

women are content with their present position whether in teaching or administration while the men are not. Studies also indicate that women teachers are not interested in moving to higher status positions.

From a sample of prospective women teachers, Miller (1976) reported that as the level of the organization increases, women indicate they are less likely to accept the leadership role. Thus, women tend to place limitations on themselves in the administrative hierarchy.

The Fear of Not Succeeding as an Administrator

Do women not apply for administrative positions because they fear they might fail as administrators? This section investigates whether fear is a reason for not succeeding as an administrator.

Neidig (1980) presented the issue of fear of failing as one reason why women are not more aggressive in obtaining administrative positions. Many women feel that if they do not do an outstanding job in an administrative position or if they make some mistakes, they will not be allowed to continue in that position. Without support from their colleagues (other administrators, teachers, school board members), they would be programmed for failure. Men, on the other hand, are viewed as being capable and are employed on merit. Men are allowed to "make mistakes" and try again. Men are permitted to use failure experiences as learning

tools to make them more proficient in their positions. Women are not allowed to use failure as a learning or developing experience. If men fail, they fail as individuals. If women fail, they could jeopardize opportunities for other women.

In conclusion, Biklen and Brennigan (1980) presented the view that women might try to avoid success for fear of being rejected and failing and being seen by others as less feminine.

Summary

In summarizing the review of literature many factors were revealed as preventing women from pursuing careers in educational administration such as lack of confidence, fear of failing, sex-role stereotyping, traditions, and values. Okolo (1985), for example pointed out that culture played a big part in not letting the Kenyan woman reach her full potential, and Kanter (1979) saw it as a question of power and described how culture affected the power a woman had. Even when women are in leadership positions, they do not have as much power behind those positions. This was a perception also corroborated by Basil (1972) and Lockheed (1975).

Other factors cited in the review of literature that affect women's position as administrators were absenteeism, lack of role models and lack of professional preparation. Fusco (1984) said that without role models, an increase in

women administrative applicants seems unlikely. She said for many women, their only female role model was their mother, few of whom hold leadership positions. Neidig (1980) reported that lack of professional preparation was one of the reasons why women were not perceived by society as being as capable as men or having the necessary skills needed to do the job of an administrator. Schools have a responsibility to promote change because when students leave school they will be judged on their individual talents and skills (not their sex).

Other studies from the review of literature showed that women have a lower level of interest in administration as revealed by O'Leary's (1978). Howard (1975) also commented that because of self-doubt, and a built-in bias women see themselves as unable to perform affectively as educational administrators or be happy in such roles.

As indicated in the review of literature often males and females were viewed by society as having set personality characteristics and masculine traits more valued and feminine traits having a negative dimension of their personality. Fusco (1984) noted that there was a controversy regarding the issue of whether women should emphasize male or female traits to be accepted in leadership positions. Most of the review of literature used relating to North America was from the 60s and 70s because it was assumed that conditions in Kenya in the 80s and 90s were

very much similar to what was happening in North America at that time. Most of the literature of the 80s and 90s would not be suitable for Kenya for this time period.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine causes
that prevent women from pursuing careers in educational
administration in Kenya. This chapter presents the type of
study, the population, the instrument, the procedures, and a
descriptive analysis of the data.

Type of Study

This study was a descriptive or survey research type
since, as defined by Kerlinger (1973), it was concerned with
determining what factors contribute to keeping women from
careers in educational administration. It attempted to
provide answers to research questions (1) from the review of
literature and (2) from the survey data. The differences in
response among several categories of respondents were
studied question by question.

Population

This study was conducted in Kenya and also in North
America. The population consisted of all the women teachers
employed by the Ministry of Education, with a total of just
over 1000 and 30 Kenyan women students studying in

54

universities in North America.

Sample

With the aid of a table of random numbers, a stratified random sampling technique was used to select 22 women teachers from each of five educational domains of the population. These educational domains collected from the Kenya embassy were: university 50; commercial and technical colleges 150; secondary 290; primary 510; and Kenyan female students studying education in North American universities 30. This provided a sample of 110 women teachers.

Instrument

A questionnaire was used for data collection. It was developed to focus on specific issues researched and presented in the review of literature which were thought to be critical factors in deterring Kenyan women away from careers in educational administration.

It was necessary to develop this instrument since no known instrument was available that would have been appropriate in gathering information dealing with women's personal and social attitudes regarding educational administration in Kenya.

A two-part questionnaire was used to gather data for the study. The first part of the instrument asked for demographic and professional data concerning the women attempting to pursue careers in educational administration

without identifying the respondents by name. The second
part of the questionnaire consisted of items eliciting
information on the environment, interest, confidence,
support-encouragement, commitment, and fear of failing in an
administrative position. To ascertain content validity, the
questionnaire was given to the dissertation committee
members and 10 professionals who are educational
administrators. Opinions were sought as to whether the
questions were worded clearly, whether important questions
were omitted, and whether anything else should be included.
The questionnaire was modified according to the suggestions
made by the professionals.

Normally, it is considered essential to subject a new
instrument to a pilot study and perform an item analysis on
the data produced. However, no adequate sample of the
population was available in North America and it was not
possible because of visa and finance limitations to
personally conduct a pilot study in Kenya.

Therefore, the instrument was administered with
validity only established. All the items were tested by
Chi-Square for significant differences related to the
marital status, age, education, and experience of
respondents. The alpha level was .05 for all tests.

To show their degree of agreement with the statements,
each respondent drew a circle around one of five numbers
following each statement. The numbers stood for the

following ratings: 5 - strongly agree; 4 - agree; 3 -
uncertain; 2 - disagree; 1 - strongly disagree.

Collection of Data

Permission was sought from the Minister of Education
to conduct the study. A letter explaining the purpose of
the study asked for the respondent's help in completing the
questionnaire and assured confidentiality of each
respondent. A stamped, self-addressed envelope was enclosed
for the respondents' use to return the questionnaire.

Any respondent who did not return the questionnaire
within six weeks received a second letter requesting the
completion of the questionnaire and its return by mail. Of
the 110 questionnaires that were sent, 86% were returned.
The respondents from the various groups were 20 (Kenya
students in North America studying education), 21
(university women teachers), 19 (commercial and technical
colleges) 20 (secondary), and 15 (primary schools).

Descriptive Analysis

The data were analyzed in several ways. The first of
these was a description of the data according to four
demographic analyses of the respondents. These categories
were: (1) age, (2) experience, (3) marital status, and (4)
education.

Major perceptions were examined by ranking the
statements in the second part of the questionnaire according

to their weighted scores. The data were analyzed by describing the items and then testing for significant differences related to marital status, age, education, and experience. All 52 items were tested by Chi-square and the alpha level was .05 for all tests.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the issues
and problems confronting women and to determine factors
preventing women from pursuing careers in educational
administration.

This chapter presents the analysis of data which were
collected by a two-part questionnaire. The first part of
the instrument asked for demographic and professional data
concerning the women teachers and their attempt to pursue
careers in educational administration in Kenya. The women
were not identified by name. The second part of the
questionnaire consisted of items eliciting information on
the environment, interest, support-encouragement,
commitment, and fear of failing in an administrative
position.

Demographic Description of
Section 1 of the Questionnaire

The questionnaires sent to the sample of Kenyan women
teachers asked them to state their marital status (see Table
1). The number of women teachers who responded consisted of

59

36 (37.89%) single women and 59 (62.11%) married women.
Single women in this study included unmarried, divorced,
separated, and widowed women.

Table 2 shows that 36 respondents (37.9%) were between
the ages of 20 and 35. Among this group 16 (16.85%) were
married and 20 (21.05) were single. Fifty-nine (62.1%)
respondents were in the 36 to 55 age group. Among this

Table 1

Distribution of Married and
Single Women Teachers

Marital Status	No. of Responses	% of Responses
Married	59	62.11
Single	36	37.89
Total	95	100

group, 43 (45.25%) were married and 16 (16.85%) were single.
The married female teachers were mostly in the 36 to 55 age
group, while the singles were mostly in the 20 to 35 age
group. The reason might then be that married women
according to Table 3, had more years of teaching experience
and hence would be older.

Table 3 presents data on the years of experience of
the Kenyan women teachers surveyed. This table shows that
33 respondents had 1 to 9 years of experience, 19 were

married women, and 14 single women; 62 respondents had 10 to 39 years of experience, 40 were married women and 22 were single women.

Table 2

Distribution of Age Among Married
and Single Women

Age	Marital Status		% of Respondents		Combined	
	Married	Single	Married	Single	Number	%
20 - 35	16	20	16.85	21.05	36	37.9
36 - 55	43	16	45.25	16.85	59	62.1
Total	59	36	62.10	37.90	95	100

Table 3

Distribution of Teachers According to
Teaching Experience

Years of Experience	Marital Status		Combined
	Married	Single	Number
1 - 10	19	14	33
11+	40	22	62
Total	59	36	95

Table 4 shows data on the number of dependents. Note that 25 respondents (26.32%) had no dependents; 21 of these were single women teachers and four were married women teachers. The majority of the married women had three or

62

Table 4

Distribution of Dependents Among
Married and Single Women Teachers

Marital Status		Number of Dependents	Combined	
Married	Single		N	%
4	21	0	25	26.32
4	1	1	5	5.26
5	0	2	5	5.26
13	3	3	16	16.84
7	1	4	8	8.42
9	3	5	12	12.63
9	1	6	10	10.53
5	4	7	9	9.48
3	2	8	5	5.26
---	---		---	-----
59	36		95	100.00

more dependents, and 17 of them had six to eight dependents. It must be recognized that women with such large families would be greatly tied down with family responsibilities and might not be able to pursue careers in educational administration.

Table 5 shows that 39 women had a diploma; 27 of these were married and 12 were single. Another 37 women had a bachelor's degree; 26 of which were married and 11 were single. Seven women had a master's degree (three married and four single) and three married women and nine single women had a doctorate. It appears that single women have proportionally more degrees than married women, and they had less years of experience and were less advanced in age, and they also had less time to complete an advanced degree.

Table 5

Distribution of Highest Earned
College Degrees Among Women Teachers

Degree	Marital Status		Combined	
	Married	Single	Number	%
Diploma	26	13	39	41.05
Bachelors	24	14	38	38.95
Master's	3	4	7	7.37
Doctorate	6	5	11	12.63
Total	59	36	95	100.00

Table 6 presents data on the various positions in education known by the respondents to be held by women. As noted, all 95 respondents know of no woman serving as Minister of Education. Very few know a woman as a director of education; only one single woman respondent knows of a woman director of education, eight respondents (6 married and 2 single) know of a woman who is a secretary of education, 15 know a woman superintendent of education. This table indicates the various administrative positions held in Kenya by women known to the respondents. For example, only eight women knew of a woman as a secretary of education. This lack of role models might hinder women from pursuing careers in educational administration.

Table 7 indicates positions of interest that women would like to hold now or in the future. The table shows only 12 respondents (7 married and 5 single women) who would like to hold a position as minister of education; 26 (13

Table 6

Various Positions Held by Women
in Education in Kenya

"No" Responses

Positions	No		Combined	
	Married	Single	N	%
Minister of Education	59	36	95	100.00
Director of Education	59	35	94	98.95
Secretary of Education	53	34	87	91.58
Superintendent of Educ.	50	30	80	84.21
Administrative Officer	43	24	67	70.53
Chancellor of University	56	31	87	91.58
Provincial Officer	38	21	59	62.11
District Educ. Officer	7	6	13	13.68
Principal	2	1	3	3.16
Secondary Headmistress	2	1	3	3.16
Primary Headmistress	7	5	12	12.63
Other	56	32	88	92.63

"Yes" Responses

Positions	Yes		Combined	
	Married	Single	N	%
Minister of Education	0	0	0	0.00
Director of Education	0	1	1	1.05
Secretary of Education	6	2	8	8.42
Superintendent of Educ.	9	6	15	15.79
Administrative Officer	16	12	28	29.47
Chancellor of University	3	5	8	8.42
Provincial Officer	21	15	36	37.89
District Educ. Officer	52	30	82	86.32
Principal	57	35	92	96.84
Secondary Headmistress	57	35	92	96.84
Primary Headmistress	52	31	83	87.37
Other	3	4	7	7.37

Table 7

Positions of Interest Available for Women to Hold Now
Or in the Future in Education in Kenya

"No" Responses

Positions	No		Combined	
	Married	Single	N	%
Minister of Education	52	31	83	87.37
Director of Education	46	23	69	72.63
Secretary of Education	44	21	65	68.42
Superintendent of Educ.	44	25	69	72.63
Administrative Officer	42	21	63	66.32
Chancellor of University	52	28	80	84.21
Provincial Officer	36	25	61	64.21
District Educ. Officer	28	10	38	40.00
Principal	31	17	48	50.53
Secondary Headmistress	40	21	61	64.21
Primary Headmistress	48	30	78	82.11
Other	57	35	92	96.84

"Yes" Responses

Positions	Yes		Combined	
	Married	Single	N	%
Minister of Education	7	5	12	12.63
Director of Education	13	13	26	27.37
Secretary of Education	15	15	30	31.58
Superintendent of Educ.	15	11	26	27.37
Administrative Officer	17	15	32	33.68
Chancellor of University	7	8	15	15.79
Provincial Officer	23	11	34	35.79
District Educ. Officer	31	26	57	60.00
Principal	28	19	47	49.47
Secondary Headmistress	19	15	34	35.79
Primary Headmistress	11	6	17	17.89
Other	2	1	3	3.16

married and 13 single women) would like to be a director of
education, and 30 as secretary of education. More women
were willing to pursue careers as provincial officers, as
shown by 34 respondents (23 married and 11 single women).
Even more, are interested to be district education officers,
57 respondents (31 married and 26 single women); as
principals 47 respondents (28 married and 19 single women);
and as secondary headmistresses, 34 respondents (19 married
and 15 single). Married women were interested in lower
administrative positions, probably because most of them have
either a diploma or a bachelor's degree. Also, married
women with more dependents and the added home responsibility
and culture demands that they take care of their husbands
and children are prevented from aspiring to higher
administrative positions.

<u>An Analysis of the Data of</u>
<u>Section 2 of the Questionnaire</u>

This section presents an analysis of the data of the
second part of the questionnaire. Table 8 shows the
responses of Kenyan women teachers for each item. These
items were drawn from the following categories: a career in
educational administration, qualification, interest and
commitment, discrimination policies and remuneration,
confidence and job performance, cultural and environmental
alienation.

Table 8 shows all 52 items noting their number, their rank order, the weighted score, the percentage of the maximum possible score, and the responses. The weighted score for each item was determined by multiplying the respective responses by their weighted scores (1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for uncertain, 4 for agree, and 5 for strongly agree.) The highest possible weighted score was 475 (5 x 95 = 475). The items are described according to their ranked order starting with the highest weighted score.

Table 9 shows, for the 52 items of the questionnaire, the Chi-Square value and the probability when testing for significance in relation to marital status, age, education, or experience. An asterisk indicates significance at or below the .05 level.

Contengency tables are given for each Chi-square that was significant. The column headings indicate how columns were combined. The omission of a column number in the heading indicates a column with zero observed and hence expected frequencies. A number of low column totals in the contingency tables led to a proportion of small expected frequencies beyond that usually recommended--no more than 20% of the cells with expected frequencies below 5. Therefore columns (and in one case a row) were combined for many tables in such a way as to reduce as far as possible the proportion of cells with low expected frequencies.

Table 8

Issues and Problems Facing Women in Ranked Order

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
My culture is a barrier in pursuing a career in education administration.	45	1	454	95.6	0	0	1	19	75
Kenyan women ought to show more interest in educational administration.	16	2	452	95.1	0	0	2	19	74
Admission to a career in educational administration should be based on consideration of competence and qualification and not on sex.	10	3	451	94.9	0	0	0	24	71
The domineering behavior of Kenyan males in their attempt to keep women under their control is a reason why women do not aspire to a career in educational administration.	48	4	448	94.3	0	1	0	24	70
Men tend to be given higher performance ratings than women when the actual performance is the same.	30	5	447	94.1	0	1	2	21	71
Educational administration should be a major in Kenyan Universities and colleges.	1	6	441	92.8	0	1	2	28	64

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Table 8 (Continued)

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
Women would apply for educational administrative positions if the pay were comparable as other administrative positions in the commercial and industrial sectors.	21	7	440	92.6	0	1	6	20	68
Preconceived notions about sex roles should be set aside when hiring or promoting any staff for administrative position.	25	8	440	92.6	0	0	2	31	62
Advanced degrees are the key to administrative positions and higher salaries and women are not showing much willingness to prepare for them.	9	9	436	91.8	0	0	1	34	60
I would like to pursue a career in education administration in the future.	5	10	435	91.5	0	1	0	47	47
Lack of role-models is preventing women from being interested in administrative positions.	19	10	435	91.5	0	0	0	40	55
Peer group pressures reduce women's interest in administrative positions.	20	12	431	90.7	0	1	0	39	55

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Table 8 (Continued)

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
The interruption caused by child-bearing and rearing would make it difficult for me to be accepted in an administrative position.	46	13	429	90.3	0	4	0	34	57
The fear of failing in an administrative position is one of the major reasons I have not aspired to such a position.	37	14	420	88.4	0	5	1	38	51
Women are more likely to drop out of educational administration than men are.	14	15	418	88	0	2	7	37	49
Family responsibilities as imposed by the husband is a strong deterrent to a woman's administrative aspirations.	49	16	415	87.3	0	1	0	57	37
One of the major reasons women do not aspire to positions in educational administration is because men discriminate against them by recommending men for promotion.	26	17	412	86.7	0	3	0	54	38
Men are more likely than women to be willing to undertake advanced training for administrative position.	8	18	410	86.3	0	2	0	59	34

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Table 8 (Continued)

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
A position in school administration would give me a feeling of self-satisfaction.	12	18	410	86.3	0	0	2	55	38
A major reason why women are discriminated against is because family pressures reduce their job performance.	29	18	410	86.3	1	2	0	54	38
Women cannot be depended on to the extent men can be in administrative positions.	39	21	408	85.8	0	5	7	38	45
The possibility of having to fire or discipline someone makes me reluctant to enter the education administration profession.	18	22	407	85.6	0	7	2	43	43
Other peoples' biases about women's inferiority make me feel incompetent in decision-making and leadership.	41	23	407	85.6	0	4	2	52	37
Women are limited especially in skills which are generally associated with managerial positions.	40	24	406	85.4	1	3	2	52	37

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Table 8 (Continued)

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
Men do not like intelligent and confident women as administrators.	24	24	406	85.4	1	6	19	39	30
My conception about my career is shaped by societal expectations of a male-dominated society.	43	26	403	84.8	0	3	5	53	34
Educational administration would be my first choice for a career.	2	26	403	84.8	0	0	4	64	27
I have complete confidence in my skills and abilities to be a successful school administrator.	36	28	399	84	0	2	2	66	25
Women and men in Kenya are able to work together in a congenial manner.	42	29	398	83.7	0	1	10	54	30
I would not be able to work successfully as an administrator because of interruptions caused by bearing and raising children.	50	30	397	83.5	0	8	2	50	35
A major reason why women do not seek an administrative position is that they feel incapable of doing the job of an administrator.	17	30	397	83.5	0	9	5	41	40

Table 8 (Continued)

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
In a given social situation, the way I play my role is dependent upon how perceive me.	44	32	394	82.9	0	7	6	48	34
As far as administrative positions are concerned women don't have the same skills as men.	32	33	393	82.7	0	10	0	52	33
Educational Administration as a career is very important in my life.	4	33	393	82.7	0	0	8	66	21
I feel I am inadequate to press my opinion because I am a woman.	33	34	387	81.4	1	7	0	62	25
Women and men accept responsibilities for their actions.	38	36	378	79.5	0	4	12	61	18
I have been advised to lower my expectations regarding an administrative position simply because of my sex.	27	37	373	78.5	1	9	3	64	18
My male superiors at work have resented my giving my opinions.	52	38	372	78.3	0	10	16	41	28

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Table 8 (Continued)

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
I would rather be fulfilling traditional sex roles than pursuing educational administration as a career.	13	39	358	75.3	3	17	4	45	26
I am not interested in making the commitment of time and effort required for positions in educational administration.	11	40	355	74.7	2	19	1	52	21
Most women would prefer not to work under a woman administrator.	31	41	342	72	0	18	19	41	17
In a given administrative decision-making situation I am able to adequately stand my ground without being concerned about my gender.	34	42	341	71.7	2	24	3	48	18
I believe in the traditional attitude that "a woman's place is in the home".	47	43	335	70.5	4	15	18	43	15
Preferential hiring of males is justified because men are more effective administrators than women.	22	44	313	65.8	3	30	8	44	10
I am satisfied to remain as a teacher.	7	45	309	65	7	25	3	57	3

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Table 8 (Continued)

Questionnaire Items	Item Number	Rank Order	Weighted Score	%	Raw Scores (95 Respondents)				
					SD	D	N	A	SA
The only way I can know if I am doing a good job is to compare myself to a man rather than measure myself against a job description.	35	46	293	61.6	2	21	10	51	11
I would not work for a woman administrator.	15	47	274	57.6	5	41	15	28	6
Women are given too few opportunities for training in education administration in Kenya.	3	48	270	56.8	10	41	12	18	14
Women are just as able as men to deal with pressure in higher administrative positions.	28	49	266	56	9	48	5	19	14
I have been advised or encouraged to seek an administrative position.	51	50	265	55.8	4	55	6	17	13
The starting remuneration for a male administrator should be higher than for a female administrator.	23	51	259	54.2	7	50	10	18	10
I have applied for an administrative position without success.	6	52	254	53.4	5	52	9	27	2

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Table 9

Table of Chi-Square Value and Probability when Testing Significant Differences in Relation to Marital Status, Age, Education, and Experience

Item	Marital Status X^2	P	Age X^2	P	Education X^2	P	Experience X^2	P
1	0.701	0.402	0.005	0.945	1.255	0.124	0.134	0.714
2	4.186	0.123	1.330	0.514	1.893	0.756	1.934	0.380
3	1.609	0.807	1.113	0.892	27.522	* 0.001	2.323	0.677
4	1.925	0.382	1.742	0.419	5.090	0.278	2.297	0.317
5	0.180	0.671	6.635	* 0.010	2.701	0.259	0.180	0.671
6	1.386	0.709	2.264	0.520	11.439	0.076	1.728	0.631
7	2.806	0.246	3.567	0.168	16.452	* 0.001	3.910	0.142
8	0.493	0.483	0.065	0.799	0.764	0.683	1.184	0.277
9	0.580	0.446	0.428	0.513	3.568	0.168	0.026	0.872
10	0.194	0.660	0.041	0.840	2.286	0.319	0.426	0.514
11	6.009	* 0.050	2.004	0.367	20.573	* 0.001	0.587	0.746
12	0.067	0.796	0.069	0.793	8.315	* 0.016	0.266	0.606
13	5.988	* 0.050	2.717	0.437	21.233	* 0.001	3.482	0.323
14	6.163	* 0.046	2.068	0.356	11.680	* 0.020	9.300	* 0.010
15	3.747	0.441	3.289	0.511	14.629	0.067	4.446	0.349
16	0.282	0.595	0.071	0.790	4.901	0.086	1.221	0.269
17	0.338	0.953	0.923	0.820	13.311	* 0.010	1.309	0.727
18	0.181	0.913	0.526	0.769	18.656	* 0.008	0.327	0.849
19	0.623	0.430	2.551	0.110	0.059	0.971	1.208	0.272
20	0.051	0.821	0.681	0.409	0.857	0.652	0.001	0.978
21	1.790	0.409	0.421	0.810	2.013	0.733	6.692	* 0.035
22	2.944	0.400	2.574	0.462	8.655	* 0.013	1.173	0.760
23	1.554	0.817	1.680	0.794	5.564	0.696	2.428	0.658
24	5.176	0.159	7.141	0.068	8.088	0.232	9.134	* 0.028
25	0.441	0.507	0.969	0.325	1.643	0.440	0.142	0.706
26	4.728	* 0.030	0.210	0.647	10.228	* 0.037	0.056	0.813
27	1.042	0.594	8.038	* 0.018	6.528	0.163	1.660	0.436
28	5.688	0.224	5.136	0.274	17.682	* 0.001	4.102	0.392
29	0.077	0.781	0.077	0.781	7.171	* 0.028	1.845	0.174
30	0.047	0.829	1.792	0.181	4.086	0.130	8.219	* 0.004
31	5.110	0.164	0.783	0.853	24.610	* 0.001	3.376	0.337
32	2.546	0.280	3.551	0.169	15.061	* 0.005	2.213	0.331
33	0.885	0.643	2.821	0.244	11.700	* 0.020	2.598	0.273
34	4.089	0.129	0.100	0.951	5.551	0.235	1.189	0.552
35	5.940	0.115	5.967	0.113	17.741	* 0.001	8.490	* 0.037
36	0.744	0.689	0.517	0.772	2.828	0.587	0.627	0.731
37	0.560	0.756	1.185	0.553	10.397	* 0.006	1.364	0.506
38	2.001	0.572	4.853	0.183	7.116	0.310	3.408	0.333
39	1.234	0.745	1.587	0.662	22.877	* 0.001	7.162	0.067
40	0.060	0.970	0.721	0.697	2.619	0.624	4.160	0.125
41	0.204	0.903	3.944	0.139	11.983	* 0.017	2.089	0.352
42	4.097	0.129	2.130	0.345	4.448	0.349	2.747	0.253
43	0.908	0.635	0.014	0.993	6.150	0.188	1.347	0.510
44	5.745	0.125	0.174	0.982	10.865	* 0.028	7.533	0.057
45	1.577	0.209	6.462	* 0.011	2.387	0.303	0.166	0.684
46	0.296	0.862	0.234	0.890	4.681	0.322	1.066	0.587

Table 9 (Continued)

	Marital Status		Age		Education		Experience	
Item	X^2	P	X^2	P	X^2	P	X^2	P
47	4.246	0.374	1.077	0.898	24.172	*0.001	5.032	0.284
48	0.774	0.379	2.670	0.102	0.989	0.610	5.635	* 0.031
49	0.285	0.593	0.028	0.866	2.735	0.255	0.632	0.427
50	1.666	0.435	5.695	0.058	7.710	0.103	7.249	* 0.027
51	0.845	0.932	4.746	0.314	5.744	0.876	7.741	0.102
52	6.725	0.081	1.468	0.690	8.556	0.200	4.745	0.191

* Showing items with significance at .05 level.

Item 45 of the questionnaire had the highest weighted score of 454 and 95.57% of the maximum possible score (see Table 8). No significant differences were noted relating to marital status, degree, or experience; but there were significance differences related to age as shown on Table 9. Table 10 is the contingency table relating age categories to responses. It appears that more of those in the 41-55 age group agreed that culture is a barrier in pursuing a career in educational administration as compared to those in the 20-40 age group; whereas more of the younger group strongly agreed with item 45 than the older group.

Item 16 stating that Kenyan women ought to show more interest in educational administration had the second highest weighted score of 452 and a percentage of 95.25 (Table 8). No significant differences appeared when comparing marital status, age, education, and experience (see Table 9).

Table 10

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 45 Relating to Age Group

Frequency Row Pct	3,4	5	Total
20-40	8 13.11	53 86.89	61
41-55	12 35.29	22 64.71	34
Total	20	75	95

Item 10 urging that admission to a career in educational administration should be based on consideration of competence and qualification and not on sex had a weighted score of 451 and 94.9% (see Table 8). No significance differences were evident relating to marital status, age, education, or experience (see Table 9).

Item 48 stating that the domineering behavior of Kenyan males in their attempt to keep women under their control is a reason why women do not aspire to a career in educational administration was the fourth highest with a weighted score of 448 and a percentage of 94.3 (see Table 8). No significance differences appeared with respect to marital status, age, or education. However, significance differences were related to their work experience (see Table

9). Table 11 shows the contingency table relating years of
work experience to responses. Those with 0 to 10 years
experience tended to be stronger in their agreement than
those with more experience.

Item 30 stating that men tend to be given higher
performance ratings than women when the actual performance
is the same had a weighted score of 447 and a percentage of
94.1 (see Table 8). There were no significant differences

Table 11

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 48 Relating to Experience

Frequency Row Pct	4	5	Total
0-10	5 13.5	32 86.5	37
11+	19 33.3	38 66.7	57
Total	24	70	94

relating to their marital status, degree, or age. However,
significance differences were related to their work
experience (see Table 9). Table 12 shows the contingency
table relating years of work experience to responses. More
of those who had 0-10 years of experience strongly agreed as
compared to those with 11 years or more. It appears that
women teachers who have had longer years of experience have
stronger feelings about item 30 because of what may have

happened to them as compared to younger teachers who might not as yet have experienced this discrimination.

Items 1, 25, and 9 had weighted scores of 441, 440, and 436, respectively. These items did not have significant differences relating to marital status, age, education, and experience (see Table 9).

Item 21 stating that women would apply for educational administratrative positions if the pay were comparable as other administrative positions in the commercial and

Table 12

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 30 Relating to Experience

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
0-10	2 5.40	2 5.41	33 89.19	37
11+	1 1.72	19 32.76	38 65.52	58
Total	3	21	71	95

industrial sectors had a weighted score of 440 and 92.6% (see Table 8). There were no significant differences related to marital status, age, or education. There were significant differences relating to experience (see Table 9). Table 13 shows the contingency table relating years of experience to responses. Those with up to 10 years of

experience tended to agree more strongly with the statement
than those with more experience.

Table 13

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 21 Relating to Experience

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
0-10	1	4	32	37
	2.7	10.8	86.5	
11+	6	16	36	58
	10.3	27.6	62.1	
Total	7	20	68	95

Item 5 stating that Kenyan women would like to pursue
a career in educational administration in the future had a
weighted score of 435 and 91.5% (see Table 8). There were
no significant differences related to marital status,
degree, or experience. There were significance differences
related to age (see Table 9). Table 14 shows the
contingency table relating age to responses. More women
teachers in the younger age group were stronger in their
agreement than those in the older age group. Of those in
younger age group 38 were married and 22 were single. Items
19, 20, and 46 had weighted scores of 435, 431, and 429,
respectively. These items did not have significant
differences relating to marital status, age, education, or
experience.

Table 14

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 5 Relating to Age Group

Frequency Row Pct	4	5	Total
20-40	24 39.34	36 59.02	60
41-55	23 67.65	11 32.35	34
Total	47	47	94

Item 37 stating that the fear of failing in an
administrative position is one of the major reasons women
have not aspired to such a position had a weighted score of
420 and a percentage of 88.4 (see Table 8). There were no
significant differences relating to marital status, age, or
experience. A significant difference related to education
(see Table 9). Table 15 shows the contingency table
relating education level to responses. More graduate women
teachers disagreed with this statement than either the
bachelor or diploma holders. And 75 percent of the these
graduate women teachers were over 41 years of age.

Item 14 stating that women are more likely to drop out
of educational administration than men had a weighted score
of 418 (88%) (see Table 8). There were no significant
differences related to age. There were significant
differences relating to their marital status, experience,
and degree (see Table 9). Table 16 shows the contingency

Table 15

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 37 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4,5	Total
DIPLOMA	0 0.00	39 100.00	39
BACHELOR	2 5.26	36 94.74	38
GRADUATE	4 22.22	14 77.78	18
Total	6	89	95

table relating marital status to responses. More married
women (majority of whom were under 40 years and diploma or
bachelor holders) strongly agreed as compared to single
women teachers (who were also under 40 years and diploma or
bachelor holders). Also more single women agreed than
married women, whereas more married women disagreed than
single women. Table 17 shows the contingency table relating
years of experience to responses. More of those with 0-10
years of experience agreed compared with those with 11 or
above years of experience; whereas more of those with 11
years and above strongly agreed compared with those with 0
to 10 years of experience; and more of those with 11 and
above years of experience disagreed than those with 0-10
years of experience. Table 18 show the contingency table
relating degree level to responses. Those with a bachelors

degree were less strong in their agreement with this
statement than those with diploma or graduate degrees.

Table 16

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 14 Relating to Marital Status

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
MARRIED	8	18	33	59
	13.56	30.51	55.93	
SINGLE	1	19	16	36
	2.78	52.78	44.44	
Total	9	37	49	95

Table 17

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 14 Relating to Experience

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
0-10	1	21	15	37
	2.70	56.76	40.54	
11+	8	16	34	58
	13.79	27.59	58.62	
Total	9	37	49	95

Item 49 pointing out that family responsibilities as
imposed by the husband is a strong deterrent to a woman's
administrative aspirations had a weighted score of 415
(87.3%) (see Table 8). There were no significant

Table 18

Table of Frequency and Percentage for Item 14 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	2	11	26	39
	5.1	28.2	66.7	
BACHELOR	7	18	13	38
	18.4	47.4	34.2	
GRADUATE		8	10	18
		44.4	55.6	
Total	9	37	49	95

differences with respect to age, education, marital status, or experience.

Item 26 stating that one of major reasons women do not aspire to positions in educational administration is because men discriminate against them by recommending men for promotion had a weighted score of 412 (86.7%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to age or experience. However significant differences were noted among the marital status and education levels (see Table 9). Table 19 shows the contingency table relating marital status to responses. The single women teachers tended to agree more strongly than the married women teachers. Table 20 shows the contingency table relating educational level to responses. More of the bachelor and diploma holders

Table 19

Table of Frequency and Percentage for Item 26 Relating to Marital Status

Frequency Row Pct	4	5	Total
MARRIED	39 67.2	19 32.8	58
SINGLE	15 44.1	19 55.9	34
Total	54	38	92

disagreed compared to graduate holders. The graduate degree holders were more strongly in agreement with the statement than the other two groups.

Table 20

Table of Frequency and Percentage for Item 26 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	1 2.56	25 64.10	13 33.33	39
BACHELOR	2 5.26	24 63.16	12 31.58	38
GRADUATE	0 0.00	5 27.78	13 72.22	18
Total	3	54	38	95

Item 8 stating that men are more likely than women to be willing to undertake advanced training for administrative

positions had a weighted score of 410. There were no significant differences relating to age, marital status, education, or experience (see Table 9).

Item 12 stating that a position in school administration would give women teachers a feeling of self-satisfaction had a weighted score of 410 (86.3%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to age, marital status, or experience. There were significant differences relating to degree level (see table 9). Table 21 shows the contigency table relating degree level to responses. Those with graduate degrees tended to agree more strongly than the other two groups, while the diplomas agreed more strongly than the bachelors.

Item 29 stating that a major reason why women are discriminated against is because family pressures reduce

Table 21

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 12 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	3,4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	23 59.0	16 41.0	39
BACHELOR	28 73.7	10 26.3	38
GRADUATE	6 33.3	12 66.7	18
Total	57	38	95

their job performance had a weighted score of 410 (86.3%)
(see Table 8). There were no significant differences
relating to marital status, age, or experience. There were
significant differences relating to degree (see Table 9).
Table 22 shows the contigency table relating degree level to
responses. Graduate women agreed more strongly than
bachelors, who agreed more strongly than diplomas.

Item 39 stating that women cannot be depended on to the
extent men can be in administrative positions had a weighted
score of 408 (85.8%) (see Table 8). There were no
significant differences for this item relating to their
marital status, age, or experience. There were significant
differences relating to degree (see Table 9). Table 23
shows the contingency table relating degree level to
responses. More graduate teachers disagreed with this item

Table 22

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 29 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	27	11	38
	71.1	28.9	
BACHELOR	21	15	36
	58.3	41.7	
GRADUATE	6	12	18
	33.3	66.7	
Total	54	38	92

compared to bachelor and diploma holders. More diploma holders strongly agreed than either bachelor or graduate holders. More bachelor degree teachers agreed with this item than diploma or graduate holders. Even though 61.11% of the graduate women agreed or strongly agreed, 38.89% disagreed with the statement that women could not be depended on to the extent men might be in administrative positions.

Item 18 which stated that the possibility of having to fire or discipline someone makes one reluctant to enter the educational administration profession had a weighted score of 407 (85.6%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to marital status, age, and experience. There were significant differences relating to their degrees (see Table 9). Table 24 shows the contingency table

Table 23

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 39 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	3 7.69	10 25.64	26 66.67	39
BACHELOR	2 5.26	22 57.89	14 36.84	38
GRADUATE	7 38.89	6 33.33	5 27.78	18
Total	12	38	45	95

Table 24

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 18 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	1 2.56	17 43.59	21 53.85	39
BACHELOR	3 7.89	22 57.89	13 34.21	38
GRADUATE	5 27.78	4 22.22	9 50.00	18
Total	9	43	43	95

relating degree level to responses. More graduate women teachers disagreed as compared to the bachelor and diploma holders; more bachelor and diploma holders agreed than the graduate holders.

Item 41 which stated that other people's biases about women's inferiority make them feel incompetent in decision making and leadership had a weighted score of 407 (85.6%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences related to marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences relating to their educational level (see Table 9). Table 25 shows the contingency table relating educational level to responses. More graduate women disagreed with the statement compared to diploma and bachelor holders. More diploma holders agreed than the bachelor and graduate holders, whereas more graduate women

strongly agreed with the item than the bachelor and diploma holders.

Table 25

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 41 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	1 2.56	28 71.79	10 25.64	39
BACHELOR	2 6.26	19 50.00	17 44.74	38
GRADUATE	3 16.67	5 27.78	10 55.56	18
Total	6	52	37	95

Item 40 stating that women are limited especially in skills which are generally associated with managerial positions had a weighted score of 406 (85.4%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences related to age, marital status, experience, or education (see Table 9).

Item 24 which stated that men do not like intelligent and confident women as administrators had a weighted score of 406 (85.4%) (see Table 8). No significant differences were found that related to marital status, age, or degree. There were significant differences relating to their experience (see Table 9). Table 26 shows the contingency table relating years of work experience to responses. More of those with 0-10 years of experience disagreed with the

statement when compared with those with 11 years and more
whereas more of those with 11 years of experience and above
were indifferent compared with those with 0-10 years.

Table 26

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 24 Relating to Experience

Frequency Row Pct	1,2	3	4	5	Total
0-10	6	4	16	11	37
	16.22	10.81	43.24	29.73	
11+	1	15	23	19	58
	1.72	25.86	39.66	32.76	
Total	7	19	39	30	95

Items 2, 43, 36, and 42, had weighted scores of 403,
403, 399, and 398 respectively (see Table 8).
These statements had no significant differences relating to
age, marital status, experience, or education (see Table 9).

Item 50 stating that women would not be able to work
successfully as administrators because of the interruptions
caused by bearing and raising children had a weighted score
of 397 (83.5%) (see Table 8). There were no significant
differences relating to marital status, age, or degree.
There were significant differences relating to experience.
Table 27 shows the contigency table relating work experience
to responses. Those with up to 10 years experience were
more in agreement than those with more experience.

Table 27

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 50 Relating to Experience

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
0-10		21 56.8	16 43.2	37
11+	10 17.2	29 50.0	19 32.8	58
Total	10	50	35	95

Item 17 stating that a major reason why women do not

seek an administrative position is that they feel incapable

of doing the job of an administrator had a weighted score of

397 (83.5%) (see Table 8). There were no significant

differences relating to marital status, age, or experience.

Significant differences did exist that were related to

educational level (see Table 9). Table 28 shows the

contingency table relating educational level to responses.

More graduate women strongly agreed with the item when

compared with bachelor and diploma holders that a major

reason why women do not seek an administrative position is

that they feel incapable of doing the job of an

administrator, but the same proportion of graduate and

bachelors disagreed with the item.

Item 44 stating that in a given social situation the

way women play their role is dependent upon how others

perceive them had a weighted score of 394 (82.9%) (see Table

Table 28

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 17 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	1 2.56	22 56.41	16 41.03	39
BACHELOR	9 23.68	16 42.11	13 34.21	38
GRADUATE	4 22.22	3 16.67	11 61.11	18
Total	14	41	40	95

8). There were no significant differences relating to marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences relating to education (see Table 9). Table 29 shows the contingency table relating degree level to

Table 29

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 44 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	3 7.69	24 61.54	12 30.77	39
BACHELOR	4 10.53	20 52.63	14 36.84	39
GRADUATE	6 33.33	4 22.22	8 44.44	18
Total	13	48	34	95

responses. More graduate women disagreed with the statement than the diploma and bachelor degree holders.

Item 32 had a weighted score of 393 (82.7%) stating that as far as administrative skills are concerned women do not have the same skills as men (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences relating to degree level (see Table 9). Table 30 shows the contingency table relating degree level to responses. More graduate women disagreed with the statement when compared to the diploma and bachelor holders.

Table 30

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 32 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	2	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	1 2.56	20 51.28	18 46.15	39
BACHELOR	3 7.89	24 63.16	11 28.95	38
GRADUATE	6 33.33	8 44.44	4 22.22	18
Total	10	52	33	95

Item 4 had a weighted score of 393 (82.7%) stating that educational administration as a career is important to women (see Table 8). There were no significant differences

relating to their age, marital status, education, or experience (see Table 9).

Item 33 had a weighted score of 387 (81.4%) stating that women feel inadequate to express their opinion because of their gender (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to their marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences with this statement relating to their degree level (see Table 9). Table 31 shows the contingency table relating educational level to responses. It appears that more graduate women disagreed with the statement than the diploma or bachelor holders that women feel inadequate to express their opinion because they are women.

Table 31

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 33 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
BACHELOR DIPLOMA	3 3.90	54 70.13	9 23.68	77
GRADUATE	5 27.78	8 44.44	5 27.78	18
Total	8	62	25	95

Item 38 stating that women and men accept responsibilities for their actions had a weighted score of

378 (79.5%) (see Table 8). There were no significant
differences relating to age, marital status, education, or
experience (see Table 9).

Item 27 had a weighted score of 373 (78.5%) stating that
women were advised to lower their expectations regarding an
administrative position simply because of their sex (see
Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to
marital status, degree, or experience. There were
significant differences with respect to their age (see Table
9). Table 32 shows the contingency table relating age
categories to responses. It appears that women teachers 41-
55 years of age disagreed with the statement more than those
with 20-40 years old.

Table 32

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 27 Relating to Age Group

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
20-40	4 6.56	46 76.67	11 18.33	61
41-55	9 26.47	18 52.94	7 20.59	34
Total	13	64	18	95

Item 52 had a weighted score of 372 (78.3%) stating
that male superiors at work resented women giving their
opinion (see Table 8). There were no significant

differences relating to their age, marital status, education, or experience (see Table 9).

Item 13 that women would rather be fulfilling traditional sex roles than pursuing educational administration as a career had a weighted score of 358 (75.3%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to age or experience. Significant differences were noted with respect to their marital status and educational level (see Table 9). Table 33 shows the contingency table relating marital status to responses. More married women strongly agreed and agreed with the statement than single women. Of these married women the majority had bachelors and diplomas and were under the age of 40. Out of the 49 married students who agreed 4 were graduate students. Table 34 shows the contingency table relating educational level to responses. More graduate holders disagreed with the item when compared to the diploma and bachelor holders, whereas more diploma holders agreed than the bachelor or graduate holders.

Item 11 stating that women are not interested in making the commitment of time and effort required for positions in educational administration had a weighted score of 355 (74.7%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to their age or experience. There were significant differences related to their marital status andeducational level (see Table 9). Table 35 shows the

Table 33

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 13 Relating to Marital Status

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
MARRIED	10 16.95	30 50.85	19 32.20	59
SINGLE	14 38.89	15 41.67	7 19.44	36
Total	24	45	26	95

contigency table relating marital status to responses. The single women were less in agreement than the married women. Table 36 shows the contingency table relating educational level to responses. More graduate women disagreed with the item than diploma and bachelor holders.

Table 34

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 13 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	2 5.13	24 61.54	13 33.33	39
BACHELOR	11 28.95	16 42.11	11 28.95	38
GRADUATE	11 61.11	5 27.78	2 11.11	18
Total	24	45	26	95

Table 35

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 11 Relating to Marital Status

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
Married	9 15.3	37 62.7	13 22.0	59
Single	13 36.1	15 41.7	8 22.2	36
Total	22	52	21	95

Item 31 had a weighted score of 342 (72%) in which most women would prefer not to work under a woman administrator (See Table 8). No significant differences related to their marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences with respect to their education level (see Table 9). Table 37 shows the contingency table

Table 36

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 11 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	3 7.69	27 69.23	9 23.08	39
BACHELOR	8 21.05	21 55.26	9 23.69	38
GRADUATE	11 61.11	4 22.22	3 16.67	18
Total	22	52	21	95

relating educational level to responses. It appears that
more graduate women disagreed with the item than the
bachelor or diploma holders; whereas more diploma holders
agreed compared to the graduate or bachelor holders and more
graduate women strongly agreed compared to the bachelor and
diploma holders.

Item 34 had a weighted score of 341 (71.7%) that in a
administrative decision making situation women are able to
adequately stand their ground without being concerned about
their gender (see Table 8). There were no significant
differences relating to their marital status, age,
educational level, or experience.

Table 37

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 31 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	2	3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	4 10.26	3 7.69	27 69.23	5 12.82	39
BACHELOR	10 26.32	12 31.58	11 28.95	5 13.16	38
GRADUATE	4 22.22	4 22.22	3 16.67	7 38.89	18
Total	18	19	41	17	95

Item 47 had a weighted score of 335 (70.5%) in which
women believe in the traditional attitude that "a woman's
place is in the home" (see Table 8). There were no

significant differences related to marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences with respect to their degree level (see Table 9). Table 38 shows the contingency table relating educational level to responses. It appears that more graduate women disagreed with this statement than the bachelor and diploma holders. Also, more diploma holders agreed than the other two groups.

Item 22 in which preferential hiring of males is justified because men are more effective administrators than women had a weighted score of 313 (65.8%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to their marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences relating to their educational level (see Table 9). Table 39 shows the contingency table relating

Table 38

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 47 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2	3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	4 10.26	3 7.69	21 53.85	11 28.21	39
BACHELOR	6 15.79	11 28.95	17 44.74	4 10.53	38
GRADUATE	9 50.00	4 22.22	5 27.78	0 0.00	18
Total	19	18	43	15	95

Table 39

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 22 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2,3	4,5	Total
DIPLOMA	12 30.77	27 69.23	39
BACHELOR	16 42.11	22 57.89	38
GRADUATE	13 72.22	5 27.789	18
Total	41	54	95

educational level to responses. More graduate women

disagreed with this item than the bachelor or diploma

holders.

Item 7 in which women are satisfied to remain as

teachers had a weighted score of 309 (65%) (see Table 8).

There were no significant differences relating to their

marital status, age, or experience. Significant differences

were noted with respect to their educational level (see

Table 9). Table 40 shows the contingency table relating

educational level to responses. Diploma holders were more

in agreement than bachelor and graduate holders, whereas

bachelors and graduates were in in about the same proportion

in disagreement.

Item 35 had a weighted score of 293 (61.6%) stating

that the only way women can know if they are doing a good

job is to compare themselves to a man rather than measure
themselves against a job description (see Table 8). There
were no significant differences relating to marital status

Table 40

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 7 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2	4,5	Total
DIPLOMA	5	34	39
	12.82	87.18	
BACHELOR	20	18	38
	52,63	47.37	
GRADUATE	10	8	18
	55.56	44.44	
Total	35	60	95

and age. There were significant differences with respect to
their experience and degree level (see Table 9). Table 41
shows the contigency table relating work experience to
responses. Those with up to 10 years of experience were
less in agreement than those with more experience. Table 42
shows the contingency table relating educational level to
responses. More graduate women disagreed with the item than
the bachelor or diploma holders. Also more diploma holders
agreed than the graduate or the bachelor holders.

Item 15 stating that women would not work for a woman
administrator had a weighted score of 274 (57.6%) (see Table
8). No significant differences related to age, marital

Table 41

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 35 Relating to Experience

Frequency Row Pct	1,2	3	4	5	Total
0-10	14	1	18	4	37
	37.8	2.7	48.6	10.8	
11+	9	9	33	7	58
	15.5	15.5	56.9	12.1	
Total	23	10	51	11	95

status, education, or experience (see Table 9).

Item 3 stating that women are given too few opportunities for training in educational administration had a weighted score of 270 (56.84%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to marital status, age,

Table 42

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 35 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2	3	4,5	Total
DIPLOAM	2	4	33	39
	5.13	10.26	84.62	
BACHELOR	12	3	23	38
	31.58	7.89	60.53	
GRADUATE	9	3	6	18
	50.00	16.67	33.33	
Total	21	10	62	95

or experience. There were significant differences relating to degree level. Table 43 shows the contingency table relating degree level to responses. While the majority of diploma and bachelor holders disagreed with the statement, the graduates, were varied in opinion; 55.5% agreed or strongly agreed while 33.3% strongly disagreed.

Item 28 had a weighted score of 266 (56%) stating that women are just as able as men to deal with pressure in higher administrative positions (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to marital status, age, or experience. There were significant differences with respect to their educational level (see Table 9). Table 44 shows the contingency table relating educational level to

Table 43

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 3 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
DIPLOMA	1 2.6	24 61.5	5 12.8	6 15.4	3 7.7	39
BACHELOR	3 7.9	16 42.1	6 15.8	8 21.1	5 13.2	38
GRADUATE	6 33.3	1 5.6	1 5.6	4 22.2	6 33.3	18
Total	10	41	12	18	14	95

Table 44

Table of Frequency and Percentage for
Item 28 Relating to Degree Level

Frequency Row Pct	1,2	3	4,5	Total
DIPLOMA	28 71.79	1 2.56	10 25.64	39
BACHELOR	26 68.42	2 5.26	10 26.32	38
GRADUATE	3 16.67	2 11.11	13 72.22	18
Total	57	5	33	95

responses. It appears that more bachelor and diploma holders disagreed with the statement than the graduate holders, whereas more graduate women (72%) agreed compared with the bachelor and diploma holders.

Items 51 and 23 had weighted scores of 261 and 259, respectively (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to age, education, marital status, or experience (see Table 9).

Item 6 stating that women have applied for an administrative position without success had the lowest weighted score of 254 (53.4%) (see Table 8). There were no significant differences relating to marital status, age, experience, or degree.

Summary

This chapter has presented an analysis of data collected by a two-part questionnaire on the issues and problems facing women who attempt to pursue careers in educational administration. The chapter outlined demographic descriptions and gave information regarding women's marital status, age, education, and experience.

The second part of the chapter presents an analysis of the data drawn from the responses of Kenyan women teachers for each of the 52 items, ranked according to their weighted score from the following areas of interest: a career in educational administration, qualification, interest and commitment, discrimination policies and remuneration, confidence and job performance, cultural and environmental alienation. All the items were tested by Chi-Square for significant differences related to marital status, age, education, and experience. There were 26 items that had significance of which 17 were related to education with only 4 for experience, 3 for age and 2 for marital status. Since there were so few items that were significant in the marital status, age, and experience groupings caution was taken in placing too much importance in their significance. The tests for significances were undertaken for descriptive purposes only.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into three parts: a summary of the whole study presenting the purpose, methodology, and findings; the conclusions; and recommendations for implementation.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine and scrutinize the issues and problems confronting Kenyan women and to make recommendations in the form of suggestions to the Ministry of Education in Kenya that will help alleviate the factors keeping women from pursuing careers in educational administration.

Methodology

The instrument of this study was sent to Kenya. The population consisted of all the women teachers employed by the Ministry of Education. Over 1000 women teachers are employed in Kenya.

With the aid of a table of random numbers, a stratified random sampling technique was used to select 22 women teachers from five educational levels of the

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population. The educational levels were: University,
commercial and technical colleges, secondary schools,
primary schools, and also Kenyan female students majoring in
education in North American universities--a total number of
110 women teachers and education majors.

Questionnaire

A two-part questionnaire was used to gather data for
study. The first part of the instrument asked for
demographic and professional data concerning women teachers
attempting to pursue careers in educational administration.
No identifying names were used. The second part of the
questionnaire consisted of items eliciting information on
the environment, interest, confidence, support-
encouragement, commitment, and fear of failing in an
administrative position.

Collection of Data

The researcher sought permission from the Minister of
Education in Kenya to conduct the study. A letter
explaining the purpose of the study asked the respondents to
complete the questionnaire and assured them of
confidentiality. A stamped, self-addressed envelope was
enclosed for the respondent to return the questionnaire.

Of the 110 questionnaires that were sent out, 95 were
returned in usable form, representing an 86% return.

Analysis of Data

The first part of the questionnaire was analyzed according to four demographic analyses of the respondents. The demographic categories were (1) age, (2) experience (3) marital status, and (4) education.

The major perceptions were examined by ranking the statements in the second part of the questionnaire according to their weighted scores. To show their degree of agreement with the statements, each respondent drew a circle around one of five numbers following each statement. The numbers stood for the following ratings: 5 - strongly agree; 4 - agree; 3 - uncertain; 2 - disagree; 1 - strongly disagree.

Conclusions

Findings based on the respondents' responses as presented in chapter 4 were used to arrive at these conclusions.

The majority of Kenyan women teachers agreed that advanced degrees were the key to administrative positions and higher salaries; yet women were not showing much willingness to prepare for such positions. It appears they would rather fulfill traditional sex roles than pursue careers in educational administration. There was a significant difference between single and married women teachers, in which more single women disagreed with the above item than the married teachers. It appears that education also made a difference as more graduate teachers

disagreed compared with women teachers with diploma and bachelor's degrees.

It appears that self-confidence to become a school administrator was lacking as indicated in the review of literature and results of the survey. More women teachers agreed that they feel inadequate to express their opinions because of their gender. There was a significant difference because of their education. More graduate teachers disagreed with the above item as compared to diploma and bachelor holders. More women teachers agreed that women could not be depended on to the extent that men could in administrative positions. There was a significant difference because of their education. Graduate women disagreed with the above item as compared to bachelor degree and diploma holders.

It appears that women teachers felt they would gain self-satisfaction in a position in school administration. Sixty women teachers either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that they were satisfied to remain a teacher. There was a significant difference in their education. The majority of women graduate teachers disagreed as compared to diploma and bachelor degree holders.

Other factors also prevent women from pursuing educational administration as a career. Culture was recognized as the major barrier of all other factors in the survey and in the review of literature. The majority of

women agreed that culture was a barrier in pursing a career in educational administration. There was a significant difference related to age. Women teachers between the ages of 20 and 40 strongly agreed with the above item when compared to those between the ages of 41 and 55.

Family pressure is also a deterrent to women teachers aspiring to become educational administrators. More women agreed that the interruption caused by child-bearing and rearing would make it difficult for them to be accepted in an administrative position. The majority of women agreed that family responsibility as imposed by the husband is a strong deterrent to a woman's administrative aspirations.

Kenyan women teachers showed little interest and commitment in educational administration as a career, as the majority of women who responded showed no interest in making the time and effort required for positions in educational administration. Lack of role-models is yet another factor preventing women from pursing careers in educational administration. All 95 women teachers agreed. The majority felt that the lack of role-models is preventing women from being interested in administrative position.

Fear of failing is yet another factor facing women teachers. The majority agreed that the fear of failing in an administrative position is one of the major reasons for not aspiring to such a position. There was a significant difference in their education as more women graduate

teachers disagreed compared to diploma and bachelor holders.
All the above conclusions are made from the opinions of
Kenyan women teachers and Kenyan women education majors in
North American Universities who responded to the instrument
of this study.

The findings support the review of literature as Fusco
(1984) said that women have the personal responsibilities of
the home, family and children which is used by school
committees and administrators for not recommending women to
administrative positions. These "personal responsibilities"
create and interfere with women making a full-time
commitment to duties and responsibilities required of
leaders in administrative positions.

The findings also support the review of literature
that culture is a major barrier to pursuing a career in
educational administration. Okolo (1985) identified
cultural barriers. He said that culture played a big part
in not letting the Kenyan woman reach her potential and
Cassam (1987) pointed out that the traditional African
culture is based on the assumption that the place of girls
is in the home.

The majority of women agreed that lack of role models
hinders them from pursuing careers in educational
administration. This was supported by Fusco (1984) who
commented that without role models, an increase in women
administrative applicants seems unlikely. Bernstein (1972)

said that if the school experiences influence role
development, then women are even further limited by the
adult role models they see in the educational setting.

The results of the instrument disagreed with the
observation of Howard (1975). The majority of women claimed
to have been discriminated against but Howard pointed out
that women's lack of occupational success was not always due
to discrimination. One of the most formidable barriers to
women's full participation in educational leadership
positions was their self-doubt and a built-in bias which
created the inherent inferiority of women relative to men in
decision making and leadership. Many women see themselves
as unable to perform effectively or to be happy in such
roles.

Fusco (1984) claimed that whether or not women were
interested in administrative positions appears to be related
to sex-role stereotyping which took place early in life.
Girls experience confusion about their career goals since
they were primarily oriented toward familiar goals.

The results of this study conducted in Kenya disagreed
with the observation by Howard (1977) with regard to the
issue of women in the United States being absent from work
more than men. Howard (1977) cited public health surveys
to dispel this belief where a United States Civil Service
commission study of sick leave records showed little
difference between male and female workers.

Recommendations

The Kenyan Ministry of Education should design a major in educational administration to be offered in Kenyan universities and colleges of education. This will discourage on-line promotion to educational administrator positions by the less qualified who have no background in administration and management.

Kenyan women should be given more support so that they will have more self-interest, be ready for more commitment, and assume greater responsibilities. Traditionally, administrative jobs have been classified as masculine, and men have been preferred over women as supervisors. Reasons for this as shown from the review of literature, are marriage and family roles of women. Kenyan women feel they are less competent. Their negative self-image leads them to not pursue careers in educational administration.

With respect to cultural barriers, Kenyan women must realize and understand that it requires greater time and effort and patience to prove themselves in a "man's world." Kenyan women who desire to be in educational administration should make certain they have the credentials and qualifications necessary and show interest in administration. Women should be willing to take risks, to broaden their experience, to be mobile and to assume responsibility.

Women in Kenya should form support group organizations to inform, enlighten and support each other. They should be in touch with other successful women to learn ways for achieving success and be a role model for other Kenyan women. Stegemiller (1990) stated that women administrators and teachers should find principals or other administrators whose leadership skills they admire. They should approach them and tell them of their interest so they can find out their own strengths and weaknesses.

With respect to the psychological barriers, Kenyan women should remember that the key to administrative success is the individual and her feelings (Stead, 1977). Women should realize that there are more similarities than differences in men and women in administration.

Kenyan women should seek to build a career-oriented personality and to strengthen those traits which have been identified as important to administrative positions. Helgesen (1990) reported that books do not urge women to become like men in order to achieve workplace success, rather, they warned women that they had to learn to play the game according to men's rules if they hoped to advance and claim their share in the business world. "Women can transform the workplace by expressing, not giving up, their personal values". Women's strengths need to be emphasized and made use of.

Helgesen (1990) said that women are more caring and intuitive, better at seeing the human side, quicker to cut through competitive distinctions of hierarchy and ranking and impatient with cumbersome protocols.

Blanchand (1989) said men are result-oriented and wait until they see proof of achievement before praising. Women will give praise during the development of a project, as well as its completion. He contends that women are more observant than men. He also said that women are better listeners than men and that is one of the reasons women are successful in management. They are more sensitive in a positive way. Blanchand (1989) reports that women pick up clues about imbalances in relationships and friction between people. They watch the effects of attempts at leadership and observe the reactions of people more closely than men do. Helgesen (1990) said that women in the work place tend " to assume without thinking that the quality of relationships is (their) most important priority" (p. 22).

Another important factor as reported by Helgesen is that women in organizations are seen as being in the middle of things, not at the top, but in the center, not reaching down, but reaching out. Blanchand (1989) said that women have trouble being directive and assertive. Women are not accustomed to seeing themselves as assertive or in a take - charge role. Another area is delegating. "At home there was no one to whom the woman might delegate." When they go

back to the world of work, women expect that they should do it all.

Ghazal (1989) said that the new executive woman should achieve balance between executive qualities and femininity, think as an executive, not as man or a woman. To be a woman, a feminine executive, Loden (1986) insists that feminine leadership works when it is allowed to flourish. Loden (1986) said:

> Be comfortable with your own feminine style. Use your own natural strengths, your interpersonal skills, your feelings and the problem-solving tools which work so well off the job and which you've developed throughout your life. Trust your instincts and intuitions. Let your heart and your head guide.(p. 474)

It is recommended that further research be undertaken in other parts of Africa to determine if conditions in those countries differ with respect to their culture and the progress women are having in the field of educational administration.

It is further recommended that research be undertaken to determine if using a different sample or population of women in Kenya would substantiate the research of this study. It would be interesting to discover what the attitude of men would be toward the thesis of this study.

APPENDICES

LETTER

October 2, 1990

Dear Friend,

I need your help to complete this questionnaire.
The purpose of this study is to examine factors which contribute to keeping women from pursing careers in Education Administration in Kenya.

I therefore request you to spend five to ten minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire. However, it is important that you complete and return it to me as soon as possible, so that this very important study may be completed.
Thank you very much for your help.
Sincerely yours,

Bertha Mutai   Edward A. Streeter, Ed.D.
Doctoral student   Professor of Education
Education Administration
Andrews University   Dissertation Advisor

N.B. After completion, please mail the questionnaire in
the stamped self-addressed envelope.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

Issues and problems facing women who are attempting to pursue careers in Educational Administration in Kenya.

For the purpose of this study, the word ADMINISTRATION will refer to a full-time administrative position in a particular school or a system-wide central office position (i.e., Education Officer, Secretary of Education, District Officer, Principal. Headmistress, etc.)

Section 1 - Demographic Data

Please provide the background information requested below. This information will give the investigator a general perspective about the sample of women who are participating in the study, their particular position, and the issues and problems they face as they attempt to pursue a career in Educational Administration

1. Marital status:

_____(1) Single
_____(2) Married
_____(3) Divorced
_____(4) Widowed
_____(5) Separated

2. Age:

_____(1) 20 to 25 years
_____(2) 26 to 30 years
_____(3) 31 to 35 years
_____(4) 36 to 40 years
_____(5) 41 to 45 years
_____(6) 46 to 50 years
_____(7) 51 to 55 years

3. Number of dependents (excluding yourself):

_____

4. Highest Degree Earned:

_____Diploma

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_____Bachelors
_____Masters
_____Doctorate

5. How many years of full-time employment in education
    have you completed, including the current one?

    _____

6. Check the various positions in education that you know
    are currently held by women in Kenya. Check as many as
    appropriate.

        _____Minister of Education
        _____Director of Education
        _____Secretary of Education
        _____Superintendent of Education
        _____Administrative Officer
        _____Chancellor of University
        _____Provincial Officer
        _____District Education Officer
        _____Principal
        _____Secondary Headmistress
        _____Primary Headmistress
        _____Other (please specify)_____

        For each of items 7 to 18, place a tick on the
    line if this is a position you would like to hold now
    or in the future if opportunities arose.

7. _____Minister of Education
8. _____Director of Education
9. _____Secretary of Education
10. _____Superintendent of Education
11. _____Administrative Officer
12. _____Chancellor of University
13. _____Provincial Officer
14. _____District Education Officer
15. _____Principal
16. _____Secondary Headmistress
17. _____Primary Headmistress
18. _____Other please specify)_____

Section 2   Respondent's Attitudes Towards Opportunities
                 and Positions in Educational Administration

INSTRUCTIONS: For each of the questions below CIRCLE ONE
                 number using the continuum of 1 to 5, where

                 1 = Strongly Disagree   (SD)
                 2 = Disagree   (D)
                 3 = Neutral or Uncertain   (N)

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4 = Agree   (A)
5 = Strongly Agree   (SA)

Even if your exact feeling is not found in one of the choices, choose the one which comes closest to your opinion. Do not take too much time in thinking about any particular item. Please do not omit any item--there is no right or wrong answer--it is just how you feel about these statements.

STATEMENTS		RESPONSES				
PART A -- CAREER IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION / QUALIFICATIONS		SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	Educational Administration should be a major in Kenyan Universities and Colleges.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Educational Administration would be my first choice for a career.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Women are given too few opportunities for training in Education Administration in Kenya.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Educational Administration as a career is very important in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I would like to pursue a career in Educational Administration in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I have applied for an administrative position without success.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am satisfied to remain as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Men are more likely than women to be willing to undertake advanced training for administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Advanced degrees are the key to administrative positions and higher salaries and women are not showing much willingness to prepare for the.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Admission to a career in Educational Administration should be based on consideration of competence and qualification and not on sex.	1	2	3	4	5

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Part B. INTEREST AND COMMITMENT.

1. I am not interested in making the
    commitment of time and effort
    required for positions in
    Educational Administration.   1 2 3 4 5

2. A position in school administration
    would give me a feeling of self-
    satisfaction.   1 2 3 4 5

3. I would rather be fulfilling
    traditional sex roles than pursuing
    Educational Administration as a career.   1 2 3 4 5

4. Women are more likely to drop out of
    Educational administration than men are.   1 2 3 4 5

5. I would not work for a woman
    administrator.   1 2 3 4 5

6. Kenyan women ought to show more
    interest in Educational Administration.   1 2 3 4 5

7. A major reason why women do not seek an
    administrative position is that they
    feel incapable of doing the job of an
    administrator.   1 2 3 4 5

8. The possibility of having to fire or
    discipline someone makes me reluctant
    to enter the Education Administration
    profession.   1 2 3 4 5

9. Lack of role-models is preventing women
    from being interested in administrative
    positions.   1 2 3 4 5

10. Peer group pressures reduce women's
    interest in administrative positions.   1 2 3 4 5

Part C. DISCRIMINATION POLICIES AND REMUNERATION.

1. Women would apply for Educational
    Administrative positions if the pay were
    comparable as other administrative
    positions in the commercial and
    industrial sectors.   1 2 3 4 5

2. Preferential hiring of males is
justified because men are more
effective administrators than women.   1   2   3   4   5

3. The starting remuneration for a male
administrator should be higher than
for a female administrator.   1   2   3   4   5

4. Men do not like intelligent and
confident women as administrators.   1   2   3   4   5

5. Preconceived notions about sex roles
should be set aside when hiring or
promoting any staff for administrative
position.   1   2   3   4   5

6. One of the major reasons women do not
aspire to positions in Educational
Administration is because men
discriminate against them by
recommending men for promotion.   1   2   3   4   5

7. I have been advised to lower my
expectations regarding an administrative
position simply because of my sex.   1   2   3   4   5

8. Women are just as able as men to deal
with pressure in higher administrative
positions.   1   2   3   4   5

9. A major reason why women are
discriminated against is because family
pressures reduce their job performance.   1   2   3   4   5

10. Men tend to be given higher performance
ratings than women when the actual
performance is the same.   1   2   3   4   5

11. Most women would prefer not to work
under a woman Administrator.   1   2   3   4   5

Part D.   CONFIDENCE AND JOB PERFORMANCE

1. As far as administrative positions
are concerned women don't have the
same skills as men.   1   2   3   4   5

2. I feel I am inadequate to press my
opinion because I am a woman.   1   2   3   4   5

3. In a given administrative decision making situation am able to adequately stand my ground without being concerned about my gender.   1 2 3 4 5

4. The only way I can know if I am doing a good job is to compare myself to a man rather than measure myself against a job description.   1 2 3 4 5

5. I have complete confidence in my skills and abilities to be a successful school administrator.   1 2 3 4 5

6. The fear of failing in an administrative position is one of the major reasons I have not aspired to such a position.   1 2 3 4 5

7. Women and men accept responsibilities for their actions.   1 2 3 4 5

8. Women cannot be depended on to the extent men can be in administrative positions.   1 2 3 4 5

9. Women are limited especially in skills which are generally associated with managerial positions.   1 2 3 4 5

10. Other peoples' biases about women's inferiority make me feel incompetent in decision making and leadership.   1 2 3 4 5

Part E. CULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL ALIENATION.

1. Women and men in Kenya are able to work together in a congenial manner.   1 2 3 4 5

2. My conception about my career is shaped by societal expectations of a male-dominated society.   1 2 3 4 5

3. In a given social situation, the way I play my role is dependent upon how others perceive me.   1 2 3 4 5

4. My culture is a barrier in pursuing a career in Education Administration.   1 2 3 4 5

5. The interruption caused by child bearing
   and rearing would make it difficult for
   me to be accepted in an administrative
   position.   1 2 3 4 5

6. I believe in the traditional attitude
   that "a woman's place is in the home".   1 2 3 4 5

7. The domineering behavior of Kenyan
   males in their attempt to keep women
   under their control is a reason why
   women do not aspire to a career in
   Educational Administration.   1 2 3 4 5

8. Family responsibilities as imposed by
   the husband is a strong deterrent to a
   woman's administrative aspirations.   1 2 3 4 5

9. I would not be able to work successfully
   as an administrator because of
   interruptions caused by bearing and
   raising children.   1 2 3 4 5

10. I have been advised or encouraged to
    seek an administrative position.   1 2 3 4 5

11. My male superiors at work have
    resented my giving my opinions.   1 2 3 4 5

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