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**International Society  
for Educational Planning**

**EDUCATIONAL PLANNING**

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THE IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATION

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## FROM THE EDITORS

This issue of Educational Planning brings you from the theoretical perspective of educational planning to the real planning activities of educational practitioners worldwide. First, Kaufman suggests a hierarchy of planning that lays out the total planning picture from the very beginning of planning. Then, readers will have their eyes open to see the educational planning efforts worldwide. Lang's study was designed to generate an awareness of the differences between school administrators' and teachers' perceptions of differentiated instruction in the United States. Thompson explored behaviors which teachers perceive would be effective when leaders are undertaking organizational change in the West Indies. Then, Muthigani examined the preparation of lecturers in facilitating the development of values in teacher trainees in Kenya.

In educational planning, Kaufman claimed that educators must identify valid and valuable measurable objectives for education and then enable educators to have the professional competencies, the physical and financial resources to do their jobs, and the supportive environment to operate. He suggested a hierarchy of planning that may be used to assure that there is alignment with what an agency uses, does, produces and delivers with adding measurable value to our shared society.

Lang's study found that teachers were not in complete agreement with administrators in the perceptions of differentiated instruction in U.S. schools. The study has implications for instructional leadership in that a misalignment of beliefs and attitudes held for innovations by school administrators and teachers can contribute to unintentionally creating barriers for implementation. Consequently, planning for differentiated instruction should be purposely informed by the perceptions of all stakeholders.

In Thompson's study in the West Indies, it was found that the forces for change are largely internal and deeply personal. The findings of the study suggest that change at the organizational level requires, and depends upon, change at the level of the individual employee and the quality of the engagements and interactions at the interpersonal level. The study also provides clues for leaders concerning the kinds of leadership approaches and behaviors which motivate and sustain support for change.

Finally, Muthigani's paper shed new light on how lecturers in Kenya model and demonstrate the behaviors and values they expect teacher trainees to practice. The paper concludes with a call to rethink the pedagogy in teacher education courses

with a view of re-focusing on the practical aspect of development of values for lecturers in Kenya including planning for specific value-based objectives.

In the articles selected for publication in this issue, the editors have identified a common planning theme. While Kaufman called for a hierarchy of planning to involve teachers as an educational input, the other three articles also relate very much to educational planning to focus on teachers and their teaching role. Lang asked for school administrators to work with teachers in implementing differentiated instruction. Thompson found that educational changes need to start with quality control at the teacher level. Muthigani called for the development of value education to start with the training of pre-service teacher educators. The authors of these articles have brought in their own international perspectives of the importance of teachers' role in relation to educational planning.

Editor: Tak Cheung Chan

Associate Editors: Walt Polka and Peter Litchka

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May, 2019

## ABOUT THE AUTHORS

**Roger Kaufman** is professor emeritus, Florida State University, and has served as Distinguished Research Professor at the Sonora Institute of Technology. He is a past president, honorary member for life and Thomas Gilbert Award winner, all with International Society for Performance Improvement (ISPI) and received ATD/ASTD's Distinguished Contribution to Workplace Learning and Performance award. ISPI has created the Roger Kaufman Award for measurable contribution to societal impact. Kaufman consults world-wide and has published 41 books and 300+ articles on strategic planning, performance improvement, quality management and continual improvement, needs assessment, management, and evaluation. He is a Fellow of the American Psychological Association and the American Educational Research Association.

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# TAKE OUT SOME EDUCATIONAL PLANNING INSURANCE BY USING THE PLANNING HIERARCHY: WHERE YOU START IS IMPORTANT

**ROGER KAUFMAN**  
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## ABSTRACT

*As a vital part of the educational enterprise, plans must be made to define the future we want to create for tomorrow's child and to enable educators to deliver on the promise. Planning is just a substitute for good luck. Not relying on luck, educators must identify valid and valuable measurable objectives for education and then enable educators to have the professional competencies, the physical and financial resources to do their jobs, and the supportive environment to operate. Where to start the planning is a challenge. Due to immediacy, we often start our professional work at improving parts of the educational enterprise, such as individual performance, leadership for administrators, or assessment, or curriculum development, improve learning, delivery, testing and assessment. These are the important parts of the total educational enterprise but not the entire system and its supporting parts. This article suggests a hierarchy of planning that may be used to assure that there is alignment with what an agency uses, does, produces and delivers with adding measurable value to our shared society.*

## INTRODUCTION

Educators and education help build the future of the world. They do so by providing the opportunities for future citizens to add value to themselves, their families and our shared world. Education is the vehicle for a former partnership of educational professionals, learners, parents, and community members to develop the skills, knowledges, and abilities for graduate and completers to make contributions. Society invests in education and educators to create this future.

As a vital part of the educational enterprise, plans must be made to define the future we want to create and to enable educators to deliver on the promise. Planning is just a substitute for good luck. Not relying on luck, educators must identify the measurable objectives for education and then enable educators to have the professional competencies, the physical and financial resources to do their jobs, and the supportive environment to operate.

Where to start the planning is a challenge. Due to immediacy, we often start our professional work at improving parts of the educational enterprise, such as individual performance, leadership for administrators, or assessment, or curriculum development, improve learning, delivery, testing and assessment. These are the important parts of the total educational enterprise. That works, but only some of the time. Other times, while the symptom for problems is at the operational level, often the problem is somewhere else, such as a faulty objectives or inappropriate curriculum, or offering some deliverable that is not what the learners really require to be a contributing member of society.

We can start with what we are to accomplish and not settle for the low-hanging fruit to deliver useful education. We best look at the overall purpose of our educational organizations and enter where we have the highest probability—not quick fixes-- of designing and delivering effective results. Knowing and using the planning hierarchy may help you assure what you do and deliver is worthy by starting at the 'right' place.

## WHAT IS THE PLANNING HIERARCHY? WHY WILL IT HELP YOU?

When we go to work, we enter a complex organization that has five organizational levels of linked purposes:

1. Organization's contribution to external clients and society is the *Mega* level (Kaufman, 1995; Kaufman, 2011; Kaufman, Guerra, & Platt, 2006). Every educational organization either adds value to society or subtracts value to society. Survival, self-sufficiency, and quality of life for our graduates and completers and their neighbors are what education should target. Think about massive programs that have failed to fully deliver this.
2. Educational organizations provide accomplishments that can be delivered outside of itself. This is the *Macro* level. This is a focus on the immediate graduates or completers or plans, usually assuming it will add value to external clients and society.
3. The internal results which may be combined for contributing to the organization's mission is the *Micro* level. This a focus on what teachers deliver, or what learners master with the assumption that each subject mastered will integrate with all others to what the organization delivers. This is the popular educational planning entry level.
4. The programs, projects, and activities that deliver Micro level results is the *Process* level. This is a focus on how well and how efficiently we do things.
5. The human, fiscal, and physical resources that may be used for programs, projects and activities are called the *Inputs* level. This a focus on what organizations work with.

Together, these organizational elements form a *hierarchy of planning*. Each level is equally important, and all should form a value chain to allow the educational organization to add measurable value to all stakeholders: learners, parents, teachers, administrators, and communities. Organizations falter when they fail to add value to all internal and external partners. Education gets blamed when we graduate people who cannot get and keep jobs or participate in anti-social behavior. If we enter at any level, we best contribute when what we use, do, produce, and accomplish adds value at all levels of the hierarchy. We must do so on-purpose.

### **TAKING OUT INSURANCE ON WHAT YOU DO AND DELIVER**

Research shows that many educational methods do not deliver worthy results. Quality pioneers Deming (1972) and Juran (1988) both noted that if you start, as we often do, at the wrong level of organizational operations, you will be wrong eighty to ninety percent of the time. If you just use a library needs assessment, or a teacher needs assessment, you have a good chance that you will be wrong. Clark and Estes (2002) tell us that if you use some touted-but-not-validated tools, such as learning styles, you will not be successful. Other traps to success are often dressed up as something valuable. You can insure that this does not happen.

Useful planning identifies where we should be going as compared to where we are now headed—needs-- and then identifies the milestones for getting from here to there. Getting that right assures that what we do on the way will add real value. That information will better assure that not only will you start educational planning at the right place but provides the criteria for what you do and deliver.

### **SUCCESS IS DETERMINED BY WHERE YOU START**

Before starting any trip, personal or professional, you should know where you are going, why you want to go there, and know to tell when you have arrived. We do not want to just treat the symptoms and not the causes. Organizations are like our bodies. Every organ and part must work well itself as well as interacting with everything else. Treating only one part might have negative impacts on total health.

Common educational practice, either by job assignment or assuming everything will work out, often has us start in one part of the system with training, incentive schemes, diversity programs, staff selection and E-learning. These are potentially useful things but without real justification of their



overall value or appropriateness. Good ideas often fail for the wrong reasons. We must make sure that the right people do the right things at the right time in the right place with all heading in the right direction. Where you start your work can make a huge difference about how successful you are.

## **FOUR VITAL INGREDIENTS FOR EDUCATIONAL SUCCESS**

There are four vital ingredients required for all educators to be successful:

- (1) Know what to do,
- (2) Know why to do it,
- (3) Know how to do it, and
- (4) Evaluate if you are being successful.

What does it take to better assure that your professional work is worthy and add real value to the organization? Let's look at each of these four ingredients.

### **Know What to Do**

With the destination correctly selected, we have identified and justified where we are heading and, most importantly, why we want to get there. Our next step is to set practical measurable objectives that become the waypoints on our journey to worthy performance as well as letting us know what is working and what is not.

### **Know Why to Do It**

We must make sure we are heading in the right direction. If we are not heading to worthy sustainable success—toward Mega-- all the hard work at where we work will be wasted effort. This is the “why” of our work. We might have wanted to do the right thing but because we really do not know or seek to find out how everything is linked, we fall short. Success depends on everyone agreeing on where the organization is heading, *why* it is going there, and how to tell when they have reached their purpose.

### **Know How to Do It**

When we know what to accomplish and why, it is a matter of finding the best ways to get to valuable and worthy results. As we proceed, we are also going to measure and report on those results to ensure that our journey is on course, and when we finish as planned, success will be achieved!

### **It is All about Success: Adding Measurable Value**

How do we define success? Success is achieved when we add value for all stakeholders, including our associates, the organization, the external clients we serve, and society at large. It is a double bottom line: organizational sustainability and adding value to our shared world. Another way to look at it is to ask yourself a ‘big picture’ question, “If our organization is the solution, what is the problem?” We are either adding or subtracting value for all, from the individual all the way up to society and to deliver value at the Mega level.

## **WHAT IS THE BIG PICTURE—MEGA? WHY IS IT IMPORTANT?**

What can any organization use as its guiding star to assure that everything that is used, done, produced, and delivered adds value to our shared world? If your organization is adding value, you are contributing the kind of world we want to create together for tomorrow's child (Kaufman, 2011).

The basic ideal vision is Mega. There will be no loss of life or elimination or reduction of level of well-being, survival, self-sufficiency, or quality of life from any source. This puts everyone's

organization, including education, responsible for both doing no harm from what do and deliver as well as adding measurable value for all.

The ideal vision gives us a point to aim for as we travel the road of continual improvement. Every organization is a means to societal ends. Each person and function within the educational organization must add value for all, including external clients and society. Everything an organization uses, does, produces, and delivers should add value to our external clients and society.

Former McKinsey CEO, Ian Davis (2005), calls this ‘the largest contract’ in his *Economist* article. This system perspective, when directed to look externally beyond the organization to see the positive and negative impacts on society, is the essence of Mega Planning. It will guide you to success.

Do not stop at improving people’s performance and learning, as vital as that is, but also consider improvement of all parts of the organization to achieve real value. All the parts of the organization interact both in our bodies and in our organizations. What is done in personnel has consequences for teachers and aids as well as public relations and safety and satisfaction. As University of Virginia professor Stephanie Moore (2010), in her book *Ethics by Design*, notes that not including Mega is an ethical lapse.

Ask yourself: “Do I know where my organization is headed and why we should get there? Do your co-workers know and agree? Does everyone share a common understanding of where your organization is right now?” Not all the workers usually agree. But we want to be like a rowing team where all rowers are synchronized.

Using this *planning hierarchy* to structure planning and needs assessment will aid you in making sure everything you use, do, produce, and deliver adds measurable value to all. Starting at the right level is imperative. Too often we see all the work done at one level with the hope that it will magically impact to the others. Others like Kirkpatrick (1994), Philipps (1997), and Bernardez (2012) also identify that there are levels of performance that must be considered when calibrating return.

## **WHERE YOU START PERFORMANCE, IMPROVEMENT MAKES A DIFFERENCE**

If you just do individual performance improvement and do not insure that that will add value to all other levels of planning and doing, failure is likely. Planning best succeeds when you are systemic, considering all facets of the organization, while targeting appropriate internal and external results. The five organizational elements constitute a *hierarchy of planning*. Where you start planning may determine what you plan.

### **Traffic Signals for Where You Start Educational Planning and Improvement**

Where you start your work is important. Make sure you also integrate that with other things going on throughout the organization while linking to the organization’s success (Macro) and the value to external clients and our shared world (Mega). Here is the planning hierarchy with some signals to guide you:

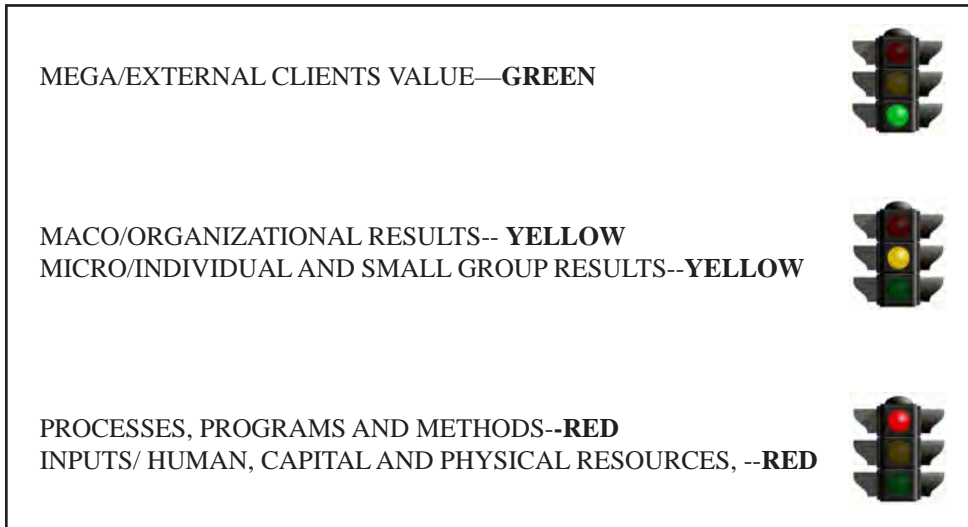


Figure 1. The planning hierarchy and warning signals to guide you on where you start performance improvement.

### Heeding the Signal Lights for Educational Change

You may enter your educational actions anywhere just if you link what is done there with the entire planning hierarchy. Following are some questions to ask for each possible starting level:

1. Starting at Inputs. How confident am I that successful planning for human, capital, and physical resources will add value to each subsequent hierarchy level? What do I risk if that contribution is not made?
2. Starting at Processes. How confident am I that successful planning for human and talent development, performance improvement, workplace redesign, incentives, and human resource development will add value to each subsequent hierarchy level? What do I risk if that contribution is not made?
3. Starting at Micro. How confident am I that successful planning for achieved competence and skill development and production of desired materials will add value to each subsequent hierarchy level? What do I risk if that contribution is not made?
4. Starting at Macro. How confident am I that successful planning for what the organization can or does deliver outside of itself will add value to the subsequent hierarchy level? What do I risk if that contribution is not made?
5. Starting at Mega. How confident am I that successful planning for what my organization delivers to stakeholders does add value to all as well as organizational ones at each previous hierarchy level? What do I risk if that contribution is not made?

Looking through the lens of Mega is vital. It is missing from most models, and it can keep you from starting at the wrong place (and who gets blamed even though you were told to start there). Using it can be valuable insurance. But what to do when others do not consider the big picture and want to start in the middle of the planning hierarchy? Gently ask, “If we get these results, what results will

that lead to?" Keep nicely asking until all focus everything on Mega and education can deliver on its promise.

### **IT'S YOUR DECISION—CHANGE, CHOICES AND CONSEQUENCES**

While doing an appropriate professional job of identifying and then delivering worthy results at all levels of the planning hierarchy may seem time consuming, consider the time and expense that will result if we just fix symptoms, or make improvements in one level that do not contribute to organizational and external client success. Unfortunately, we tend to skimp on correctly identifying and analyzing problems at the start, which leads to finding the additional resources down the road to go back to fix what did not work. We can be successful and prove it.

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# EXPLORING TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES ON EFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE STRATEGIES

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## ABSTRACT

*This study explores behaviors which teachers perceive would be effective when leaders are undertaking organizational change. A sample of one hundred teachers drawn from all levels of the education system in Jamaica was used. The data were collected using a Likert-type instrument that was designed by the researcher and was tested for reliability using Cronbach's Alpha. The study found two categories of leadership conduct, and ten specific strategies which teachers considered to be effective tools in effecting organizational change efforts. This study also found that the forces for change are largely internal and deeply personal. The findings of the study suggest that change at the organizational level requires, and depends upon, change at the level of the individual employee and the quality of the engagements and interactions at the interpersonal level. If organizations are to be successful in effecting organizational change they must first succeed at effecting behavior change at the individual level. The study has major planning implications. Planning for improvements in the performance of schools is a change management undertaking, especially for schools which are underperforming. This study also provides clues for leaders concerning the kinds of leadership approaches and behaviors which motivate and sustain support for change.*

## INTRODUCTION

Effecting and/or confronting change is one of the most present and potent reality that faces organizations. Changes ranging from down-sizing to mergers and inclusive of relocations, restructuring, technological changes, process-oriented and people-oriented changes are all parts of the tapestry of life in organizations (Scandura & Sharif, 2011). The issue, therefore, that faces organizations is not whether to change but how effectively to carry out or meet the change. Some forms of change may be effected by humans with replacing machines and new technologies; other forms of change require that humans adapt to new environments as well as become agents of the change effort. In this regard, stimulating support for change is a major task of those who must lead change efforts.

Given the highly competitive environment in which businesses, including educational institutions, operate, it is becoming increasingly important for organizations to gain competitive advantage by being able to manage and survive change (Amagoh, 2008). Change efforts evoke feelings and responses of resistance, anxiety, fear, hostility, uncertainty, opposition, and doubt. Many change efforts often failed not because the path to change or the reason for change was bad but because the strategies and approaches used to effect the change were flawed. Given the inevitability of change, organizations that will succeed, and have succeeded are those that have implemented change strategies that work.

Some organizations and industries in Jamaica have enjoyed tariff protection or guaranteed rates of return by way of government policy. Presently, all or most of those protections and privileges have been removed and competition is the standard for just about every type of organization. These formerly protected and/or taxpayer funded organizations must now undertake change. This

study examines teacher perceived strategies that educational organizations may consider using in undertaking change efforts in Jamaica.

## **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Changing employee behaviours is necessary to align everyone in the organization with the strategic direction of the organization, as Bradford (2001) has suggested. This alignment of behaviour is one of the most important things the leadership of an organization can do beyond formulating and implementing great strategies. One of the major reasons strategic efforts fail is due to lack of sufficient engagement, as Li, Guohui, and Eppler (2008) emphasized.

Educational institutions, both private and public, have been forced to adapt to competition as government funding is no longer guaranteed. In addition, these institutions are being forced to find ways of collaboration. Hecht (2013) noted that given the combination of shrinking demand, diminishing support, and intense competition, organizations individually could not confront the complex and interconnected problems of modern society. To survive, organizations must adapt to a new world order of global competition and collaboration. Both modes of functioning require that organizations change their business processes and systems, but more importantly, change the cultures of their organizations as well as the attitudes, behaviours, and consciousness of their employees. Changing systems may simply require new policies and technologies. But changing employee behaviour can be complex, time-consuming, and hard to accomplish.

Thus, this study seeks to examine perspectives of teachers in the education system in Jamaica concerning what approaches and strategies are deemed effective in stimulating their commitment to support organizational change efforts.

## **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The purpose of this research is to seek to answer the following questions:

- (1) What are teachers' perspectives concerning the approaches/strategies that are most effective in stimulating passion for and commitment to supporting change efforts?
- (2) What leadership behaviours do teachers regard as being supportive of their efforts to facilitate organizational changes being undertaken?

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Lewin (1951) is a pioneer in the theory of organizational change. He advanced a three-step model which he described as unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Unfreezing means loosening the forces that keep the organization stuck at a level and once that happens move the organization to the desired new level. Having been successful in moving the organization to the desired new level, steps are taken to codify and calcify the new level as that new state.

Greiner (1967) adopted a six-phase model which encapsulated the elements of Lewin's model. Greiner's phases include pressure from top management for change, which is the same as unfreezing, creating a sense of urgency, initiation, and planning. The mid-point of the model speaks to diagnosis and intervention. The final phase in Greiner's model speaks to reinforcement which is identical to consolidation and refreezing.

Harris (1975) developed a five-phase model which assumed a continuous non-discrete process from

planning and initiation, momentum building, responding to new problems created, turning point, and finally termination. Harris's phases capture the essential arguments of Lewin's and Greiner's models. It is, therefore, arguable that when Kotter (1996) expanded Lewin's three-step model in his more detailed eight-step model, he was also building on the work of Greiner and Harris.

The elements of Kotter's (1996) eight-step model are like the underlying theme of Lewin's model: establishing a sense of urgency, which involves unfreezing; creating a coalition; communicating the change vision, which involving moving; consolidating gains; and anchoring the new approaches in the organization's culture which amounts to refreezing. The elements identified by Lewin and Kotter resonate with the planning and initiation phase as well as momentum building and response to newly-created problems in Harris's model. The ideas of turning point and termination in Harris's model equate to consolidating gains and anchoring in Kotter's characterization and refreezing in Lewin's analysis.

These four classical and path-breaking models describe common features which typify a particular conception of organizational change focusing on what occurs at the macro level of the change process. Thus, all four models are built around a similar set of ideas and formulation. What is missing from these models is an insufficiency of focus, especially in Lewin's and Harris's models, on the activities and engagements at the micro or individual level that are necessary to effect change. It is in this regard that this study seeks to fill a void in the literature on how organizational change can be successfully implemented. This study seeks to fill this void through sharing insights into the perspectives of employees on what approaches to change management are likely to have a greater chance of inducing them to believe in and invest the energy to support change initiatives.

Skyttner (1996) posited the view that a system was a set of two or more elements in which the behaviour of each element influences the behaviour of the whole. A system perspective is a helpful looking glass for analyzing organizational change, regardless of whether one leans to a 'closed' or 'open' systems perspective, although one's understanding of, and approach to organizational change will likely be affected by whether one sees organizations as open or closed systems. The general system theory was first advanced by Ludwig von Bertalanffy in 1940 but was not given prominence until the 1960's based on the work Boulding (1956).

Armitage, Brooks, Carlen and Schulz (2006) characterized organization change as being essentially about performance and in that regard, focused their assessment of organizational change at the individual level with reference to what steps an organization takes to stimulate change in performance and behavior. Armitage et al., (1996) like Clawson (2006), emphasized that the focus needed to be on the leadership. Their views ran counter to that of Amagoh (2008) who advanced the system theory or organization change arguing, as does Skyttner (1996), that understanding the behavior of the whole organization, not just parts, was central to successfully implementing change. Amagoh located the origins of system theory in the sciences, particularly biology, economics, and engineering in arguing that when undertaking change the entire ecosystem of an organization must be considered. An important dimension in the analysis of the process and dynamics of organizational change is provided in the dialectic between the so-called "open systems" theory versus the "closed systems" theory. Essentially, the closed system perspective holds that the main features of an organization are its internal elements. On the other hand, the open system theory holds that the organization's interaction with the external environment is vital for organizational survival and success (Alter, 2007; Amagoh, 2008).



Fullan (2011) offered a perspective on the change process and the elements required to effect change that are closely aligned to this study. Fullan's articulations are to be seen more as themes, than stages or steps, and corroborates, somewhat, the issue of strategies or approaches which this study seeks to advance. Fullan's themes include the notions that change is learning, change is a journey, change requires the willingness to confront friends, change requires resources, and change requires energy (power) to manage it. These components highlight the underlying notion of a systems' theory and appears to support the view, while not being explicit, that organizations are open system. The elements of change as outlined by Fullan (2011) underscore the notion that change is as much about observable shifts from one stage to another as it is about an ongoing state of being and a continuous process of adaptation. Thus, in Fullan's thinking, a state of freezing (Lewin, 1951) does not exist, as organizations operate in a continuous stage of flux, and while some measure of consolidation (Kotter, 1996) may be attainable, the ongoing energy required to maintain momentum means that some measure of change is always occurring. This gives a strong indication that Fullan is of the view that organizations are open systems.

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This work is informed by five theoretical perspectives namely: the distributive leadership theory of Spillane and his colleagues (2004) and (2006); the change management theory of Fullan (2007), the influence theory of Biggs (2005) and the strategy implementation theory of Li et al. (2008), and the peer influence theory of Boruah (2016).

According to Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2004), one of the ways in which organizations can effect changes in the behavior of employees is through involving them in leadership responsibilities. This approach they describe as distributed leadership. The underlying philosophy of distributive leadership is that there are multiple leaders in the organization. By bringing these leaders into the decision-making process the organization deepens engagement, and thus paves the way for producing attitudes and behaviors that are in step with the needs of the organization (Harris & Spillane, 2008; Spillane & Camburn, 2006).

Fullan (2007) discussed the change process and suggested that the probability that humans would change a given behavior was not necessarily increased in the face of life-threatening consequences. He argued that trying to scare people into a course of action did not often lead to compliance and threatening tough sanctions did not often yield to change in behaviour. Fullan concluded that the easiest way to change behaviour was to invest in relationships and sought to influence the desired change.

Closely aligned to Fullan (2007) is the work of Biggs (2005). Biggs suggested that the most effective way to effect behavior change was through influence. He identified three types of influence – negative, neutral, and positive. Under negative influence he listed coercion, intimidation, and manipulation. Neutral influence he suggested to involve negotiation while positive influence used persuasion and logic. Biggs' conclusion was that behavior change came through appealing to the inner person, which all three forms involved, but sided with positive influence as the most effective.

Li et al. (2008) reckoned that when an organization was seeking to undertake drastic change it really was involved in strategy implementation. They posited that there were nine factors that determine how employees in organizations respond to the demands that strategic changes place upon them. These nine factors they subdivided into three categories: soft, hard, and mixed factors. Soft factors they described as people-oriented variables which included the executors of the strategy and involved



activities such as communication. Hard factors referred to institutional features and characteristics and included elements such as organizational structures and systems. Mixed factors referred to the dynamic forces at work in the organization which contained hard and soft factors. These dynamic forces were ultimately embedded in relationships and involved emotions and individual sensitivities. They concluded that it was an understanding of how these dynamic forces work and be implemented that will determine the success or failure of change efforts.

The fifth theoretical perspective that informs this study is that of Boruah (2016) who reminded that peer played an important role in overall social and emotional development of a person. The pressure exerted by a peer group in influencing a person's attitude, behavior and morals can be as much positive as it can be negative. In this line of thinking the question that this study examines is the degree to which organizations can advance the prospects of successfully implementing change by relying on peer influence, mindful that peers can serve to also undermine efforts at organizational change.

The effective and sustainable pursuit of organizational and employee behavioral change is the central plank of this study. The scientific literature, beginning with the foundational work of Lewin (1951), has sought to define the process with a seminal contribution by Kotter (1996) which advances key steps, and before him, Harris (1975) and Greiner (1967), both of whom articulate somewhat similar perspectives.

Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2004) and Spillane and Camburn (2006), Fullan (2007), Biggs (2005), Li et al. (2008), and Boruah (2016) have presented what may be called some deeper human dimensions which point to a more organic characterization of the change process. These organic characterizations appear to offer a more nuanced explanation of the nature of change and how to effect organizational and employee behaviors to support change. This study is to explore a possibly deeper human or organic set of explanations and propositions that may be posited for how change can be effectively and sustainably implemented.

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **Research Design**

A quantitative descriptive research design is employed in this study. According to Anastas (1999), descriptive research helps to provide answers to the questions of who, what, when, where, and how, though such a design is not intended to answer the question 'why'. This study is focused on 'what' and 'who', but primarily on 'what', and seeks to answer the question of what teachers' perspectives regarding effective organizational change strategies are.

### **Sampling**

A convenience sampling technique was used in the study. As Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) expressed, convenience sampling is used when the first or most easily available would-be participants are representative of the relevant population for the study. Illustratively, a convenience sample is comprised of people one "meets on the streets." In the researcher's regular work, there is constant interface with teachers. These interfaces would occur during visits to their institutions. Among the topics of regular conversation were their concerns about changes taking place in or being planned for their institutions or the education sector. These encounters occurred over several years prior to and during the research.

The researcher targeted two hundred participants using email and direct delivery of the questionnaires

and realized a response rate of 48% or 97 completed questionnaires with 75, or 77% females. Participants were drawn from the early childhood (Kindergarten), primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of the education sector in Jamaica. Two critical demographic features of the sample, age, and years of teaching experience are captured in Table 1.

*Table 1. Age and Years in Teaching Profession Cross-tabulation*

| Age Group   | 5 years or less | 6–10 years | 11–15 years | 16–20 years | Over 20 years | Total |
|-------------|-----------------|------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------|
| 20–30 years | 8               | 5          | 0           | 0           | 0             | 13    |
| 31–40 years | 12              | 15         | 13          | 5           | 0             | 45    |
| 41–50 years | 2               | 1          | 7           | 4           | 6             | 20    |
| 51–60 years | 0               | 0          | 0           | 2           | 12            | 14    |
| 60+ years   | 0               | 0          | 0           | 1           | 2             | 3     |
| Blank       | 22              | 21         | 20          | 12          | 20            | 97    |

### **Instrumentation, Reliability, and Validity**

The survey instrument, (Appendix A) is a forty-item questionnaire with thirty-five items falling on a 5-point Likert-scale. The items on the Likert scale were partly derived from issues to which I was exposed based on my readings of, and engagements with, and challenges facing leadership. More significantly, however, they were formulated based on conversations and consultations the researcher had with employees in several organizations over several years.

The instrument was pilot tested for the purposes of assessing reliability. The pilot involved forty teachers. The data from the pilot was analyzed by using Cronbach’s alpha. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) contend that Cronbach’s alpha is the most widely used objective test of reliability. The analysis of the results from the pilot generated a C-Alpha of .938, which is above the minimum standard of .90 recommended by Nunnally (1978).

The sampling procedure used for the collecting the data supported the external validity of the instrument. In addition, the process of the development of the instrument supported the content validity of the instrument as the items which were included reflected the issues and concerns that were often raised in conversations with members of staff at various institutions. The content validity was further confirmed by the extent to which the items in the instrument were aligned to issues about change and attitudes to change which are contained in the scientific literature.

The items in the instrument are focused on behaviors, perspectives, attitudes, and approaches to leadership which teachers deem that an effective leader should possess. The instrument is predicated on the notion that the fundamental responsibility of a leader is that of evoking and evincing the commitment of those being led to support the strategic directions and operational pursuits of the organization both of which often involve facing or making changes.

## **Data Collection and Analysis Procedures**

The instrument was emailed to members of the target group as well as hand delivered by volunteer research assistants located at various institutions who had access to colleagues at other institutions. Given that the study was not focused on a particular institution or a specific segment of the teacher population, any teacher anywhere would qualify for participation. The instrument was coded and data were entered into excel and later transported into SPSS, V. 22.0, and analyzed.

A series of descriptive analyses were conducted to determine the perspectives of teachers in relation to certain variables. These variables were selected based on their assessed importance to the change management process as outlined in the scientific literature. Following the analysis using descriptive statistics, a confirmatory factor analysis was used to corroborate the assessed importance of the variables to the change management process.

## **FINDINGS**

The variables which were the subject of a descriptive analysis are shown in Table 2. The study found that between 95.9% and 100% of the research participants either agreed or strongly agreed that those factors were of importance to them in the leadership offered by their principals. The percentages of each variable are indicated in Table 2.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis showed a model fit for effective organizational change. The type of fit was relative to the different indices used to assess the goodness of fit of the model. Using the benchmark established by Leach et al. (2008), it was found that the CFI (.979) and the IFI (.980) of the model was a good fit falling impressively above the bench mark of .93. Additionally, the model showed good fit for the TLI (.970), and a reasonable fit for the GFI (.930) as this fell directly on the benchmark. However, while the NFI (.885) fell somewhat below the benchmark set out by Leach et al. (2008), the results represented a reasonable fit. According to Leach et al., if the RMR fell below .05 then the model is a good fit. This model measured at .017. Additionally, the RMSEA indicates a good model fit as the score of .045 fell significantly below the bench mark of .80 (See Table 3).

Overall, this analysis suggests that the identified variables are corroborated by the confirmatory factor analysis and the two sets of behaviors and their ingredients, identified in Figure 1 and detailed in Table 2, may be plausibly deemed to constitute environments that are vital to supporting organizational change efforts.

Table 2. Teachers' Perception of Leadership Strategies to Stimulate Staff and Behaviours to Support Organizational Change

| # | Behaviours                       | Ingredients and Percentage Agreeing or Strongly Agree  |
|---|----------------------------------|--|
| 1 | Strategies to stimulate staff    | *Advocate for justice 97.9%<br>*Use influence rather than power 96.9%<br>*Involve staff in decision-making 99%<br>*Create an exciting work environment 96.9%<br>*Demonstrate care 99%<br>*Provide support to low performing employees 95.9%<br>*Create opportunities for staff to provide leadership 96.9% |
| 2 | Leadership supportive behaviours | *Commending staff 96.9%<br>*Facilitating Professional Development 97.9%<br>*Motivating staff 100%  |

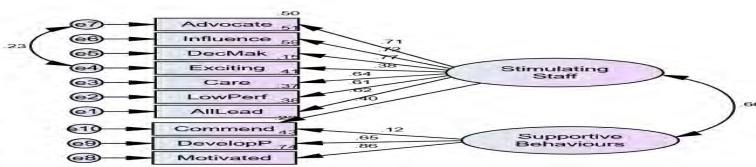


Figure 1. Items of confirmatory factor analysis.

Table 3. Results of the Goodness of Fit for Model

| Fit Index | Model  | Cited Benchmark |
|-----------|--------|-----------------|
| CMIN      | 38.102 | NA              |
| DF        | 32     | NA              |
| CFI       | .979   | > .93           |
| NFI       | .885   | > .93           |
| GFI       | .930   | > .93           |
| TLI       | .970   | > .93           |
| IFI       | .980   | > .93           |
| RMR       | .017   | < .05           |
| RMSEA     | .045   | < .08           |
| AIC       | 84.102 | NA              |

Note: CMIN (Chi square); DF (Degree of Freedom), CFI (Comparative Fit Index); NFI (Normed Fit Index); GFI (Goodness of Fit Index); TLI (Tucker Lewis Index); IFI (the Incremental Fit Index); RMR (Root Mean Square Residual); RMSEA (Root Mean Square of Approximation); AIC (Akiake Information criterion).

## DISCUSSION

The forces of technological cultural change, global competition, and decreased governmental support for businesses and organizations in Jamaica have forced organizations of all types, including protected industries, former monopolies, and educational institutions to find new strategies of survival. In this vein, competence in managing change becomes mandatory for leaders of organizations.

In many respects, the organizations that will succeed are those that are able to thrive on chaos, according to Peters (1991). The key to the survival and success of organizations, when faced with the pressures to change, is that organizations need to be able to create an environment of shared leadership, as Spillane et al. (2004) and (2006) have argued. This issue of shared leadership, as a strategy for motivating employees to support change efforts, is a motif in the findings of this study.

The leadership behavior of “creating the conditions for staff to participate in leadership decision-making” is categorized among behaviors such as “use influence rather than use power” and “demonstrate care”, as behaviors which stimulate commitment towards change efforts. The factors resonate with elements of Kotter’s (1996) eight-step model of organizational change in which he spoke of establishing a sense of urgency, creating a coalition, and communicating a change vision. The factors listed as ingredients in the behavior which stimulate the commitment of staff towards change, when viewed through the prisms of Kotter (1996) and Spillane et al. (2004) and (2006), suggest that the efficacy of efforts to create a sense of urgency, creating coalitions, and communicating a change vision, is dependent of how deeply and widely leadership is distributed.

In addition to the finding that the creation of conditions for involvement in decision-making is a key behavior which stimulates teachers’ commitment to support change efforts, the findings of the study also indicate that behaviors which serve to support or sustain commitment towards change include affirming teachers’ commitments and contributions as well as providing opportunities for professional development.

Another important finding of this study is that when leaders rely on influence rather than power to get buy-in from staff for change efforts, there is a greater likelihood of eliciting the commitment of staff members. The change models advanced by Lewin (1951), Greiner (1967), Harris (1975), Kotter (1996), and Fullan (2011) all have at least one thing in common, namely that the path to effecting organizational change runs through the hearts and minds of employees and it is their commitment to behavior change that will determine whether changes in policies, procedures, systems, and technologies will be effective. Li et al. (2008), captured the essence of this reality beautifully in the distinction they created among hard, soft, and mixed approaches to strategy implementation. Their conclusion that the dynamic forces for change are ultimately embedded in relationships and involve emotions and individual sensitivities compellingly makes the case that change management is principally about behavior change.

It is in this vein that the finding of this study which shows that the influence rather than power is the premier change management strategy is solidly a valid finding. Fullan (2007) showed that people would resist change that was forced upon them even if the continuation of the undesired behavior could be fatal. Biggs (2005) also insisted that positive influence has a greater chance of succeeding in changing behavior than force or negative influence. Boruah (2016) contended that the greatest source of influence on behavior was peer influence which was characterized by equality and a relatively egalitarian environment versus power and forced control. The argument can then

be made, using Boruah (2016) that when managers wish to implement change they seek the support of members of staff to work with, and on, their peers. This strategy has been well established in the use of “change champions” in organizational change management efforts. Under this model, for which Kotter (1996) is to be credited, change champions are drawn from each level or category of employees.

The variables “influence versus power”, “advocate for justice”, “commend staff who demonstrate commitment”, and “makes effort to keep staff motivated” are vital to the success of organizational change efforts. Kotter (1996) addressed this when he spoke about the need to communicate the change vision as well as the errors organizations made in undertaking change efforts. Among the errors he highlighted are (a) the failure on the part of the leaders of the organization to successfully make the case for change by creating a sense of urgency about the need for change; (b) overlooking or underestimating the importance of having a coalition to manage the change process; and (c) the faulty assumption that everyone will be sold on the case for change.

The suggestive call to organizational leaders to consider ways to stimulate the commitment of staff, as the behaviors involved, as shown by the findings of this study, relates to the area of distributive leadership. Spillane et al. (2004) and (2006) provided important clues for how an organization might be effective in selling the change idea. With leadership responsibility distributed at all levels of the organization, a technique which this study has found to represent an effective change management approach, the number of people available to sell the change idea increases and thus increases the chances of success. Further, taking into account the insights of Biggs (2005) who emphasized the value of influence and Boruah’s (2016) who stressed the efficacy of peers in influencing behavior change within the peer group, what emerges is that when organizations have leaders spread across all levels, employees see them as their peers and are thus more responsive and susceptible to their influence.

The debate over whether organizations are correctly viewed as open or closed systems remains unsettled. There is consensus that the dynamics of an organization are influenced by a bit of both. While not disputing the emerged consensus that both external and internal forces are to varying degrees responsible for the capacity of an organization to adapt to and change, this study found that the forces for change are largely internal but more than just internal, deeply personal. It is this issue of where the motivation for change lies that represents the distinctive contribution of this work.

## **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study is significant for at least two reasons. First, it examines an important and current issue to which several countries and organizations are searching for solutions. In a recent study conducted in the Netherlands, Pieterse, Caniels, and Homan (2012) who studied the implementation of a new ICT system for an airline, found that the quality of the discourse between and among different professional groups can be a source of resistance to change. The findings indicated that different professional groups operated in different professional cultures and thus paying attention to the differences in professional cultures was vital to succeeding in effecting change. One implication of this study is rooted in the first research question which asks: “What are teachers’ perspectives concerning the approaches/strategies that are likely to be most effective in stimulating passion for and commitment to supporting change efforts?” Educational institutions need to recognize and address the cultural differences between teachers and administrators for change efforts to be successful.

The second significance of this study is that it has identified important pieces of the change management puzzle which will help to clarify some of the questions posited by Todnem (2005) and Hao and Yazdanifard (2015). Todnem (2005) conducted a critical review of organizational change management efforts and theories and argued that organizational management had become a highly required managerial skill that there was quite a bit that we did not know about. Hao and Yazdanifard (2015) concurred with Todnem (2005) there were still more that we needed to know about how to effectively lead organizational change. There remain unresolved questions about how change is effectively managed. While this paper advances ideas that depart from the dominant perspectives in the scientific literature, it is reasonable to accept that there is much more that we need to know. The critique of Guimaraes and Armstrong (1998) is instructive in this regard. They have said that much of what has been published about change management is superficial.

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

This study has identified ten (10) change management behaviors which are deemed to be critical in stimulating and supporting organizational change efforts. These behaviors are to be deemed as factors which potentially increase the likelihood of success of organizational change efforts. While acknowledging that organizational change involves new processes, procedures, systems, and technologies, this study has also established that those elements alone are not sufficient to stimulate and sustain organizational change without employee commitment.

The survival and success of any organization depend on the capacity to change and adapt to change. Having regard to the reality that organizations are faced with the pressures to adapt to new conditions arising from global competition, culture change, and changes in governmental policies, one of the tests of the effectiveness of leaders can be seen in how effectively they can move the organizations they lead to adapt to changes.

Based on the foregoing conclusions, the following recommendations are proffered:

- (1) Given the evolution of approaches to organizational management of change and the findings of this study, it is found that human factors, specifically individual behaviors, play an exceedingly important role in successfully managing change. It is recommended that organizations undertake more robust attempts at exposing its leaders to the human dynamics involved in adaptation to change.
- (2) To strengthen the capacities of organizational leaders to rely more on influence rather than power in getting results, it is recommended that organizations expose their leaders and prospective leaders to training in the nature of influence versus power (including emotional intelligence skills).
- (3) The findings of this study indicate that involvement in decision-making is a likely contributor to generating support for organizational change efforts. It is recommended that organizations pursue steps to increase the breadth and depth of distributive leadership implementation.
- (4) In light of the finding that peers play a positive and negative role in influencing employees' behavior, organizations are encouraged to adopt work teams as work models and decision-making processes. This will empower the work teams with greater trust and responsibility for the organization's development.



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## APPENDIX - TEACHERS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

Please respond to the questions below using the following as a guide:

**SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree**

|  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| <b>Do you think that in order to be an effective leader a principal should:</b>                            |    |   |   |   |    |
| (1) Take an interest in the opinions of staff members  |    |   |   |   |    |
| (2) Show high regard for the professional judgment of staff members  |    |   |   |   |    |
| (3) Welcome the points of view of staff members even when those views are different to his / her           |    |   |   |   |    |
| (4) Respond positively even when there are disagreements between his / her views and that of staff members |    |   |   |   |    |
| (5) Resist any inclination on his or her part to dictate how staff members should think                    |    |   |   |   |    |
| (6) Show respect to staff members  |    |   |   |   |    |
| (7) Make an effort to keep staff motivated   |    |   |   |   |    |
| (8) Encourage staff members to continue to develop their professional skills                               |    |   |   |   |    |
| (9) Demonstrate care for the needs of members of staff   |    |   |   |   |    |
| (10) Seek to influence staff rather than use power to enforce his / her will                               |    |   |   |   |    |
| (11) Commend staff who demonstrate commitment  |    |   |   |   |    |

|   |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| (12) Publicly recognize staff who produce spectacular results   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (13) Admit error on his / her part when this is established   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (14) Show a willingness to accept criticism   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (15) Convey by his / her actions that views and approaches other than his / her own can be correct                                |  |  |  |  |  |
| (16) Show mastery of the job of school management   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (17) Defer to other members of staff on matters on which they are more knowledgeable  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (18) Model the behaviours he / she requires of staff members  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (19) Be willing to debate issues on which there are diverse opinions  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (20) Be willing to subject his / her positions to the collective wisdom of staff members  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (21) Be a good listener   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (22) Encourage diversity of perspectives  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (23) Encourage camaraderie among staff members  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (24) Promote collective responsibility  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (25) Ensure performance evaluations are done of every staff member  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (26) Ensure that low performing staff members receive support to improve  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (27) Create the conditions for members of staff to participate in decision-making   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (28) Lead in the development of a strategic plan  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (29) Be trained in the fundamentals of strategic planning   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (30) Be an advocate for justice   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (31) Promote the value of learning from the successful practices of other schools   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (32) Utilize the diverse strengths of members of staff in the operations of the school, in addition to their primary competencies |  |  |  |  |  |
| (33) Allow leaders to develop at all levels in the organization   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (34) Be firm with repeated failures to meet standards of excellence   |  |  |  |  |  |
| (35) Create an environment that makes work exciting   |  |  |  |  |  |

**PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS**

(36) Your age group is:

- (a) 20 – 30 [ ]
- (b) 31 – 40 [ ]
- (c) 41 – 50 [ ]
- (d) 51 – 60 [ ]
- (e) 60+ [ ]

(37) You have been a teacher for:

- (a) 5 years or less [ ]
- (b) 6 – 10 years [ ]
- (c) 11 – 15 years [ ]
- (d) 16 – 20 years [ ]
- (e) Over 20 years [ ]

(38) You have been teaching at your current school for:

- (a) 5 years or less [ ]
- (b) 6 – 10 years [ ]
- (c) 11 – 15 years [ ]
- (d) 16 – 20 years [ ]
- (e) Over 20 years [ ]

(39) Your highest professional qualification is:

- (a) Diploma [ ]
- (b) Bachelor's Degree [ ]
- (c) Master's Degree [ ]
- (d) Postgraduate Cert in Education [ ]
- (e) Doctorate [ ]

(40) You are:

- (a) Male [ ]
- (b) Female [ ]

(41) You currently teacher at the:

- (a) Early Childhood Level [ ]
- (b) Primary Level [ ]
- (c) Secondary Level [ ]
- (d) Tertiary Level [ ]
- (e) Other \_\_\_\_\_ [ ]

(42) You are currently based in the:

(a) Corporate area [ ]

(b) Rural area [ ]

(43) You are currently working in a:

(a) Public school [ ]

(b) Private school [ ]

(44) You are a principal:

(a) Yes [ ]

(b) No [ ]

# PLANNING FOR DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION: INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES PERCEIVED BY ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

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## ABSTRACT

*This study was designed to generate an awareness of the differences between school administrators' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices towards implementation of differentiated instruction. Data were collected from 34 middle school administrators and 171 teachers from a major metropolitan school district in the southeast United States using a researcher-designed survey. The study found that teachers were not in complete agreement with administrators in 4 of 6 subsets including the total average of all subsets. Teachers perceived survey statements about supervision and evaluation of instruction, protection of instructional time, providing incentives for teachers, and providing professional development as not being experienced to the same extent as believed by administrators to be in practice. A high degree of disagreement between administrators and teachers for the statements of the survey raised the concern that misconceptions exist. The findings suggest that school administrators may not be as attuned to the teachers' perceptions of their support for the practice of differentiated instruction. The study has implications for instructional leadership in that a misalignment of beliefs and attitudes held for innovations by school administrators and teachers can contribute to unintentionally creating barriers for implementation. Consequently, planning for differentiated instruction should be purposely informed by the perceptions of all stakeholders.*

## INTRODUCTION

Differentiated instruction is accepted by scholars as being effective in improving student learning outcomes (Campbell, Campbell, & Dickerson, 1999; Koeze, 2006; Tomlinson, 2007). The importance of differentiated instructional approaches towards student learning and outcomes is prevalent in the literature (Hall, 2002; McCoy & Ketterlin-Geller, 2004; Subban, 2006; and Tomlinson, 2004a). Among these works, Rock, Gregg, Ellis and Gable (2008) purported differentiated instruction as a means of addressing the changing demographics of the classroom and its relative impact on instructional practices. Differentiation requires teachers to change the teaching process based on instructional strategies aligned to the large span of students' learning needs represented in today's contemporary classrooms (Tomlinson, 1999a, 2001a; Valiande, Kyriakides, & Koutselini, 2011). Consequently, implementation of differentiated instruction places new requirements on teachers' skills involved in the process of adapting content to meet the academically diverse learning needs of individual students (Holloway, 2000).

Research into school effectiveness has produced a variety of studies that supported the idea that principals' instructional leadership can influence change in the instructional practices of teachers (Blasé & Blasé, 1998; Goddard, Neumerski, Goddard, & Salloum, 2010). Goddard et al. (2010) purported that school leaders' instructional support was a significant predictor in motivating teachers to incorporate challenging teaching approaches, such as differentiated instruction, into everyday practices in their classroom setting.

Accountability legislation of the past decade, such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB) (2002), has brought about a re-examination of the role of the principal as the primary instructional leader. Along with the changing conception of principal leadership, Clifford (2012) and Lee, Walker and Chui (2012) envisioned a type of instructional leadership that encourages teachers to problem solve, revise practice through self-reflection, collaborate in professional learning, monitor progress, and define teachers' roles in the process of improving instruction. Noonan and Hellsten (2013) maintained that as a result of a consistent stronghold in leadership literature, instructional leadership is held as the model for emulation by school leaders for its part in monitoring, mentoring, and modeling effective teaching and learning practices for teachers' classroom instruction.

## **BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

Over the past 30 years, the Georgia Department of Education (GaDOE) has sought to impact classroom outcomes directly through accountability-based policy requiring school leadership to implement evaluation instruments designed toward building teacher effectiveness. The Teacher Keys Effectiveness System (TKES), predicated on the work of Stronge (2011), was adopted in 2012. TKES is comprised of 10 performance standards of which differentiated instruction is recognized by the GaDOE as key to effective teaching and learning for ever increasing levels of classroom diversity (GaDOE, 2012). Through the TKES evaluation instrument, school leadership is held accountable for the implementation of strategies for differentiation in the practices of classroom teachers.

As the emphasis on the importance of effective teaching practices, such as differentiated instruction, began to increase in the State of Georgia so did a renewed focus on the role of school administrators as instructional leaders to carry out the mandates prescribed by legislated reforms (Bottoms & O'Neill, 2001). Horng and Loeb (2010) purported that the literature portrays instructional leaders as inspiring teachers to focus their teaching skills to impact student learning directly. Salo, Nylund and Stjernstrom (2015) purported that the concept of instructional leadership has evolved over recent years with a significant interest in the intentional, goal-oriented practices by which school leaders relate to teachers' responsibilities for teaching and learning. Thus, instructional leadership serves as the focal point of this study of planning for differentiated instruction.

## **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Despite the knowledge that differentiated instruction is effective in addressing the diverse learning needs of students, researchers on the topic of the process of differentiated instruction have reported that teachers frequently displayed an unwillingness to employ differentiation in their classroom practices (De Neve et al., 2014; Goddard et al., 2010; Hertberg-Davis, 2009; Smit & Humpert, 2012; Tomlinson, 2002; Van Tassel-Baska & Stambaugh, 2005). Previous research into the challenges or obstacles involving teachers' implementation of differentiated instruction found that teachers did not differentiate due to: 1. a lack of professional development to support practice; 2. a lack of administrative support; 3. logistical time constraints; 4. impact on classroom management; 5. concerns about equity grading practices; 6. requirements associated with standards-based instruction discourage implementations; 7. teachers' resistance to change; and 8. misconceptions perpetuated by a lack of knowledge of strategies related to approaches toward differentiated instruction (Nunley, 2006; Weber, Johnson, & Tripp, 2013). Collectively, these obstacles can pose a very specific challenge to school leaders' abilities as an instructional leader to successfully institute differentiation as a common instructional approach towards teaching and learning.

In order for school administrators to meet the expectations established by state mandates for teachers'

implementation of differentiated learning, they must frequently enact a model of instructional leadership practice that removes challenges or obstacles that impede teachers' implementation of differentiated instruction. These practices should support teachers in dispelling misconceptions about differentiation and promote a willingness to employ the process in their classroom practices (Goddard et al., 2010; Hertberg-Davis, 2009; Weber et al., 2013). Understanding the teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices toward differentiated instruction will help administrators plan for strategies in working with teachers to the implement the process.

### **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study was to identify, from the perspectives of administrators and teachers, functions of instructional leadership practice used by school administrators in support of teachers' approaches towards differentiation in the middle school classroom. Twenty-seven instructional leadership practices, identified in the literature as supporting the implementation of differentiated instruction (Carolan & Guinn, 2007; Goddard et al., 2010; Hertzberg-Davis & Brighton, 2006; MacAdmis, 2001; Page, 2000; Petig, 2000; Quinn, 2002; Suppovitz, Sirinides, & May, 2010; Tomlinson & Allan, 1997), were examined across six core functions of instructional leadership derived from the works of Hallinger (1983, 2005), Hallinger and Heck (1998), and Hallinger and Murphy (1985a, 1985b) on the topic of effective principals' instructional leadership practices. The six core functions of instructional leadership consist of communicating school goals, supervision and evaluation of instruction, monitoring student progress, protecting instructional time, providing incentives for teachers, and providing professional development. The selection of these leadership behaviors for this study was predicated upon the indication by researchers as being common to the daily functions of school administrators engaged in instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2005; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Consequently, this research may assist school leadership engaged in the troughs of implementing mandated instructional interventions to better align practices in support of differentiating instruction, across six core functions of instructional leadership.

### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This research sought to answer three questions.

- (1) What are instructional leadership practices toward differentiated instruction as perceived by middle school administrators and teachers?
- (2) Are there any significant differences in instructional leadership toward differentiated instruction as perceived by middle school administrators and teachers?
- (3) Are there any significant differences in school administrator and teacher perceived instructional leadership toward differentiated instruction among high, middle, and low achieving schools?

### **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Principal support of teaching is vital to teachers' use of differentiated instruction (Carolan & Guinn, 2007; MacAdmis, 2001; Page, 2000; Petig, 2000; Quinn, 2002; Suppovitz et al., 2010; Tomlinson & Allan, 1997). However, research does not demonstrate a statistically significant link between teachers' reports of principal support for instruction and school-wide norms centered on differentiated instruction. According to the authors, this lack of statistical significance constituted a gap in the literature to be addressed by future research.

As Hertberg-Davis (2009) noted:

As systemic change reforms focus on differentiated instruction, future research on principals' influence on sustaining differentiated instruction as a focus and priority in the classroom would add to the knowledge of how best to support and develop teachers' commitment and expertise in differentiation over time. (p. 101)

This study may generate an awareness of instructional leadership practices which facilitate the implementation of differentiated instruction and better enable leaders in buffering the challenges to implementation. School administrators with the knowledge of how to help teachers deal with the challenges to differentiation, through support and encouragement, are more likely to increase the implementation of differentiated instruction within their school norms of practice (De Neve et al., 2014; Smit & Humpert, 2012; Tomlinson, 2002).

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Differentiated Instruction

Tomlinson (2005) defined differentiated learning as “a philosophy of teaching that is based on the premise that students learn best when their teachers accommodate for the differences in their readiness levels, interests, and learning profiles” (p. 940). Subban (2006) stated that the working definition provided by Tomlinson is reflective of Vygotsky's (1978) socio-cultural theory wherein the primary tenant resides in the social interactional relationship that occurs between teachers and students. Subban also maintained that Tomlinson's definition of differentiation aligned to Vygotsky's notions for the impact of the teacher upon the student. Tomlinson's (2004b) vision of a teacher is a professional who guides students through the use of appropriate techniques toward their fullest potential within the learning context.

The review of the literature on differentiated instruction revealed that challenges related to teaching staffs' implementation of differentiated instructional strategies are compounded by teacher held misconceptions or perceived obstacles to implementation imposed by state curricular requirements. Research (Carolan & Guinn, 2007; MacAdmis, 2001; Page, 2000; Petig, 2000; Quinn, 2002; Suppovitz, Sirinides, & May, 2010; Tomlinson & Allan, 1997) specifically claimed that principals' instructional leadership practices helps teachers overcome challenges of implementing differentiated instruction. De Neve et al. (2014), Smit and Humpert (2012), and Tomlinson (2002) purported that by understanding which instructional leadership practices facilitate the implementation of differentiation, leaders can buffer challenges to implementation. Collectively, the authors stated that by developing a critical understanding of how to help teachers deal with these difficulties, leaders learn to be supportive and encouraging of teachers' implementation.

### Instructional Leadership

Leithwood (1994) defined instructional leadership to include only the practices that directly affected curriculum, teacher instruction, staff development, and supervision. Scholars examining a broader definition of instructional leadership, such as Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990), and Murphy (1988), purported that principal leadership included all activities that affected student learning.

Salo et al. (2015) stipulated that the concept of instructional leadership has evolved in recent years with a significant interest in intentional goal-oriented practices through which principals communicate teachers' responsibilities for teaching learning to their staffs. Carolan and Guinn (2007) suggested a distinct need for leadership support for teachers implementing differentiated instruction in the middle school context. The authors' findings noted fewer obstacles to differentiation as a result of the supportive instructional leadership practices of principals. Hertberg-Davis and Brighton



(2006) examined characteristics of principals that impacted teachers' willingness and ability to differentiate instruction. The authors found that principals' support was essential in promoting teachers' willingness to implement differentiation.

Tomlinson (2005) stated that leaders can help offset challenges to differentiated instruction by providing planning, resources, ensuring access to differentiated curriculum, offering incentives to teachers to develop knowledge of how to differentiate instruction, creating an environment conducive for professional growth and practice, and ensuring local policy supports differentiated instruction. Following Tomlinson (2005), Robinson, Maldonado and Whaley (2014) indicated that overcoming obstacles towards teachers' implementation of differentiation required support for effective classroom management, facilitating professional learning communities that encourage collaboration, building on knowledge, and sharing experiences all in the execution and delivery of differentiated instruction. The authors also noted that teachers need support in learning how to scaffold tasks and become competent in the use of a set of strategies before taking on new approaches.

The early research of Blasé and Blasé (1998) found that researchers had identified specific instructional leadership practices related to improving the teaching and learning process. The authors offered that effective approaches toward instructional leadership should expand teachers' instructional range with carefully designed support and assistance. Furthermore, the authors cited three effects of instructional leadership that affected teacher performance: 1. leaders teaching with teachers; 2. leadership promoting professional development; and 3. leadership that fosters teacher self-reflective practice toward improving student learning outcomes.

Southworth (2009) argued that a significant portion of instructional leadership that affects teacher performance takes the form of modeling, mentoring, monitoring instruction, and assumes that the principal can model effective instruction, lead others to effective instruction, recognize effective teaching, and understand that data is an intricate part of instructional leadership. May and Huff (2009) examined instructional leadership as a viable leadership approach toward improving teaching and learning. The authors stated researchers and policymakers had agreed that a principals' instructional leadership is key to increasing student achievement as well as being central to focusing their schools on improving teaching and learning. The authors noted principal instructional leadership activities included 1. planning, setting and developing goals towards school improvement; 2. monitoring and observing teaching; 3. supporting teachers; 4. providing for professional development; 5. analyzing data; and 6. modeling instructional practices.

## **THEORETICAL REVIEW**

Multiple theories may be relevant in shaping the research questions, design, methodology, and finally the analysis of the findings derived from the study.

Vygotsky's (1978) Social Constructivist Learning Theory has been viewed by researchers as central to the delivery of educational innovations, interventions, and changes tailored to the instructional needs of students (Blake & Pope, 2008; Subban, 2006). Across time, scholars (Derry, 1999; Kim, 2001; Lave & Wenger, 1991; McMahon, 1997; Wertsch, 2005) have applied Vygotsky's theory towards the understanding of how individuals construct knowledge with relevance to teaching and learning. According to Derry (1999), social constructivism stresses the significance that culture and context have on understanding what events occur within society and the knowledge constructed through these experiences. Kim (2001) detailed the following three assumptions related to constructivist theory:

1. Reality is constructed through human activity and meaning created through these interactions.
2. Knowledge is socially and culturally constructed.
3. Learning is viewed, through the lens of social constructivism, as a social process when human beings interact.

McMahon (1997) observed learning from a constructivist's perspective as being shaped by external factors. These assertions of scholars are essential in understanding the theoretical framework for differentiated instruction. However, as it concerns this research study, learning is envisioned as the socially constructed realities, or perceptions, of school administrators and teachers while engaged in the process of implementing differentiated instruction as required by policy.

The social interaction (Wertsch, 2005) between school administrators and teachers factor in on teachers' abilities in formulating knowledge of how to differentiate instruction or how to be motivated to employ the approach in the classroom. Referring once again to Kim (2001), constructing social meaning "involves inter-subjectivity among individuals" where "personal meanings shaped through these experiences are affected by the inter-subjectivity of the community to which they belong" (p. 3). Kim drew upon Lave and Wenger (1991) who suggested that "a society's practical knowledge is situated in the relations among practitioners, their practice, and the social organization" (p. 5). Therefore, the development of knowledge and social meaning are formed by interactions and experiences consequently influencing the personal beliefs, attitudes, and perspectives of individuals in the context of the workplace.

The implications of social constructivism are relevant to this study in that this theory alludes to the existence of beliefs or attitudes derived from "constructs or perceptions of principals and teachers relating to shared ideas" (Kim, 2001, p. 5). Thus, the importance of appreciating the principles of the social constructivist theory is a primary step in the formulation and answering of the research questions.

Michael Fullan's (1982) work on educational change is of equal importance in answering this study's research questions. Fullan (1982, 2001, 2005, 2014) focused on the roles of the human participants taking part in the change process. In partnering with Stiegerlbauer in 1991, Fullan stressed that there was enormous potential for true, meaningful change simply in building coalition with other change agents, both within one's own group and across all groups (Fullan & Stiegerlbauer, 1991). In his concept of the initiation stage of the change process, Fullan identified advocacy from administration and teachers as being the two local factors affecting change. For the change momentum to continue he emphasized that skilled and committed administrators and teachers would be needed. Fullan's (1982) educational change model provides an underpinning to this study by indicating that a new educational initiative, such as differentiated instruction, has to involve dedicated stakeholders like school administrators and teachers to collaborate in planning and implementation. Furthermore, Fullan's work (2001) indicated that teachers' perceptions of actors involved in educational innovations to be a critical factor in the success of initiatives to improve teaching and learning (Hermann, Tondeur, van Braak, & Valcke, 2012). Therefore, any discussion on teachers' resistance to implementing differentiated instruction should involve the consideration of teachers' attitudes toward change alongside of any understanding of the importance of the social context in influencing the perceptions of both school administrators and teachers.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### Research Design

The non-experimental quantitative research design used for this study was a survey method which attempted to identify, from the perspectives of administrators and teachers, functions of instructional leadership practice used by school administrators in support of teachers' approach towards differentiation in the middle school classroom.

### Participants

This study was conducted across 18 of 26 middle schools (less a pilot survey school) within a metropolitan school district located in the Southeast United States. Participants were invited to respond to an electronic survey specific to their position as an administrator or teacher. The targeted population (Fricker, 2012) that comprises the middle schools of the participating school district is estimated at 25 middle school principals, 83 assistant principals, and the 1,499 certified teachers who are evaluated under the TKES system. Based on the timing of the survey, at least one full cycle of teacher observations had been completed in accordance with the school district's policy. This resulted in the survey population (McMillan, 1996) consisting of school administrators with at least one semester of experience in evaluating teachers under the TKES instrument, as well as general and special education teachers from all subject areas that had been evaluated through the TKES platform for at least one semester. The actual response rate was comprised of 45% of the administrators and 17% of the teachers from the participating middle schools.

### Data Collection Instruments

Data were collected via a self-designed two-part questionnaire based on concepts *and* adaptation of questions drawn from Hallinger's (1983) Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) and elements of the items from Stetson's (2007) Differentiated Instruction Self-Assessment Tool (DISAT). They were intended to examine: 1. the self-perceptions of principals, in the role of an instructional leader, engaged in support the implementation of differentiated instruction; and 2. teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices about the implementation of differentiated instruction. Separate instruments were required to be created to collect data from school administrators and teachers.

Survey questions were constructed by adopting the context of items from Hallinger's (1983) PIMRS and adapting the wording to be reflective specifically of instructional leadership practices toward teacher implementation of differentiated instruction. Functions of instructional leadership related to removing barriers to teachers implementing differentiated instruction were compartmentalized into six sub-sets (De Vellis, 2003). Each sub-set was comprised of survey items reflective of the instructional leadership practices associated with each function (Hallinger, 1983; Stetson, 2007).

In its final form, the survey instruments used to collect data for this study were comprised of a Part One, which collected demographic information requesting the respondents to state their gender, years working at their schools, years of teaching experience, and years of administrative experience that may be factored in as variables during analysis. In the case of school administrators, responding to "years of teaching experience" may provide a means to differentiate among administrators based on years of teaching in the classroom prior to going into administration.

Part Two consisted of items designed to elicit the participants' ratings of the extent to which leadership practices are used to support the implementation of differentiated instruction in the classroom. Data

were collected using a Likert-type 5-point response rating scale ranging from (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Sometimes, (4) Often, or (5) Always.

### **Instrument Reliability and Validity**

An external pilot survey was conducted on a small group of judges comprised of veteran middle school administrators and teachers who did not participate in the main survey. Judges were asked to make commentary on the instruments in the following areas: a) Content; (b) Language; and (c) Format. The judges' commentary provided the basis for revision.

The revised survey instrument was again given to the judges to solicit actual responses to the items. The completed surveys were returned, and the data were entered into an Excel spreadsheet. Using the Cronbach Alpha method, a reliability test for internal consistency was conducted utilizing an alpha value range from 0.00 to 1.0. The resulting alpha must be at 0.7 or close to being acceptable. In instances where an alpha of 0.7 was not obtained, a rotation analysis of each section was performed to identify items causing the inconsistency. The rotation analysis resulted in the deletion of items from the original questionnaire.

### **Data Collection and Analysis Procedures**

The instruments were administered using an Internet-based survey application, SurveyMonkey.com. Principals' agreement to participate was collected and District forms were completed as required by the school system. Hyperlinks specific to each participating schools' administration and teaching staffs were embedded in instructions provided to the principals who forwarded the links to their staffs. Data collected was entered into SPSS spreadsheet for analysis.

## **RESULTS**

Research Question # 1 - The first research question: *What are instructional leadership practices toward differentiated instruction as perceived by middle school administrators and teachers?* Descriptive statistics of means, standard deviations and percentages were employed to examine the extent of the principals' perceptions of instructional leadership practices. The same method was used to examine the extent of the teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices. Middle school administrators and teachers within the participating school district perceived a high degree of agreement of the positive statements in the survey across the six functions and 27 practices of instructional leadership in support of differentiated instruction. Data from the quantitative survey indicated that the school administrators agreed with the extent that they communicate school goals (M = 4.03), supervise and evaluate instruction (M = 4.14), monitor student progress (M = 3.79), protect instructional time (M = 4.17), provide incentives for teachers (M 3.72), provide professional development (M = 3.83), and in total average (M = 3.95). The findings are reflective of the functions of instructional leadership school administrators believe they enact in support of teachers' implementation of differentiated instruction. Likewise, it is fair to assert that the findings associated with the teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership are reflective of what teachers believe they experience in their own school settings. Data from the quantitative survey indicated that the teachers agreed with the extent that their school administrators communicate school goals (M = 3.96), supervise and evaluate instruction (M = 3.65), monitor student progress (M = 3.77), protect instructional time (M = 3.68), provide incentives for teachers (M 3.28), provide professional development (M = 3.47), and in total average (M = 3.61).

Research Question # 2 - The second research question: *Are there any significant differences in instructional leadership toward differentiated instruction as perceived by middle school*

*administrators and teachers?* A one-way Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was used to investigate if any significant differences existed between the administrators' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices toward differentiated instruction. Administrators' and teachers' demographic data were included in the statistical analysis as co-variates to minimize the possible effect of these data on the perceptions of administrators and teachers so that a truer picture of the differences can be displayed. The results (See Table 1) revealed there were no significant differences in instructional leadership toward differentiated instruction as perceived by middle school administrators and teachers relative to the statements of the survey for S1 Communicate School Progress ( $p = .603$ ) and S3 Monitors Student Progress ( $p = .864$ ). However, there were significant differences in perception between the administrators and the teachers concerning S2 Supervise and Evaluate Instruction ( $p = .002$ ), S4 Protects Instructional Time ( $p = .001$ ), S5 Provide Incentives for Teachers ( $p = .006$ ), and S6 Provide Professional Development ( $p = .027$ ). Overall, a high degree of disagreement was found between middle school administrators and teachers in their perceptions of the statements of the survey as indicated by the Total Average of all functions ( $p = .012$ ).

The statistically significant differences in perceptions of administrators and teachers of the survey statements relative to supervision and evaluation of instruction, protection of instructional time, providing incentives for teachers, and in providing staff development were consequently perceived by teachers as not being experienced to the same extent as believed by administrators to be in practice. Additionally, the statistically significant differences indicated in S2, 4, 5, 6, and Total Average were not reflective of chance but were supported by the statistics derived from Cohen's D test for effect size.

Table 2. *Effect Size Statistics Calculations Associated with the One-way MANCOVA (Cohen's d)*

| Dependent Variable | Teacher/Admin Mean/SD | N                  | Calculations | Effect   |
|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|--------------|----------|
| S1                 | (3.97-4.03)/0.578191  | T=159; A=34; N=193 | 0.103772     | Small    |
| S2                 | (3.66-4.14)/0.682941  | T=159; A=34; N=193 | 0.702842     | Moderate |
| S3                 | (3.76-3.79)/0.660309  | T=159; A=34; N=193 | 0.045433     | Small    |
| S4                 | (3.70-4.17)/0.64229   | T=159; A=34; N=193 | 0.731757     | Moderate |
| S5                 | (3.25-3.72)/0.7742421 | T=159; A=34; N=193 | 0.633064     | Moderate |
| S6                 | (3.46-3.85)/0.743808  | T=159; A=34; N=193 | 0.49744      | Moderate |
| Total Avg          | (3.63-3.98)/0.543596  | T=159; A=34; N=193 | 0.588672     | Moderate |

Effect size testing was done to indicate the magnitude of the results obtained from the One-way MANCOVA (See Table 2). Effect size quantified the size of the differences between the perceptions of the middle school administrators and teachers for the statements of the survey. Using Cohen's *d*, the standard interpretation of the meaning of the effect size in sub-sets 2, 4, 5, 6, and Total Average indicated a moderate effect. Cohen's (1988) terminology can be used to assert that the importance of the findings is neither trivial or nor substantial. However, the researcher can reasonably purport that on average moderate differences can be seen to exist between the perceptions of administrators and teachers for the statements of the survey. In terms of practical significance, the importance of the findings associated with Research Question 2 do not rise to the level of a substantially large difference. Therefore, the differences in the perceptions of the administrators and teachers for the

survey statements in sub-sets 2, 4, 5, 6, and Total Average are not so far apart as to indicate that there is a total absence of instructional leadership towards differentiated instruction. Table 2 revealed that among administrators and teachers in S1 and S3 there was a small effect and the results were non-significant. However, among administrators and teachers there was a statistically significant difference in S2, S4, S4, S6, and Total Average. The magnitude of the effect was moderate.

Research Question #3 - *Are there any significant differences in principal and teacher perceived instructional leadership toward differentiated instruction among high, middle, and low achieving schools?* A One-way MANOVA was utilized to take into account the three levels of school achievement status. Quantitative data analysis revealed no statistically significant differences in the perceptions of middle school administrators and teachers for instructional leadership toward differentiated instruction relative to average mean scores among schools of different achievement status. Pillai's Trace multivariate test and the outcomes generated by the one-way MANOVA revealed that school achievement status was not a determining factor in revealing any of the significant differences in perceptions among school administrators and teachers from high, middle, and low achieving schools for instructional leadership toward differentiated instruction.

## DISCUSSION

In framing the context of the findings, literature associated with the study's theoretical framework (Fullan, 1999, 2001; Kin & Kareem, 2016) offered that a critical factor in the success of innovations, such as differentiated instruction, may well hinge on teachers' perceptions of the change agents involved in implementing educational initiatives. Following this line of thinking, it becomes the responsibility of the leader to manage stakeholders' perceptions by including those insights in adapting functions indicated by feedback as not being extensive in their leadership practices (Maxwell, 2005).

Conversely, the findings do support the researcher's assertion for the need and significance of the study. Scholars have recommended future research to examine principals' influences on sustaining differentiated instruction as a focus and priority in the classroom. By identifying six functions of instructional leadership and 27 practices agreed upon by both administrators and teachers as being supportive of teachers' implementation of differentiated instruction, this study added to the knowledge of how best to support and develop teachers' commitment and expertise in differentiating instruction over time (Hertberg-Davis & Brighton, 2006). Generating an awareness of instructional leadership practices, which facilitates the implementation of differentiated instruction, better directs administrative support in an effort to offset teachers' displays of unwillingness to employ differentiation in their classroom practices (De Neve, Devos, & Tuytens, 2014; Goddard et al., 2010; Hertberg-Davis, 2009; Smit & Humpert, 2012; Tomlinson, 2002; Van Tassel-Baska & Stambaugh, 2005).

The findings of this study raise one essential question. What happens when leaders believe they are practicing functions of instructional leadership in support of differentiated instruction, but the teachers disagree? From a theoretical perspective, misconceptions held by school administrators for their instructional leadership practice can be conceived as negatively impacting on teachers' willingness to implement an innovation through a perceived lack of administrative support in critical areas. Therefore, the results of this study call to the attention of school administrators that differences may exist between the perceptions of themselves and teachers for the extensiveness of the functions of their instructional leadership practice.



## CONCLUSIONS

The middle school administrators and teachers who participated in this study of planning for differentiated instruction concurred with the statements of the survey, and thus helped to identify six functions of instructional leadership and twenty-seven related practices supportive of teachers' implementation of differentiation. The participants came from a variety of content areas, and grade levels. The participants' relative average years of leading or teaching experience provided for a seasoned group of educators who had undergone profound educational changes over the past years produced by Federal and State education reforms. Therefore, the participants' perspectives on the functions of instructional leadership practices have been shaped not only by change but by the context of professional interactions.

The administrators' and teachers' perceptions derived from this study can be seen to be reflective of a belief that instructional leadership towards differentiated instruction is extensive in the participants' school setting. However, when comparing administrators' and teachers' perceptions, teachers were not in complete agreement with administrators in four out of six subsets including the total average of all six subsets. Teachers consequently perceived survey statements about supervision and evaluation of instruction, protection of instructional time, providing incentives for teachers, and in providing for professional development as not being experienced to the same extent as believed by administrators to be in practice.

Administrators have the responsibility to attend to teachers' perceptions. A misalignment of beliefs and attitudes held for innovations by school administrators and stakeholders can, unfortunately, contribute to creating additional barriers for implementation. A perceived lack of administrative support by teachers can send mixed messages to stakeholders about the leadership's priority or focus for learning. Interestingly, administrators and teachers agreed about the statements of the survey related to organizational learning goals and practices that are informed by student achievement data and are aligned to accountability. However, administrative support associated with functions of instructional leadership, such as supervision of the instructional program, teacher evaluation or professional development that have their place in sustaining teaching practices, are potentially lacking based on leaderships' priorities for learning.

Planning for differentiated instruction, as in any change, should be informed by the perceptions of all stakeholders for the innovation. A collaborative approach toward instructional leadership aligns with the cognitive change (Vygotsky, 1978) aspects of the theoretical framework of this study and may be a contemporary method in planning for the implementation of differentiation as well as sustaining practice. Successful school operations are more positively enhanced when instructional leadership is perceived by stakeholders as a team effort or shared process rather than a role carried out by administration (Ham & Kim, 2015).

## RECOMMENDATIONS

### **Recommendations for Educational Researchers**

Future research into the impact of broader organizational needs that generate competing priorities upon administrators' focus of instructional leadership may offer insights into the attentiveness of administrators and their degree of support toward teachers' instructional needs. Future study into the notion put forth by Memisoglu (2015) that teachers may have higher expectations for instructional leadership support for the classroom could shed light into what influences their reality and perceptions of administrators' instructional leadership. As long as the problem persists of teachers'

infrequent implementation of differentiated instruction, future research into instructional leadership support for planning for differentiation should continue to seek to understand the perspectives of all individuals involved in the process.

### **Recommendations for Educational Practitioners**

Reflecting back the theoretical works of Vygostky (1978) and Fullan (2001), perceptions are the reality in an educational context. It is of paramount importance to recognize teacher perceptions of leadership practice in order to reduce resistance to change. By identifying any misconceptions held by school administrators for the extensiveness of their instructional leadership, practices can be adapted and more flexible behaviors may emerge in response to stakeholders' needs. In reflecting back on the work of Lim, Gronlund and Andersson (2015), misalignment of beliefs and attitudes held for innovations by principals and stakeholders contributes to creating additional barriers for its implementation. Policy makers should take into account the perceptions of principals for an innovation like differentiated instruction before requiring its institutionalization. More specifically, leadership development should better prepare school administrators in gaining a broader knowledge of the formative processes involved in supervision and evaluation of teachers to improve instruction.

Researchers and policymakers agree that a principals' instructional leadership is key to increasing student achievement as well as being central to focusing their schools on improving teaching and learning. Consequently, this vein of research assists school leadership engaged in the troughs of implementing mandated instructional interventions in better aligning practices toward planning for changes in teaching and learning. At a minimum, this study should promote professional conversation for the role that a principals' beliefs and attitudes play in the implementation of a multi-faceted standardized teacher evaluation system or for the effectiveness of mandated innovations such as differentiated instruction to improve learning outcomes for students.

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Table 1. *Tests of Between-Subjects Effects*

| Source          | Dependent Variable | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F       | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------------|----|-------------|---------|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | S1 Avg             | .484                    | 3  | .161        | .413    | .744 | .007                |
|                 | S2 Avg             | 7.622                   | 3  | 2.541       | 3.985   | .009 | .059                |
|                 | S3 Avg             | 1.426                   | 3  | .475        | .904    | .440 | .014                |
|                 | S4 Avg             | 6.787                   | 3  | 2.262       | 4.383   | .005 | .065                |
|                 | S5 Avg             | 7.101                   | 3  | 2.367       | 3.138   | .027 | .047                |
|                 | S6 Avg             | 6.120                   | 3  | 2.040       | 2.755   | .044 | .042                |
|                 | Total Avg          | 3.603                   | 3  | 1.201       | 2.920   | .035 | .044                |
| Intercept       | S1 Avg             | 91.488                  | 1  | 91.488      | 233.836 | .000 | .553                |
|                 | S2 Avg             | 98.339                  | 1  | 98.339      | 154.249 | .000 | .449                |
|                 | S3 Avg             | 86.909                  | 1  | 86.909      | 165.249 | .000 | .466                |
|                 | S4 Avg             | 78.554                  | 1  | 78.554      | 152.182 | .000 | .446                |
|                 | S5 Avg             | 79.889                  | 1  | 79.889      | 105.910 | .000 | .359                |
|                 | S6 Avg             | 75.009                  | 1  | 75.009      | 101.288 | .000 | .349                |
|                 | Total Avg          | 84.842                  | 1  | 84.842      | 206.303 | .000 | .522                |
| Gender          | S1 Avg             | .342                    | 1  | .342        | .874    | .351 | .005                |
|                 | S2 Avg             | 1.050                   | 1  | 1.050       | 1.646   | .201 | .009                |
|                 | S3 Avg             | 1.279                   | 1  | 1.279       | 2.431   | .121 | .013                |
|                 | S4 Avg             | .100                    | 1  | .100        | .193    | .661 | .001                |
|                 | S5 Avg             | 1.081                   | 1  | 1.081       | 1.433   | .233 | .008                |
|                 | S6 Avg             | 1.319                   | 1  | 1.319       | 1.781   | .184 | .009                |
|                 | Total Avg          | .764                    | 1  | .764        | 1.857   | .175 | .010                |

| Source          | Dependent Variable | Type III Sum of Squares | df  | Mean Square | F      | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|---------------------|
| YearsTeaching   | S1 Avg             | .031                    | 1   | .031        | .078   | .780 | .000                |
|                 | S2 Avg             | .050                    | 1   | .050        | .078   | .780 | .000                |
|                 | S3 Avg             | .145                    | 1   | .145        | .276   | .600 | .001                |
|                 | S4 Avg             | .494                    | 1   | .494        | .958   | .329 | .005                |
|                 | S5 Avg             | .030                    | 1   | .030        | .040   | .842 | .000                |
|                 | S6 Avg             | .942                    | 1   | .942        | 1.272  | .261 | .007                |
|                 | Total Avg          | .093                    | 1   | .093        | .227   | .634 | .001                |
| AdminTeacher    | S1 Avg             | .106                    | 1   | .106        | .272   | .603 | .001                |
|                 | S2 Avg             | 6.453                   | 1   | 6.453       | 10.122 | .002 | .051                |
|                 | S3 Avg             | .016                    | 1   | .016        | .030   | .864 | .000                |
|                 | S4 Avg             | 6.043                   | 1   | 6.043       | 11.706 | .001 | .058                |
|                 | S5 Avg             | 5.916                   | 1   | 5.916       | 7.842  | .006 | .040                |
|                 | S6 Avg             | 3.701                   | 1   | 3.701       | 4.998  | .027 | .026                |
|                 | Total Avg          | 2.671                   | 1   | 2.671       | 6.494  | .012 | .033                |
| Error           | S1 Avg             | 73.946                  | 189 | .391        |        |      |                     |
|                 | S2 Avg             | 120.494                 | 189 | .638        |        |      |                     |
|                 | S3 Avg             | 99.400                  | 189 | .526        |        |      |                     |
|                 | S4 Avg             | 97.559                  | 189 | .516        |        |      |                     |
|                 | S5 Avg             | 142.565                 | 189 | .754        |        |      |                     |
|                 | S6 Avg             | 139.963                 | 189 | .741        |        |      |                     |
|                 | Total Avg          | 77.726                  | 189 | .411        |        |      |                     |
| Total           | S1 Avg             | 3133.167                | 193 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S2 Avg             | 2833.560                | 193 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S3 Avg             | 2834.800                | 193 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S4 Avg             | 2860.444                | 193 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S5 Avg             | 2296.333                | 193 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S6 Avg             | 2539.120                | 193 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | Total Avg          | 2705.441                | 193 |             |        |      |                     |
| Corrected Total | S1 Avg             | 74.430                  | 192 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S2 Avg             | 128.116                 | 192 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S3 Avg             | 100.826                 | 192 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S4 Avg             | 104.345                 | 192 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S5 Avg             | 149.666                 | 192 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | S6 Avg             | 146.083                 | 192 |             |        |      |                     |
|                 | Total Avg          | 81.329                  | 192 |             |        |      |                     |

# VALUES DEVELOPMENT IN TEACHER TRAINEES: IMPLICATIONS FOR LECTURERS IN PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN KENYA

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## ABSTRACT

*Teachers are key to provision of quality education and as noted by Mompoin-Gaillard (2011), they have a great opportunity to facilitate development of values in learners. However, it is not clear whether lecturers in Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) in Kenya are prepared for training teacher trainees in development of values. Instilling values and forming character are important education goals (Malinda, Mwanja, & Maithya, 2017). Consequently, developing values in teacher trainees is critical, because it is not only the aim of national educational goals, but also the mission to prepare students to become responsible citizens. It is therefore critical that education planners take into account the place of values in preparing self-regulated citizens. The purpose of this paper is to explore the preparation of lecturers in facilitating the development of values in teacher trainees in PTTCs in Kenya. This paper is based on reviews of critical analyses of existing literature on values education in training of teachers. The analyses point at the importance of values education for both teachers and pupils as they plan to help one to relate values to corresponding actions in life based on informed and reasoned positions. The paper argues that lecturers, who are adequately and intentionally prepared for values education, effectively prepare teacher trainees for facilitation of development of values in pupils. This effort calls for purposeful planning. This paper hopes to shed new light on how lecturers model and demonstrate the behaviour and values they expect teacher trainees to practice. The paper concludes with a call to rethink the pedagogy in teacher education courses with a view of re-focusing on the practical aspect of development of values for lecturers in PTTCs including planning for specific value-based objectives. Lecturers' knowledge, perception and pedagogical approaches have implications on values development in teacher trainees.*

## INTRODUCTION

Teachers play a vital role in the development of learners' capacity in becoming responsible citizens. Development of values has been a major concern to most education system in different countries of the world (UNESCO, 2002). Quality training is concerned with the transfer of skills, knowledge, values, behaviour and attitudes in order to have competent citizens (Nafuko & Kangethe, 2002). As such, quality education is a result of purposeful planning that leads to translating policy into action, thus effectively addressing challenges facing young people. These challenges include youth disorder, poor academic performance, high dropout rates and drug abuse that contribute to education inequality. Thus, the general acceptance is that teaching is a moral activity (Carr, 2011) in which teachers need to consider the moral impact on their students and eventually society.

Rai (2014) posits that teachers, due to their pivotal role, have an opportunity to facilitate development of values in learners. This critical role is supported by Kaur and Nagpal (2013) who contend that "education is expected to function not only as a facilitator of acquisition of knowledge but also as a developer of values and transformer of inner being" (p. 3). Similarly, Lumpkin (2008) suggests that during their interaction with trainees, teacher educators are expected to "display behaviours reflective of moral virtues such as fairness, honesty and adhere to professional codes of conduct" (p.



45). Lumpkin further notes that teachers need to “model to students how to live a life of character based on moral virtues” (p. 46). On the contrary, Lunenberg, Korthagen and Swennen (2007) state that some teacher educators are limited in skills and knowledge of modelling and that their experience as teachers does not make them better role models. Yet, there are limited educational objectives that focus on developing the image and character of teacher educators as values educators.

Instilling values and forming character are important education goals (Malinda, Mwanja, & Maithya, 2017). Values inculcation may take place implicitly and explicitly through various teaching and learning processes. Therefore, lecturers require exposure to knowledge, skills and attitudes to steer teacher education to striking a balance between academic and character education. Thus, teacher educators need to translate objectives on values to life experiences to allow teacher trainees to acquire competencies that enable them to eventually inculcate values in pupils.

Values are the principles, standards, convictions and beliefs that people construct as their guidelines in daily activities. Hall (1994), defines values as “the ideals that give significance to our lives reflected through the priorities that we choose and that we act on consistently and repeatedly” (p. 21). On the other hand, Hawkes (2014) provides a slightly different emphasis. Values are “enduring beliefs about what is worthwhile... They help us make decisions and evaluate the actions of others” (Hawkes, 2014, p. 7). Both definitions underscore the fact that values influence peoples’ professional and personal lives. Development of values therefore refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip prospective learners with knowledge on the principles, standards, convictions and beliefs that people adopt as their guidelines in work related and life activities. It may be argued that in case of lecturers, development of values refers to all activities professional and personal that contribute to inculcation of values in teacher trainees. The question is how prepared PTTC lecturers are for the key role of facilitating values development in teacher trainees.

## **OBJECTIVE**

The objective of this paper is to explore the preparation of lecturers in Primary Teachers Training Colleges in inculcating values in teacher trainees. This is taking into account that teacher educators are key resources in facilitating development of values and character formation as noted by Kanti (2013). The goals and objectives of most education systems have inculcation of values as key aspect of primary teacher education.

## **JUSTIFICATION FOR TRAINING IN VALUES EDUCATION IN PRIMARY TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGES**

Education is not only about acquiring knowledge and skills to pass examinations and prepare children for life, but it is also concerned with flourishing of humanity (Hawkes, 2013). The objectives of Primary Teacher Education (PTE) expect lecturers to inculcate stated values in teacher trainees. Yet, many of the lecturers have not been exposed to development of values. In addition, there are concerns as to whether it is the parents or teachers who are failing in instilling values in students. Since education is values-infused (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008), quality value-based education therefore is meant to help persons grow intellectually, emotionally, socially and spiritually thus, preparing them for the future. Values based education lays basis for equal education opportunities as students learn to appreciate and respect others. Pre-service teacher education programmes therefore, are meant to prepare teacher trainees to become quality teachers equipped with pedagogical practices that will serve to meet the increasing demands associated with the teaching profession (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005) including inculcation of values.



According to UNESCO (2011), pre-service training of teachers needs to focus on values that transform the teacher trainees as individual facilitators in development of values in school pupils. As such, the pre-service training of teachers needs to be transformational by integrating values in the learning process and facilitating values application into contemporary situations. Therefore, teacher educators need skills that enable them to apply participatory methods and reflective pedagogy as they facilitate teacher trainees develop values (UNESCO, 2011). Possession of appropriate pedagogy needs to be accompanied by appreciation of the same values as values are acquired through teaching and modelling.

Accordingly, teacher educators need to engage pre-service teacher trainees in discussions on values stated in PTE curriculum as well as model the same values. Consequently, facilitating teacher trainees to develop values that guide them to choose actions to take in different situations is part and parcel of a lecturer's responsibility. If teacher educators are to participate in development of values of the teacher trainees, they need to demonstrate the same values and have a passion to "pass" the same to teacher trainees. Furthermore, the actions of teacher educators need to align with their professional and personal values for teacher trainees to "pick" how to apply the values in life situations. Thus, for lecturers in pre-service teacher training, role modelling as an approach of inculcating values is inevitable as stated by Kanti (2013).

In Kenya, the objectives of PTE are specific on values lecturers are to develop in teacher trainees namely, moral and religious values, citizenship, national attitude, respect for culture and natural heritage and environmental conservation (Ministry of Education, 2006). In addition, the National Goals of Education, article 10 of Chapter 2 and Chapter 6, article 78 of the Constitution of Kenya 2010 stipulate integrity, respect, dignity, confidence, selfless service, competence, objectivity, impartiality, accountability, discipline and commitment (Kenya Law, <http://www.kenyalaw.org/lex/actview.xql?actid=Const2010>) as some of the values that public officers are expected to uphold. These are values that need to be operationalized from the policy level into action.

It may then be argued that teacher educators as public officers are expected not only to 'live' up to these values, but also to facilitate development of the same in teacher trainees. Consequently, teacher educators need to be purposeful and intentional in facilitating development of expected values in teacher trainees. Any occurrence of cases indicating deficiency of necessary values in some teachers would raise concern about the focus of colleges where they are trained (Groenewegen, 1993). This calls for adequate preparation of lecturers as responsible citizens to effectively carry out their role of preparing quality teachers. Adequate preparation includes approaches that facilitate values development that eventually contribute to the development of a responsible citizen and mental wellbeing of teacher trainees. Values education is an ingredient of students' wellbeing as values facilitate students to function effectively in terms of relationships and self-esteem (Fraillon, 2004). Values assist students to make responsible choices from various alternatives. Because of this, educational planners need to come up with effective ways of making values education a practical component of teacher educators training as well as pre-service teacher training.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### **Status of Primary Teacher Training Colleges in Values Education**

Education is about values development. Hence, the role of teacher educators is critical as "teachers are the most valuable resource that a nation counts on to mould and nurture its young people" (Idris, Cheong, Nor, Razak & Saad, 2007, p. 102). Teacher educators have a critical role of preparing trainees

in values development (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008). The quality of teacher education and that of the teacher educator determines the quality of teachers produced. This implies that if teacher educators believe in the values stipulated in the teacher education curriculum, then there is a possibility that teacher educators will integrate the same values in their teaching and learning process.

Teacher training is an integral part of quality education in a country. A teacher's effectiveness and competencies to a certain extent depend on the quality of training undertaken in Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs). Lecturers in Kenya constitute the core of the education system and their important impact on student performance has been widely confirmed by many studies (Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain, 2005; Uwezo Kenya, 2011). A lecturer is an important resource in the teaching and learning process and their preparation and career progression therefore requires critical consideration by education planners. The provision of education and training to all Kenyans is fundamental to the government's overall development strategy (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2004). However, there is limited literature exploring the preparation of lecturers in facilitating values development in teacher trainees (Wamahiu, 2015).

Conversely, some critics state that teacher education in Kenya focuses on academic achievement only (Kafu, 2011) at the expense of the formation of an integrated person. This is echoed by Bunyi, Wangia, Mogoma and Limboro (2013) who state that few of teacher trainers have primary education teaching experience and training in adult education. This raises a question as to how effective such tutors would be in preparing teacher trainees to acquire values stipulated in the three objectives of PTE. In addition, there are no induction programmes for teacher trainers (Bunyi et al, 2013) in Kenya. Further, the curriculum seems to be unclear on how the values are to be acquired and transferred both at the teacher educator and trainee levels. The academic focus with a lack of emphasis on values education at PTTCs has become a unique challenge to Kenya. Sjøberg (2005) observes that colleges are pre-occupied with academic performance and churning graduates to meet the challenge of teacher shortage thus inadequate time to address programs that facilitate values development. Thus, the focus on addressing teacher shortage may have led to the teacher training objectives focusing on academic achievement thus contributing to inadequate time for values education. In addition, teacher-training colleges are also faced with:

- i. Indifference to the importance of values in teacher education;
- ii. Lack of skills to enable lecturers to acquire skills, knowledge and language that facilitates values development;
- iii. Inability to prioritize values in the PTE curriculum;
- iv. Inadequate skills to integrate values in the teaching and learning processes; and
- v. Minimal attention given to inculcation of values in teacher education.

Planning for primary teacher education therefore seems to be of secondary importance. The Taskforce on the Re-alignment of Education Sector to the Constitution of Kenya 2010 recommends that "the current teacher curriculum has to be reviewed and incorporate emotional, ethical, moral, value, skill and attitude development" (Republic of Kenya, 2014, p. 246). Without skills and knowledge on values, it will be difficult for lecturers in PTTC to model specific values to teacher trainees. A study carried out in South Africa on teachers' experience in the implementation of values in

schools identifies a gap between education policy makers' intentions and teachers' understandings in implementation of values in education (Ferreira & Schulze, 2014). Consequently, there is a gap between the intentions of policy to have educators inculcate specific values in students and the capacity of teachers to actualize the same in Africa. This is an area that deserves attention by education planners.

### **Approaches Used by Lecturers to Inculcate Values in Teacher Trainees**

Teacher trainers require skills, competency, right attitudes, language and interest that will enable them to develop values in teacher trainees. In Finland, teacher education is offered at university level and institutions decide on the content of the curriculum independently (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2014).

The universities focus on preparing teachers with “high degree of pedagogical competency and a wide professional role because student learning is often connected to their attitudes, self-efficiency and values... as well as an ethical commitment to the profession” (Niemi, 2015, p. 281). To maintain this high pedagogical competency, teachers have to undertake a three days mandatory in-service training yearly. In addition, teachers have to participate in various school-based professional development capacity building projects. It can be argued that much of the preparation of teacher educators is through professional development.

In Singapore, the National Institute of Education developed in 2004 a Values, Skills and Knowledge framework (VSK) intending to measure values, skills and knowledge that trainees develop during the initial teacher education (Chong & Cheah, 2009). The framework articulates specific values namely, “inquiry, innovation, reflection, mutual respect, personal connection, collaboration and community as the desired values” (Chong & Cheah, 2009, p. 2). However, the framework falls short of explaining how teacher educators are prepared for the role of values education. On the other hand, Uganda has unique inservice courses namely Certificate in Teacher Education Proficiency (C-TEP) and Certificate in Proficiency in Teaching designed to enhance teachers and tutors with pedagogy (Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports, 2014). Such courses are developed to work with children to become responsible citizens. However, it is not clear whether these inservice courses have a values component.

As Wamahiu (2015) observes, though the goals of education in Kenya since pre-independence times include teaching of values, there is little research in Kenya to examine the extent to which values have been integrated in the teaching and learning process in teacher education. This is an indication of the gap between policy, planning and implementation of the same. Since teachers play a crucial role in values development teacher educators need to be fully equipped with knowledge and skills that promote values in teaching and the learning process. The question remains as how prepared teacher educators are to engage trainees in values development (Katitia, 2015).

Values are about moral character and are individually based. Therefore, continuous professional development may reflect on values as well as pedagogies that facilitate values development in teacher trainees. The rapidly evolving society requires teachers whose competence meets the demand of the social changes in order for education to contribute to the wellbeing of students. Education reforms need to adequately address professional development of lecturers in PTTC to enhance skills that will ensure all students make positive contribution in society. Such skills include the development of values that enable young people to deal with social issues that hinder access to education.

In the above discussion, initial primary teacher education seems to be well structured with clear knowledge and skills for the profession. However, with the exception of Uganda that has an initiative for preparing primary teacher educators for their role as trainers of teachers, there is limited literature on the values component in teacher education. Though teachers are critical in the success of any education system, preparation of PTTC lecturers in values education is not fully developed. For this to be realized, there is need to view pre-service teacher education as a process in achieving academic excellence integrated with values. This means applying pedagogical approaches and teaching practices that integrate values development in initial teacher education. As stated by the European Commission (2017), “teaching competencies, preparation and professional development should therefore be an integral part of policies to support teachers” (European Commission, 2017, p. 32). An integrated process that links all these aspects will give teacher trainees equal opportunities in education. Therefore, educational planners need to give adequate attention to professional development of teacher educators to enhance their skills, confidence and image as models of value education to teacher trainees.

### **IMPLICATIONS FOR LECTURERS OF TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES**

This paper has the following implications on the role of lecturers in PTTCs in development of values in teacher trainees in Kenya. First, educational planners and policy makers need to develop guidelines for preparing lecturers for their role as educators of teacher trainees. These guidelines should have objectives that are values specific. Second, professional development of lecturers should be given consideration by educational planners so that lecturers can continuously enhance their skills in values development. Third, a mechanism should be established between PTTCs and primary schools so that lecturers are able to evaluate whether their graduates are practising values as stated in the curriculum. Finally, the management of primary teacher training colleges should work closely with the lecturers to create an environment that gives trainees the opportunity to practice values learned in college.

### **CONCLUSION**

The paper has explored the importance of PTTCs lecturers’ preparedness in facilitating values education. Whilst this need has been stated in numerous studies, planning for and preparation of lecturers for the same is not clearly developed. The paper also notes that lecturers need skills in teaching approaches that help them to integrate values such as respect, care, empathy, tolerance and cooperation in the teaching and learning process. In addition, the place of role modelling as a strategy of inculcation of values in learners is underscored. In addition, it was noted that lecturers have inadequate pedagogical skills that may limit their involvement in values development in teacher trainees. Besides, all the lecturers need to appreciate that the values they hold determine their actions in and out of class.

Therefore, education curriculum of primary school teachers needs to address the gap between policies on value-based education, education planning and implementation. Consequently, lecturers may need professional training to translate policy into action so that values do not just remain as a policy, but also are taught and lived from the initial teacher education level. Hence, the issue of PTTCs lecturers’ preparedness in values development remains elusive. It also has implications on the quality of teacher education, thus need further investigation.

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