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COMPETENCY NEEDS OF ADMINISTRATORS IN TEACHER  
TRAINING COLLEGES IN KENYA AS PERCEIVED BY  
ADMINISTRATORS AND FACULTY

DISSERTATION

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By

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The problem of this study was the needed administrative competencies of administrators in teacher training colleges in Kenya as perceived by administrators and faculty.

A questionnaire (Inventory of Administrative Competencies) was mailed to principals, vice-principals, and four faculty members selected at random from sixteen teacher training colleges in Kenya. Ninety-six questionnaires were returned, yielding a return rate of 100 percent.

Responses were analyzed using t-tests and one-way analyses of variance utilizing the F-test of the statistical test. A series of post hoc comparisons was made using Duncan's New Multiple Range Test to locate significant differences.

Based on the analysis of data, it was concluded that both administrators and faculty considered the desired status of the competency very high. The administrators were performing below the desired status. Size of college was the major factor for the differences in perceptions of

the respondents. Years of experience and educational background had little or no effect on the respondents' responses to the questionnaire.

The following recommendations were made:

A future study should investigate the perceived desired status and present performance ratings assigned to a validated set of competency statements of those levels of administrative activities not included in this study. Such a study would involve school inspectors, provincial education officers, deans of students, and heads of departments.

A study should be made to investigate the current methods of evaluating administrative competence in teacher training colleges in Kenya.

The results of this study should be analyzed by the Ministry of Education teacher college program developers responsible for conducting administrative workshops or in-service training in Kenya. This study could provide developers with additional information for improving the adequacy and relevance of both pre-service and in-service programs for practicing administrators.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Achievements in education in Kenya are remarkable when compared with conditions which were left behind by the colonialists. Outstanding progress has been made in the quantitative expansion and renovation of education during the past twenty-three years of independence (Kenya 1986). There has been a tremendous increase in the enrollments of both elementary and secondary schools. This increase has, in turn, necessitated an increase of enrollment in teacher training colleges. Enrollments in institutions of higher education have also increased with the establishment of three new universities: Moi, Kenyatta, and Egerton (Gakuru 1975).

An enrollment rate of about 75 percent in the rural areas, and 100 percent in urban areas for the six-to-ten year age group has been attained. The enrollment rate of girls, which formerly was much lower than that of boys, has advanced rapidly (Education in Africa 1982).

The illiteracy rate among adults has been reduced significantly. Numerous secondary schools have been established in the spirit of "harambee" (self-help). Teacher training colleges have been expanded to accommodate

the increase in enrollment created by a steady demand for trained teachers. Higher education institutions have broadened their range of subjects. Measures have also been taken to improve the quality of education, train more teachers, and raise the standard of training. A great amount of effort has been focused on adaptation of the curricula to suit the new requirements of the local communities. The use of Swahili as a national language has prompted the government to place an emphasis on the teaching of Swahili at higher levels of education (secondary and university). It is also important to note that, unlike the United States, Kenya has teacher training colleges which are separate institutions from the university system (Education in Africa 1982).

In spite of the advancement that Kenya has achieved in education, like most developing countries it has encountered shortcomings and difficulties. Most of the difficulties involve equipment, materials, and the widespread lack of adequately-trained teachers.

Educational content, which is usually divided by tribal cultures, experience, and the values that are capable of ensuring continuity, cohesion, and progress of tribal societies, is often neglected. The methods and style of teaching are often improperly adapted. Expensive imported educational equipment and materials cannot always be correctly used or properly maintained, and consequently

deteriorate rapidly (Knezeuisk 1975). The system of higher education is often out of touch with the community and unaware of the problems which need to be solved. Its contribution to development, especially of rural areas, remains inadequate (Kisulu 1979).

A spectrum of unplanned population growth also affected education. Kenya has a young population. In 1979 (when the last census was conducted) 35 percent of the population was under nine years of age and 25 percent was between the ages of ten and nineteen (Kenya 1986, 3). This has resulted in an increased demand for teachers and has made the principal's job very competitive in adjusting to the needs of large numbers of students and large campuses. In most cases, the existing colleges have been expanded rather than establishing new ones.

In Kenya, education is considered to be an important tool for development of the country and for improvement of the quality of life for the entire population (Gale and McCleary 1972). The need to improve the overall standards of education and to improve administrative standards has resulted in the organization of workshops and in-service training for administrators serving in the field. Efforts are also being made to improve school facilities in the "spirit of harambee" (self-help) (Wiese 1984).

For these reasons it is especially important that teacher colleges employ leaders who can perform as effectively and efficiently as possible. Every organization has functions which must be performed by its leaders. A leader must have outstanding skill in performing organizational functions (Bartky 1956). As organizations, colleges require certain competencies of college administrators in order to develop skills which are needed at various administrative levels.

At present, teacher training college principals in Kenya are responsible for the entire operation of their colleges. Their role includes the direction of all funds and facilities, faculty housing, educational processes within the college, organization of teaching practice, implementation of national education policies, and enhancement of proper communication within the college, with other institutions, and with the Ministry of Education. They are also responsible for auxiliary services, fiscal planning, and evaluation. All the major decisions within a college and the college's public relations needs rest on the principal's shoulders (Kenya 1986).

In Kenya, teacher training colleges are responsible for training teachers who teach in both rural and urban areas. As a developing nation, Kenya is still working toward full democratization and renovation of education in order to enable all children and adults of both sexes to

fully exercise their right to education. This is a prerequisite for the fulfillment of individual potential and for the progress of society (Education in Africa 1982).

It is, therefore, the duty of the principal of a training college to ensure that the curriculum adopted in the college can fulfill the needs of the surrounding community and the nation as a whole. The principal does this by involving faculty members in program development and by planning learning experiences for all students in both rural and urban areas. The principal must also work cooperatively with other principals in facilitating college and guidance programs. Involvement within the community makes the principal a link between the college and the community (Metzger 1976). This involvement is important in guaranteeing equal access to education and reducing disparities which place populations of rural areas and various underprivileged groups at a disadvantage.

Because very few students in Kenya attend institutions of higher education, elementary and secondary education is a vital tool for most. Thus, it is imperative that training of school teachers be effective and that principals accept the important responsibility of providing good training.

In his study of the needed changes in educational policies in Kenya, Kisulu (1979) discovered a need to improve the manner in which all aspects of education were

being managed. Included were elementary schools, secondary schools, and teacher training colleges. Kisulu recommends that further studies be done in order to determine the actual needs of various aspects of education in Kenya.

Gale and McCleary (1972) conducted a study concerned with the prioritization of competencies for secondary principals. The intent of their study was to identify and validate statements of competence which could then be used in satisfying the need for data-based planning of pre-service and in-service educational programs. Their study was also designed to determine which statements of competencies could be used as criteria for advancement and merit considerations of administrators already in the field.

There is a need in Kenya to provide up-to-date scientific and technological knowledge. This can be done by strengthening training standards through a judicious use of existing scientific and technological knowledge in order to further economic and social progress (Education in Africa 1982). An elementary school would be a good place to start this kind of task (Maliyamono and Wells 1982). With the help of well-trained teachers on the subjects, such a task can succeed.

In view of the foregoing needs, a principal of a teacher training college needs certain competencies in order to acquire the skills needed to perform the role



effectively. This study is an effort to determine the competency needs of administrators (principals and vice-principals). This study also tests the premise, substantiated earlier in studies by Metzger (1975) and Jurs (1976), that all administrative roles rely on the same basic competencies.

This study also examines differences and similarities of administrative competence needs as perceived by respondents in various sizes of teacher training colleges, with various years of administrative experience and with various degrees of professional preparation. The implications for pre-service and in-service programs for college administrators established by this study could prove to be of significant importance to the Ministry of Education and the government of Kenya.

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was the needed administrative competencies of administrators in teacher training colleges in Kenya as they are perceived by administrators and faculty.

#### Purposes of the Study

In order to examine the problem of this study, the following purposes were established:

1. To assess the present status of administrative competencies as perceived by administrators and faculty;
2. To determine and compare the desired status of administrative competencies as perceived by administrators and faculty;
3. To assess the extent to which perceptions of the present status of administrative competency is related to (a) size of college, (b) years of administrative experience or years of teaching experience, and (c) highest degree earned; and
4. To determine the extent to which perceptions of the desired status of administrative competencies are related to (a) size of the college, (b) years of administrative or teaching experience, and (c) highest degree earned.

#### Research Questions

The following research questions were developed for the present study:

1. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as leader and director of the educational program?
2. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services?

3. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as a member of the college staff?

4. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as a link between the community and the college?

5. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as an administrator of personnel?

6. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as a member of the profession of educational administration?

7. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as director of support management?

8. To what extent are each of the elements of administrative competency related to size of college, years of administrative or teaching experience, and highest degree earned?

#### Background and Significance of the Study

The study of education in any place can never be done in a vacuum. Education's interrelation with history,

geography, philosophy, sociology, economics, and political science is inextricably close. In order to depict the overall Kenyan educational position and the status of teacher training (education) in it, it is necessary to trespass into other disciplines in order to better explain the position of education and, specifically, teacher education.

Slightly larger than France and slightly smaller than Texas, Kenya straddles the equator on the eastern seaboard of Africa. Although its land area covers 582,646 square kilometers, only 20 percent of the total land is arable (Kenya 1986).

Kenya, formerly a British Colony, attained its independence in June 1963 and became a Republic later that year. The country is divided into eight provinces, which are sub-divided into districts and divisions. The country's population of nineteen million (1984 estimate) is growing at 3.9 percent per annum and is expected to reach thirty-four million by the year 2000--more than double the 1979 census figure (Kenya 1986, 5).

The history of teacher training in Kenya can be divided into the pre-independence period (before 1963), and the period after independence (1964 to the present).

#### Pre-Independence Period (Before 1963)

Until the final years of the colonial period, teaching was one of comparatively few professions open to Africans.

Elementary schools frequently were staffed, particularly at the upper level, with well-qualified teachers (Stabler 1969). Primary schools were each staffed with seven teachers. Their qualifications were as follows:

$KT_1$ --School Certificate and two years of training,

$T_2$ --two or three years of secondary school and two years of training,

$T_3$ --complete primary (elementary) school and two years of training,

$T_4$ --incomplete primary school and two years of training, and

Unqualified--primary school but not training (Cameron 1970, 53).

The  $T_3$  teachers were usually placed in the lower primary grades, the  $KT_1$  and  $T_2$  teachers taught Standards VI and VII and Unqualified teachers were assigned to Standards IV and V, frequently with disastrous results (Cameron 1970, 54).

During this early colonial period, management of schools was the responsibility of the churches. The churches were responsible for teachers' salaries, provision of equipment, supervision of schools, and the opening of new schools. Teacher training colleges were also managed by the churches (Cameron 1970, 26). *DK*

During this period, emphasis was placed on reading and writing because literacy was seen as the road to

improvement. Mission stations became centers of new enlightenment and sanctuaries of peace in the harsh, troubled world. They became self-governing states (Cameron 1970). The point is that teacher education began with that "pitiable reflection of western bigotry," the catechist, who passed on, among other things, the knowledge of how to read and write to his pupils of indeterminate age (Mailyamkono and Wells 1982).

As Cameron states:

It has to be remembered that in those days sociology and anthropology were in their infancy. The idea that societies and cultures should be analyzed and explained; that their differences from our own should be respected and not arbitrarily either ignored or suppressed was alien to nineteenth-century thinking.

Therefore the export to Kenya of mainly British educational precepts and practices without any regard for, or adaptation to, the Kenyan environment, is at least condonable (Cameron 1970, 137).

Indeed, the missionaries who were pioneers should be given credit for the fact that they tried to give without limitation what, in their eyes, was the best kind of education--the one they had back home.

#### After Independence (1964 to Present)

Education has been under political and economic pressure to lead and to provide an "engine for growth" due to the high private and social rates of return which accrued to previous investments in education for a number of years (Stabler 1969). Since education systems in most developing countries, including Kenya, were adopted from or modeled after systems

in advanced countries, they are normally not designed to lead or to deal with immediate short-term teacher shortages (Wiese 1984). Teacher training programs in Kenya face this problem. Not enough teachers are trained to meet the demand for teachers at a particular time.

Proper training of teachers depends largely upon the type of leadership provided by college administrators. In order to provide the kind of leadership desired, college administrators need to acquire certain competencies, depending on the needs of the society and the skill needs of the economy (Mailyamkono and Wells 1982).

The report of the International Labour Office (ILO) mission to Kenya concludes that "education and training imparted in every department in Kenya including education is of the wrong kind in view of the skill needs of the economy" (Hunkins 1972, 505). Developers of curricula of the earliest colleges were much more sensitive to the requirements of leadership than are the developers of the curricula of today (Campbell 1974, 31). Yet, it is known that current needs for leadership of the highest quality are as great or greater today than they were during those days (Campbell 1974).

In teacher training colleges in Kenya, most administrators are appointed from among the faculty members of that particular college or of another college. In other words, no program has been established to help

administrators to develop certain leadership skills or competencies beyond those acquired in college (Skorov, Guys, and Roger 1970).

As Clark and Gerrity explain:

Courses with a clear aim to develop leadership skills can be found here and there in higher education. But it is rare to find a sequence of courses or a program that keys on the fact that many graduates will be called upon to lead and accept responsibilities for group actions (Clark and Gerrity 1984, 277).

As the school constituency in Kenya increases and actual enrollments go up, the need for more teachers increases. It is not surprising, then, that these factors which have profound impact on the public schools, have had even more impact on the institutions responsible for preparing their teachers (Bigsten and Coller 1980, 19). At this point the task is given to college administrators who are responsible for the operation of the colleges.

There is great concern over questions of supply and demand in teacher education; over its relevance to the practical needs of students in both urban and rural sections of the country; over the appropriate length of such preparation; and over claims that teacher education is, as a matter of general academic convention, given less fiscal support than other fields of professional training in colleges and universities (Gale and McCleary 1972). The responsibility to solve these problems should be placed jointly on the government, the Ministry of Education, and



especially on the administrators of teacher training colleges. If the Ministry of Education could identify teacher training administrators who lack adequate leadership skills, perhaps the ability or tenacity to resolve complex political problems, and the interpersonal relations skills to create an educational atmosphere that is conducive to both teaching and learning could be attained. Again, if this responsibility is firmly placed, those who lack the required competencies as college administrators could be admitted into a program designed to provide the skills needed and therefore provide adequate leadership in these institutions (Gale and McCleary 1972).

The contingency theory of leadership effectiveness maintains that a group's success in accomplishing its tasks depends upon the appropriate matching of leader and situation. This theory further refers to the need structure that motivates the leader's behavior in various interpersonal situations as leadership style (Silver 1983).

In his study, Bartky (1956) found that most administrators bow to the will of the majority because they are elected by the majority (or appointed by someone who has been elected). This majority is not always easily determined; it may be the whole country, an individual or department, in the case of Kenya, or a district. Whatever

the majority, administrators owe their first loyalty to the institution served and not to the majority responsible for their election or appointment.

According to Bartky (1956), it is not a simple matter of observation to size up a leadership situation properly. It is how a leader and his followers perceive their environment, not necessarily what the environment is in reality, that determines a leader's activity. Bartky further contends that since what really is may be quite different from what is perceived to be, a leader's tactic, however admirably designed to meet reality, may be completely unacceptable to his followers. A leader's success then depends as much upon proper institutions of his follower's perceptions as upon his own proper perception of reality (Bartky 1956).

Kenya has seen a need to widen the scope of its quantitative objectives of educational development by concentrating on reforming educational systems to meet the socioeconomic and cultural needs of its national communities. The spread of education, including adult education and literacy work, the adaptation of syllabuses to the African sociocultural context, the strengthening of science and technology teaching, the integration of schooling into community life, and the use of the national language in education have been some reforms toward widening this scope of education (Education in Africa 1982).

The attainment of these reforms depends heavily upon the quality of teachers produced by the teacher training colleges. This indicates a need for principals of these colleges to acquire certain competencies which will allow them to be effective and successful in achieving these goals.

In a conference of Ministers of Education and those responsible for economic planning in African member states held in Harare (Zambia) from 28 June to 3 July 1982, the members, in the light of Africa's position in relation to world problems, advocated certain measures to meet the challenges of educational development on the continent. They specifically recommended that the only method for ending Africa's scientific and technological dependence is by systematically developing scientific and technological education at all levels of the school and university system (Education in Africa 1982).

As a member country, Kenya should put further emphasis on the implementation of this recommendation. The implementation should start at the elementary level in order to make it easier for students to build on the fundamentals of this approach. The preparation of elementary school teachers becomes vital at this point and turns the focus to leaders of teacher training colleges (principals and vice-principals).

While recognizing that no one is in a better position than the principal to influence the quality of a college, it is important to note that principals sometimes place their efforts on inappropriate priorities and become overly concerned with such activities as counting money, improving food services, planning bus routes, purchasing supplies, chairing service club committees, and other auxiliary matters. When this kind of over-emphasis occurs, the other programs suffer (Trump 1972). A principal's job description should encompass all of his responsibilities. Clark and Gerrity (1984) emphasize the fact that the job description of the principal serves as a springboard for improved communication. They suggest that the job description should be developed from a prioritized list of specific duties performed by the principal and that it should be developed by the principal with input from the principal's superiors. The development of a job description of this kind would be made easier if the principal is able to identify some of the competency needs required to perform the job effectively (Campbell, Corbally, and Ramsay 1971).

Presently, however, there is very little research available from practicing teacher training college administrators at various levels of administrative activity in Kenya which reflects their perceived needs in the areas of administrative competence. In order to generate this type of data, the present study was conducted to determine how

practicing administrators at various levels of administrative activity perceive the importance and present performance level of each of the thirty-nine major competency statements contained in the Performance Evaluation of the Educational Leader (PEEL) definition (Demeke 1972).

#### Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as they relate to this study:

Administrative competence is defined as having the characteristics which will make a person well qualified, capable, and fit to perform administrative tasks. To be competent is to have sufficient or adequate knowledge and ability to meet specified requirements in the sense of being capable, suitable, and able.

Area of competence describes any one of the seven dimensions of the administrator's role as explained in the PEEL definition.

Competency statement is any one of the thirty-nine single-digit decimal divisions of the PEEL definition of administrative competence.

Descriptor is any one of the 182 two- and three-digit decimal divisions of the PEEL definition. Together with the thirty-nine single-digit decimal divisions they express the competencies necessary to effectively perform the seven areas of competence of the PEEL program.

Elementary teacher training college is the college responsible for the training of elementary school teachers only.

PEEL is an acronym for Performance Evaluation of the Educational Leader. PEEL is a competency-based approach to administrative evaluation. It is also the name of the instrument used in the approach to measure administrative competency for purposes of this study; however, the term is used as an acronym for the approach.

PEEL definition describes the definition of administrative competence within the PEEL program. It is the decimal portions of this definition which are used as the competency statements and descriptors in this study.

Teacher training college principal is the administrative and supervisory officer responsible for a teacher training college, as outlined by the Ministry of Education of Kenya.

Vice-principal is an assistant to the administrative and supervisory officer responsible for teacher training colleges, as outlined by the Ministry of Education of Kenya.

#### Limitation

This study is limited to the nationally (USA) validated set of competency statements as listed in the PEEL definition.

### Delimitations

This study is delimited to the perceptions of respondents to the survey of this study as viewed by those respondents in 1986 through 1988.

This study also is limited to those administrators whose job descriptions place them in one of the following areas of administrative activity: principal, vice-principal, and faculty members within the teacher training colleges.

### Basic Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in conducting this study:

1. The division of administrators into two areas of activity (principal level and vice-principal level) is representative of the typical administrative organization structure in elementary teacher training colleges in Kenya.

2. The responses of administrators and faculty reflected their perceptions of the importance and present performance level of specific competencies at the time they completed the questionnaire.

### Summary

This chapter presents an introduction of the nature and scope of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the background and significance of the study, definitions of terms, the limitations and basic assumptions of this study.

Chapter II includes a review of related literature and research of the methods of identifying competencies, administrative role definitions, agreement among administrators regarding competencies needed in various administrative positions, and three approaches to administrative competence: (1) process approach, (2) task approach, and (3) competency model approach. Chapter III describes the procedures used, the description of the population and sampling method, the instrument, and descriptions of the collection and treatment of data. Chapter IV presents the results obtained from analysis of the data generated by the study. Chapter V presents the summary, and discussion of findings, conclusions, and recommendations resulting from the study.



## CHAPTER II

### A REVIEW OF RELATED LITRATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to establish a frame of reference and rationale for the present study.

The accountability movement has produced a revival of interest within the profession to actively participate in defining the professional competencies required in the administrator's role. Barrilleaux maintains that principals should "view the accountability movement as an opportunity for proactiveness rather than the usual reactiveness" (1972, 103).

In explaining the superintendency, Campbell (1966) found that the role of the superintendent is somewhat confused. With the role of superintendent not clear, he indicates that:

It becomes difficult to define the body of knowledge thought to be pertinent to his practice. Since there is not general agreement on such a body of knowledge, there tends to be a variety of the content and method of training programs with perhaps more reliance on experience per se than on understandings and skills (315).

Savage (1968) also states that:

. . . role expectations are perhaps the major problem of the administrator because in them is the culmination of the problems . . . concerning human needs and

sub-cultures. . . . The problem of reconciling the role--or, more frequently, the different roles that others in the solution expect of him with the role dictated by his professional knowledge and conscience is not subject to any final resolution. For this is his life task, impressed by virtue of his choice of this profession, rather than a task definable in terms of any particular organizational situation (414).

There are many indications in the literature of increasing awareness of professional interest and need for role definition and identification of the competencies required in the fulfillment of the administrator's role. McCleary and Hencley (1965), for example, state that the movement to define functions, roles, and competencies required in various administrative positions has been a major influence in the growth of professionalism in all areas of educational administration.

According to Metzger (1975), "the competency concept of today has conceptual roots in a number of approaches to administrative leadership behavior" (33). The Commission on Staff Relations in School Administration defines administration as "the total of the processes through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and made effective for accomplishing the purposes of an enterprise" (114).

The writings of Fayol (1949), a French industrialist, on classic management concepts, reflect that there are administrative functions common to all types of organizations. The common elements, or functions, of

administration are planning, organization, command, coordination, and control.

Gulick and Urwich (1937) later expanded Fayol's five elements in his famous POSDCRB approach which called attention to the various functional elements of the work of a chief executive. The acronym stands for the following activities: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting.

Knezevich (1975), in the second revision of his book entitled Administration of Public Education, lists a more comprehensive and detailed identification of sixteen major administrative functions which reflect present-day as well as traditional responsibilities. Of the sixteen, nine functions had been previously mentioned. They are programming, organizing, staffing, deciding, coordinating, communicating, controlling, appraising, and resourcing. Anticipating, orienting, and leading were three terms used to replace those previously defined.

Campbell and Gregg (1957) summarize the administrative process in terms of seven components. These components are decision making, planning, organizing, communicating, influencing, coordinating, and evaluating. To the basic elements of planning, organizing, coordinating, and evaluating, they added three new terms.

Campbell and Gregg also view decision making as the very heart of the administrative process. They state that

"the reaching of a decision is the core of administration, all other attributes of the administrative process being dependent on, interwoven with, and existent for the making of decisions" (1957, 275).

Communication is also considered by Campbell and Gregg to be a crucial component of the administrative process. They state that:

When communication in an organization is completely adequate, the organizational purposes are likely to be commonly understood and the members will tend to act in a cooperative and coordinated manner toward the achievement of organizational goals (1957, 294).

Campbell and Gregg use influencing in place of the previously used control. They state that "the successful administration will use a number of forms of influence in guiding and coordinating the behavior of members of the organization" (1957, 302).

Through a review of pertinent literature, Campbell (1974) developed a list of desirable leadership competencies to determine whether those same competencies are enhanced through courses offered in the Departments of Administration and Supervision of the School of Education at New York University. An 80 percent agreement criterion was used by a jury of nine professional educators to validate and determine the competencies included in the instrument.

Other lists of competencies are provided by Hipkins (1964), who identifies priorities which professors of school administration assign to such competencies.

Other studies have also used the Critical Incident Technique of job analysis for identifying competencies. This technique involves the observation of on-the-job performance in order to establish the parameters of the job and the concomitant effectiveness of the methods of performing the job. Employing the Critical Incident Technique, Sternloff (1954), determined the necessary requirements for effective administrators. From 811 incidents described by Wisconsin school administrators and school board members, he developed a list of twenty-seven basic behaviors found in effective school administrators. The same technique was also used by Foster (1959), who found that there was considerable agreement between teachers and supervisors as to their perceptions of the critical competencies of the elementary school curriculum supervisor.

A study by Cook and Van Otten (1972) involved practicing school administrators in identifying some of the prime competencies required to perform the secondary school principalship. Their study obtained the perceptions of twenty-two school district superintendents, twenty secondary school principals, and 104 secondary school

teachers from Colorado and Utah regarding the importance of certain competency foundation statements and twelve administrative task areas. Two instruments for collection of data were used, an Administrative Task Areas Ranking Instrument and Competency Foundation Statement Summative Scale. Their study was intended to determine the perceptions of subjects as to what "are" and what "ought" to be prime competencies and their order of importance.

Gross, Mason, and McEachern define role as the "function that a person assumes" (1958, 60). They also explain that role refers to the expectations or standards applied to the behavior of incumbents of a position. Since competencies encompass those factors such as skills, knowledge, understandings, abilities, and other factors which are essential to the effective implementation of the administrator's role, this discussion of needed administrative competence must also focus on the various roles in administration.

Niehouse (1988), in his article exploring the basic leadership concepts for the principal, emphasized that leadership is a continuous, active skill. He explains that leadership must become an integral part of one's thought process as well as one's actions, and that from this acceptance, excellence through leadership develops. Niehouse offers three steps for selecting an appropriate style of leadership for a given situation: "(1) determine

the task, (2) determine the subordinate's level of readiness for the task, and (3) match the level of readiness to the correct leadership style" (1988, 51).

An examination of statements in the literature describing administrative competence reveals that process is usually an essential component of such descriptions. In defining administrative competence, the emphasis is placed on what a competent educational leader does, rather than on the administrator's characteristics or personality.

In an attempt to describe a process that allows administrators and teachers to work together to establish administrative priorities, Van Meter and Leftaff (1972) mention administrative task areas of responsibility for the principal. They give an example of a previously used classification scheme that includes nine major areas of responsibility as follows: "(1) sets instructional strategies, (2) supports teachers, (3) coordinates instructional program, (4) provides orderly atmosphere, (5) maintains plant facilities, (6) maintains school-community relations, (7) evaluates student progress, and (8) supervises student personnel" (Van Meter and Leftaff 1972, 121). Van Meter and Leftaff conclude that teachers, principals, and central office administrators must have some means of establishing administrative priorities within a school and recognizing and discussing the implications

of deciding which areas of responsibility are more important than others.

A large selection of literature addresses the task of educational administration. Fisk (1957) states that there are three approaches to the definition of the task of educational administration. He describes the approaches as:

1. A definition arrived at by outside viewers based on what is happening in the administrative process as he views it. This may be described as the observed actuality of educational administration..

2. A definition arrived at by an outside observer based on what he believes should be the behavior of educational administration. This may be described as the socially-desired definition of educational administration.

3. A definition arrived at by a school administrator trying to perceive his responsibilities. This may be described as the man-on-the-job definition (Fisk 1957, 29).

Nolte (1966) states that the four tasks needed by a school administrator are (1) director of educational process, (2) director of personnel, (3) director of funds and facilities, and (4) director of the school's public relation needs.

In a study developed to measure the behaviors of leaders, using a variety of samples of managers and their



subordinates employed in both public and private sector organizations, Posner and Kouzes (1988) looked at the qualitative perspective on what leaders do. They found that the fundamental pattern of leadership behavior which emerges when people are accomplishing extraordinary things in organizations is best described by the following five practices, each of which consists of two basic strategies:

1. Challenging the Process (a) search for opportunity, (b) experiment and take risk
2. Inspiring a Shared Vision (a) envision the future, (b) enlist the support of others
3. Enabling Others to Act (a) foster collaboration, (b) strengthen others
4. Modeling the Way (a) set the example, (b) plan small wins
5. Encouraging the Heart (a) recognize contributions, (b) celebrate accomplishments (Posner and Kouzes 1988, 491).

Collins (1974), in his attempt to delineate the task areas most essential to the successful superintendent in Tennessee during the 1970s, proposed ten areas. They are superintendent-school board relations, public relations, finance, curriculum, planning, human relations, school law, personnel evaluation, non-personnel evaluation, and personnel management.

Griffith and others (1961) divide various administrative tasks into four broad areas: improving educational opportunity, obtaining and developing personnel, maintaining effective interrelationships with the community and maintaining funds and facilities.

In a study conducted by Manns and Wertheimer (1985) at a southern urban university, twenty-seven faculty members and chairpersons in eight departments were asked to rank-order a list of eighteen attributes deemed necessary for a chairperson. The top four characteristics in the study were character-integrity, interpersonal skills, leadership ability, and communication skills. Their findings suggest that faculty members highly value leadership ability, with its focus on interpersonal relations.

Nicholson (1972) discusses a study which developed administrative task areas which hold the greatest potential for principals. This category was divided into six specific tasks: programming functions in instruction and curriculum, staff personnel, student personnel, finance and business management, school plant and services, and school-community relations.

In a comparative analysis of the tasks of two elementary principals, Peterson (1978) examined the characteristics of their use of time and nature of the tasks with which they were typically concerned. He found that the time use of the two principals was characterized by activities of short duration which were highly varied in function and which changed with great frequency throughout the school day. His analysis also revealed that principals engage in service to teachers, advice on procedures and schedules, and low level, clerical

auditing, but seldom work on technical core issues or those involved with change or innovation.

Dahling (1974) found little difference in task areas as perceived by administrators at four levels: elementary, junior high, senior high, and central office. She concluded in her study that "an administrator is an administrator, regardless of the specific level of position" (626).

Cunningham and Gephart (1973) describe the principal as a leader with two major responsibilities. They report research findings on effective organizations, effective leaders, and effective schools, calling for a new definition of the principalship. Such a definition recognizes the four major roles and responsibilities of the principal as: (1) values promoter and protector, (2) teacher empowerer, (3) instructional leader, and (4) climate manager (101). They also conclude that leaders must know what they want to accomplish.

Bermis and Nanus point out that,

leaders are the most results-oriented individuals in the world. . . . This fixation with and undeviating attention to outcome--some would call it an obsession--is only if one knows what he wants (1985, 52).

In an article adopted from Thomson's comments, in February 1988, to the New Jersey State Board of Education and Department of Education about their proposed program to improve the preparation of principals, Thomson

contends that "People should expect that only fully qualified and competent personnel will fill the vital role of principal in the schools" (1988, 40).

Thomson also explains that learning institutions need leaders, not just managers. He also points out that principals stand on a professional base supported by three legs--leadership, management, and knowledge of schooling. If one leg is cut off, the enterprise becomes unstable. His view that a thorough knowledge of schools and education is essential to effective leadership is also supported by other research. For example, Thomson cites a work by Gardner which emphasizes the importance of "task competence" to successful leadership. Thomson emphasizes the point with the following analysis:

Researchers on leadership use the phrase "task competence" to mean the knowledge a leader has of the task at hand.

Columbus was not just a man with a burning mission; he said of himself with considerable modesty, "The Lord hath blessed me abundantly with a knowledge of marine affairs." At the other extreme, Winston Churchill's father, Randolph, was appointed Chancellor at the Exchequer for the most political of reasons. He did not increase his standing when once, on being shown a balance sheet, he waved a finger at the decimal points and said "I could never make out what those damned dots mean." The lowest levels must intimate knowledge of the task at hand. Top level leaders cannot hope to have competence in more than a few of the matters under their jurisdiction, but they must have knowledge of the whole system over which they preside, its mission and the environment in which it functions (41-42).

In spite of conflicting roles, Ban (1970) emphasizes that instructional leadership is the one best reason for the existence of the principalship. He states:

Any member of business with a strong managerial background can readily replace the principal and probably do a better job at non-curricular tasks. By their action, principals must justify the need for their positions. To do this, they must convincingly argue that they are more interested in students than desks; in teachers than custodians; in education as an intellectual pursuit than a statistical, impersonal business operation (442-443).

Another approach, developed in an effort to define competence in educational administration, involves the use of a competency model. Metzger and Demeke (1975) describe some of the model approaches as follows:

1. Each competency is not thought of in isolation, but rather as a pattern of competency including a balance of types and levels of competency.
2. Competencies have several dimensions: (a) an affective or value dimension reflecting attitudes, beliefs, understandings, and theory; (b) a skill dimension, including technical, interpersonal (human), and conceptional skills; and (c) a knowledge dimension which requires knowledge of content and process in defined administrative tasks.
3. Competencies may be defined in terms of administrative processes or administrative task areas.
4. There is general agreement that competencies required for various administrative positions are similar, although priorities will differ.
5. Most competencies are stated in "process" terms, describing what the administrator does in effectively performing his tasks rather than specifying the "product" of his performance.
6. A basic assumption of competency-based approaches seems to be that learning is most effective when the things to be learned are clearly specified and defined (1).

The first competency pattern which was formulated by the Southern States Cooperative Project on Educational

Administration (SSCPEA), in 1956, was based on the supposition that all human behavior tends to group into patterns. Some of these patterns are ineffective and are termed poor, but some are highly effective and are termed competent. The effective patterns of administrative behavior are labeled as a competency pattern.

Graff and Street (1956) summarize the concept of the competency pattern in this manner:

When the elements of intelligent and quality behavior have been identified, described, and understood, and, further when these elements have been placed in proper relationships one to another so as to achieve an organismic entity, the resulting behavior pattern description may be properly called the competency pattern (29).

Included in the competency pattern are three elements: (1) the job of educational administration, (2) the know-how of educational administration, and (3) the theory of educational administration. The job of educational administration is determined by an analysis of the actual tasks involved. The know-how of educational administration deals with attributes such as understandings, skills, tasks, and attitudes needed to perform the job. The theory of educational administration provides the guidelines and framework necessary to insure consistency in job performance. It is the interaction of these three elements in the daily routine of an administrator which determines competence. The SSCPEA describes the daily routine as including the following areas of activity: "organization and structure,

finance and business organization, student personnel, curriculum and instruction, staff personnel, school plant, and transportation" (Graff and Street 1956, 47).

McCleary's (1973) approach to a competency model is comprised of six basic components, each broken down into sub-points. The main components are "assess competency needs, specify competencies, determine competency components and performance levels, identify competency attainment, establish assessment of competency attainment, and validate competencies (McCleary 1973, 2-7).

The structured approach to competency identification proposed by McCleary centers around a Quadrant Assessment Model (QAM). This is a four-way design which places administrative competencies in priority order. The QAM aids in determining pre-service and in-service program offerings for administrators. The QAM is comprised of four parts: (1) high ideal, (2) high real, (3) low ideal, and (4) low real. The administrators are asked to respond to a list of competency statements, indicating the ideal competence and the realistic situation. The two responses are then compared and a determination is made as to whether or not a competency should be included in a training program.

According to Valeski (1973), the QAM allows for descriptions based upon discrepancies seen in ideal or real evaluations of a given competency. A high ideal

rating coupled with a low real rating on the same competency would have implications for an in-service training component.

In the summer of 1981, fifty-eight academic deans at public and private four-year colleges and universities in one state rated the extent to which their jobs required expertise in each of eight managerial skill areas, the extent to which their past experience prepared them in each of the skill areas, and the contribution of ten experiences to their current job performance. The deans indicated that program planning and implementation was the most important skill required in their position, followed by using personnel effectively, assessing needs for programs, and curriculum development. Resource development was rated lowest in importance. The deans indicated that past experience had given them the most knowledge in the areas of program planning, curriculum development, use of personnel, and needs assessment, in that order (Sagaria and Krotsong 1986).

In their study of the roles of principals, Rallis and Highsmith (1986) concluded that:

In a good school, management and instructional leadership exist simultaneously. Management means keeping the nuts and bolts in place and the machinery working smoothly. Leadership means keeping sight of long-term goals and steering in their direction (302).



They also stress that development leadership requires "vision, a willingness to experiment and change, the capacity to tolerate messiness, and the ability to take the long-term view, while maintenance management requires oversight, the use of proven methods, orderliness, and daily attention (303).

Brubacher and Olsen (1973) developed a competency model at the University of Connecticut which placed emphasis upon the functions for which administrators are responsible. They delineate four functions which "are not only basic to the behavior of the administrator, but also describe the parameter of his job" (3).

Another competency-based curriculum in education administration was initiated at Queens College in New York. This program was built around a framework which relates the various competencies to one another. The framework has three dimensions: (1) task dimension, (2) values dimension, and (3) process dimension. Within this program, a distinction is made in the conception between the terms "performance" and competency." Competency is viewed as the ability to do something, while performance denotes specific acts which show that a person has competency. A particular competency may require several different performances to verify it (Erlandson 1973).

### Summary

This chapter provides a frame of reference for the study. Related literature and research are reviewed. Methods of identifying competencies and administrative role definitions are discussed. Related studies on the extent of agreement among administrators regarding competencies needed in various administrative positions are also examined.

In addition, three approaches to administrative competence are analyzed: (1) the process approach, (2) the task approach, and (3) the competency model approach.

## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURES

This chapter describes the procedures utilized in this study and is divided into four sections: (1) population and sample, (2) the instrument, (3) collection of data, and (4) treatment of data.

#### Population and Sample

The population for this study included principals and vice-principals of sixteen teacher training colleges in Kenya. Four faculty members who were selected at random from each of the sixteen teacher training colleges were also part of this population. This resulted in a sample of ninety-six respondents.

The principal of each of the sixteen colleges was requested to distribute envelopes from a mailed packet according to the following criteria: one copy directed to the principal, and one copy directed to the vice-principal.

A copy of the questionnaire was mailed directly to the four members of the faculty selected at random from a list of faculty members of each college from the Ministry of Education. A self-addressed envelope was enclosed for convenience and also to ensure the confidentiality of responses.

This procedure amounted to a stratification of the sample as a whole. It assured that a specified number of administrators and faculty members were chosen from each stratum and that defined groups in the population were represented in the sample. Borg and Gall (1971) explain:

Stratified samples are particularly appropriate in studies where part of the research analysis is likely to be concerned with comparisons between various groups--stratified sampling procedures assure the research worker that his or her sample will be representative of the population in terms of certain critical factors that have been used by the research worker as a basis for stratification and also assures him or her of adequate cases for subgroup analysis (121).

#### The Instrument

The instrument used in this study, included in the Appendix, is entitled Inventory of Administrative Competencies. The questionnaire was developed by Metzger in 1975. It was later used in a study by Wood (1979) and was entitled An Analysis of Administrative Competency Needs in Selected Texas Public School Districts. It was modified by Wood from Jurs' study (1976) and was entitled Prioritization of Administrator Competencies.

The competencies selected for this study have been drawn from the PEEL definition of administrative competence. The PEEL definition, called Guidelines for Evaluation: The School Administrator--Seven Areas of Competence, is a behaviorally stated definition of administrative competence.

The areas of competence are (1) leader and director of the educational program, (2) coordinator of guidance and special educational services, (3) member of the school staff, (4) link between the community and the school, (5) administrator of personnel, (6) member of the profession of education administration, and (7) director of support management (Demeke 1975). Permission to use the PEEL definition was obtained from Demeke.

In a national study by Metzger (1976), the PEEL definition was found to be both reliable and valid. Four estimates of the definition's reliability were performed with the following results: test-retest, .91; split-half, .98 and .99; and Kuder-Richardson, .88. All findings were statistically significant beyond the .01 level. The test was administered to a sample of administrators throughout the United States (Metzger 1976, 149).

A sample of 964 school administrators, stratified into groups (superintendency level, administrative staff, secondary principals), was selected by multi-stage systematic random sampling procedure from all school districts in the United States with student populations of over 10,000. Utilizing a Likert-type scale of strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree, the PEEL definition of administrative competence was formulated verbatim into an instrument which was mailed to

the superintendent of the 241 school districts in the first stage of the sampling plan (Metzger 1976).

Using a one-way analysis of variance, seven null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance. Statistical tests revealed that no significant differences exist among administrators in the four groups with regard to any of the seven areas of competence of the PEEL definition of administrative competence. All of the mean levels of agreement for all administrative groups were in the agree (4.00) and strongly agree (5.00) response categories of the Likert-type scale (Metzger 1976). The high degree of reliability of the PEEL definition contributes to increased confidence in statistical evidence validity, since reliability is a prerequisite of validity.

For each of the thirty-five competency statements, respondents were asked to indicate their perceptions on a Likert-type rating scale (1 = low to 5 = high) of (1) how important they think each competency is for an administrator in their current administrative position, and (2) how well they feel they are presently performing the competencies.

Each of the competency statements required two responses from respondents. The remaining two- and three-digit decimal portions of the PEEL definition were utilized as descriptors under the associated competency statements to ensure the respondents' understanding of each competency.

The survey instrument also included four demographic statements which reflected the four independent variables in this study. These are (1) level of administrative activity, (2) years of administrative-teaching experience, (3) size of the college, and (4) highest academic achievement.

The instrument was altered as needed for use in Kenya by omitting four competence statements which were not relevant to the educational system in Kenya. Verification was made through the Education Attache of Kenya in Washington, D. C., that the instructions and examples contained in the instrument were indeed clear and would facilitate the generation of reliable data in Kenya.

#### Collection of Data

Each of the sixteen colleges in Kenya received five packets, one to the principal containing two inner envelopes and the others addressed directly to the four faculty members. The first packet was addressed to the principal of the college by name as listed in the Ministry of Education Directory of Teachers Colleges. The principal received two cover letters in this packet. One was from Howard Smith, Jr., Professor of Education at the University of North Texas to the Ministry of Education, explaining the reason for this survey and the second was from the

researcher, explaining the procedures to be followed in the completion of the survey and requesting cooperation in the study.

Each of the envelopes to the vice-principals and to the faculty members contained a cover letter from the researcher, a stamped self-addressed envelope, and a questionnaire.

In order to provide a means of control, each set of six questionnaires was numbered sequentially from one to sixteen. For example, the six questionnaires sent to college number one were each marked with the numeral 1. Upon its return, a questionnaire from college number one was readily identified as to its place of origin.

The 80 packets comprising this survey were mailed on 15 March 1988. Three call-back letters were subsequently issued on 15 May 1988, 15 June 1988, and 20 July 1988. Finally, a telephone call to the Ministry was made on 10 August 1988 to inform the Ministry of the delay and to ask for assistance. The primary purpose of this call was to inform the Ministry of the 30 August 1988 deadline for returns.

The 20 July 1988 call-back was issued only to colleges which had not returned all questionnaires by that date. Due to the limited number of colleges in Kenya, the return of five or six completed questionnaires from a college



excluded that college from the second and third call-back process.

The telephone call to the Ministry included all colleges which had not submitted a full complement of six completed questionnaires by that date. The three call-back letters are found in the Appendix.

#### Treatment of Data

Data collected by the survey instrument were entered and processed at the University of North Texas Computing Center. An adjusted need index for each of the thirty-five competency areas was computed for each respondent. This procedure involved two steps. The first step was the calculation of a need index on each competency area for each respondent. The need index was obtained by determining the discrepancy, or difference, between the respondents' perceptions of how important each competency was for their current administrative position and the perceptions of how well they were performing each competency. This process is illustrated in Figure 1.

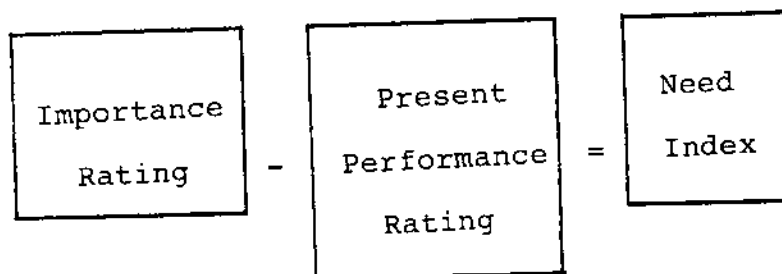


Fig. 1. Steps in calculating a need index.

The need index on each competency area for each respondent was then multiplied, or weighted, by the importance rating on that statement to arrive at the adjusted need index. This process is illustrated in Figure 2.

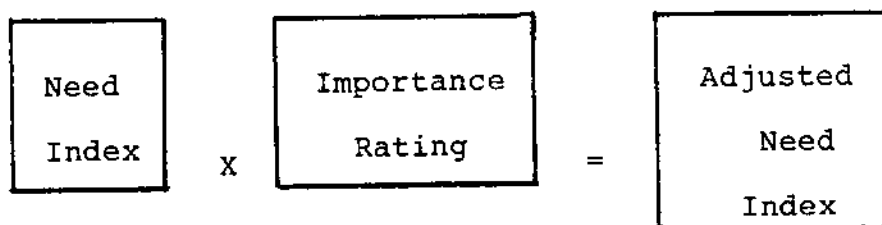


Fig. 2. Steps in calculating an adjusted need index.

By utilizing the process depicted in Figure 2, the combination of a high importance rating with a low present performance rating on the same area produces a high adjusted need index and consequently indicates a competency of high perceived need. As McCallon (1978) states:

Use of the adjusted need index is a more realistic way of differentiating among needs. Otherwise, areas with high and low importance ratings can receive equal index ratings. Computation of the adjusted need index . . . helps obviate this problem (50).

The calculation of an adjusted need index on each competency area for each respondent provided the third of three dependent variables utilized in the current study. The two other dependent variables were the perceived importance and present performance ratings on each of the thirty-five competency statements.

Mean scores and standard deviations for respondent variables were then determined for each respondent category within the four independent variables of administrative levels, size of college, length of administrative-teaching experience, and highest degree earned on each of the seven areas of competence. In addition, the number of responses in each cell was determined at this juncture.

At another level, a series of t-tests was computed to determine the existence of a significant difference between the administrator (principals) and faculty mean scores of present performance in all seven areas of competency. A series of t-tests was again computed to determine the existence of a significant difference between the administrators (principals) and faculty mean scores of degree of importance in all seven areas of competency.

At a more advanced level, one-way analyses of variance were employed on the collected data to determine to what extent each of the elements of administrative competency is related to size of college, years of administrative-teaching experiences, highest degree earned, and position.

The statistical test utilized in the series of one-way analyses of variance was the F-test. Whitla states that "The F-test is applicable to testing the differences among any number of groups as regards one test variable" (1968, 65).

After a significant  $F$  ratio was obtained, on the one-way analysis of variance, a series of post hoc comparisons was made using Duncan's New Multiple Range Test to locate exactly where the significant difference lay. This statistical procedure analyzed each possible pair of means to determine if the two means were significantly different from one another.

Of the various multiple comparison tests which were available, Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was selected because it met most of the criteria used in selecting methods for testing specific differences and, according to Ferguson, "The (Duncan) method will yield more significant results than the Newman-Keuls method" (1981, 274).

#### Summary

This chapter describes procedures used in this study and is divided into four sections. The population and sample section include a discussion of the population of the study which was limited to teacher training colleges in Kenya. With both principals and vice-principals involved in the study, four faculty members were selected to complete the questionnaires.

In the instrument section, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire are discussed. This chapter also reveals that the instrument used in this study was

essentially the PEEL definition of administrative competence, used in its entirety and placed in questionnaire form.

The collection of data section includes the procedures utilized in the survey of this study.

Finally, the treatment of data section contains a discussion of the statistical treatment of data generated by the study. The following statistics were employed: frequency distribution, t-tests, one-way analyses of variance, and Duncan's New Multiple Range Test.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

The purposes of this study were to assess the present status of administrative competencies as perceived by Kenyan administrators and faculty, to determine and compare the desired status of administrative competencies as perceived by administrators and faculty, and to assess the extent to which perceptions of the present status of administrative competency is related to size of college, years of administrative-teaching experience, and highest degree earned. In order to pursue these purposes, eight research questions were formulated.

1. Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as leader and director of the educational program?
2. Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services?
3. Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as a member of college staff?

4. Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the role of the administrator as a link between the community and the college?

5. Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as an administrator of personnel?

6. Do administrators and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as a member of the profession of educational administration?

7. Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as director of support management?

8. To what extent are each of the elements of administrative competency related to size of college, years of administrative-teaching experience, and highest degree earned?

#### Response Rate

In answering these questions, a nationwide survey of Kenyan teacher training college administrators and faculty was conducted. Packets of questionnaires were mailed to sixteen teacher training colleges. Respondents from sixteen, or 100 percent, of the colleges responded by returning all questionnaires.

With six questionnaires sent to each college, a total of ninety-six questionnaires were distributed across the nation. Ninety-six questionnaires, or 100 percent, were returned. The number and percentage of questionnaires returned in various categories are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF QUESTIONNAIRES RETURNED

Type of Responses	Number	Percent
Number of usable returns	96	100.0
Number of unusable returns	0	0.0
Total	96	100.0

In describing an adequate return rate, McCallon states that:

The results from a mailed survey cannot automatically be considered valid unless a minimum return rate of 50 percent has been achieved or unless there is some means of verifying that the nonrespondents are similar to the respondents. . . . The acceptability of the response rate has been adjusted in each case by the nature of the study, the use to which the survey results will be applied and the amount of error that can be tolerated (McCallon 1978, 47).

Therefore, the response rate of 100 percent recorded in this study is above the average normally expected from mailed surveys and also exceeds the 50 percent return considered necessary to support the purpose of this study.



### Frequency Distribution of Respondents

The questionnaire which was utilized in the current survey includes four demographic statements which generate the four independent variables of this study. The number and percentage of responses in the position variable are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2  
NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE  
BY POSITION

Position	Number of Returns	Percentage of Total Returns
Principal	16	16.67
Vice-principal	16	16.67
Faculty	64	66.66
Total	96	100.0

Examination of Table 2 reveals that 66.67 percent of the respondents were faculty members. This ratio was expected since four faculty members from each college participated, as compared to one principal and one vice-principal from some of the colleges.

The number and percentage of responses in the size of college variable are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3  
NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE  
BY SIZE OF COLLEGE

Size of College	Number of Returns	Percentage of Total Returns
299 or fewer	6	6.25
300-499	54	56.25
500-699	30	31.25
700 or more	6	6.25
Total	96	100.00

As noted in Table 3, 56.25 percent of the respondents were employed by colleges with an enrollment of 300 to 499 students. This is not surprising because most of the colleges in Kenya have an enrollment of up to 500 students. On the other hand, the smaller percentage of total returns from colleges with an enrollment of 299 and below can be attributed to the fact that the Ministry of Education has been forced to increase teacher training college intake in order to meet the current demand for trained teachers in elementary schools.

The number and percentage of responses in the years of experience variable are displayed in Table 4.

Examination of Table 4 reveals that a majority of the respondents had been in the field of education less than

TABLE 4  
NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE  
BY YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Number of Returns	Percentage of Total Returns
1-5 years	22	22.9
6-10 years	32	33.3
11-20 years	38	39.6
21-30 years	4	4.2
31-40 years	0	0.0
Total	96	100.0

twenty-one years. This table also reflects the scarcity throughout the nation of principals, vice-principals and faculty members with more than thirty years of administrative-teaching experience. This can be partially attributed to the fact that the retirement age has been lowered by the government to fifty-five years.

The responses made to the highest degree earned variable are summarized in Table 5. The figures displayed in Table 5 indicate that none of the respondents had earned a doctorate degree. As expected, the highest degree earned for the vast majority of respondents was the baccalaureate.

TABLE 5  
NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE  
BY HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED

Highest Degree Earned	Number of Returns	Percentage of Total Returns
Baccalaureate	64	66.7
Master's of Education	12	12.5
Approved	20	20.8
Doctorate	0	0.0
Total	96	100.0

Among the respondents with an earned master's degree in education, nine were principals and three were vice-principals.

#### Research Questions

Each of the research questions and data gathered by the questionnaire, "Inventory of Administrative Competence" (see Appendix), which is pertinent to answering the questions is discussed separately in subsequent sections of this chapter.

#### Question One

Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect

to the administrator as leader and director of the educational program?

A t-test was utilized in order to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator (principals) and faculty mean scores of present performance. Another t-test was used to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on the degree of importance in the area of competence 1, administrator as leader and director of the educational program. The number of respondents, present performance mean, standard deviation, t-value, and degrees of freedom in competence area 1 are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, PRESENT PERFORMANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION, T-VALUE AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 1

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u> -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	18.9375	3.492	-0.21	73
2	59	19.1017	2.611		

Examination of Table 6 reveals a difference between administrators and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 1. The t-value is -0.21.

Ferguson (1981, 179) states that when testing for a significance of  $t$ -value, the negative sign of  $t$  should be ignored and only its absolute magnitude should be considered.

Looking at the  $t$ -table, for 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level of significance, the level designated for this study. The observed  $t$  is well below this, and, therefore, there is no significant difference between the two means.

Table 7 presents the results of a  $t$ -test which was used to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 1, administrator as leader and director of the educational programs.

TABLE 7

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 1

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees Freedom
1	16	23.3125	1.302	2.21	73
2	59	22.5424	1.222		

Examination of Table 7 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on the degree of

importance in competency area 1. The  $t$ -value is 2.21. For 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of 1.990 is required for significance at the .05 level. The observed  $t$  is well above this, and therefore the difference is significant. Administrators perceive area 1, administrator as leader and director of the educational program, as being more important than do faculty members.

The  $t$ -test used to determine the existence of a significant difference between the administrators need index mean and faculty need index mean in area 1, administrator as leader and director of the educational program, is presented in Table 8. Also presented in Table 8 are the number of respondents, need index mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 1.

TABLE 8

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, NEED INDEX MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, T-VALUE, AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 1

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	4.3750	3.686	1.30	73
2	59	3.4407	2.152		

Examination of Table 8 reveals a difference between administrators and faculty on the need index. The  $t$  is 1.80. For 73 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is needed for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the two need index means. For this study, a need index mean of more than 3.00 was arbitrarily determined to be considered high on a scale of 0 to 5. Therefore, both faculty and administrators in the study perceive area 1, administrator as leader and director of the educational program, as a highly needed area of administrative competence.

#### Question Two

Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services?

Results of a  $t$ -test used to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrators and faculty are presented in Table 9. The number of respondents, present performance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom in area 2 are presented in Table 9.

Examination of Table 9 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 2, administrator as coordinator of guidance and special education services. The  $t$ -value is -1.39. For 73



TABLE 9

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, PRESENT PERFORMANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $t$ -VALUE AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 2

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	18.8125	2.007	-1.39	73
2	59	19.5763	1.941		

degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. The observed  $t$ -value is well below this; therefore, the difference between the two means is not significant. Administrators and faculty do not differ significantly in their perceptions of present performance of administrators as coordinator of guidance and special educational services.

Another  $t$ -test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 2, administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services. The number of respondents, degree of importance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom in area 2 are presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION, T-VALUE AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 2

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u> -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	23.0625	2.205	0.81	73
2	59	22.7627	0.953		

Examination of Table 10 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 2, administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services. A t-value of 0.81 is observed. For 73 degrees of freedom, a t of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. The observed t is well below this, and, therefore, no significant difference between the two means exists.

In order to determine whether there is a significant difference between the need index mean of administrators and the need index mean of faculty, a t-test was conducted. The results are displayed in Table 11, which presents the number of respondents, need index mean, standard deviation, t-value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 2, administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services.

TABLE 11

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, NEED INDEX MEAN, STANDARD  
DEVIATION, T-VALUE, AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM  
BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND GROUP 2--  
FACULTY IN AREA 2

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u> -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	4.2500	2.017	1.80	73
2	59	3.1864	2.113		

Examination of Table 11 reveals a difference between administrators and faculty on the need index mean. The observed t-value is 1.80. For 73 degrees of freedom, a t of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the two need index means. For this study, a need index mean of more than 3.00 is considered high. Therefore, both faculty and administrators perceive area 2, administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services, as a highly needed competence area.

### Question Three

Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as a member of the college staff?

A t-test was used to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty

mean scores on present performance. Another  $t$ -test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrators and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in competence area 3, administrator as a member of college staff. The number of respondents, present performance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom in the third area of competence are presented in Table 12.

TABLE 12  
NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, PRESENT PERFORMANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 3

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	20.1250	2.553	0.41	73
2	59	19.8475	2.340		

Examination of Table 12 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance. A  $t$  of 0.41 is observed. For 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. Since the observed  $t$  is below the required  $t$ -value, there is no significant difference between the means.

The results of a t-test which was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between principals and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 3, administrator as a member of college staff, are presented in Table 13. Also presented in Table 13 are the number of respondents, degree of importance mean, standard deviation, t-value, and degrees of freedom in area 3.

TABLE 13

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION, T-VALUE, AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 3

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u> -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	23.2500	1.571	0.89	73
2	59	22.9492	1.074		

Examination of Table 13 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in competence area 3. The t-value is 0.89. For 73 degrees of freedom, a t of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. The observed t is well above the required value; therefore, there is no significant difference between the two means.

To determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty need index means, a  $t$ -test was done. The number of respondents, need index mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 3, administrators as a member of college staff, are presented in Table 14.

TABLE 14

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, NEED INDEX MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 3

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	3.1250	3.160	0.03	73
2	59	3.1017	2.354		

Examination of Table 14 reveals a  $t$ -value of 0.03. For 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. The two means are not significantly different. A need index mean of more than 3.0 is considered high in this study. Further examination of Table 14 indicates that both administrators and faculty perceive area 3, administrator as a member of college staff, as a competency area of high need.

#### Question Four

Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as a link between the community and the college?

Three t-tests were utilized for this question. The first t-test was performed to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 4, administrator as link between the community and the college. A second was used to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 4, administrator as link between the community and the college. The last t-test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty need index means.

The results of a t-test done to determine the existence of significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 4, administrator as link between the community and the college, are presented in Table 15. Also presented in Table 15 are the number of respondents, present performance mean, standard deviation, t-value, and degrees of freedom in competency area 4.

TABLE 15

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, PRESENT PERFORMANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION, T-VALUE AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 4

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	14.4375	2.828	-2.09	73
2	59	15.6780	1.879		

Examination of Table 15 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 4, administrator as a link between the community and the college. The t-value is -2.09. For 73 degrees of freedom, a t of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. The t-value observed is well over 1.96, and, therefore, a significant difference exists between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 4. Further examination reveals a lower mean score on administrator perceptions than that on faculty perceptions of how administrators are currently performing.

The results of a t-test done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 4, administrator as link between the community and the college, are presented in Table 16. Also presented in Table 16 are



the number of respondents, degree of importance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 4.

TABLE 16

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 4

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	17.3750	2.391	-2.04	73
2	59	18.3051	1.342		

Examination of Table 16 reveals a difference between administrators and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 4, administrator as link between the community and the college. A  $t$ -value of -2.04 is observed. According to the  $t$ -table, for 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. There is a significant difference between the two means. Further examination reveals that faculty perceive area 4, administrator as a link between the community and the college, as being of a higher degree of importance than do administrators.

The results of a  $t$ -test to determine the existence of a significant difference between the need index mean of administrators and the need index mean of faculty are presented in Table 17. Also presented in Table 17 are the number of respondents, need index mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 4.

TABLE 17

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, NEED INDEX MEAN, STANDARD  
DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM  
BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND GROUP 2--  
FACULTY IN AREA 4

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	2.9375	2.235	0.51	73
2	59	2.6271	2.141		

Examination of Table 17 reveals a  $t$ -value of 0.51. For 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. The two means are not significantly different. A need index mean of more than 3.0 is considered high in this study. Further examination of Table 17 indicates that both faculty and administrators perceive area 4, administrator as link between the community and the college, as an area of less need.

## Question Five

Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as an administrator of personnel?

Three t-tests were used for this question. The first t-test was used to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel. A second t-test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel. The last t-test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty need index means.

The results of a t-test done to determine the existence of significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel, are presented in Table 18. The last t-test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty need index means.

The results of a t-test done to determine the existence of significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel, are presented in Table 18.

Also presented in Table 18 are the number of respondents, present performance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom in competence area 5.

TABLE 18

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, PRESENT PERFORMANCES MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 5

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	23.2500	2.517	-2.06	73
2	59	24.8085	2.071		

Examination of Table 18 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel. The  $t$ -value is -2.06. For 73 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. The observed  $t$  is well above the 1.96 required, and, therefore, the two means are significantly different. Further examination reveals that administrators rated their performance lower than did the faculty.

The results of a  $t$ -test done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 5, administrator

as an administrator of personnel, are presented in Table 19. Also presented in Table 19 are the number of respondents, degree of importance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 5.

TABLE 19

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES OF  
FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 5

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	27.5000	2.338	-0.90	73
2	59	27.8983	1.296		

Examination of Table 19 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel. The  $t$ -value of -0.90 is observed. According to the  $t$ -table, for 73 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. No significant difference exists between the two means.

The results of a  $t$ -test done to determine the existence of a significant difference between the need index means of administrators and faculty are presented in Table 20.

Also presented in Table 20 are the number of respondents, need index mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 5.

TABLE 20

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, NEED INDEX MEAN, STANDARD  
DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM  
BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND GROUP  
2--FACULTY IN AREA 5

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	4.2500	2.436	1.21	73
2	59	3.3898	2.553		

Examination of Table 20 reveals a  $t$ -value of 1.21. For 73 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is needed for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the two means. A need index mean of more than 3.0 is considered high in this study. Further examination of Table 20 indicates that both faculty and administrators perceive area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel, as an area of high need.

## Question Six

Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as a member of the profession of educational administration?

Three t-tests were utilized for this question. The first was intended to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 6, administrator as a member of the profession of educational administration. A second t-test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 6, administrator as member of the profession of educational administration. The last t-test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty need index means.

The results of a t-test done to determine the existence of significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 6 are presented in Table 21. Also presented in Table 21 are the number of respondents, present performance mean, standard deviation, t-value, and degrees of freedom in competence area 6, administrator as a member of the profession of educational administration.

TABLE 21

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, PRESENT PERFORMANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $t$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES  
OF FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 5

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	19.6875	1.887	-0.16	73
2	59	19.7797	2.093		

Examination of Table 21 reveals a slight difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 6, administrator as member of the profession of educational administration. The  $t$ -value is -0.16. For 73 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is needed for significance at the .05 level. The observed  $t$  is far less than the 1.96 required, and, therefore, there is no significant difference between the two means.

The results of a  $t$ -test done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 6, administrator as member of the profession of educational administration, are presented in Table 22. Also presented in Table 22 are the number of respondents, degree of importance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom in competence area 6.



TABLE 22

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION, T-VALUE, AND DEGREES  
OF FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 5

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	23.1875	1.682	0.49	73
2	59	22.9831	1.408		

Examination of Table 22 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 6, administrator as member of the profession of educational administration.

A  $t$ -value of 0.49 is observed. For 73 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is needed for significance at the .05 level. There is no significant difference between faculty and administrators.

The results of a  $t$ -test to determine the existence of a significant difference between the need index means of administrators and faculty are presented in Table 23. Also presented in Table 23 are the number of respondents, need index mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 6.

TABLE 23

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, NEED INDEX MEAN, STANDARD  
DEVIATION, T-VALUE, AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM  
BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND GROUP  
2--FACULTY IN AREA 5

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	3.5000	2.708	0.47	73
2	59	3.2034	2.091		

Examination of Table 23 reveals a  $t$ -value of 0.47. For 73 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is needed for significance at the .05 level. There is no significant difference between the two means. A need index mean of more than 3.0 is considered high in this study. Further examination of Table 23 indicates that both faculty and administrators perceive area 6, administrator as member of the profession of educational administration, as an area of high need.

#### Question Seven

Do administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance differ with respect to the administrator as director of support management?

A  $t$ -test was used to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty

mean scores on present performance in area 7, administrator as director of support management. Another  $t$ -test was done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 7, administrator as director of support management. The number of respondents, present performance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom on area 7 are presented in Table 24.

TABLE 24

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, PRESENT PERFORMANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES  
OF FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 7

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	20.5625	2.707	1.46	73
2	59	19.7119	1.857		

Examination of Table 24 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 7, administrator as director of support management. The calculated  $t$ -value is 4.49. For 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of more than 1.96 is required for significance at the .05 level. There is no significant difference between the two means.

Results of a  $t$ -test, done to determine the existence of a significant difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 7, administrator as director of support management, are presented in Table 25. Also presented in Table 25 are the number of respondents, degree of importance mean, standard deviation,  $t$ -value, and degrees of freedom by group 1--principals and group 2--faculty in area 7.

TABLE 25

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE MEAN,  
STANDARD DEVIATION,  $T$ -VALUE, AND DEGREES  
OF FREEDOM BY GROUP 1--PRINCIPALS AND  
GROUP 2--FACULTY IN AREA 7

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation	$t$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom
1	16	23.0000	2.000	-0.71	73
2	59	23.2712	1.127		

Examination of Table 25 reveals a difference between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 7, administrator as director of support management. The calculated  $t$ -value is -0.71. For 73 degrees of freedom, a  $t$  of 1.99 is required for significance at the .05 level. The observed  $t$ -value is less than the

required  $t$ -value, and, therefore, there is no significant difference between the two means.

The calculated need index means for administrators and faculty are 2.4375 and 3.5593, respectively. A need index mean of more than 3.0 is considered high for this study. This indicates that faculty perceive area 7, administrator as director of support management, as an area of high need, while administrators perceive it as being a low need.

#### Question Eight

To what extent are each of the elements of administrative competency related to size of college, years of administrative-teaching experience, highest degree earned, and position?

One-way analysis of variance was applied to the adjusted need index means for the seven areas of competency. The results of one-way analysis of variance are displayed in Table 26. Divided by the seven areas of competency, the table exhibits the source of variance, the sums of squares, the degrees of freedom, the mean squares, the  $F$  ratios, and the significant probability levels of .05 or less for the seven main areas of competence used in this study. Nonsignificant probability levels are indicated by the acronym NS in the table.

TABLE 26  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE ADJUSTED NEED INDEX MEANS  
OF AREAS OF COMPETENCY BY POSITION

Area	Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
1	Between	8743.422	2	4371.711	1.30	NS
	Within	299279.131	89	3362.687	. .	. .
2	Between	9191.0801	2	4595.5401	1.68	NS
	Within	243014.789	89	2730.5033	. .	. .
3	Between	7257.195	2	3628.598	1.11	NS
	Within	291404.54	89	3274.2084	. .	. .
4	Between	263.788	2	131.894	.085	NS
	Within	137062.418	89	1540.027	. .	. .
5	Between	9659.334	2	4829.667	.887	NS
	Within	484585.275	89	5444.778	. .	. .
6	Between	1495.354	2	747.677	.228	NS
	Within	291689.473	89	3277.41	. .	. .
7	Between	8734.811	2	4367.405	1.842	NS
	Between	211028.179	89	2371.103	. .	. .

Examination of Table 26 indicates that the one-way analysis of variance, calculated at the .05 level of significance, yielded no significant F-values for the seven areas of competency on the dependent variable of adjusted need index. This reveals that none of the

elements of administrative competency are related to position--principal, vice-principal, and faculty--of respondents.

The result of a one-way analysis of variance was applied to the adjusted need index means for years of administrative-teaching experience (1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-20 years, 21-30 years). The sources of variance, the sums of squares, the degrees of freedom, the mean squares, the F-ratios, and the significant probability levels of .05 or less for the seven areas of competence are presented in Table 27.

Examination of Table 27 reveals no significant F-value for the seven areas of competence. The number of years of experience did not affect how respondents reacted to the questionnaire.

Results of the one-way analysis applied to the adjusted need index means for highest degree earned (baccalaureate, approved, master's) by the respondents is reported in Table 28.

Examination of Table 28 reveals a significant F-value in area 5, administrator as an administrator of personnel, of administrative competency. The rest of the six areas did not indicate any significant F-value.

The two groups which yielded significant F-value in area 5 were those with a master's degree and those with

TABLE 27

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE ADJUSTED NEED INDEX MEANS  
OF THE AREAS OF COMPETENCE BY YEARS OF  
ADMINISTRATIVE-TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Area	Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
1	Between	2020.29	3	673.430	.1996	NS
	Within	310451.866	92	3374.477	. .	. .
2	Between	2659.655	3	886.552	.322	NS
	Within	253687.678	92	2757.475	. .	. .
3	Between	744.948	3	248.316	.0764	NS
	Within	299079.041	92	3250.86	. .	. .
4	Between	3410.544	3	1136.848	.7377	NS
	Within	141769.081	92	1540.968	. .	. .
5	Between	11005.550	3	3668.517	.6649	NS
	Within	507625.783	92	5517.672	. .	. .
6	Between	1714.113	3	571.371	.1703	NS
	Within	308634.877	92	3354.727	. .	. .
7	Between	6848.380	3	2282.793	.9122	NS
	Within	230233.86	92	2502.54	. .	. .

approved teachers' certificates. The number of respondents, mean, standard deviation, and standard error within the variable degree are presented in Table 29.



TABLE 28

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF ADJUSTED NEED INDEX MEANS OF  
AREAS OF COMPETENCE BY HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED

Area	Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
1	Between	10313.580	2	5156.790	1.5872	NS
	Within	302158.576	93	3249.017	. .	. .
2	Between	595.007	2	297.504	.1082	NS
	Within	255752.326	93	2750.025	. .	. .
3	Between	3321.939	2	1160.969	.5210	NS
	Within	296502.05	93	3188.194	. .	. .
4	Between	2392.299	2	1196.149	.7791	NS
	Within	142787.326	93	1535.348	. .	. .
5	Between	27038.607	2	13519.304	2.558	S*
	Within	491592.726	93	5285.943	. .	
6	Between	6615.955	2	3307.978	1.0129	NS
	Within	303733.034	93	3265.947	. .	. .
7	Between	5901.5396	2	2950.769	1.870	NS
	Within	231180.7	93	2485.814	. .	. .

\*Significant at the .05 level.

Examination of Table 29 reveals that the difference between group 2--approved certificate and group 3--master's degree is significant.

TABLE 29

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, GROUP MEANS, AND STANDARD  
DEVIATION FOR GROUP 2--APPROVED TEACHER  
CERTIFICATE AND GROUP 3--MASTER'S  
DEGREE IN AREA 5

Group	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation
2	20	79.8	71.6237
3	12	139.4167	63.3066

The results of analysis of variance applied to the adjusted need index means for size of college (299 and fewer, 300-499, 500-699) are presented in Table 30. Also presented in the table are the source of variance, the sum of squares, the degrees of freedom, the mean squares, the  $F$ -ratios, and the significant probability levels of .05 or less for the seven areas of competence.

Examination of Table 30 reveals that in area 1 of administrative competence, group 3, or colleges with 500-699 students, and group 1, or colleges with 299 and below students, are significantly different at the .05 level. Also in area 3, administrator as member of college staff, group 2, colleges with 300-499 students, and group 1, colleges with 299 and fewer students, are significantly different at the .05 level. In area 6, administrators as members

TABLE 30

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF ADJUSTED NEED INDEX MEANS  
OF AREAS OF COMPETENCE BY SIZE OF COLLEGE

Area	Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
1	Between	17068.739	2	8534.370	2.687	S*
	Within	295403.416	93	3176.380	. .	. .
2	Between	12175.261	2	6087.630	2.3187	NS
	Within	244172.073	93	2625.5062	. .	. .
3	Between	26371.669	2	13185.834	4.484	S*
	Within	273452.321	93	2940.348	. .	. .
4	Between	4955.674	2	2477.837	1.6434	NS
	Within	140223.951	93	1507.784	. .	. .
5	Between	23133.190	2	11566.595	2.1709	NS
	Within	495498.1432	93	5327.937	. .	. .
6	Between	43451.044	2	21725.522	7.5702	S*
	Within	266897.946	93	2869.870	. .	. .
7	Between	23891.117	2	11945.559	5.2110	S*
	Within	213191.122	93	2292.378	. .	. .

\*Significant at the .05 level.

of the profession of educational administration, and group 3, colleges with 500-699 students, are significantly different. Also in the same area of competence, group 3, colleges

with 500-699 students, and group 2, colleges with 300-499 students, indicated a significant difference at the .05 level.

### Summary

This chapter presents results of the statistical analyses which were performed on the data drawn from the nationwide survey of this study. The response rate for the survey is discussed and frequency distribution is examined. Each of the eight research questions is discussed separately, including discussion of perceived need patterns and analyses of variance for those patterns.

Major findings include significant differences between the following mean scores at the .05 level:

1. Administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 1--leader and director of the educational program.
2. Administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 4--link between the community and the college.
3. Administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 4--link between the community and the college.
4. Administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance in area 5--administrator of personnel.

5. Administrator and faculty mean scores on need index in area 7--director of support services.

6. Highest degree earned and the elements of administrative competency yielded one significant  $t$ -value in area 5--administrator of personnel.

7. Size of college and areas of administrative competency yielded significant  $t$ -values in area 1--leader and director of the educational program, area 3--member of college staff, area 6--member of the profession of educational administration, and area 7--director of support management.

No significant differences were found between the following means at the .05 level:

1. Administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance in area 1--leader and director of the educational program.

2. Administrator and faculty mean scores on the need index in area 1--leader and director of the educational program.

3. Administrator and faculty mean score on present performance in area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services.

4. Administrator and faculty mean scores on the degree of importance in area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services.

5. Administrator and faculty mean scores on the need index in area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services.

6. Administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance, degree of importance, and need index in area 3--member of college staff.

7. Administrator and faculty mean scores on need index in area 4--link between the community and the college.

8. Administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance and need index in area 5--administrator of personnel.

9. Administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance, degree of importance, and need index in area 6--member of the profession of educational administration.

10. Administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance and degree of importance in area 7--director of support management.

11. Highest degree earned and the elements of administrative competency yielded no significant  $t$ -value in areas 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 7.

12. Years of administrative-teaching experience did not yield any significant  $t$ -value in any of the areas.

13. Present position of the respondents and the areas of administrative competency did not yield any significant  $t$ -value in any of the seven areas.

14. Size of college and the elements of administrative competency yielded no significant  $t$ -value in area 5-- administrator of personnel.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The concern of this study was the determination of needed administrative competencies of administrators in teacher training colleges in Kenya. In order to examine this problem, four purposes were established: (1) to assess the present status of administrative competencies as perceived by administrators and faculty; (2) to determine and compare the desired status of administrative competencies as perceived by administrators and faculty; (3) to assess the extent to which size of college, highest degree earned, and years of experience relate to administrator or faculty perceptions of the present status of administrative competency; and (4) to determine the extent to which size of college, years of administrative-teaching experience, and highest degree earned relate to administrator and faculty perceptions of the importance of various administrative competencies.

In order to pursue these purposes, eight research questions were investigated which relate to the determination of the present status of administrative competencies, the desired status of administrative competencies, and the



assessment of the extent to which size of college, highest degree earned, and years of administrative-teaching experience related to administrator and faculty perceptions of the present performance and desired status of administrative competencies. The following eight research questions were formulated and expanded:

1. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as leader and director of the educational program?

2. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services?

3. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as a member of the college staff?

4. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as a link between the community and the college?

5. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as an administrator of personnel?

6. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect

to the administrator as a member of the profession of educational administration?

7. What are administrator and faculty perceptions of present performance and degree of importance with respect to the administrator as director of support management?

8. To what extent are each of the areas of administrative competency related to the size of college, years of administrative-teaching experience, and highest degree earned?

The competencies selected for the questionnaire used in this study were drawn from the PEEL definition of administrative competence. The PEEL definition, Guidelines for Evaluation: The School Administrator--Seven Areas of Competence (Demeke 1972), is a behaviorally stated definition of administrative competence. The PEEL definition was found both reliable and valid in a national study completed in the United States by Metzger in 1975.

The questionnaire includes four demographic statements which reflect the four independent variables in this study. These are the level of administrative activity, size of college, years of administrative-teaching experience, and highest degree earned.

Sixteen teacher training colleges participated in the study and subsequently were sent five packets, one to the principal, which contained two inner envelopes, and the other addressed directly to the four faculty members. The

first packet was addressed to the principal of the college by name, as listed in the Ministry of Education Directory of Teacher Colleges. The principal received two cover letters in this packet. One from Howard Smith, Jr., Professor of Education, to the Ministry of Education explaining the reason for this survey, and the other from the researcher explaining the procedures to be followed in the completion of the survey instrument and requesting cooperation in the study.

The eighty packets comprising this survey were mailed 15 March 1988. Three call-back letters were subsequently mailed on 15 May 1988, 15 June 1988, and 20 July 1988. Finally, a telephone call to the Ministry was made on 10 August 1988 to inform the Ministry of the delay and to ask for assistance. The primary purpose of this call was to inform the Ministry of the 30 August 1988 deadline for returns.

Data from the ninety-six returned questionnaires were processed in the University of North Texas Computing Center. A series of statistical procedures was performed on the data. These included frequency distribution, t-tests, one-way analyses of variance, and Duncan's New Multiple Range Test. The areas which failed to display a significant difference at the .05 level indicate agreement between administrators and faculty.

Using t-tests, the area of competencies which failed to display significant differences at the .05 level between the administrator and faculty mean scores on present performance included area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services, area 3--member of college staff, area 6--member of the profession of educational administration, and area 7--director of support management.

Areas of competency which failed to display significant differences at the .05 level between administrator and faculty mean scores on degree of importance included area 1--leader and director of the educational program, area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services, and area 5--administrator of personnel.

Areas of competency which failed to display significant differences at the .05 level between administrator and faculty mean scores on need index included area 1--leader and director of the educational program, area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services, area 4--link between the community and the college, area 5--administrator of personnel, and area 6--member of the profession of educational administration.

Using a one-way analysis of variance F-test, the number of competency areas, which failed to display significant probability levels within the .05 level of significance, include the following:

Highest degree earned yielded no significant F-value at the .05 level in area 1--leader and director of the education program, area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services, area 3--member of college staff, area 4--link between the community and the college, area 6--member of the profession of educational administration, and area 7--director of support management.

Years of administrative-teaching experience yielded no significant F-value at the .05 level in all the areas.

Level of administrative activity yielded no significant F-value at the .05 level in all the areas.

Size of college yielded no significant F-value at the .05 level in area 5--administrator of personnel, area 2--coordinator of guidance and special educational services, and area 4--link between the community and the college.

#### Discussion of Findings

Administrators and faculty did not differ in their perceptions of present performance in area 1, which reflects an administrator as leader and director of the educational program. However, administrators perceived this competency area to be of a higher degree of importance than did faculty members. This finding supports the findings of Cook and Van Otten (1972) in a study designed to identify some of the prime competencies required for the secondary school principalship. They found that

principals considered program development one of their major competency requirements.

The results of this study indicate that educational background and years of experience of respondents had no effect on their perception of an administrator as a leader and director of an educational program. This finding also supports a study done by Nicholson (1972) to develop administrative task areas which held the greatest potential for the principals. He found that years of experience and educational background did not affect the perceptions of those surveyed.

Size of college had an effect on how respondents perceived an administrator as leader and director of the educational program. Respondents from smaller colleges perceived this particular competency area as an area of lower need than those from larger colleges.

In examining the ratings of the administrators and faculty in area 2, which reflects an administrator as coordinator of guidance and special educational services, the administrators and faculty did not differ in their perceptions of present performance nor did they differ in their perceptions of degree of importance in this area. Both populations perceived this area as one of high need with room for improvement; the administrators were performing below the desired status. Thomson contends that "People

should expect that only fully-qualified and competent personnel will fill the vital role of principal in the schools" (1988, 39).

The highest degree earned, position, and years of administrative-teaching experience had no effect on the response of the administrators and faculty in this area. Respondents from smaller colleges, however, perceived a lower need for this competency area than those from larger colleges.

In area 3, which reflects an administrator as a member of college staff, administrators and faculty did not differ in their perceptions of present performance. They did not differ in their perceptions of degree of importance. Both groups perceived this area as one of high need. The performance of administrators did not meet the desired status. This supports the findings of a study conducted by Manns and Wertheimer (1985) which rank-ordered eighteen attributes deemed necessary for a chairperson. Their findings suggested that the attribute which faculty members value most highly is leadership ability, with its focus on interpersonal relations.

Highest degree earned, years of administrative-teaching experience, and position of the respondents had no effect on their perceptions.

Responses to questions in area 4, which reflects an administrator as a link between the community and the

college, indicate that administrators and faculty differ on their perceptions of present performance. Administrators perceived this area as one of less need and rated their performance poorer than did the faculty. The results from different respondents were consistent for Kenya with respect to community relations. This finding is also consistent with studies done previously in the United States. The faculty also rated this area as one of less need, and viewed administrators as functioning better in this area than did the administrators. Highest degree earned, position, size of college, and years of administrative-teaching experience had no effect on the perceptions of the respondents.

There is a tendency in most studies designed to identify administrative competencies or tasks, to omit one which looks at an administrator as a link between community and the college, or to give it one of the least important spots. This finding confirms the fact that most administrators and faculty do not think this is an important area of competency.

Responses to questions in area 5, reflecting an administrator as an administrator of personnel, show that administrators and faculty differ in their perceptions of the present status. The administrators rated themselves lower than the faculty rated them. They did not differ in their perceptions of the degree of importance. Both



considered this particular competency area to be one of high need. The administrators' present performance was below the desired status of performance.

Years of administrative-teaching experience, position, and size of college had no effect on the perceptions of respondents. However, the highest degree earned had an effect on responses. Respondents with master's degrees perceived this area to be one of high need while those with approved teachers certificates perceived it as an area of less need.

Ratings of the administrators and the faculty in area 6, which reflects an administrator as a member of the profession of educational administration, did not differ in their perceptions of present performance or desired status of performance. Both considered this competency area to be one of high need. The administrators performed below the desired status.

Highest degree earned, years of administrative-teaching experience and position did not affect their response. However, size of college had an effect on responses. Those in smaller colleges (299 and fewer) considered this an area of less need while those in larger colleges considered this an area of high need.

Ratings of the administrators and the faculty in area 7, which reflects an administrator as a director of

support management, did not differ in their preceptions on present performance and degree of importance, or desired status. The two groups differed in their perceptions of the need. The administrators performed below the desired performance status.

Highest degree earned, years of administrative-teaching experience, and position had no effect on their responses. Size of college affected the respondents' perceptions in this area of competency. Respondents from small colleges (299 and fewer) perceived this area as being of lesser need than those from larger colleges.

Administrators were perceived by the respondents as performing below the desired status. This finding confirms the finding of Kisulu (1979) that most administrators in teacher training colleges did not complete any kind of administrative training designed to give them necessary competencies.

### Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn on the basis of the results of the collected data and the statistical analyses performed.

1. Size of college was the major factor for differences in perceptions of the respondents.

2. The administrators were perceived by faculty and administrators as performing below the desired status.

3. Both faculty and administrators considered the desired status of the seven areas of competency very high.

4. Years of experience and educational background had little or no effect on respondents' reactions to the questionnaire.

#### Recommendations

Based upon the conclusions drawn from this study, the following recommendations are made.

1. A future study should investigate the perceived desired status and present performance ratings assigned to a validated set of competency statements of those levels of administrative activities not included in this study. This type of study would involve school inspectors, provincial education officers, deans of students, and heads of departments.

2. Another study should investigate the current methods of evaluating administrative competence in teacher colleges in Kenya.

3. The results of this study should be analyzed by the Ministry of Education teacher college program planners responsible for conducting administrative workshops or in-service training in Kenya. Such a study could provide planners with additional information for improving the adequacy and relevancy of both pre-service and in-service programs for practicing administrators.

APPENDIX

PLEASE NOTE:

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Filmed as received.  
Pages 107-115.

U·M·I

## Colleges Receiving Survey Packets

<u>Institution</u>	<u>Student Enrollment</u>
1. Highridge Teachers College	498
2. Kisii Teachers College	368
3. Kericho Teacher College	1,141
4. Kenya Science Teachers College	600
5. Asumbi Teachers College	540
6. Egoji Teachers College	495
7. Eregi Teachers College	600
8. Kagumo Teachers College	600
9. Kericho Teachers College	1,141
10. Kamagambo Teachers College	285
11. Kamwenja Teachers College	478
12. Kilimambogo Teachers College	500
13. Machakos Teachers College	490
14. Magori Teachers College	405
15. Shanzu Teachers College	495
16. Mosonot Teachers College	485

## Cover Letter to the Office of the President

Office of the President  
Director of Personnel Management  
P. O. Box 30510  
Nairobi, Kenya

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a doctoral candidate at North Texas State University, Denton, Texas and also a Kenyan national. I am presently engaged in research for my doctoral dissertation in the doctoral program in higher education. My research project is entitled "Competency needs in teacher training colleges in Kenya as perceived by administrators and faculty."

One of the great issues in Kenya Education is that of deciding upon proper goals of higher education including proper preparation and assignment of teachers' training college administrators.

This research study is designed to determine how practicing administrators at the principal/vice-principal levels and faculty perceive the importance and present performance level of the validated competency statements. The study also examines the differences, if any, of administrative competence needs as perceived by respondents in various sizes of colleges, with various years of administrative/teaching experience, and with various degrees of professional preparation.

I believe that the results of this study will have great significance for administrator preparation programs in Kenya at both pre-service and in-service levels.

Kindly grant me permission to distribute my questionnaire to all teachers training colleges in the country. I would like to request the participants to complete the questionnaire under my direction.

Your cooperation and assistance in supplying any other information and statistical data would be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,



Mrs. Jane A. Konditi

JAK/cep

Cover Letter to the Office of the President

**NORTH TEXAS STATE UNIVERSITY**  
P.O. Box 13857  
DENTON, TEXAS 76203-3857

OFFICE OF POLICY STUDIES  
IN HIGHER EDUCATION

February 24, 1988

Office of the President  
Director of Personnel Management  
P.O. Box 30510  
Nairobi, Kenya

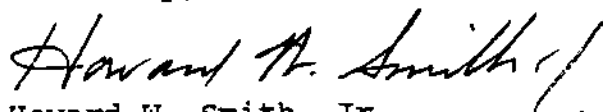
Dear Sir:

This is to confirm that Ms. Jane Konditi is a doctoral student working under my direction. She is presently engaged in research for her dissertation in the doctoral program in higher education at North Texas State University, USA.

Her research project is entitled "Competency Needs of Administrators in Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya." This is to request your assistance in her research. Ms. Konditi has the full support of her doctoral advisory committee to conduct her research in Kenya, and your support will be a necessary condition for her to successfully pursue this endeavor.

Any assistance which you can provide to Ms. Konditi will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,



Howard W. Smith, Jr.  
Professor and Director  
Office of Policy Studies  
in Higher Education

jm

cc: Jane Konditi



## Cover Letter to the Faculty

Dear Participant:

One of the great issues in Kenya education is that of deciding upon the proper administrative competencies in teacher training colleges.

As the colleges expand, it becomes necessary to study the goals and practices of teacher training colleges. I have been granted permission by the Office of the President to conduct this study.

Please respond to these competency statements and return them before April 30, 1988.

Since you are not asked to sign your name on the instrument, confidentiality of response is assured.

Only 20-30 minutes of your time will be required for your contribution toward solving our problem of determining the needed administrative competencies in teacher colleges in Kenya.

Your cooperation and assistance in this matter is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Konditi", with a stylized flourish above the name.

Mrs. Jane A. Konditi

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