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An Examination of Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Influence of Student
Achievement and Stake-holders Perception

By

ANDRE E. STOUT


A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment

Of the requirements for the degree of


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Approved by 

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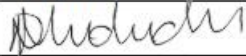


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Table of Contents

Chapter 1	2
Purpose of the Study	10
Research Questions	11
Research Design	13
Definitions	14
Chapter 2	15
Literature Review	15
Brief History of an Oppressive Educational System.....	16
The origin of Transformative Leadership Studies.....	20
Introduction of Transformational Leadership to Education	39
Transformational Leadership in Education (2015-2021)	46
Culturally Competent Leadership Integration with Transformational Leadership	55
Culturally Competent Assessment Tools	60
Adaptive vs Technical Leadership	61
Social Justice Educational Leadership	63
Turnaround Principals	69
Effective School Leadership	74
Conclusion.....	80
Chapter 3	81
Research Questions	81
Research Design	83
Participants	84

Instruments/Measurement Tools	86
MLQ-5 Reliability and Validity	86
CCSAQ Reliability and Validity.....	89
Data Collection.....	90
Data Analysis	91
Chapter 4.....	93
Results	93
Correlation Analysis.....	95
Demographic Survey Results (CCTLQ).....	101
Descriptive Analysis	103
Chapter 5.....	111
Research Problem.....	111
Methodology	113
Summary Results.....	114
Discussion	117
Limitations	123
Implications.....	127
<i>Idealized Influence Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional Leadership:</i>	132
<i>Inspiration/Motivation Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional Leaders</i>	133
<i>Intellectual Stimulation Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional</i> <i>Leadership:</i>	134

Individual Consideration Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional Leadership 134

Conclusion..... 136

References..... 138

List of Tables

Table 1: South Puget Sound School District Demographics by Race 2005	7
Table 2: South Puget Sound School Districts Demographics by Race 2019.....	8
Table 3: Abridged Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ).....	93
Table 4: The Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire 5x Short for Leaders (MLQ 5x).....	94
Table 5: Pearson 2-tailed Correlation Output for Cultural Competency and CEE Survey	96
Table 6: Pearson 1-tailed Correlation Output for Cultural Competency and CEE Survey	97
Table 7: SPSS Case Processing Summary for Culturally Competency and CEE Survey	98
Table 8: SPSS Correlation for Students in Achievement Gap Math & ELA Scores and Transformational Leadership	100
Table 9: Correlation for Students in Achievement Gap Math Scores and Transformational Leaders	101
Table 10: SPSS Correlation for Students in Achievement Gap ELA Scores and Transformational Leaders	101
Table 11: Principals by Experience 10 Years or Less/11 Years or More and by Gender (Female/Male).....	103
Table 12: Independent Sample t-test for Transformational Leadership Between Genders	104
Table 13: Independent Sample t-test for Transformational Leadership and Principals Experience	105
Table 14: Independent-samples t-test of 4 Transformational Leadership Constructs for Gender	106
Table 15: Independent-Samples T-test for Years of Experience and Culturally Competency ...	108
Table 16: Independent-Samples T-test Administrator Gender and Culturally Competency	109

Table 17: Components of Diverse School Leadership Framework Based on Transformational Leadership Constructs.....	130
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List of Appendices

Appendix A: MLQ 5x-Short.....	151
Appendix B: Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire.....	153
Appendix C: PHRP Cert	156
Appendix D: SPU Consent Form.....	157
Appendix E: Completed District Request to Participate Application.....	159
Appendix F: Jacqueline Jordan Irvine Nine Strategies.....	165
Appendix G: Banks Essential Multicultural Principles	166
Appendix H: Johnson CRSL Common Practices	167

Abstract

This research consists of a non-experimental, descriptive and correlation research design to analyze the relationship between principals' leadership style as well as principal cultural competency and their impact on student achievement and stake-holders perception. The study took place in the South Puget Sound region of Washington state in one of the fastest growing areas in the U.S. The researcher investigated the impact of transformational leadership in education based on research that posited that transformational leaders inspired and motivated followers to exceed performance expectation and commitment to a shared goal (Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978;). The study relied heavily on prior educational studies that indicated that transformation leadership was the most effective and successful leadership model for school reform and school improvement. The study also investigated education leaders' culturally competency and the significance of the appreciating individuals' communities, ethnic cultures and family traditions to provide optimal educational experiences (Arthur et al, 2005). The study investigated the overall impact of school leadership through the lens of concurrent use of transformational leadership and culturally competent leadership and their influence of student academic achievement and stake-holders perception. The study concluded with practical implication for a proposal for a new leadership framework titled, *The Diverse School Leadership*.

Chapter 1

The injustice for African Americans in the U.S. public educational system can be traced back to the late 19th century. In 1892, Francis Bellamy was ordered by the state superintendents of education to omit the word equality from the original Pledge of Allegiance because they opposed equality for African Americans (Spring, 2016). Four years later, the U.S. Supreme Court reinforced the racial injustice by legalizing segregated schools in the famous Plessy v. Ferguson case of 1896 (Spring, 2016). The Plessy v. Ferguson case also known as the “Separate but Equal Doctrine” launched one of the most brutal periods in America’s history for Black Americans known as Jim Crow South where African American students attended schools that were nothing more than one room shacks. The “Separate but Equal Doctrine” was overturned by the U.S. Supreme Court in the 1954 Brown v. Board case. Justices in the 1954 case stated that regardless of equal facilities that racially segregated schools were constitutionally unequal (Spring, 2016). The all-white judges’ decision provided the impetus for the 1960 civil rights movement that would eventually desegregate school in the Southern states of America.

Justice Warren who presided over the Brown decision noted that all members of the Supreme Court agreed that segregation had no place in education. (Apple, 1996). The highest court in the U.S. made a decision that was meant to positively change the trajectory of education for Black students. The Brown decision started a slow process of desegregating public schools in noncompliant school districts across the South. A process that was hindered by the Judges’ ambiguous timeline of “with deliberate speed” which Southern states’ leaders simply ignored or interpreted as “go slow” (Sitkoff, 1993). With

the deliberate speed language and a president of the United States, Eisenhower, who did not support desegregation, the efforts to desegregate U.S. public practically stalled. By 1964, only two percent of Blacks in the South attended desegregated schools (Sitkoff, 1993).

In the 1963, Lyndon B. Johnson accepted the role of President of the United States after the assassination of President John F. Kennedy. President Johnson a former educator who taught students who lived in poverty understood the academic struggles and challenges for students living in poverty (Freidel & Sidey, 2006). In Johnson's Great Society, objectives for congress featured education reform, renewal of cities, and reducing poverty. In 1965, Lyndon B. Johnson established the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 that supplemented schools that enrolled large percentages of high-poverty students with federal funding in an attempt to address issues caused by poverty (Freidel & Sidey, 2006). Education scholars introduced social justice educational theory, multicultural educational theory, and critical educational theory in the United States to address schools and societies that were riddled with social injustices (Ayers et al., 2009). The impetus for alternative theoretical approaches to education centered on replacing a one-sided educational system where middle-class whites' traditions and values dominated educational policies, curriculum designs, and instructional practices resulting in an achievement gap for minority students that remains decades after the Brown decision.

Banks (2002) introduced multicultural education theory in the late 60s at the University of Washington to counter the hegemonic educational practices. Multicultural education theory focused on methods to teach a growing diverse population that created new challenges for educators in traditionally segregated public schools (2002). The

persistent achievement gap forced educators to examine instructional and pedagogical practices that needed to be fundamentally improved to educate U.S. multicultural student population. Multicultural education provides some proven instructional strategies and pedagogy options. Several alternative approaches were introduced to create more equitable and culturally competent instructional practices: Cultural relevance pedagogy focused on engaging students by infusing aspects their cultural into the curriculum and instructional practices (Ladson-Billing, 1994). Culturally responsive pedagogy considered students lived and learned experiences to engage students in lesson that are relevant to them (Hines, 2017). Equity Pedagogy incorporated a variety of strategies to enhance academic achievement by intentionally identifying and breaking down obstacles that creates inequities for students from diverse racial and ethnical social groups (Banks, 2002). Instead of consistently teaching about the values, ideologies, and traditions of the dominant group, educators created lessons that were relevant to the students in their classrooms. The awareness that a diverse style of teaching was needed to effectively teach Black students can be traced back to the 1930s. Woodson (1933), professed in the 1930s that an education based on the traditions, accomplishments, and experiences of the White race would be the “miseducation of the Negro.”

Herein, however, lies no argument for the oft-heard contention that education for the white man should mean one thing and for the Negro a different thing. The element of race does not enter here. It is merely a matter of exercising common sense in approaching people through their environment to deal with conditions as they are rather than as you would like to see them or imagine that

they are. There may be a difference in method of attack, but the principle remains the same (Woodson, 1933 p. XI).

Woodson knew decades before those alternative approaches were introduced that being knowledgeable of Black students' background and using that knowledge to design instructional offerings for Black students was essential in educating them.

United States public schools transition into an educational accountability system based on results from high-stakes assessments in the 1980s to respond to *A Nation at Risk* (Hamilton et al., 2002). By the 2000s, high stakes testing became the norm in the United States. The results from three decades of high-stakes assessments revealed a glaring achievement gap between Black, Hispanic, and low-income students compared to White and Asian students. The disparity in academic achievement that persisted despite the 1980 Educational Reform and the academic accountability systems was quantified and publicized with the publication of states' academic achievement results.

Over the course of the last twenty years, educational researchers have conducted hundreds of studies and meta-analyses on factors to close the achievement gap (Hattie, 2008; Hattie et al., 2006; Marzano, 2003; Marzano et al., 2000; Schmoker, 2006). Marzano (2003) compared school level factors from five different studies conducted since the 70s, all five studies identified school-level leadership as a positive factor for effective schools.

Principals help schools succeed not when they are flashy superstars, but when they stay focused on student success. They manage the school improvement process by being neither too rigid nor too flexible – and do so largely with what they have. They make no excuses for their school's zip code, ambivalent parents,

or their inability to replace teachers. They keep pushing ahead, no matter what the roadblocks (Waits et al., 2006, p. 7).

There were numerous studies conducted on the effect of school leadership and student achievement. Researchers were interested in principals' direct and indirect effect on student achievement and school culture and climate. For example, one study indicated that effective leadership has an effect size of 0.25 (Waters et al., 2004). In their study, they indicated that a 0.25 effective size would translate to 10 percentage point or higher on school achievement data. On an average an effective principal moved student achievement from the 50th percentile to the 60th percentile. In some studies, the effect size was 0.50 which moved student achievement from 50th percentile to the 69th percentile (Waters et al., 2003).

In the current study, cultural competency leadership and transformative leadership was investigated for these leadership styles and behaviors impact on student academic achievement and stakeholders' perception. The targeted participants for the study were principals at public schools in the South Puget Sound Region of Washington State. The South Puget Sound region of Washington State and specifically Pierce County with its close proximity to Joint Lewis McCord Army Base experienced some of the fastest population growth in the country. According to the US Census (2018) estimates, Washington state was the third fastest growing state behind Nevada and Idaho. Pierce County increased from 704,182 in 2000 to 904,980 in 2019. Since 2015, Pierce County has experienced an average increase in population of 17,500 per year compared to an average of 8,250 per year the previous five years. Based on those numbers, Pierce County ranked second for numeric growth in Washington State behind King County which had

the highest population increase in Washington State, according to US Census (2018) estimates. With this population growth, school districts faced new stressors related to growing diversity in the student population. Tacoma’s students who identified as “two or more races” increased from 6% to 16% during the six-year period from 2014/15 to 2019-20. During those same years, Federal Way Public Schools’ Hispanic students grew from 27% to 32% while the White student decreased from 32% to 24%. Since the mid-2000s, school districts across Western Washington have experienced an influx of diversity among its student population. Demographic data from the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) illustrated that districts all around South Puget Sound experienced rapid demographic shifts from 2005 to 2019. The data in Table 1 and Table 2 showed that students with “two or more races” and Hispanic students were the two fastest growing groups of students while White students’ enrollment were rapidly decreasing.

Table 1

South Puget Sound School District Demographics by Race 2005

	Race	Whites	Asians	Hispanics	Blacks	2/more races
Districts	n	%	%	%	%	%
Federal Way	22,609	55	16	13	14	0.45
Kent	27,293	61	15	9	10	1.7
North Thurston	13,115	66	13	8	9	0.7
Renton	13,236	45	22	12	18	0.0
Tacoma	31,948	51	12	10	22	0.0

Table 2*South Puget Sound School Districts Demographics by Race 2019*

Districts	Race	Whites	Asians	Hispanics	Blacks	2/more races
	n	%	%	%	%	%
Federal Way	23,300	24	12	32	15	11
Kent	27,300	31	20	23	13	10
North Thurston	15,600	48	7	21	5	15
Renton	16,000	25	24	25	14	10
Tacoma	30,000	37	9	21	13	16

Those districts had similar academic achievement results: Asian and White students outperformed Black, Hispanic, and low-income students. For example, in Federal Way Public Schools (FWPS) 53% Asian and White students met math standards as measured by the Smarter Balance Assessment (SBA) compared to 22% of Black and Hispanic students. Tacoma Public Schools (TPS), the largest district in this study achievement data mirrored FWPS data with 51% of Asian and White students met standard on the SBA in math compared to only 23% Black and Hispanic students. Poverty was also a factor in these results. According to federal free and reduced data that indicated poverty levels in schools and school districts released by OSPI, 67% of Federal Way, 61% of Tacoma, 55% of Kent, 51% of Renton, and 46% of North Thurston students lived in poverty (OSPI, 2019).

As diversity increased, the achievement gap amongst Black, Hispanic and students living in poverty increased also. According to OSPI (2018) report card data,

Black, Hispanic and low-income students academically trailed White and Asian students in proficiency by an average of 20% in core subject areas. State achievement results showed that 28% to 38% of Black, Hispanic and low-income students met standards in Math and 37% to 44% met standards in English Language Arts, while Asian and White students met standards in math at a rate of 59% to 73% and in English Language Arts, they met standards at a rate of 68% to 77%. Public school leaders in South King and Pierce County find it to be constant challenge educating Black, Hispanic and low-income students.

There were numerous reasons for the subpar academic performance of minority and low-income students in South Puget Sound area of Washington State. According to New York state universities and public-school leaders diversifying the staff positively impacted the academic achievement of historically marginalized students (The Educational Trust, 2017). Washington State's lack of diversity could be an issue based on unfamiliarity of student and teacher cultures causing "cultural collisions" which can be defined as the Black popular culture of African American urban youth and its subsequent intersection with the culture found in public schools (Beachum and McCray, 2004). While the number of teachers in Washington state has increased by approximately 11,000 from 2000 to 2017, the racial and ethnic diversity of the teachers' workforce made minimal gains (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2017). According to the NCES (2017), 94% of teachers in Washington state were White. In 2011, Washington State had 55,000 teachers, 87% white, 4% Hispanic, 4% Asian and Blacks did not have enough to meet the standards for reporting. During the 2015-16 school year 90% of the teachers were White (McFarland et al., 2017). There was a slight increase in diversity of

the teaching workforce, but it was concentrated among the Hispanic teachers who went from 1.7% of the workforce to 3.9% and Asian/Pacific Islanders/Native Hawaiian teacher who went from 2.0% to 2.8% while the proportion of Black teachers declined from 1.6% to 1.2% during the same period. With over 90% of the staff white and over 60% of student's non-white, there was a substantial cultural divide.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine and describe transformative leadership components and cultural competencies in relationship to school leadership to provide methods for school leaders to positively impact academic achievement for all students regardless of race or social economic status and regardless of teacher's race. The goal was to identify leadership models that will assist principals in transforming their staff instructional practices, classroom management practices and curriculum choices to meet the academic and social emotional needs of students who do not look like them, live like them, and were not raised like them. The researcher closely examined the leadership traits of transformational leadership and the components of culturally responsive school leadership. The researcher combined two existing psychometrically sound questionnaires, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Mind Garden, 2021) and Culturally Competent Self-Assessment Scale (CCSAS) (Mason, 1995) to create a new tool to measure traits of transformational leadership and components of culturally responsive school leadership. The combination of the measuring tool was titled Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (CCTLQ) for this study. The researcher compared the results from the CCTLQ with the results from participating principals' schools' OSPI report card for academic achievement by student demographic.

Schools in Washington State receive a building wide OSPI report card every year that reports enrollment, student academic performance, graduation rates, student growth and student discipline to name a few. The researcher examined assessment of the following demographic groups: Black, Hispanic, and low-income students for association with principal's leadership style. The researcher used the results from OSPI report card, Center for Excellence in Education (2018) (CEE) data, and results from the CCTLQ to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship with students' academic performance and how principal's rate themselves. The researcher also used the results from CCTLQ to determine if there was a statistically significant mean difference between administrators with 10 years or less experience compared to administrators with 11 years or more experience. Gay (1995) and Ladson-Billings (1995) noted that culturally relevant and culturally responsive pedagogies originated in the mid-70s focusing on teacher practices, but Khalifa et al. (2016) posited that culturally responsive leadership was a new phenomenon with most of the literature on the topic written since the beginning of the new millennium. The impetus for examining the experience factor was to determine if administrators with less than 10 years of experience training in their leadership preparation program reflected a change program which would results in better scores on the culturally responsive leadership components of CCTTLQ.

Research Questions

The following research questions and the hypothesizes were answered and addressed in Chapter 4 of this study.

Research Question 1: Will there be a positive correlation between administrators results on the CCTLQ investigating cultural competency and principal's perception result from their CEE climate survey?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLQ and the results of their CEE perception survey.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLQ and the results of their CEE perception survey.

Research Question 2: Will there be a positive correlation between administrators results on the CCTLQ investigating leadership style and cultural competency and their school OSPI academic report card for student assessment?

Null Hypothesis: There are no significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLQ and their OSPI academic report card for student assessment.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a significant positive relationship between administrators scores on the CCTLQ and their OSPI academic report card for student assessment.

Research Question 3: Will there be a statistically significant difference in mean scores on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ based on gender?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant means difference between male or female results on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a significant means difference between male and female results on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ.

Research Question 4: Will there be a statistically significant difference in mean scores on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ based on years of experience?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant means difference between survey participants years of experience results on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a significant means difference between participants years of experience results on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ.

Research Design

The research questions in this study called for a descriptive research design and correlation research design that used quantitative methodology. For the first question the researcher determined if there was an association with leadership style and cultural competency and CEE perception survey results. A correlation method was used to determine the extent to which two variables, leadership style and cultural competency were related to perception results. The second question required the researcher to determine if there was an association with the same two variables, leadership style and cultural competency and the participants' OSPI building report card. That question had to be analyzed with a correlation research design using quantitative methodology. To measure the association, the researcher conducted a Pearson's product-moment correlation to determine the strength of the relationship. Pearson correlation coefficient is symbolized with a r . The value of r ranged for +1.00 which meant there is a strong perfect relationship to -1.00 which indicated a strong negative relationship and a zero is

no relationship (Crowl, 1996). The third question required the researcher to determine if there was a mean difference between female and male administrator's leadership styles. For this question the researcher ran a series of independent-samples t-test to determine if there was a statistically significant difference means difference between female and male results on the CCTLQ.

Definitions

Culturally Competent Leadership is a leadership model that is attributed to the recognition and response to cultural concerns of ethnic and racial groups, including their histories, traditions, beliefs, and value systems (Khalifa et al., 2016).

Transformative Leadership is a leadership model that is attributed to leaders who engage followers in a manner that elevates the followers' level of performance by intrinsically motivational practices (Burns, 1978).

Transactional Leadership is model that is attributed to leaders who take the initiative to offer benefits to followers in exchange for performance or service (Burns, 1978).

Social Justice Leadership is a model that is attributed to leaders who lead with a focus on social mobility, social fairness, and social justice (Kowalchuk, 2019).

Turnaround School Leadership is leadership model attributed to school leaders who were able to make extraordinary academic achievement at historically low performing schools (Hitt, 2019).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

In Chapter Two, the theoretical constructs of culturally competent leadership and transformative leadership were examined and discussed through a literature review that supported answering the current study research questions. The scholarly articles featured in this literature review were located on Google Scholar, JSTOR, ProQuest, ProQuest Dissertation, SPU Open Dissertation, SAGE, and ERIC. The researcher conducted a search methodology directed at locating articles on transformative leadership in general from 1980 to 2000 to a narrowed search of transformational leadership in educational leadership from 2000 to 2021. The 1980 starting point coincided with the Burns' (1978) introduction of transformational leadership as well as the 1980 Educational Reform. Some of the key search terms used were transformative leadership, school leadership, transformational school leadership, effective school leadership, successful school leadership, culturally competent school leadership, culturally responsive school leadership, turnaround school leadership, and urban school leadership. An extensive history of transformational leadership articles was included to illustrate why it became the highly recommended by educators and business leaders. Transformational leadership was also highly featured because educational researchers postulated that this particular leadership model stood as the foundation for educational leadership models like instructional, social justice, and culturally competent leadership (Hallinger, 2003, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2008, 2019; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008). The remaining sections included the most recent articles from 2015 to 2021 regarding transformational school leadership and culturally competent school leadership. This literature review included

qualitative and quantitative research articles as well as scholarly literature reviews. The articles in this literature review all provided support to answer the current study research questions.

Brief History of an Oppressive Educational System

It seemed that educators in United States public schools have been attempting to close the achievement gap or going through some form of reform since Black students enrolled in desegregated public schools. Starting at the national and federal level the Elementary Secondary Educational Act of 1965 (ESEA) initiated efforts at closing the achievement gap. In a study 15 years after ESEA, The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) published *A Nation at Risk* that spurred the educational reform of the 1980s (Hamilton, 2002). *A Nation at Risk* clearly showed that American students were lacking basic academic skills and were falling behind other nations. To address the subpar performance of American students in comparison to other nations, the 1980s educational reform placed an emphasis on testing to standards (Hamilton, 2002). By 2001, the Elementary Secondary Educational Act of 1965 (ESEA) was revised with No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and high-stake testing became the norm. In what Spring (2016), suggested as purely politicians overstepping their boundaries by creating educational goals, the National Governors Association adopted the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). Today, results from assessment aligned to Common Core State Standards (CCSS) show a growing achievement gap between Black, Hispanic, and low-income students in comparison to White and Asian students. In the United States of America, nationally adopted standards aligned to high-stakes assessments had shown the negative results of public education for historically marginalized students' academic

achievement creating a necessity for more effective approaches to teaching, assessing, and leading Black, Hispanic, and low-income students.

Over the course of the last twenty years, educational researchers have conducted numerous studies and meta-analyses on factors to close the achievement gap (Hattie, 2006, 2008; Marzano, 2003; Marzano et al., 2001; Schmoker, 2006). Marzano (2003) conducted a side-by-side comparison of five studies of the most important elements of public schools; all five studies include school leadership as one of those most important elements. According to the results of a meta-analysis, principals had the desired effective size of 0.39 for impact on student achievement which is a one-year growth rate (Fisher et al., 2017). Fisher et al., (2017) posited that desired effect can ensure that a student will gain a year worth of growth with an effective principal. Leithwood et al., (2004) ranked principals second only to teachers for level of positive impact on student learning.

First and foremost, it is important to understand the historical events and traditions that has created the inequalities in public education, or we will continue conducting business as usual. Howard (1999) mentioned how he learned about his own privilege working with students in an urban school when the reminded him that he lived around Black folks by choice and that he could always go back to his White neighborhood and anywhere else he wanted to go. He realized he possessed a privilege that was not available to his students and their parents. Educators from the dominant group can be compared to “fish immersed in the normalcy of water without a clue they are swimming in the medium of their own dominance” (Howard, 1999, p. 47). Howard realized that it was not just him but most White educator did not realize the privileges they possessed. The term hegemony is used to describe a society that is dominated by the

culture of a dominant-group and USA is a perfect example of a hegemonic society. McLaren (1989) referred to hegemony as the moral and intellectual leadership of a dominant-class over a subordinate class achieved not through coercion or the willful construction of rules and regulations, but rather through the general winning of consent of the subordinate class to the authority of the dominant-class. According to Apple (1996), hegemony was a consistent struggle by the dominant group to maintain control of the delivery of knowledge and preserving status-quo in institution and society. Culturally competent school leaders understood the historical impact of White middle-class traditions and norms dominance over public education and the negative effect it had on minority and low-income students.

United States policies, systems, and institutions maintained the traditions, cultures and ideologies of the dominant group, middle class white. The United States public educational system had negatively impacted millions of minoritized students especially African Americans. The dream of Horace Mann that public education would be the social balance wheel was a legend that is all but dead (Greene & Giffore, 1978). Hegemonic education practices have created substantial barriers for obtaining social justice. The common theme to hegemonic institutions and systems was they are not imposed or forced on anyone; most citizens of subordinate groups actively participate in the systems as was the case with the U.S. educational system. Apple (1996) argued that education played a larger role in maintaining the foundation of a hegemonic society by reproducing a hierarchy social order where class, gender and race determined one place in society instead of one merit. When looking at the academic achievement of minority students, American public schools perpetrated a social caste system.

To have empathy for students who have historically been marginalized required a comprehensive understanding of their educational history. It is imperative that school staff and leadership knows the upward mobility for minorities is very limited with very few minority students moving out of the conditions their parents resided. Jencks (1978) documented the disparity between education for students from upper middle-class home compared to students from backgrounds of poverty when he postulated that the education of black students was so inferior to white students that graduating from high school offers very little if any societal benefits. Success was so rare for minority and low-income students that it was a cause for celebration in families and sometime entire communities. According to Apple (1996), educational practices legitimized hegemony society by maintaining middle-class white traditions that dominated the field of education and recreated society inequalities. Public schools needed leaders who will face the challenge to break the trends of reproductivity of a failed educational system. The negative trends will continue under traditional school leadership. Greene and Giffore (1978) posited that it took civil right leaders like Dr. King marching in the street of Jim Crow south just to get it acknowledged that segregated public education provided hopelessness and despair for black communities. It will take culturally competent educators especially principals to break the cycle of injustice and inequalities in public education. Greene and Giffore (1978) made those comments about 40 years ago and the sad truth is they are relevant today. We are in a new millennium and schools are still segregated and the exploited and hopeless are still hopeless and exploited. It took a herculean effort to get this far, and it will take an even more herculean effort to gain real equality in public schools (Green & Giffore 1978).

The origin of Transformative Leadership Studies

Transformational and transactional leadership were introduced as leadership models on two ends of the leadership spectrum (Burns, 1978). According to Burns transformational leadership methods would assist leaders in cultivating cultures of shared purpose and goal and an elevated sense of ownership by all eradicating top-down leadership. Burns identified transactional leadership as the less complicated form of leadership that was based on providing incentives for effort. Whereas transformational leadership was based on building relationships, providing motivation, and inspiring followers to exceed performance expectations. In addition, transforming leaders worked from a strength-based approach elevating followers to their full potential. Burns (1978) posited that transformational leaders inspire and motivate followers to do more than they ever thought they could do to take their performance and commitment to higher levels. Bass (1985a) expanded on and strengthened Burn's (1978) theory by operationally defining the constructs of transformational leadership in a series of studies and factor analysis involving participants from public and private entities. Burns' (1978) seminal work centered on global political leaders. Transformational leaders, in contrast to transactional leaders, were visionaries that possess a great deal of confidence in themselves and their ability to generate synergy among their followers to reach a shared goal (Bass, 1985a).

Bass (1985a) designed a study to identify the constructs of transformational leadership and transactional leadership and the impact each leadership model had on followers. There was a delineation made between the two leadership models as he classified transactional leadership as a low-level type of leadership compared to the more

intricated transformational model (1985a). Bass (1985a) acknowledged that Burns (1978) initially juxtaposition of transactional and transformative leadership was the impetus for why he investigated both in his study. Bass's first pilot study investigated transformational leadership model included a major transactional leadership construct, contingent reward. Transformational leadership was at the theoretical stage and was not aligned to the four constructs that will eventually be identified through series of studies and factor analysis, whereas transactional leadership was aligned to the operational defined factor of contingent rewards (1985).

To initiate his investigation, Bass provided 70 senior executives a definition of transformational leadership:

A transformational leader was described to the executives as someone who raised their awareness about issues of consequences, shifted them to higher-levels needs, and influenced them to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group or organization and to work harder than originally had expected they wo (Bass, 1985, p. 29).

He asked them to note characteristics of leaders they previously worked under who displayed traits from the definition he provided. With the feedback from the 70 executives, a 73 questions leadership questionnaire was created. A principal component factor analysis was conducted using data from 104 military officers and an additional 72 senior military officers (1985). After conducting a series of factor analysis, five factors emerged: charismatic leadership, contingent reward, individualized consideration, management by exception, and intellectual stimulation. Two factors aligned with transactional leadership and three aligned with transformational leadership. The two

transactional leadership factors of contingent reward and management by exception were predictable because there were years of research investigating transactional leadership (Burns, 1978). The three transformational leadership factors were charismatic leadership, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation (1985). The entire five factors are the initial items pool for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Mind Garden, 2021), a survey that has become widely used in transformational leadership studies (Bass, 1985). In future studies in this review, the MLQ will be used, critiqued, and modified with the three key transformational leadership factors standing the test of time.

The charismatic leadership construct drew criticism from Rutan and Rice (1981) who cautioned of the harm associated with charismatic leaders like Hitler or Jim Jones the cult leader. Rutan and Rice believed the charismatic leaders' followers fall into a cult like obsession with their leader and follow them without question. They further postulated that followers of charismatic leaders tend to invest so emotionally that it resembles one of a parent and child. Charismatic leaders' self-confidence tends to resemble arrogance, and there appears to be a lack of value for others (Rutan & Rice, 1981). This article is included because it countered or criticized Burns' (1978) theory of charismatic leadership. Burns (1978) positively viewed charismatic leadership and praised John F. Kennedy and Martin L. King for that aspect of their leadership. Rutan and Rice (1981) suggested that Burns political point of view of charismatic leaders was shared in the 1950s and appeared to disregard his assessment of charismatic leaders. Burns (1978) highlighted the incredible positive charismatic leaders like Moses, Gandhi, Martin L. King, and John F. Kennedy who created positive social and political change. Burn (1978) postulated that great leaders know how to balance charismatic leadership

and ideological perspectives to bring positive social change. In Bass's MLQ, charismatic leadership is clearly one of the factors of transformational leadership. However, charismatic leadership is replaced after multiple factor analysis and revision of the MLQ questionnaire.

Bass et al. (1987) conducted a study to examine the transformational leadership of two levels of management. For their study, they defined transformational leadership as the extent in which a leader displays charisma, the individual attention to followers and their ability to intellectually inspire their followers (Bass et al., 1987). They identified three constructs of transformational leadership: charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. As with most early transformational leadership studies, constructs of transactional leadership were also examined (Avolio & Bass, 1988, Avolio et al., 1999; Bass et al., 1987). The purpose of the study was to determine if transformational leadership as well as transactional leadership creates a domino or cascading effect on their followers. An example of cascading or domino effect was when followers started to emulate characteristics of their leader (1987). Bass, Waldman, Avolio, and Bebb (1987) identified that there was a cascading effect from followers of leaders who displayed transformational leadership behaviors. Transformational leadership behaviors were observed at both levels of management, and the superior manager behaviors were emulated by the lower-level managers (1987). On another note, they determined that transactional leadership does not produce a statistically significant domino or cascading effect. There is no guarantee that a leader who receives performance rewards has the capability or the authority to reward their followers (1987). Transformational leader

aligned the needs of their followers with their own by taking personal interest in their followers which created a union for shared goals and objectives (1987).

Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) looked at transformational leadership from a constructive/developmental perspective. They made the claim that Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) failed to consider the internal processes that moves a leader to use transactional or transformational leadership. They further postulated that professional growth in leaders leads to their ability to look at things from different perspective. They assumed that leaders with more experience in a particular field would be better at motivating their followers than leaders with less experience or development (1987). They questioned whether leaders can motivate followers who are at a higher developmental level than their leaders. This study aligned with one of the current study research questions regarding age and culturally competent and transformative leadership. They suggested that experienced leaders would be more transformational while less experienced leaders are more transactional (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987).

Hater and Bass (1988) conducted a study to compare transactional leadership to transformational leadership regarding followers' satisfaction. They also hypothesized that high performing managers will rate higher on transformational leadership factors than those identified as regular performing managers (19). This study was a replication of previous studies by Bass (1985) using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ): The 73 items questionnaire with three transformational leadership factors and two transactional leadership factors. Findings from numerous studies using the MLQ (Avolio & Bass 1998; Bass, 1985, Bass et al., 1987) indicated that Hater and Bass' (1988) model

for transformational leadership positively correlated with enhanced performance of followers of leaders who displayed transformational leadership behaviors.

The study was conducted in a US corporation that specialized in door-to-door and express air delivery and had seen rapid growth in its first 14 years of operation (Hater & Bass, 1988). They used first, second, and third level managers' last semiannual performance review with a Likert scale (*1 = weak to 7 = outstanding*). Managers with a rating of 6 or 7 were identified as the highest performers (1988). The managers identified as "ordinary managers" were randomly selected from managers who rating were lower than 6 or 7. There were 28 top performers and 26 ordinary managers who completed the study with no missing data points. They disclaimed in the introduction of the article that the small sample size of the study rendered them unable to confirm their hypothesis although the results were in the hypothesis direction (Hater & Bass, 1988). "In both samples, the correlations between the transformational leadership factors and subordinates' rating were high (.71 to .88, $p < .01$), whereas the correlations between the transactional factors and subordinates' rating were low to moderate (.10 to .34)" (Hater & Bass, 1988, p. 698). The data suggests that top performing managers with the high ratings were statistically significantly higher than the low rated ordinary managers on the factors of charismatic leadership and individualized consideration (1988). They concluded that this study mirrored the results of their previous studies. Followers of transformational leaders were more satisfied with their leader than followers of transactional leaders (1988). This study, like previous studies in this literature review, placed transformational leadership at the high-level of the leadership hierarchy. Hater and Bass (1988) further postulated that transformational leadership is more suited for an educated work force

because educated workers would be more accepting of the intellectual learning and the challenges of thinking of new ways to solve problems (Hater & Bass, 1988). They concluded that transformational leadership is better suited for educated work force aligned with the current study focus on educational leaders who lead educated work forces.

After five years of research focused on transformational leadership Bass (1990) proclaimed it to be the most effectively model and argues that through professional development leaders can obtain the techniques to become a transformational leader. He validated his proclamation when he stated that responses from multiple studies using the MLQ indicated followers, colleagues and employers were satisfied with leaders who displayed transformational leadership practices. Bass had conducted a decade of studies globally with business, religious, military, educational, and political leaders (1990).

With the results from a variety of studies, he proclaimed that transactional leadership would lead to average or middling results from followers (Bass, 1990). According to Bass (1990), transactional leaders maintain status quo because they took the stance of if it is not broken leave it alone. In contrast, transformational leaders inspired, motivated, elevated consciousness, and intellectually stimulated followers to perform at a level never previously expected. The results from numerous MLQ (Bass, 1990) surveys showed that transformational leaders were perceived by their colleagues, superiors, and employees as more effective leaders than transactional leaders (Bass, 1990). Companies' performance data, financial documents, and personal evaluation have high correlation with transformational leadership factors (Bass,1990).

Bass (1990) urged companies to train their leaders to use transformational leadership behaviors to elevate the performance of the entire company. He reinforced the domino and cascading effect of transformational leadership presented in an earlier study by him and colleagues by claiming that followers will emulate leaders who display transformational leadership behaviors (Bass, 1990). He suggested that businesses, both private and public led by transformational leaders recruited brighter and more intelligent candidates: their entire hiring processes were so impressive to prospects that they are attracted to work for those companies (Bass, 1990). Information in the article provides an in-depth review of approaches to training leaders and teaching transformational leadership with method based on subordinates pre and post MLQ surveys, workshops, and other professional development opportunities (Bass, 1990). Bass (1990) concluded the article by describing the limited environment where transactional leadership methods would be effective. However, when firms are faced with underperformance and in need of radical change, transformational leadership must be cultivated throughout the firm (Bass, 1990).

Since Burns (1978) introduced transformational leadership, decades of research, investigative studies and training in transformational leadership has transpired (Bass, 1999). Bass (1999) made the analogy that transformational leadership is something like what can I do for other whereas transactional leadership ask what can others do for me. The ever-changing work force and the changing economy demanded a need for transformational leadership to successfully address the demanding evolution of business (Bass, 1999). Bass tied the need for transformational leadership to a changing in belief systems from the 1950s to the 1990s. Children were raised to conform to authority and to

respect people in leadership positions. Children in the 1990s were raised to respect authority but they were also raised to ask why and not just simply comply and conform (Bass, 1999). Leaders now must earn trust and respect because it is not given. Bass (1999) posited that after 20 years of research, transformational leadership enhances commitment, involvement, loyalty, and performance of followers as well as reduces work anxiety of their followers. Some of those early studies also revealed that women were more transformational than their male counterpart (Bass, 1999). This theory or gender claim is investigated in the current study to determine if female principals' rate themselves as more transformational than male principals by hypothesizing that there would be a statistically significant means difference in female principals compared to male principals on the CCTLQ. The researcher reviewed cultural competency constructs later in this literature review. However, Bass (1999) connected the constructs of cultural competency with the constructs of transformational leadership and concluded that transformational leaders exhibited behaviors and practices that are better suited for a diverse group of followers.

Avolio and Bass (1998) conducted a field study to determine the impact of a leadership program focused on developing transformational leadership. The purpose of the training was to enhance leaders use of leadership styles that is considered the optimum level of leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1998). Avolio and Bass (1998) positioned transformational leadership at the upper end of the leadership range for several reasons that include its' multiple constructs and its' motivational qualities. Whereas, transactional leadership is positioned at the lower end of the leadership range because of its reliance on contingent reward (Avolio & Bass, 1998). However, the major practical implication was

not based on the enhancement of leaders' use of transformational leadership instead, the researchers learned more about sampling procedures to ensure participants completed future training program. The study design was a pre-test post-test with descriptive quantitative method. Out of 489 participants who were pre-assessed with the MLQ Form 5, only 66 completed the post test. After completing the pre-test, participants were asked to select at least one of the four transformational leadership constructs, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation to create a growth plan. After at least six months and no more than two years, the participants were administered a MLQ post-assessment. The MLQ scores were obtained from their followers and it was concluded that when leaders intentionally plan to use a transformational leadership practices significant gains appeared (Bass and Avolio, 1998). For example, the leaders who focused their plan on intellectual stimulation saw their mean score increase by 25 points which was statistically significant ($p < .02$) (Avolio & Bass, 1998).

Between the 1983 and 1993 longitudinal, field studies, behavior analysis, and laboratory experimental studies were conducted to analyze the effect of transformational leaders on subordinates and followers (Shamir et al., 1993). Roush and Atwater (1992) set out to identify personality types most likely to be transformational. They had three questions that were relevant to this review and the current research topic. They were interested in the degree to which student leaders at the U.S. Naval Academy were rated as transformation by their followers as well as themselves. They also wanted to identify leaders' behaviors related to followers exhibiting more effort by exceeding expectations, and the degree in which the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Roush & Atwater, 1992) a personality assessment could be used to rate individuals as transformational

(1992). Roush and Atwater (1992) created a modified version of Bass's (1985) Multifactor Level Questionnaire (MLQ) adapting it to military leadership and titled their survey the Multifactor Officer Questionnaire (MOQ) (Roush & Atwater, 1992). The 90 participants in this field study were midshipmen at the U.S. Naval Academy with at least 2 to three years at the academy and who were selected to lead and incoming class. The squad leaders had clear missions to assist in the transition from civilian to soldier, to teach them basic military skills and attitude, and prepare them for integration into the Brigade of Midshipmen (1992).

The followers and the leaders were administered the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) before they joined as leader and followers (Roush & Atwater, 1992). The MOQ was administered at the completion of the training to both the squad leaders and the followers who rated the squad leader leadership (Roush & Atwater, 1992). Scores on the MOQ (Roush & Atwater, 1992) were based on a five-point scale anchored by 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The results in this study showed statistical significance between the squad leaders' perception of themselves compared to how their followers perceived them as leaders. For example, followers average rating for charismatic, $M = 2.80$ whereas the squad leaders average self-rating was $M = 3.42$, with $p < .01$. Followers rated leaders much high for active management by exception which is the leadership style of reprimanding if quality of work does not meet expectations. Management by exception was the observed the most by the followers $M = 3.42$ and one of the most self-rated by the squad leaders $M = 3.30$ with a statistical significance of $p < .01$. Those results indicated that the followers' perception of their leaders aligned with how the leaders perceived themselves. Management by exception is associated with workers

dissatisfaction and contributed to the finding that leaders in that study consistently believed they were doing a better job than their followers perceived them to be doing (Roush & Atwater, 1992). Roush and Atwater (1992) attested the usual dichotomy with the structure of military with its rigid structure making it difficult for squad leaders to venture to far away from the routine. They suggested that military leaders are already viewed as leaders who make decisions based on established protocol (Roush & Atwater, 1992). Followers rated their leaders as charismatic in this study debunking the rigid and predictable leadership style previously associated with military leaders. The study also showed a moderate association with leaders' transformational behavior as charismatic leadership statistically significantly correlated with followers displaying extra effort ($r = .42, p < .01$) Another interesting finding in this study is that extraverts are no more transformational than introverts which was previously considered a prerequisite for leadership an assumption that should be challenged. Roush & Atwater (1992) recommended for expanding transformational training for military leadership to enhance performance especially since contingent reward and transactional leadership historically was the approach used in the military has limited success in enhancing job performance.

Roush and Atwater (1992) set out to demonstrate the usefulness of the MBTI in identifying personalities that reflect leadership behaviors. As stated earlier they debunked the stereotype that being an extravert is a prerequisite for leadership. Their study also replicated previous studies regarding transformational leadership providing further credence that transformational leadership has the potential to elevate followers' performance beyond expectation (Roush & Atwater, 1992).

Shamir et al. (1993) sought to address a problem they identified in first decade of research dedicated to transformational leadership. They claimed that at least 35 studies investigating transformational leadership had been conducted without explaining the process in which transformational effects are achieved. However, they did not dispute the finding from the decades of research indicating that charismatic leaders earned higher perception and performance rating from their followers as well as supervisors (1993). They validated the research findings positing that the effect size for charismatic leaders' behavior consistently is greater than effect sizes conducted in similar studies on other leaders' behaviors (1993). Their goal was to advance the understanding of this new phenomenon in leadership. They provided a self-concept-based theory on how charismatic leader motivate followers to exceed job performance expectation (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

Shamir et al., (1993) based their motivational theory on five assumptions: (1) Humans are not only pragmatic and goal-oriented but are also self-expressive. (2) People are motivated to maintain and enhance their self-esteem and self-worth. (3) People are also motivated to retain and increase their sense of self-consistency. (4) Self-concepts are composed, in part, of identities. (5) Humans may be motivated by faith (p. 580).

The motivational theory centered around four directional processes starting with leaders' behavior, motivational mechanism, effects on self-concept, ending with further effects (Shamir et al.,1993). They derived a list of transformational leaders' behaviors that demonstrate processes in which they motivate followers. One of their assumptions is that people are motivated by faith. Shamir et al., (1993) postulated that one of those

processes is instilling faith in a better future by placing emphasis on the intrinsic aspect of effort claiming followers will be internally motivated when faith is involved (Shamir et al., 1993). Another one of the processes, increasing effort-accomplishment expectancies aligned with transformational leadership construct individualized consideration by elevating follower self-esteem and self-worth (Shamir et al., 1993). Bass (1985) described the effect of individualized consideration and the negative impact for those who do not receive individualized consideration. Bass (1985) detailed how a manager treated her followers like an A and B team with the A team members receiving special treatment while the B team members were partially ignored. Members of the A team outperformed the B team members leading Bass (1985) to attest that the performance differences were directly related to one group receiving special treatment and favors.

Altogether Shamir et al., (1993) presented five behavior processes, two clearly aligned with Bass's (1985) transformational leadership constructs of motivational inspiration and individualized consideration. They presented a comprehensive outline of the motivational processes for charismatic leadership. Shamir et al., (1993) determined that certain conditions had to be in place for charismatic leadership to be effective. They also stated some generalizations: transformational leadership will flourish in technology industries and in organizations that resembled the overall society, transformational leadership is more suited for organization that does not adhere to contingent reward and exceptional leadership practices, and transformational leadership is ideal for challenging situation requiring major change (1993). Shamir et al., (1993) argued that the effects of

transformational leaders on their followers created high level of self-efficacy in their followers .

Heading into the new millennium researchers wanted more rigorous investigation into transformational leadership. Shamir et al. (1993) noted that 35 transformational leaders' studies had been conducted and only three used rigorous laboratory experimental method. Brown and Lord (1999) advocated for increased usage of experimental methods to analyze the effect of transformational leadership. They claimed that over 200 studies have been conducted and most were field studies. They contend that the representation of the effect of transformational leadership is biased and "somewhat puzzling given the benefits of experimental manipulation and the recognized benefits among organizational scholars of using multiple methods" (Brown & Lord, 1999, p. 531). They suggested that researchers of transformational leadership need be to more balance with their choice of methodologies (Brown & Lord, 1999). They speculated that there was a bias because of issues with external validity from previous experimental studies regarding transformational leadership . They reference four transformational experimental studies previously published in *Leadership Quarterly* and illustrates some of the external validity concerns. A study by Shea and Howell (1999) was highlighted by Brown and Lord (1999) with external validity concerns because the participants were all university students. The first 20 years of transformational leadership research concluded with the above-mentioned study.

Shea and Howell (1999) conducted one of the initial rigorous experimental research projects investigating transformational leadership. They investigated the interactive effect of charismatic and non-charismatic leaders and three type of feedback

on individuals. The objective of their study was to determine if followers responded to types of feedback differently depending on if the leader was charismatic or non-charismatic. The leaders provided internal, external, and no feedback. It was concluded that regardless of the feedback individuals who were led by charismatic leaders had similar performances while performances varied for those individuals led by non-charismatic leaders (Shea & Howell, 1999).

Shea and Howell (1999) acknowledged the influence of charismatic leadership on followers' performance; they also want to investigate contextual variables that influence charismatic leaderships. Several researchers (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993, Bass, 1985) posited that charismatic leadership was better suited when performance goals were not clearly stated. Shea and Howell (1999) investigated those assumptions by examining the interaction of charismatic leadership and task feedback on followers' performance. They hypothesized that the performance of followers led by transformational leaders would exceed expectation and they would perform at a higher level than those individuals led by non-charismatic leaders. Followers receiving feedback would perform better than those not receiving feedback, and leadership style and task feedback on task performance will have an interactive effect. They also hypothesized that followers led by charismatic leaders would have a higher task performance without feedback (Shea & Howell, 1999).

There was a total of 99 university graduate students participating in the study. The participants in the study thought they were part of a joint project with the university and electrical cables distribution company (Shea & Howell, 1999). Their task was to assemble an electronic harness in 15 minutes. Some were provided feedback after every 15-minute session others were not; some were led by charismatic leaders and some by

non-charismatic leaders. The independent variable was leadership style with two groups charismatic leader and non-charismatic leaders and dependent variable was performance quality. The experimental confederates went through extensive training to ensure their portrayal of charismatic leaders and non-charismatic leaders were reliable. An analysis of variance indicated that the actors' portrayal of being charismatic and those being non-charismatic was statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) (She & Howell, 1999). Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used as the primary data analysis method to identify the difference among groups on the dependent variables (Shea & Howell, 1999).

The results from the MANCOVA regarding the three hypotheses were mixed. Their first hypothesis stated that followers of charismatic leaders would have better performance over time compared to followers of non-charismatic leaders. The data analysis did not support their hypothesis because the effect of leadership style on task performance over time was not significant. However, the data analysis did support the second hypothesis with a significant main effect of task feedback on performance over time. The last hypothesis stated there would be an interaction effect of leadership style and task feedback on task performance: followers working for charismatic leaders receiving no feedback will outperform followers working for non-charismatic leaders who receive feedback. The analysis of data supported the hypothesis by indicating a significant interaction between leadership style and feedback ($p < 0.05$). Followers of charismatic leaders who did not receive feedback marginally outperformed followers of non-charismatic leaders who received feedback at a non-significant level. However, when both groups did not receive any feedback followers of charismatic leaders significantly outperformed followers of non-charismatic leaders according to Newman-Keuls post hoc

test ($F = 5.91$; $p < 0.01$). The latter result indicated that charismatic leaders inspired workers through motivation and emotional stimulation regardless of task performance feedback. The implication from the results show that trained actors can display charismatic leader behaviors. This suggested that through intentional training that non-charismatic leader could be taught charismatic behaviors. It was evident that experimental research provided causal evidence, but there were elements of true experimental research that created limitations. For example, in the real-world employees work with their superiors for longer period and build authentic relationship while the university students worked for their leaders for a total of 60 days. Shea and Howell (1999) acknowledged more empirical experimental work is needed to investigate the effects of charismatic leadership.

Bass (1999) conducted reviews from 20 years of studies since Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership became important to followers' job satisfaction as society moved away from conforming and not questioning authority in the 1950 to much more skepticism and cynicism of the 1990s (1999). Transformational leadership is claimed to elevate the level of followers' performance through idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Bass (1999) reviewed the 20-year history of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and its ability to measure the full range of leadership. He briefly explained why he and a colleague changed the term charisma for term idealized influence (Avolio & Bass, 1999). The reason for the substitution is further detailed in the following article regarding the revision of the MLQ. He provided examples of how transformational leaders can be participative, authoritarian, or democratic. For example, Bass (1999)

posited that Nelson Mandela is transformational, directive, and participative because he directed his followers to forget the past and participative by involving himself in the protest for change (Bass, 1999).

Avolio et al. (1999) conducted a thorough examination of the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Bass (1985) original transactional and transformational leadership model consisted of seven factors: charisma, inspirational, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire leadership. The seven factors were initially reduced to six because distinguishing the difference between charisma and inspiration was very ambiguous (Bass, 1988). However, this was just the start of re-examining, recommending, and critiquing to modify the model. Bass (1988) created the first MLQ by 1998 Bass and Avolio created the MLQ (Form 5X) to address concerns about the previous model. Hater and Bass (1988) conducted a factor analysis where they posited that management-by-exception consisted of two level active and passive. Bass (1999) listed the operational definitions of the six factors. Those six factors were used as a basis for conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Researchers use CFAs when they have conducted prior studies with factors they are investigating and have some knowledge about the underlying structure of the construct (Pet et al., 2003). Bass and colleagues analyzed several studies conducted with the MLQ then sought to confirm their hypothesis and theories with a series of CFAs. Researchers conduct CFAs to confirm theories or hypotheses with the hope that the results are what they expect (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). Their goals for the CFAs were to eliminate highly correlated items, to investigate items that were include in the revised

MLQ 5X, and finally they wanted to reduce the number of items for future studies (Avolio et al., 1999).

The purpose of their study was to investigate factor structure of the MLQ (Form 5X), the last version of the MLQ (1999). The results of the study show a “high degree of consistency in estimates of reliability, intercorrelations and factor loading” (1999, p. 458). They created a new 36 item version of the MLQ (Form X) that they believed will enhance future leadership studies (1999). The newest version of the MLQ is used in the current study. The most recent versions of the MLQ are located on Mind Garden (<https://mindgarden.com>).

Introduction of Transformational Leadership to Education

In this section of the literature review, the intersection of transformative leadership and educational leadership started in the 1990s with Kenneth Leithwood and Doris Jantzi, two prominent education leadership researchers who conducted a series of investigation into the effect of transformational leadership on a variety of education variables (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990, 1998, 1999). The studies referenced all occurred in provinces throughout Canada examining practicing administrators who had established cultures of collaboration in their building. According to Hargreaves and Shirley (2012), Ontario and Alberta, Canada were two of the highest academic performing school systems in the world. Leithwood and colleagues set out to provide empirical evidence that supported their beliefs that principals who displayed transformational leadership behaviors could enhance schools’ efforts to meet reform demands (1990). Leithwood and Steinbach (1991) provided evidence that highly effective (transformational) principals shifted teachers thinking to solution oriented, created group synergy, and increased

teachers' problem-solving abilities (1991). The study supported assumption that principals who use transformational practices are successful in creating collaborative school culture (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1991).

Leithwood et al., (1991) studies occurred globally during major top-down school system reforms in places like England, Chile, the United States, and parts of Australia and Canada during the 1990s (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2012). While U.S. school systems reacted to the publication of *A Nation at Risk* with the 1980s reform, provinces in Canada were also examining the effectiveness of their educational systems (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2012). The demand for systematic reform and major changes in educational systems globally created a necessity to examine leadership methods to enhance principals' effectiveness. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) leaned on the positive results of prior investigation of principals who displayed transformational leadership behaviors to postulate that principals needed transformation leadership skills training to meet the demands of school reform.

The current study sought out to answer four questions based on principal leadership effectiveness. One of the questions focused on transformational leadership: What strategies successful principals used that align with components of transformational leadership? For a variety reasons, specifically the limited empirical data on transformational leadership in education, Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) selected an exploratory and qualitative research method. They investigated leaders from 12 schools in Ontario Canada; six going through school improvement efforts and six that were not (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). They interviewed principals, members of the school improvement team, and teachers not on the improvement team. Like Bass' (1985)

exploratory and qualitative studies where he identified components for his transformational leadership model, their study focused more specifically on transformational leadership in education (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990).

The study provided them with the foundation for their educational transformational leadership model which they used to create a scale to conduct more intensive quantitative studies (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). They identified six strategies that effective principals used that aligned with transformational leadership behaviors: bureaucratic mechanisms to stimulate and reinforce cultural changes, cultivated professional development, established, and maintained cultural norms, distributed leadership, created synergy, and used symbol to express cultural values. Regarding their question pertaining to the effectiveness of transformational leadership, they proclaimed that principals who displayed transformational leadership behaviors transformed their staff into gaining shared understanding of their mission and enhanced their ability to collaborate to solve problems (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990).

Eight years after their exploratory investigation into transformational leadership in education, Leithwood and Jantzi (1998) investigated the effect of principals who displayed transformational leadership behaviors on traditional and non-traditional educational variables applying a quantitative method. In the previous 40 or more studies on principals' effect on school outcomes, the dependent variable was scores from core academic subjects (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998). This study focused on the effect principals have on student engagement, a non-numerical and non-academic variable. They also replaced the traditional independent variable, social economic status (SES) with a more robust "family educational culture" (Leithwood & Jantzi 1998, p). Family

education culture factors investigates more than free and reduced lunch status and examine the family beliefs and value for education. This study added to the limited amount of transformational leadership studies that used quantitative methods to analyze data. The study consisted of several guiding questions however, one specifically investigated the effect of transformational leadership: “does the total amount of transformational leadership exercised by all sources of leadership in schools account for significant variation in school conditions and student outcome?” (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998, p. 4). Their operational definitional transformational model consisted of six measurable dimensions: building school vision and goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, symbolizing professional practices and values, demonstrating high performance expectations, and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998). Whereas Bass (1985) transformational leadership model measured attributes of leaders from private and public entities, Leithwood and Jantzi transformational dimensions measured behaviors specific to school leaders (1998).

Leithwood and Jantzi (1998) benefitted from access to large samples sizes with this study. The research was conducted in Ontario, Canada in a district that served over 55,000 urban, rural, and suburban students, with over 4400 teachers, in 116 schools, led by 201 school principals and vice principals. They designed a survey consisting of 284 items for teachers and 61 items for the students both with five-point Likert scale anchored by “strongly disagree to strongly agree” (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998). Approximately 2700 or 61% of the teachers completed the survey and 95% of the students completed their survey. The results of the study supported previous studies investigating the positive

effect of transformational leadership. The total effects of transformational leadership practices on both aspects of student engagement were strong and positive $r = -.60$ and $.51$ whereas these effects were weak, negative, and nonsignificant $r = -.25$ and $.12$ in the case of transactional practices (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998). However, when family educational culture was included the effect of transformational leadership was reduced significantly. Transformational leadership still had an effect, but it was small and non-significant (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998).

The third study in Leithwood and Jantzi's (1999) series investigated the effect of transformational leadership on school conditions and student outcomes. The data from this survey was collected in Alberta, Canada from a sample of 1762 teachers and 9941 students in one of Canada's larger school districts (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). The impetus for this study as well as the entire series of studies was to find evidence to support transformational leadership methods in leading school through reform. Transformational leadership was encouraged as the model for leader of schools going through major reform (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Bryman et al. (1992) suggested that transformational leadership was a new leadership that became a subject for investigative inquiry of schools. There really was a growing interest in transformational leadership in educational leadership.

The third study (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999) was very similar to the previous study by Liethwood and Jantzi (1998). They measured the same six dimensions: building school vision and goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, symbolizing professional practices and values, demonstrating high performance expectations, and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions. They

investigated the same dependent variable of students' engagement and family educational culture substituted for the independent variable social economic status (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). However, in this study the dependent variable, student engagement included additional subsets of behavioral and affective components: behavior measured participation into schoolwork and events whereas affective measured students' sense of belonging to the school (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999).

Substituting social economic status (SES) for family educational culture was an interesting change because low-SES was used as an indicator for low academic performance. Family educational culture took into account more than poverty or affluence. Although SES proved to be a major contribution to student success at school, it provided a narrow view of the home life because it did not consider how families valued and cared about education (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). The dimensions of family educational culture included items that measured how parents felt about education, how educated were the parents, their work habits, goals for their children, and their career aspirations (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Another major change in this study was the number of questions on the teacher survey was reduced from 284 to 214. The researchers acknowledged that the previous number of 284 required them to give half the test to certain members of staff while other members received the other half (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Results from three large scale quantitative studies (Leithwood & Jantzi 1990, 1998, 1999) as well as results from other studies indicated that transformational leadership effects were statistically significant (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Transformational leadership was significant but weak indirect effect (.07) on affective student engagement and on behavior student engagement (.11) (1999). The most

important result from this study was the impact of family educational culture has on student engagement. “Family educational culture behaved statistically in a manner comparable to the behaviors of SES in most previous studies” (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, p. 20). When family educational culture was included as a variable, transformational leadership was still significant, but its effect was weak (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). The family educational culture variable was one that needs more attention in future studies.

Transformational or charismatic leaders use inspiration, idealized influence, and authenticity to gain followers’ trust, respect, and willingness to go above and beyond (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Whereas transactional leaders practiced a form of give and take, transformative leaders inspire followers to raise above their single interests to work together to exceed the goals that were set (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Research on transformational or charismatic leadership has drawn the attention of many leaders who realized that transformational leaders are true agents of change (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Leithwood et al., (2006) provided the following description of transformational leadership:

This is a form of power that develops the capacities of others and is in stark contrast to the positional power exercised by more authoritarian leaders in bureaucratic-like organizations. Transformational leadership is not simply servant like or democratic, however, as in a communitarian perspective on organizations. Development of an organizational vision and mission is a critical transformational leadership function, and those assuming leadership roles feel responsible for

helping move the organization forward in the direction of its goals (Leithwood et al., 2006, p. 23).

Transformational leaders inspired followers to take their role in the institution more seriously giving them the motivation to move past self-interest for the sake of the organization (Mittal, 2015). These leaders' goals were for staff members to move past personal goals to achieve a mission of closing the achievement gap for low-income and minority students. There was a reciprocal relationship with the leader and the followers that transforms not only the follower but the leader is transformed as well (Mittal, 2015). According to Reeves (2016), leaders must build trust by doing what they say they will do, acknowledge mistakes quickly and openly, and confront conflicts between personal values and the professional environment. Multi-cultural environment required the leader to handle complex and consistently evolving situations that are sometime hard to interpret or understand (Mittal, 2015). This was a challenge for principals in communities overflowing with population diversity.

Transformational Leadership in Education (2015-2021)

The first thirty years of transformational leadership research focused on identifying leaders who displayed transformational leadership behaviors and their effect on followers (Avolio & Bass, 1998, Avolio et al., 1999; Bass et al., 1987; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987; Bass & Avolio, 1998; Roush & Atwater, 1992; Shamir et al., 1993; Shea & Howell, 1999). Leithwood and associates conducted several large-scale transformational leadership studies in education that led to the initial adoption of transformational leadership in education (e.g., Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Leithwood & Riehl, 2005; Leithwood, Aitken, & Jantzi, 2006). The last decade of

educational transformational leadership research investigated the impact on student achievement as well as the benefits of retraining leaders to be transformational leaders.

Kwan (2020) reported that transformative leadership serves as a catalyst for instructional leadership impact on student achievement. The study was conducted to determine if transformational leadership influences instructional leadership impact on student outcome. Discussions and studies about education leadership either focused on transformational leadership or instructional leadership (2020). The two approaches are fundamentally different with respect to principal duties: instructional leadership requires principals to monitor teacher instructional practices whereas transformational leadership requires principals to improve teachers' practices by building capacity (2020).

Kwan (2020) study differed from most educational leadership studies because principals were not interviewed or asked to complete a questionnaire. Assistant principals were targeted as respondents because of their knowledge of practices that principal employ as well as their access to building level performance data (Kwan, 2020). The study took place in Hong Kong with a total of 177 participants who answered a questionnaire with 25 items, 15 measuring transformational leadership practices and ten measuring instructional leadership practices. The finding indicated that transformational leadership is a moderator for the effective enactment of instructional leadership in general and for teaching monitoring measures (Kwan, 2020). School leaders must have instructional monitoring system yet still must build capacity and motivation for professional growth. Kwan (2020) advocated for combining the two leadership models because neither is effective without the other. Even Hallinger (2003) a proponent of instructional leadership acknowledged that instructional leadership was not the only role

of the principal. Hallinger (2003) also stated that instructional leaders with strong transformational leadership garner more professional commitment from their teachers.

Colleges and universities with management program (MBA) realized there was a need to train their future leaders to be transformational leaders to address the unpredictable and rapidly changing business environment (Rhee & Honeycutt Sigler, 2020). Rhee and Honeycutt Sigler (2020) posited that over the last 10 years, MBA program have been criticized for lack of leadership development, too analytical, and lacking adaptability. Rhee and Honeycutt Sigler (2020) created a Master of Science program in Executive Leadership and Organization Change (ELOC) at Northern Kentucky University. The goal of this program was to create a transformational leadership MBA program that would address the growing criticism MBA programs management instead of leadership approach. Burns (1980) stated that transformational leaders could handle the less compliant and more questioning workforce that was taking shape in the 1980s compared to the compliant workforce of the 1950s. Whereas, Rhee and Honeycutt Sigler, (2020) posited that MBA programs need transformative approach to prepare leaders to meet the global opportunities and challenges of the 21st century. MBA programs were making slow, incremental, and evolutionary changes, but that were not addressing the mounting criticism (Rhee & Honeycutt Sigler, 2020). The ELOC model was intended to be a complete innovative MBA program with a 2-year cohort model that met one weekend a month on both Saturday and Sunday with a maximum of 25 student per cohort. The program made five major shifts: from management to leadership focus; from performance to learning and development focus; from knowledge and analytical to whole student development focus; from theory to practice; course

discipline to integration focus. The program trained leaders to use the four behaviors of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985). The ELO program was an effort to train and develop transformational leaders. The content of the courses changed every semester but the focus on developing transformational leadership skills was consistent (Rhee & Honeycutt Sigler, 2020).

The program was in its 10th year with five graduating cohorts and it has been a great success. The following are a few testimonies from ELOC graduates.

My, what a difference a quick two years can make in a person. The ELOC program has taken a seasoned corporate veteran like me and transformed him into a leader, a real leader, not just a manager or a leader of a small town.

The very interesting thing about it all is that I am starting to see with my own eyes the positive impact I have had on my team in my department. What is more satisfying is that others have made positive comments to me (and to my director) that my leadership had been a good change for the department and the staff I lead and serve.

Additionally, “I have loved the learning but also the networking with students and the faculty. For me, ELOC has been the jumper cables that have started my leadership engine” (Rhee & Honeycutt Sigler 2020, pp.114, 115, & 116).

The encouraging aspect of this article was that it demonstrated that transformational behaviors can be taught and learned at all levels of development. That is important in the current study and support the current study theory that principals need on the job transformational leadership professional development as well as future principals

in their administration programs. One of the focuses of the program was to transform the leaders; from the testimonies all the graduates were personally transformed. Rhee and Honeycutt Sigler (2020) stated that the program was transferable and should be used in other MBA programs. However, they cautioned that it took a great deal of communication and collaboration with all stakeholders to transform managers into leaders (Rhee & Honeycutt Sigler, 2020).

Diebig et al., (2017) conducted a study to determine if transformational leadership had an impact on leader strain and follower's burnout. They hypothesized that transformational leadership had a positive relationship with reduction of strain on leaders and reduction of burnout for followers (Diebig et al., 2017). They also expanded on Bass's (1985) original four transformational leadership behaviors by expanding them into six distinct behaviors: "identifying and articulating a vision; providing an appropriate model; fostering the acceptance of groups goals; high performance expectations; providing individualized support; and intellectual stimulation" (Diebig et al., 2017, p. 331). Only two of the six behaviors, individualized support and intellectual stimulation were explicitly named from Bass's original six.

Diebig et al., (2017) postulated that transformational leaders provided systematic details and clear path to achieve shared goals and inspired followers to believe they can achieve shared goals which in turn reduced follower burnout. However, followers stress increased when leaders' articulation of long-term visions was ambiguous (Diebig et al., 2017). Up to the date of Diebig et al., (2017) study, there were only a few studies that examined the relationship between leader strain and worker burnout. However, they stated that one of the few studies that examined the interactive relationship indicated that

principals' strain and teachers' burnout were related (Diebig et al., 2017). This aligned with the current hypothesis concerning the effect of transformational leadership behavior displayed by principals.

Earlier transformational leadership studies in this literature review sought out to determine if Bass's (1985) claims about transformational leadership could be proven, whereas Diebig et al., (2017) were not trying to prove or disprove Bass's claim: they postulated that transformational leadership behavior had mental health benefits to both leaders and followers. Diebig et al., (2017) hypothesized indicated their positive attitude for transformational leadership going into the study. In a not-so-subtle manner, they disassociated transformational leadership from two negative mental barriers to followers' job satisfaction and leaders stress levels, mental burnout, and leader strain. The following was their list of hypotheses.

“H1: Leader strain is negatively related to transformational leader behavior.

H2: Transformational leader behavior is negatively related to follower burnout.

H3: The relationship between leader strain and follower burnout is mediated by transformational leadership behavior” (Diebig et al., 2017, pp. 332, 334, 335).

The results from the study supported all three hypotheses in the way that transformational leadership was negatively related to follower burnout ($b = -.37$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$) and the effect of leader strain on transformational leadership was also negative statistically ($b = -.65$, $SE = .11$, $p < .01$) (2017, p. 339). According to Diebig et al., (2017) the findings were consistent with results from previous studies on transformational leadership positive impact on mental health of leader and follower. Leader behaviors can have both negative and positive influence on leaders and followers. The practical

implication was that organization must demand high level of transformational leadership behaviors from their leaders (2017).

The following article examined school leaders, principals from Northeast of the United States to determine their perception of transformational leadership (Metz et al., 2019). Metz et al. (2019) implied that leaders who displayed transformational leadership behaviors developed collaboration and fostered improvement, yet not much focus had been placed on professional development in transformational leadership. There was significant positive correlation between how leaders and their followers perceived transformational leadership (Dabke, 2016). Transformational leadership behaviors were also linked to schools with climates of high morals and cultural competency (Sagnak, 2010). The numerous studies (Leithwood & Jantzi 1990, 1998, 1999) that indicated positive impact of transformational educational leaders make it perplexing why greater emphasis has not been placed on professionally developing principals with those behaviors.

Metz et al., (2019) used a mixed method approach of case study design and instrumental case design. The Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) (Kouzes & Posner (2003) instrumental case design and an interview protocol instrument were used for this case study. The setting of the study was in school districts in two counties in New York and Connecticut with a possible of 613 principals or head of division. The actual number of participants were 110 with 82 being principals. The qualitative results of this are relevant in the current study. There were three explicit statements that came from the case study interviews: The principals believed themselves to be transformational, they believed that transformational leadership was essential in change agents, and they

perceived that human relationship elements of transformational leadership are intangible in effective leadership (Metz et al., 2019). All the leaders perceived transformational leadership to be the gold standard of leadership. For example, “I wouldn’t say I’m transformational. I know other leaders who I would describe as more [of a] change agent than I am” or “I try to be,” “I hope I am,” and “At times I am a transformational leader.” (2019, p. 400). Those testimonies indicated a high level of admiration and respect for transformational leaders’ behaviors and abilities. The study also indicated that teacher’s perception of transformational leaders was positive. Metz et al., (2019) concluded that this style of leadership should be emphasized in principal preparation programs and professionally developed in practicing principals. The overall results of this study supported the current study hypothesis that principals who display transformational leadership behaviors have positive influence on student outcome and stakeholder perception of their leadership.

Kenneth Leithwood, the person most responsible for the adoption of transformational leadership in the education field 30 years ago continued to advocate for this style of leadership in education. The Ontario Leadership Framework OLF (Leithwood, 2012), was highly influenced by his previous investigations of transformational leadership. The OLF consisted of five domains of practices: “setting directions, building relationships, and developing people, developing the organization to support desired practices, improving the instructional program, and securing accountability” (Leithwood, 2012, p. 6). The five domains aligned directly with Bass’s (1985) original four transformational leadership constructs.

In a recent study, Leithwood et al. (2020) investigated transformative leaders' influence on student outcome, they examined a set of variables impacting school leadership influence on student outcome referred to as "the four paths model" (Leithwood et al., 2020, p. 2). There were numerous studies (Leithwood & Jantzi 1990, 1998, 1999) that indicated school leadership had positive influence on student outcome; the question now was exactly how effective is principal's influence on student outcome (Leithwood et al., 2020)? This was the third study in a series of studies that attempted to answer the "how" question (Leithwood et al., 2020). Over 1770 teachers in 81 Texas schools participated in this study surveying the effectiveness of their principal. According to Leithwood et al., (2020), principals have four paths to impacting student outcome: rational path, emotions path, organizational paths, and family paths. This was the first article in this review where transformational leadership constructs were not mentioned explicitly: they were implied in this article and several of the upcoming articles researching effective leaderships models and leadership frameworks. Leithwood and associates early studies (Leithwood & Jantzi 1990, 1998, 1999) focused on Bass's (1985) original four constructs of transformational leadership. Those earlier articles included transformational or transformative leadership in the titles. Similar to Ontario Leadership Framework OLF (Leithwood, 2012), transformational leadership was also not explicitly mentioned in the "four path model," (Leithwood et al., 2020, p. 2) but the model was heavily influenced by Leithwood earlier transformational leadership investigations (Leithwood & Jantzi 1990, 1998, 1999). The "four path model" (Leithwood et al., 2020, p. 2) and the OLF (Leithwood, 2012) both linked cultural competency into the leadership models. For example, the family path includes parent expectation for children success

beyond school, parent and child forms of communication, and parent social and intellectual capital regarding school (Leithwood et al., 2020). However, the emotions path was all about leader and follower relationship as individuals and collectively (Leithwood et al., 2020). The organizational and rational paths were heavily influenced by transformational leadership behavior, but the previous two paths, family and emotion supported the current study research questions as well as aligning with the hypothesizes.

The study took place in 2016 in six Texas school districts. The 81 schools in the study employed 4,523 teachers and 1779 participated. The schools served a student population with an average of 60% students living in poverty. The 1779 participants completed a 5-point Likert-type scale survey. The results from the teacher surveys were all positive for each path, however there was no direct link to transformative leadership in the results (Leithwood et al., 2020). The overall practical implication from this study was the importance of including the asset of the parents in the school improvement planning (Leithwood et al., 2020). The emphasis on the inclusion the family variables was evident in the culturally competent section of this literature review. Parental engagement in their child's school experience proved to be a mitigating factor for students living in poverty (Leithwood et al., 2020). However, the overall purpose of the study was to answer the question how do effective principals influence student outcome. The question was partially answered, yet more research is needed to occur to identify the most promising practices (Leithwood et al., 2020)

Culturally Competent Leadership Integration with Transformational Leadership

This section of the literature review focused on culturally competency in school leadership as well as the integration of transformative and culturally competent school

leadership. Over the last decade principal preparation programs received mounting criticism for the lack of culturally competent courses, curriculum, and basic training in preparing future school leaders to lead rapidly growing diverse schools (Toure 2008; Rusch 2004). The state of New York took a grassroots approach to increase the diversity of its educators to meet the needs of a highly diverse student population. Their efforts to recruit students of diversity started at the secondary level. For example, Syracuse University started the Syracuse Urban Teacher Program in 2017 as a “Grow Your Own” (GYO) initiative by recruiting students of color as young as 9th grade to shadow teachers with the objective that they would enroll in their teacher preparation programs (The Education Trust, 2017). New York city public school leaders collaborated with state universities to establish a consistent pipeline of perspective teachers of color (The Education Trust, 2017). New York educational leaders understood that teachers and principal diversity made a positive difference in the academic achievement of historically marginalized students. School leaders background and ethnicity was known to impact their social justice practices and behaviors (Zhang et al., 2018). One of the most important practical implications from this article for educators all over the United States was the lack of teacher and administrator diversity was not a New York city issue: districts across the nation faced critical issues trying to hire teachers of color as well as professionally developing their current teachers and principals both white and of color to be more culturally competent (The Education Trust, 2017). Culturally competent has a variety of meanings from being able to understand and appreciated individuals’ tradition, beliefs, and values, to the more organization aspect of creating equitable systems and establishing fair policies, to the education perspective of integration of student cultures

into curriculum adoption process and the cultural responsiveness of instructional practices (Arthur, Reeves, Morgan, Cornelius, & Llewellyn, 2005).

In a recent literature review of culturally competent school leadership, Khalifa et al., (2016) sought out to identify how principals effectively lead schools with highly diverse “minoritized” student population and what instruments were used to measure principals’ effectiveness (Khalifa et al., 2016, p. 2). Their objective was to identify a set of standards or practices that successful principal used in high diverse schools. According to Khalifa et al., (2016) most of the previous studies on social justice in education focused on culturally responsive pedagogy and instruction in the classroom (Gay, 1994; Ladson Billings, 1995). Khalifa et al., (2016) posited that culturally competent or culturally responsive leadership literature was underdeveloped, undertheorized, and under-researched. Policy makers and educational professors of leadership programs were encouraged to reexamine the content for leadership preparation to address the lack of culturally relevant or social justice leadership training (Rusch, 2004; Toufé 2008). The lack of culturally competent training in principal preparation programs was the impetus for one of current research questions: will there be a statistically difference in mean score on the culturally competent section of the CCTLQ based on administrators’ experience? Have policy makers and professors of administration preparation programs placed more emphasis on teaching culturally relevant and social justice leadership? If so, there should be a significant difference according to years of experience, if more emphasis over the past 15 years were placed on training administrators’ preparation programs adopting culturally competent curriculum and offering courses to train to be culturally competent leaders.

Prior research indicated that principals have a profound impact on teacher instructional practices and student achievement (Hitt & Tucker, 2015; Kafele, 2013; Marzano, 2003; Sweeney & Mausbach, 2018). According to Hitt and Tucker (2015), there was over four decades of studies and investigations that indicated the importance of principal positively impacting student achievement. It was essential that school leaders in highly diverse schools take the lead with the culturally responsive efforts for it to be implemented with fidelity (Khalifa et al., 2016). It was the role of a culturally responsive leader to lead professional development focused on culturally responsive instruction and to promote inclusive practices for historically minoritized students or those practices will be “short lived and disjointed” (Khalifa et al., 2016, p. 3). “Because minoritized students have been disadvantaged by historically oppressive structures, and because educators and schools have been – intentionally or unintentionally – complicit in reproducing this oppressive, culturally responsive school leaders have a principled, moral responsibility to counter this oppression” (Khalifa et al., 2016, p. 4). This called for urban and highly diverse school leaders to recognize their role in dismantling system that created educational injustices for Black, Hispanic, and other students of color and low-income students.

According to Santamaria and Santamaria (2015), the time was now to move away from school leadership as management and move school leadership toward an agent for social mobility and social justice. Western school leadership based on hegemonic tradition from histories of colonization and dominant discourse failed many students (Santamaria & Santamaria, 2015). Globally culturally competent leadership was a venture into uncharted territory, but the work was needed, and communities were ready

for education leaders to meet the needs of growing diverse student population (Santamaria & Santamaria, 2015). The effectiveness of a school leader depended on his/her ability to maneuver between state and national accountability and local school cultures (Howley et al., 2009). The challenge for principals to meet the needs of their students while at the same time facing the pressures of meeting state standards was overwhelming.

Effective leaders of diverse schools did not just recognize and honor the students' culture, they included their cultures in the school improvement plan. One of the main features of culturally competent leadership is the inclusive way they work with the school community. Howley et al., (2009) posited that principals who perceived students and their family as an asset were provided the leverage by the community be more creative and innovative with their leadership decisions than traditional leaders. There was a fine line between school leadership and the community creating a need to mediate between local expectations and their own educational vision. Davis (2002) was more direct suggesting that leaders must expand their knowledge so being cognizant of the importance of inclusiveness in never lost in the efforts to reform schools. According to Davis (2002), the sole purpose of culturally responsive leadership was to support and create social justice in education. Davis (2002) posited that culturally competent leadership not only seek to create social justice and equity, but they break down barriers that created inequalities. Barriers that exist in schools today are a byproduct of the fact that most school leaders are not familiar with their students' culture (2002). The fundamental issue was training educational leaders to address the culturally diverse needs of their students. Johnson (2014) suggested developing critical consciousness was vital in

school leadership as well as developing community connections and growing as a transformative leader. Johnson (2007) outlined some common practices of culturally competent leaders (See Appendix I). Jordan Irvine (2003) introduces nine specific strategies (See Appendix K).

Culturally competent transformational leadership does not have a long history of research however, the research around culturally competent leadership was exciting and positive regarding changing the dismal achievement results of low-income and minoritized students (Khalifa et al., 2015). Articles in Khalifa et al. (2015) literature review showed an integration of culturally competent and transformative leadership. Culturally competent leaders must be able to motivate and inspire as well as effectively lead diverse student populations.

Culturally Competent Assessment Tools

One objective of the literature review was to examine previous assessment tools used to assess leaders' cultural competency leadership skills. Han (2017) developed a scale to measure cultural competency among teachers in South Korea. South Korea once considered homogeneous was facing similar demographic shift as South Puget Sound with migrant workers, international marriages, and North Korean refugees enrolling in South Korea schools (2017). Their struggles mirrored South Puget Sound's schools with teachers and administrators' unfamiliarity with the cultures of newly diverse student population. Referring to Gay (2002) culturally responsive practice and Ladson-Billings (1995) culturally relevant pedagogy, Han (2017) identified strategies to assist South Korea schools with effectively meeting the needs of their diverse student population. One of the tasks for the current study was to locate reliable and valid methods to measure

culturally competent practices. Hans (2017) posited that minoritized student groups would consistently be on the losing end of cultural confrontation at school if teachers did not develop cultural competency and critical consciences about how they perceived their rapidly diverse student population especially in Korea previously a homogeneous country rich in traditions and cultures.

Mason (1995) worked with a team to develop an assessment tool to measure cultural competency of health care workers in Portland Oregon (see Appendix B). They created the Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ) that was administered to service providers as well as administrative staff (1995). Mason (1995) posited that taking a self-assessment of cultural competence elevated participants anxiety because of the sensitivity of the questions about racial and cultural differences. He suggested that administrators of CCSAQ should address reliability and validity issues before administering the survey to ensure participants answered the questions honestly. The list of issues presented by Mason (1995) were considered during the administration of the CCTLQ in the current study. Mason's (1995) was concerned about obtaining honest answers; participants were informed that the survey was not a measurement of proficiency, instead a method to identify areas for personal growth. When administering these types of assessments, comparison is avoided because everyone can be at different places on the continuum, and everyone has room to develop cultural competencies (1995).

Adaptive vs Technical Leadership

Culturally competent and transformational leadership requires the ability to distinguish the between technical and adaptive challenges of leadership. According to

Heifetz and Linsky (2017), technical changes are easy to make and most leaders have the know how to make those changes using current skills. For example, a technical change was to reconstruct a middle school master schedule. The adaptive challenge to the technical change was to get staff buy-in and to get them to adjust their instructional practices around a new scheduling format. When the change involves changing practices, those problems or challenges are called adaptive challenges. One of the greatest mistakes in leadership from political, business, and education was to treat adaptive challenges like technical challenges (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017). In general, technical changes were somewhat easy to make whereas adaptive changes required a great deal of relational and professional skills that transformational leaders possess. The adaptive skills required to be a culturally competent transformational leader were examined in the following paragraphs.

Adaptive changes, or 2nd order changes, dealt with the people with the problem while technical changes, or 1st order changes, dealt with the problem from afar (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017). For example, Washington State Department of Education made a technical change by eliminating suspensions for a first-time offense to address the discipline disparity among Black and Hispanic boys. They recognized the consistent discrepancies in the rate of suspensions for male students of color. This technical change did not address the underlying problems of the cultural differences between teachers and students in highly diverse urban schools. Beachum and McCray (2004), defined cultural collision as the Black popular culture of African American urban youth and its subsequent intersection with the culture found in secondary schools. To address the issue of cultural collision, principals must understand that culturally competent adaptive

changes must be made. Culturally competency does not require system or program change; people must change to remedy this problem. Culturally competent leaders ask: why are male students of color being disciplined so disproportionately? Are we willing to change our practices to address this issue? When leaders are working on changing the hearts and minds of people, they are making adaptive not technical changes (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017). Culturally competent leaders understand that difference and they know they must change hearts and minds to change the practices required for culturally responsive and relevant instruction. Understanding the difference between adaptive and technical is an important skill for change agents (2017).

Social Justice Educational Leadership

Social justice education leadership integrates elements of culturally competency and transformative leaders. The next few articles focused on social justice leaders use of transformative and culturally competent leadership practices and behaviors to lead diverse schools. In their study, Shriberg and Clinton (2016) questioned whether social justice in education was an aspirational, a hope, or a just action taken to correct the wrongs of an unjust school systems. Kowalchuk (2019) shared a couple of principals from Ontario Canada philosophy of social justice school leadership.

Principal Burgess: If you are going to lead with the social justice compass, you must do that in everything that you can do. It is important for staff to see that leaders are not going to stand for socially unjust practices (Kowalchuk, 2019, pp. 3-5).

Principal Idella: We had some difficult conversations, like, I brought up the piece on my beliefs that the school is power, and the power you hold as teachers. The

privilege and power that we hold is much different than the children walking in our door. So, I laid it right on the table ... then that's when [the teachers start saying], "Are you trying to say I am privileged?" And it was messy (Kowalchuk, 2019, p. 7).

Principal Idella was presented with the challenge of addressing issues of personal preference and breaking down status quo which required her to demonstrate the leadership skill to move from technical to adaptive leadership an element of transformational leadership. Heifetz and Linsky (2017) suggested that changes that place people in uncomfortable situations like Principal Idella did with the staff are highly challenging adaptive changes which has little to do with systems but lots to do with culture.

In their social justice educational leadership framework, Zhang et al. (2018) introduced five integrated dimensions of social justice educational leadership: "school leader, school specific context, school community, socio-political discourse, and sociocultural" (Zhang et al., 2018, p.55). Social just school leadership and community context were determined to have statistically significant correlation between social justice and culturally competent leadership (Zhang et al., 2018). They acknowledged that the inclusion approach was a major feature social justice leadership (Zhang et al., 2018).

The social justice leader inclusion approach goes well beyond students with disabilities to include a variety of minoritized and marginalized students. These leaders recognized and acknowledged students from different cultures, races, genders, socioeconomic status, as well as students with disabilities (Zhang et al., 2018). This inclusion extended into the community especially partnering with parents to collaborate

on school culture and environment. Parental engagement proved to be vital in highly diverse schools; parents provided insights into the students and community, while schools provided a sense of belonging and information for needed resources. Culturally competency integration with social justice leadership was seen in the cultural context dimension. Zhang et al., (2018) stated that social justice leaders fit in schools with low diversity and poverty as well as in schools with high poverty and high diversity: in highly diverse high poverty schools, social justice leaders teach students how to have a voice and strive for mobility, whereas in low-poverty, homogeneous student populated schools, social justice leaders teach students the value of sharing and giving back to their community. However, Zhang et al., (2018) suggested that although social justice should be in every decision made in education it should be especially emphasized in highly diverse and high poverty school districts. Kowalchuk (2019), also accepted that social justice in education cannot be detached from theories, practices, and policies to reform education.

Zhang et al., (2018) study indicated that social justice leadership had positive statistical significance in two of the dimensions. School leader and community context demonstrated significant correlation and mirrored previous quantitative studies on principal social justice practices and the community they serve according to Zhang et al., (2018). To effectively reform an underperforming highly diverse school it was vital that the principal was knowledgeable of the students' background. Social justice leaders created environment of trust among the school leaders, students, parents, and community leaders establishing mutual and common goals (Zhang et al., 2018). They posited that

social justice was not about individual leaders' choice, but based on the context in which the school resides that shaped the social justice approach (Zhang et al., 2018).

In another article examining social justice leadership, Kowalchuk (2019) sought to extend research in Canada regarding educational leadership for social justice. Research examining the practices and behavior of social justice school leader practices and behaviors were in its early stages in Canada with only a small number of studies in 1999. Kowalchuk's (2019) study investigated the practices of 14 principals and vice principal in Ontario Canada, Canada's largest province with its most diverse population. Kowalcuk (2019) examined the question of what strategies and practices principals used to conduct their social justice work. In most of the research examining social justice leadership (Kowalcuk, 2019; Zhang et al 2019), culturally competent was an underlying foundation. I also examined this article to determine if transformational leadership behaviors and strategies aligned with practices of social justice leaders.

The study identified five distinct practices that social justice school leader displayed to promote social justice in their schools: "demonstrate social justice, challenge status quo, exercise critical instructional leadership, shape and preserve respectful relationships, and honor voices" (Kowalchuk, 2019, p. 3). The five practices closely align with transformational leadership constructs. Leaders who model social justice are *motivational and inspiration*. Challenge status quo and critical instructional leadership occurs when leaders *intellectually stimulate*. To shape and preserve respectful relationship and honor voices leader must display *individual consideration* for individuals and groups. Challenging status quo is a key element of a change agent (Fullan, 2014). Transformational leadership researchers posited that transformational leadership is most

suitable for school reform or schools experiencing major change (Avolio & Bass, 1998; Burns, 1978; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Kowalchuk (2019) suggested that creating a school-wide vision for social justice required a mind shift by all stakeholders.

Transformational leadership studies indicated that transformational leaders provided intellectual stimulation that challenge existing practices and inspired staff to try new approaches (Bass, 1985a; Burns 1978). Transformational leaders also provided individual consideration for those who are resistant to change because they “seeks to understand where the teachers’ values lie with respect to social justice by ‘having challenging conversations in a respectful way and leaving people with their dignity intact” (Kowalchuk, 2019, p. 7). This article supported the current study hypothesis that social justice leaders use both culturally competent and transformation leadership practices and behaviors.

Capper et al. (2006), created a framework for social justice leadership that includes emotional safety for risk taking, critical consciousness, knowledge, and skills. The four concepts were important however, *critical consciousness* was prevalent in research investigating culturally competent leadership as well as social justice leadership literature (Shriberg & Clinton, 2016; Beachum & McCray, 2004; Capper et al., 2006; Kowalchuk, 2019). Capper et al. (2006) defined critical consciousness as the moral and ethical beliefs and values that a leader is committed to upholding. Capper et al., 2006, posited that critical consciousness can be developed at the leadership preparation level with the use of effective curriculum. According to Foster (1986), to ensure adaptive changes occur to remedy the injustices in public education, principals must have critical consciousness. Osiname (2016) even suggested that a principal cannot create just

schooling opportunities without having critical consciousness. Critical consciousness enables principals to view cultural issues in school with strong moral compass and lead for the common good all. Johnson (2007) described how culturally competent leaders made connections with the entire community to infuse the culture of the students into the curriculum and instruction to develop critical consciousness in all stakeholders to create a just society. According to Khalifa, et al., (2006) when serving low-income students principals must be aware of their own biases, beliefs, and traditions which requires a critical conscious. A critical conscious is a skill that leaders can learn with professional development. Khalifia, et al., (2006) suggested that to properly prepare school leaders for social justice, programs and professional development must attend to critical consciousness. If critical consciousness is not developed at the principal training stage, it must be developed through professional development opportunities while on the job.

Demonstrating social justice leadership in school required modeling and being explicit about what you believed and engaging others in the vision (Kowalchuk, 2019). Social justice leaders have to model risk taking so others will follow along and take risks to promote social justice (Kowalchuk, 2019). Lyman and Villani (2002), two scholars who study poverty in school believed that school leaders needed to understand the intricacies of poverty and how they interact with social justice issues in schools. This was important for all school leaders but most important for school leaders who were not raised in poverty (Lyman & Villani, 2002). Finally, culturally competent leadership encompassed aspects of a variety of leadership models from transformative to distributed however, social justice leadership aligns closely with components of transformational leadership (Kowalchuk, 2019).

Turnaround Principals

The next several articles investigating turnaround school leaders demonstrated an alignment with turnaround school leaders' practices and those associated with transformative and culturally competent school leaders. Villavicencio and Grayman (2012) conducted a study in New York City examining strategies used by turnaround middle school leaders in comparison to school leaders at persistently low-performing schools. At the time of this study, New York city 8th graders were meeting state standards in math and reading at less than 40 percent proficiency (Villavicencio & Grayman, 2012). They wanted to document what differences occurred at school that were able to drastically improve student achievement in challenging conditions. They focused on two groups of low-performing school over a four-year period. They labeled one group as "turnaround schools" because they made substantial academic achievement improvement over that time frame while the other group of schools made minimum if any improvement (Villavicencio & Grayman, 2012, p. 2).

They identified three essential conditions that were needed to improve student achievement by both teacher and principal. However, they also identified four specific leadership strategies used by principals at successful turnaround schools that are relevant in the current research project: "1) developing teachers internally, 2) creating small learning communities, 3) targeting student sub-populations, and 4) using data to inform instruction" (Villavicencio & Grayman, 2012, p. ES 2). Those four leadership strategies for improving teaching and learning closely aligned with both transformational and culturally competent leadership practices. One of the pillars of transformational leadership is to intellectually stimulate followers by use of professional development

(Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Leithwood & Jantzi 1990, 1998, 1999). Villavicencio et al., (2012) posited that building teacher capacity through professional development as well as internally by using peer mentors and peer observation which also assist in building a culture of sharing and trust. The third strategy, targeted student sub-populations was essentially the foundation of a culturally competent school leader. Johnson, (2014) suggested that culturally responsive leader efforts extended out to the entire community “beyond the school site to encompass community-based educational leadership that advocated for cultural recognition, revitalization, and community development” (2014, p. 145). The turnaround leaders hiring practices, teacher assignments, program selections, and professional development plan were measures to better serve the community (Villavicencio & Grayman, 2012). Those strategies aligned with the current study hypothesis that principals who are successful at challenging and traditionally underperforming schools use transformational and culturally competent leadership practices. Two of Villavicencio and Grayman (2012) four essential foundations of a turnaround school leader support that hypothesis.

The next study investigating turnaround principals took the unique perspective of examining what school leaders did strategically to make move at the right time (Yoon & Barton, 2019). The study was based on two forms of time: *chronos* or chronological and *kairos* or right time. According to Yoon and Barton (2019), turnaround principal scheduled events on a calendar chronologically somewhat like a three-year plan. The strategic moves that occurred in those three-year periods must happen at the “right time” or “*Kairos*”; they use the metaphor “shifting gears” at the “right time” (Yoon & Barton, 2019, p. 690). Four schools from the Intermountain region of the United States

participated in this qualitative multi-case study. All four of the schools were on federal school improvement programs and two were considered priority schools or the lowest performing schools in the nation. Data for the study was collected from principals, assistants, instructional coaches, community liaison, and district supervisors (Yoon & Barton, 2019).

In the previous study, turnaround schools were determined by schools that previously had academic low-performance and made significant academic improvement in a short four-year period. Yoon and Barton (2019) designated turnaround school as a specific model of change that was funded by federal School Improvement Grants (SIGs). They referred to ‘school turnaround,’ ‘high-staked school improvement’ and ‘mandated school improvement’ as interchangeable terms for school improvement under federal or state accountability systems, and not to refer to particular change model” (2019, p. 691). They suggested that turnaround leader must have adaptive skills to maneuver through changing context and posse skills to motivate and inspire others (Yoon and Barton, 2019). Adaptive leadership skills and behaviors were subdimensions of transformational leadership (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017).

The important adaptive changes of “shifting gears” explain the right time or Kairos steps in the turnaround process (Yoon & Barton, 2019, p. 692). Yoon and Barton (2019) outlined three specific gears of the turnaround process; first gear is to rebuild and repair, second gear is to introduce instructional improvement, third is deepening understanding, and there is a fourth way; to lead without a plan. Leithwood et al., (2010) introduced three stages of school turnaround that were very similar to “shifting gears” (Yoon & Barton, 2019, p. 692) that starts with stopping the decline by creating conditions

for success, then build stamina and celebrating small accomplishments, and final stage was to achieve the academic and behavior improvement so staff will strive for more. However, to move through the stages or to shift gears at the right time required the skill of knowing when staff members are ready for the next step in the journey. The three of the four principals recommended building relationships with staff before making change. Successful turnaround leaders knew when it was the right time to make that adaptive change because they know their staff (Yoon & Barton, 2019). These leaders intentionally created opportunities for change and growth by cultivating an environment of trust; in other words, they did not wait for opportunities to arise they made opportunities happen (Yoon and Barton, 2019). According to one of the principals in the study, “he was excited because he had sensed a window of opportunity, or ‘right time’ for his school to shift into second gear” (Yoon & Barton, 2019, p. 697). That principal recognized that the staff professional development built their capacity for a major instructional move. Another principal in the study concentrated lots of effort toward creating a more culturally competent staff to move them to more of an asset-based approach. “It was very teacher-driven. And some prevailing beliefs that our kids can achieve only this far or just deficit thinking” (Yoon & Barton, 2019, p. 697). With most of the studies regarding effective leadership be it social justice school leadership or turnaround school leadership, principals displayed awareness of their leadership strategies, behaviors, and practices.

The final article related to turnaround school leaders investigated the relationship between turnaround principals and student achievement. Hitt et al. (2019) examined competencies of turnaround principals and investigated the strength of the relationship between turnaround principal competencies and student achievement. Hitt at el., (2019)

determination for turnaround depended on what previously was termed as rapid improvement; schools needed to show significant academic growth specifically in English Language Arts and mathematics over a three-year period with the first year being somewhat of a grace period or an implementation year. With those requirements, 19 principals hired in schools with districts partnering with School Turnaround Programs were identified as turnaround principals and 12 not meeting those requirements were the comparison group. One of the limits of this study was the small sample size which made population generalization and complexed statistical analysis prohibited (Hitt, Meyers, Woodruff, & Zhu, 2019).

Leithwood, a leading advocate for the adoption of transformational leadership in education is frequently cited in this article. Leithwood (2012) postulated that principal indirect impact on students learning hinged on their influence on teacher practices which was one of the main elements of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership practices and behaviors were prominent in Hitt et al., (2019) turnaround leader competencies: initiates and persists, inspires, and motivate others, build capacity through accountability and support, crystalizes problems and creates solutions. The other competencies identified in this article aligned to culturally competent leadership (Hitt et al., 2019). However, results from the study indicated both statistical and practical differences between student achievement scores of principals with outstanding results and principals with typical results. Turnaround principals scored a 3 or 4 on a 0-4 Likert scale for inspired and motivated others and built capacity with accountability and support that aligned closely with transformative leadership construct.

The study concluded with Hitt et al. (2019) recommending their turnaround competency model be used at all level to identify how principal approach the improvement process, how they interact with teachers and other constituent groups, which cognitive processes they rely upon to inform their work, and their internal stated and mind-sets (Hitt et al., 2019). The four turnaround competencies presented by Hitt et al. (2019) aligned closely with transformational leadership behaviors as well as effective strategies used by successful turnaround school principals.

Effective School Leadership

The last section of the literature review contains articles related to effective school leaders. These articles supported answering the current study research questions and supported the hypothesis that culturally competent and transformational leaderships practices are most effective for school reform and schools under major changes. In previous sections, transformational leadership practices and behaviors as well as culturally competent leadership practices and behaviors were present or in some cases prominent in social justice leadership and turnaround school leadership. Those leadership traits are also prominent in successful and effective leadership studies.

Leithwood et al. (2008) introduced “seven strong claims” they suggested successful school leaders use (2008, p. 27). Those seven claims were revisited 12 years later in another article by the same researchers (Leithwood et al., 2019). The first claim posited that school leadership was second only to the teacher for positively impacting student achievement. The second claim states that all successful leaders used at different times 4 leadership practices and behaviors and those behaviors are consistent with transformative leadership behaviors: “building vision and setting directions;

understanding and developing people; redesigning the organization; and managing the teaching and learning” (Leithwood et al., 2008, p. 29). However, redesigning the organization required cultural responsiveness to create policies and systems that are inclusive to parents and community (Leithwood, 2008). Leithwood’s early works on transformational leadership strongly influenced the second claim regarding basic leadership practices all successful principal utilized. A closer examination the second claim revealed that Leithwood et al., (2008) posited that transformational leadership practices were used by successful school leaders.

The other five claims contained elements of both transformative and culturally competent leadership, however Leithwood et al., (2008) suggested that transformational leadership behaviors and practices were the foundation for successful school leadership in general, whereas culturally competent leadership practices and behaviors depended on the situation. Claim three stated that the environment or contextual situation a school leader worked in dictated how and when they apply the leadership practices to respond to the contextual situation (Leithwood et al., 2008). Although successful school leaders drew from a constant set of effective leadership strategies, contextual sensitivity applied to timing of use of those strategies (Leithwood et al., 2008). Claim four suggested that school leaders indirectly improve teacher practice by motivating and inspiring, but also how they improve working conditions (Leithwood et al., 2008). Like claim two, claim four aligned closely with transformational leadership practices of motivational and inspirational leadership that raised staff level of commitment to a shared goal (Leithwood et al., 2008). Claims five and six focused on the positives and negatives of distributed leadership, while claim seven posited that leader disposition was a major factor in

effective leadership (Leithwood et al., 2008). All seven claims would be reexamined by Leithwood et al. (2019) 10 years later to determine if those claims still applied to successful school leadership.

The journal article entitled *Seven Strong Claims about Successful School Leadership* received high acclaim and acceptance bringing about Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins (2019) revisiting their original seven claims to determine if revisions or refinement were required. Claims two, three, five and six were significantly reinforced, claims one and seven required minor modification, and claim four required major refinement. The revisiting of the original claims reinforced the theory that transformational as well as distributed leadership are most suited for educational leadership (Leithwood et al., 2019). The seven claims supported the current study hypothesis and research questions.

The next article showed how school leaders from New Jersey addressed their inequities with the use of culturally competent and transformational leadership. Federal and states school desegregation dates back to the 1960s and 70s. However, in New Jersey, as recently as 2018, a group of civil rights activists filed a lawsuit demanding that the state of New Jersey create a comprehensive plan to desegregate public schools to address the gross inequities (Hatch et al., 2019). Systematic educational inequities that mirrored many urban public-school districts in the United States demanded total reform of New Jersey public schools. Educational leaders in New Jersey most diverse and impoverished schools faced full on deficit thinking leading to lower expectation both academically and behaviorally for students of color (Hatch et al., 2019). These leaders

recognized the need to create access to better educational opportunities for their students by reinventing the culture of their districts (Hatch et al., 2019).

Initially they focused on shifting the deficit thinking by creating a goal to include more students of color in higher level courses (Hatch et al., 2019). This required the culturally competent strategy of being more inclusive to parents and community members to create a shared commitment from all stakeholders including teachers' belief in students' capabilities. School leaders introduced new ways to look at old practices as well as provided teachers with support emotionally and practically to handle the challenge of closing what seemed like an insurmountable achievement gap (Hatch et al., 2019). Upon closer examination, the school leaders noticed their efforts to enroll students of color in high-level courses had a deceleration pattern as those same students who were enrolled in the 9th grade reenrolled in lower-level courses the following years (Hatch et al., 2019). To combat the deceleration rate, these leaders eliminated lower-level courses and offered extended learning options for science and math. Teachers' confidence in students' ability grew as students showed progress in high-level courses which reduced the deficit thinking that previously dominated the districts culture (Hatch et al., 2019). The efforts mentioned above was just an example from one school district in New Jersey, but all districts committed to raising expectation as well as challenge teacher deficit thinking in order to ensure superb instruction for all students (Hatch et al., 2019). There was a clear recognition that school reform in New Jersey would occur within the walls of each school by transforming the beliefs and expectation for all students (Hatch et al., 2019).

Transforming the districts required intentional and focused staff professional development, professional learning communities, and stringent hiring practices (Hatch et

al., 2019). In addition to staff development, they placed emphasis on creating a positive relationship with students, parents, and community members. The districts also invested in cultivating teacher leaders to collaborate with supervisors to analyze student data as a means of changing teachers' perception of their students. The leaders in New Jersey took their effort to be more inclusive by initiating a series of conversations with staff and students about issues in education setting including race and equity (Hatch et al., 2019). The effort of the three districts were successfully demonstrating that, even in highly segregated and high poverty school districts and states, to make real improvements leaders must be transformative as well as culturally competent.

The final article conducted by Day et al., (2020), reviewed best practices of successful school leadership. This report was part of a series of reviews of international literature commissioned by the Education Development Trust in 2014 looking at: successful leadership, effective teaching, assessment for learning, moving from exclusionary to inclusionary practices, and school self-evaluation for school improvement (Day et al., 2020). Successful school leadership and effective teaching both were revised in 2016, so this report was the most recent study in the series on practices of successful school leaders (Day et al., 2020).

School leaders played an important role in school improvement, even though the impact is indirect: their impact was measured by the influence over instruction; culture; systems, and curriculum (Day et al., 2020). Day et al., (2020) posited that transformational, instructional, and distributed leadership practices were most used by successful school leaders. They listed 10 key dimensions of successful leadership. For

this review, the dimensions that aligned with transformational and culturally competent leadership were highlighted. The transformational dimensions consisted of the following:

Defining the vision, values, and direction; building relationship; and defining and modeling common values. The culturally competent dimensions consisted of the following dimensions: ensuring students well-being and providing equitable access to support for all students; building relationship inside the school community; and building relationship outside the school community (Day et al., 2020, p. 6).

Six of the ten dimensions aligned with either transformational or culturally competent leadership, while the remaining four dimensions closely aligned with distributed and instructional leadership. For over two decades of research into the practices and habits of successful school leaders, “the effect size and the mechanisms through which school leadership (directly or indirectly) raises student outcomes remain a subject of debate” (Day et al., 2020, p. 7). The quantification of successful school leadership continued to elude researchers after hundreds of studies and investigations.

As demonstrated in previous articles (Bass, 1985; Burns 1978; Leithwood & Jantzi 1990, 1998, 1999) transformational leadership practices proved to be effective in motivating staff to go over and beyond what was expected resulting in direct impact on followers’ performance and culturally competent leadership also resulted in a direct impact followers’ performance. Day et al., (2020) postulated that transformational leadership elevated the level of commitment toward a shared goal by stakeholders. Transformational leaders placed great emphasis on student achievement, provided staff targeted and focused professional development, enhanced staff collaboration around

student data, and increased intellectual capacity (Day et al., 2020). This report provided a comprehensive set of leadership practices that aligned with the specific domains. The four transformational domains that emerged from the review were the following “1) Set directions 2) Build relationship and develop people 3) Develop the organization to support desired practices, and 4) Improve the instructional program” (Day et al., 2020, p. 17). Those four behaviors showed a positive effect on the entire staff as well as individual staff members (Day et al., 2020). Transformational leaders have a reputation for building effective working relationship, but they also placed a great deal of emphasis on pedagogical and instructional leadership sometime referred to as “leading for learning” (Day et al., 2020, p. 18). In this case, Day et al. (2020) posited that transformational leaders used instructional leadership to promote better student outcome. In the current study, the researcher hypothesized that transformational leaders used culturally competent leadership strategies to positively impact student outcome.

Conclusion

This literature review began with historical review of transformational leadership and an examination of the evolution of transformational leadership through a series of scholarly articles and literature reviews. The review shifted to transformational leadership integration with culturally competent leadership practices in education. The review concluded with articles that aligned social justice school leaders, turnaround school leaders, and effective school leaders with practices and behaviors of transformational and culturally competent school leaders. The review of literature provides the foundation and context for the research methodology presented in the current study.

Chapter 3

This study sought out to address four questions designed to investigate the degree to which school leaders in South Puget Sound public school district rate themselves as transformational and culturally competent and to determine if there was an association with student achievement and stakeholders' perception with those leaders' behaviors and practices. In Chapter Three, the researcher outlined the methodology used to investigate the research questions. The chapter includes the research questions, hypotheses, research design, participants, sampling process, and the rationale for the research design and study.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Will there be a positive correlation between administrators result on the Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Scale (CCTLS) investigating cultural competency and stakeholders' perception of the administrators as measured by CEE climate survey results?

Null Hypothesis: There is no statistically significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLS and the results of their CEE perception survey.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is statistically significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLS and the results of their CEE perception survey.

Research Question 2: Will there be a positive correlation between administrators results on the CCTLS investigating leadership style and cultural competency and their school OSPI academic report card for student achievement?

Null Hypothesis: There are no statistically significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLS and their OSPI academic report card for student achievement.

Alternative Hypothesis: There are statistically significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLS and their OSPI academic report card for student achievement.

Research Question 3: Will there be a statistically significant difference in mean scores on the transformational leadership section of the survey based on gender?

Null Hypothesis: There is no statistically significant means difference between male or female results on the transformational leadership section of the questionnaire.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant means difference between male and female results on the transformational leadership section of the questionnaire.

Research Question 4: Will there be a statistically significant difference in means scores between leaders with 10 years of experience and leaders with more than ten years of experience on the culturally competent section of the questionnaire?

Null Hypothesis: There is no statistically significant means difference between leaders with 10 or more years of experience and leaders with less than ten years of experience on the culturally competent section of the questionnaire.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant means difference between leaders with less than 10 years of experience and leaders more than ten years of experience on the culturally competent section of the questionnaire.

Research Design

Research questions in this study called for a descriptive research design and correlation research design using quantitative methodology. The first question required the researcher to determine if there was an association with leadership style and cultural competency and CEE perception survey results. The researcher used a correlation method to determine the extent to which two independent variables, leadership style (independent variable) and cultural competency (independent variable) were associated to perception results (dependent variable). The second question required an investigation of an association with the same two independent variables, leadership style and cultural competency and the participants' OSPI student achievement results, the dependent variable. Both questions were analyzed with a correlation research design using quantitative methodology. To measure the association, the researcher conducted a Pearson's product moment correlation to determine the strength of the relationship. Pearson correlation coefficient is symbolized with a r . The value of r ranges from +1.00 which means there is a strong positive relationship to -1.00 which indicates a strong negative relationship and a zero is no relationship (Crowl, 1996). The third question required the researcher to determine if there was a mean difference between female and male administrators' leadership style, while the fourth question sought to determine if principals with 10 year or less of experience are more culturally competent than principals with 11 or years of experience. An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine if there differences in the groups.

Participants

This study took place in four public school districts in Puget Sound communities in Washington State: Tacoma Public Schools, Renton Public Schools, North Shore Public Schools and Steilacoom Historical Public Schools. Each district was required a consent form, a request to participate, as well as assurance of confidentiality (see Appendix C, D, & E) Researcher selected those districts because they have rapidly growing student diversity, low teacher diversity, and they all have significant academic achievement gap between their Black, Hispanic, and low-income students compared to White and Asian students. Three of the districts were considered large urban school districts while one was a combination of suburban and rural schools. The districts were located along the 1-5 corridor within 60 miles of each other.

The districts had similar academic achievement results: Asian and White students outperformed Black, Hispanic, and low-income students. The districts average student achievement data showed a proficiency gap of 30% in math and 21% in English Language Arts for Black and Hispanic compared to Asian and White. Poverty was also a factor in two of the four school districts with an average of 55% of student body receiving free or reduced priced lunch in those districts.

Principals from those districts represented the researcher population of interest. These principals were the most accessible of the targeted population. The researcher extended invitation seven districts to participate to obtain a large sample size to enhance the likelihood of obtaining an accurate estimate of the population parameter (Gall et al., 2015). The CCTLS was distributed to head principals at the elementary and secondary levels of public schools. The Center for Educational Excellence (CEE) perception data

results for school leadership was analyzed for association with principals CCTLS results to determine if culturally competent school leaders were perceived as more effective by their students, teacher, and parents. The principals participated voluntarily however, principals were offered and given a \$10 Starbuck's gift card for completing the entire CCTLS as a token of appreciation. The principals represented a cross-section of building leaders based on gender, years as an educator, years as an administrator, years at current school, and school level. The demographic section of the CCTLS maintained anonymity by replacing the name of the schools with a number code.

The CCTLS was sent only to head principals at Tacoma Public Schools that has 35 elementary principals and 20 secondary principals, Renton's 15 elementary principals and 10 secondary principals, North Shore School District's 21 elementary principals and 10 secondary principals, and Steilacoom School District's four elementary and two secondary principals for a possible of 156 participants.

The participants responded to the following demographic questions: how many years at school, how many years as an administrator, school levels (elementary, middle/junior, or high school), and gender. Those with two years or less at their school was included in the gender and age analysis only. Those with at least three years were included in correlation analysis as well as the descriptive analysis. The link to the CCTLS was initially be sent to districts assessment coordinators or individual responsible for district research. The researcher sent the survey to district representatives for two reasons: The first reason was to provide district representatives an opportunity to preview the CCTLS before they were sent to the principals as well as for district representatives to send reminder emails on their district email account to assist when response rates were

low in their district. The researcher sent over four reminders to each district and was able to obtain 52 completed CCTLS.

Instruments/Measurement Tools

The Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Scale (CCTLS) which was made of two questionnaires that have been administered in previous studies was completed by 52 principals. Transformational leadership constructs were measured using the leadership form of the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ-5x short) developed by Bass (1985) and cultural competency constructs were measured using Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ) Administration Version developed by Mason (1995). The researcher analyzed the CCTLS for association with the Center of Educational Excellence (CEE) perception survey. Most districts in the South Puget Sound used the CEE survey to determine how parents, students and staff perceive their schools' culture, climate, programs/systems, instructional practices, and leadership practices. The CEE parents, students, and staff perception of leadership practices were analyzed for correlation with the CCTLS results.

MLQ-5 Reliability and Validity

As part of the development of the instrument, Bass (1985) conducted a series of interviews with 70 senior South African executives (all male, one black) to find out if they could recall an influential leader in their career. The interviewees' responses were sorted into transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. Respondents were asked to rate their "most recent superior on a five-point scale of frequency from 0 = the behavior is displayed not at all to 4 = the behavior is displayed frequently, if not always" (Bass, 1985, p. 619). After conducting a first factor analysis of 73 items, three correlated

transformational leadership factors emerged, namely: charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Later another factor, “inspirational motivation” emerged as a “cluster of three items” along with two transactional factors: “contingent reward” and “management by exception” (Bass, 1985, p. 620). One of the transformational factors, “charisma” was later renamed to “idealized influence” by Avolio et al., (1999) to avoid the mixing of its meaning with the secular term which defines charisma as “being celebrated, flamboyant, exciting, and arousing” (Bass, 1985,p. 620). From their research, a 6-factor model emerged (Avolio et al., 1999).

Idealized influence (II) referred to an influential leader who puts extra effort to achieve a vision beyond reach, and whom followers see as a role model and develop strong trust and confidence in him/her (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Inspirational motivation (IM) referred to a leader with a clear vision of the future who clearly communicates what is expected from followers and shows strong commitment to the goals set forth to attain the 165 vision (Bass & Riggo, 2006). Intellectual stimulation (IS) referred to the kind of leaders who encourage and motivate followers to question assumptions, look at problems from a different perspective, be unsatisfied by current solutions, and always look for alternative ways and possibilities (Bass & Riggo, 2006). Individual consideration (IC) referred to a leader who understands and attends to others’ concerns, needs, abilities, and ambitions with a goal of developing them according to their unique gift (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Following this, Bass (1985) developed the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) that enabled measurement of followers’ perceptions of a leader’s behavior as transformational or transactional.

The original MLQ, which consisted of 73 items, has undergone substantial revisions, and was reduced to 67 items. MLQ has been revised extensively since the original six factor model was proposed by Bass (1985) (see Appendix A). With subsequent research, additional factors that provided attributions of leadership styles have been identified. Among these the 'Idealized influence' component of transformational leadership has been identified as Idealized behavior and Idealized attribute. Management-by-exception (MBEA) is divided into two categories: Active (MBEA) when principal or leader take immediate actions when something goes wrong and Passive (MBEA) when principal or leader intervenes only when goals were not met or after some serious issues with production. Thus, the present MLQ Form 5X which the researcher used for the current study was based on a nine-factor model. It consisted of 45 items with 36 standardized items measuring leadership styles and 9 items measuring extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Bass & Riggo, 2006).

The MLQ was developed in two forms, namely: the leader form and the rater form. For the current study, the researcher used the leader's form. It was reliable and valid as it has undergone numerous revisions to refine and strengthen it (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Internal consistency reliabilities for the total items and for each leadership factor ranged from .74 to .94 (p. 51). Between 1995 and 2004, MLQ Form 5X has been used by approximately 300 research programs, doctoral dissertations, and master's theses. It has been translated into various languages, including Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, French, German, and others (Bass & Avolio, 2004, p. 39).

CCSAQ Reliability and Validity

Most of the psychometric analysis for this measure was concerned with the issue of internal consistency reliability. This type of reliability dealt with the extent to which items (i.e., questions) in a scale correlate with one another to measure a specific construct or the degree to which they consistently measure the same phenomenon (Vogt, 1993). Data to address this issue was collected in New York, South Carolina, California, Washington, DC, and Washington state.

Internal consistency is typically assessed by calculating alpha coefficients which can range from .00 to 1.00. Measures of .70 on new measures are deemed respectable (Nunnally, 1978). For the CCSAQ, most subscales yielded alpha coefficients of .80 or higher. However, the coefficients for one subscale (Personal Involvement) averaged around .60 (Mason, 1995). While the suggested behaviors in this subscale were quite important, the subscale may be revised, or some items eliminated based on subsequent experience by users of the CCSAQ. Since the CCSAQ was a relatively new instrument, analysis of internal consistency was advisable. However, the researchers did not conduct an analysis of the internal consistency. In settings where more expertise was available, additional psychometric analyses should also be considered.

Content validity was addressed when the items in a scale or measure accurately represent the phenomenon being measured, suggesting that conclusions can be drawn about the phenomenon using the scale (Crowl, 1996). With respect to the CCSAQ, the author conducted extensive reviews and consulted with acknowledged experts to define subscales, identify item content, and refine item wording. The development of the CCSAQ began with an extensive review of historic and contemporary literature relevant

to the delivery of health and human services. This literature was both research- and theory-based. The general goal of the literature review was to establish convergent theories about what constitutes culturally competent behaviors. After the literature review was conducted, focus groups were convened to discuss the development of subscale items. Focus group members were professionals from the service disciplines of mental health, child welfare, special education, maternal and child health, and alcohol and drug treatment. Academic disciplines which contributed to the development of this measure included social work, anti-bias/discrimination, intercultural communication, race relations, sociology, psychology, cultural anthropology, and public health administration. Based upon comments from these recognized experts, the author constructed items for placement in each of the seven subscales.

Data Collection

Participants were provided two methods to complete the CCTLS. Participants had their choice of paper format questionnaires or Microsoft Form electronic version of the CCTLS. The paper format was sent to the principals with a self-stamp envelop to return to my P.O. box. The Microsoft Form version had a submit button that automatically sent the questionnaires back to the researcher's SPU email account. The CCTLS consisted of 70 total items: 45 items from MLQ 5X short (Mind Garden, 2021) and 25 from the CCSAQ (Mason, 1995). The researcher also sent copies to the participating districts' program directors or assessment coordinators to distribute to principals. All 52 participants completed the electronic version of the survey. Participants spent approximately 20 minutes to complete the survey. The researchers requested that participants submit their responses to the CCTLS within a two-week time frame. A

follow up email was sent a week after the initial email to remind the participants. After that, the program directors or assessment coordinators were asked to remind the participants to submit their responses. To obtain honest responses, the researcher emailed each participant the following disclaimer suggested by Mason (1995).

1. Stress that there is no way to perform poorly since cultural competence and transformational leadership are developmental processes;
2. Assure respondents that the results of the questionnaire will not be used for comparisons between individuals, programs, or systems; rather, the goal of this effort is to identify the cultural and leadership training needs of school principals;
3. Stress completeness, asking subjects to respond to every question on the scale to the best of their ability;
4. Utilize the demographic face sheet to identify agency-based cultural strengths which may be overlooked;
5. Track how many questionnaires were distributed and how many were returned; this will allow a return rate to be computed; and
6. Be certain that subject responses remain confidential and cannot be tracked to specific individuals.

Data Analysis

The researcher conducted hypothesis significance testing using two statistical procedures. To determine means difference between gender and years of experience, a series of t-tests were conducted. An independent-samples t-test is used when researcher want to compare two means that come from conditions consisting of different entities (Field, 2018). There was a total of four different entities in this study female and male

principals and principals with 10 or less years of experience and principals with 11 or more years of experience. Pearson's product moment correlations were conducted to determine if there was an association with principal's leadership style and student academic achievement and principal's leadership styles and stakeholders' perceptions. To measure the strength of the association, the researcher conducted a Pearson's product moment correlation to determine the strength of the relationship. Pearson correlation coefficient is symbolized with a *r*. The value of *r* ranges for +1.00 which means there is a strong perfect relationship, to -1.00 which indicated a strong negative relationship, and a zero is no relationship (Crowl, 1996).

Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of principals' leadership styles and characteristics on student academic achievement and stakeholders' perceptions. Chapter four contains the findings from raw data analyzed from 52 principals' results on the Microsoft Form version of the Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (CCTLQ): The *Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ-5x) (Wind Garden, 2021), and the *Abridged Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire* (CCSAQ) (Mason, 1995). Table 3 and Table 4 provides a concise outline of the CCTLQ and how the MLQ-5x and the CCSAQ were combined to construct the CCTLQ with leadership styles in the column on the left, constructs in the center column, and questionnaire numbers in the right column.

Table 3

Abridged Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ).

Leadership Style	Construct	Questionnaire #
Culturally Competent	Knowledge of Communities	1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (a,b,c,d,e,f,g), 6 (a,b,c,d,e), 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
Culturally Competent	Personal Involvement	14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20
Culturally Competent	Resources and Linkage	21, 22, 23, 24, 25

Table 4

The Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire 5x Short for Leaders (MLQ 5x)

Leadership Style	Construct	Questionnaire #
Transformational	Idealized Attributes or Influence	10, 18, 21, 25
Transformational	Idealized Behaviors or Idealized Influence	6, 14, 23, 34
Transformational	Inspirational Motivation	9, 13, 26, 36
Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation	2, 8, 30, 32
Transformational	Individual Consideration	15, 19, 29, 31
Transactional	Contingent Reward	1, 11, 16, 35
Transactional	Mgmt by Exception (Active)	4, 22, 24, 27
Passive Avoidant	Mgmt by Exception (Passive)	3, 12, 17, 20
Passive Avoidant	Laissez-faire	5, 7, 28, 33

Leadership practices were investigated through the theoretical lens of the constructs of transformational leadership and culturally competent leadership. This quantitative study focused on school leaders' impact on student academic achievement as measured by the state (OSPI, 2018) achievement test, Smarter Balance Assessment (SBA). The researcher also investigated leadership actions and behaviors perceived by stakeholders, as measured by the Center for Educational Excellence (2018) (CEE) school perception survey. Principals' CEE results were investigated to determine if there was a relationship with the four constructs of transformational leadership and culturally competent leadership. Multiple independent-samples *t*-test were run using academic achievement and stakeholder perception variables with the culturally competent constructs to obtain the figures and statistical distributions (Descriptive) for this study.

Multiple Bivariate Correlation were also run to obtain Pearson (r) for correlation analysis. To run the correct hypothesis tests, several assumptions had to be checked using IBM statistical software, SPSS descriptive Explore features that created boxplots to identify outliers, Shapiro-Wilkes test for normality of distribution, scatter plots for linearity, and Levene's test to determine equality of variances.

Correlation Analysis

The first research question required a correlation analysis asked: Will there be a positive correlation between administrators result on the Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Scale (CCTLS) investigating cultural competency and stakeholders' perception of the administrators as measured by CEE climate survey results? The question was accompanied by a null hypothesis that stated there is no statistically significant positive relationships between administrators' scores on the CCTLS and the results of their CEE perception survey and an alternative hypothesis that stated there is statistically significant positive relationships between administrators' scores on the CCTLS and the results of their CEE perception survey.

The purpose of correlation analysis is not to determine if one variable has a cause effect on another variable (Fields, 2018). The purpose is to see if the variables covary (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). The researcher obtained access to 30 principals' Center for Excellence in Education (CEE) survey results and used the effective leadership section from the CEE results for this study. Of the 52 principals, 22 had not administered the CEE survey or they did not provide the name of their school which was needed to access their CEE results. However, a sample size of 30 is widely accepted in the statistics for central limit theorem to apply (Fields, 2018). Central limit theorem is a statistical belief

that the larger the sample size gets, the probability for normal distribution increases (Vogt & Johnson, 2016).

Primary analysis showed the relationship to be linear with both variables normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (CEE, $p = .056$) (CC, $p = .276$), and there were no outliers when analyzing a boxplot. A Pearson's product-moment correlation was run to assess the relationship between principals' culturally competency and their CEE stakeholders' perception of them (see Table 5). There was a statistically significant, large negative correlation between principals' culturally competency and their stakeholders' perception of them as effective leaders, $r(28) = -.543$, $p = .002$. Principal cultural competency results statistically explained negatively ($r^2 = 0.29$) 29% of the variability in CEE results.

Table 5

Pearson 2-tailed Correlation Output for Cultural Competency and CEE Survey

Correlations	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
MeansCC	1		52
MeansCEE	-.543**	.002	30

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The hypothesis was directional for this research question. The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables and the alternative hypothesis stating there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables. A second Pearson's product-moment correlation was run as one-tailed instead of two-tailed like the original analysis. Field (2018) recommended conducting the statistical analysis with one-tailed when the hypothesis is

directional. The results from the one-tailed correlation mirrored the two-tailed results (see Table 6). The results were statistically significant in the opposite direction therefore leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis which stated there would be no association between the variables. The negative correlation is discussed in chapter 5 discussion and implication sections

Table 6

Pearson 1-tailed Correlation Output for Cultural Competency and CEE Survey

Correlations	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (1- tailed)	N	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (1- tailed)	N
MeansCEE	1		30	-.57	<.001	30
MeansCCKK	-.574**	<.001	30	1		52

** Correlation in significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

The researcher also conducted an intra-class correlation to determine the consistency or the inter-rater reliability. The intra-class correlation measures the relationship between two variables that measure the same thing (Field, 2018). The CEE survey and the CCTLQ both measure the effectiveness of principals. The researcher wanted to determine consistency between the two raters. The primary results of the intra-class correlation indicated a poor reliability intra-class correlation $r = 0.117$ (see Table 7). The ICC rating determined that the values for the same individual were not similar.

Table 7

SPSS Case Processing Summary for Culturally Competency and CEE Survey

	Intraclass Correlation Coefficient	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
	Correlation	Lower	Upper	Value	Df1	Df2	Sig.
Single Measures	-.079	-.128	.167	.356	29	29	.997
Average Measures	-.171	-.293	.288	.356	29	29	.997

Two-way mixed effects model where people effects are random and measures effects are fixed

The second question analyzed for this study also required a Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis. Will there be a positive correlation between administrators results on the CCTLS investigating transformational leadership style and cultural competency and their school OSPI academic report card for student academic achievement? The question was accompanied by a null hypothesis that stated there are no statistically significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLS and their OSPI academic report card for student achievement. An alternative hypothesis stated there are statistically significant positive relationships between administrators scores on the CCTLS and their OSPI academic report card for student achievement. The student populations of focus were Black, Hispanic, and low-income students who are identified as "students in the achievement gap" in this study. "Students in the achievement gap" math and English Language Arts (ELA) SBA scores were averaged to create one report for each school based on that group of students' academic results. "Students in the achievement gap" SBA academic scores were correlated with principals' CCTLQ results for this question. Asian and White students were not included

in the main study, but that group was part of additional exploratory descriptive and correlation analysis for transformative and cultural competency leadership

The researcher obtained access to 39 principals' OSPI student academic reports cards. Thirteen of the principals did not name their school in the section asking for current school. The researcher was not able to align those principal schools with OSPI report card data. As stated earlier in this report, a sample size of 30 is widely accepted in the statistics for central limit theorem to apply (Fields, 2018). Primary analysis showed the relationship to be linear as assessed by reviewing scatter plots, both variables were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (students of color, $p = .927$) (CCTLQ results, $p = .933$), and there were no outliers when boxplots were analyzed. A Pearson's product-moment correlation was run to assess the relationship between principals' overall score on the CCTLQ and the school SBA academic results for "students in the achievement gap." The researcher focused this report on Black, Hispanic and low-income student based on school federal free/reduced lunch status. The OSPI academic scores for this analysis only include students from the above-mentioned student groups (see Table 8). There was not a statistically significant correlation between principals' overall scores on the CCTLQ transformational questions and their school's academic results for students in the achievement gap, $r(39) = -.013$, $p = .939$. Principal leadership style statistically explained ($r^2 = 0.00$) 00% of the variability in students in the achievement gap academic achievement. The results were consistent with the null hypothesis. The results from this correlation are discussed in chapter 5 implication and discussion section.

Table 8

SPSS Correlation for Students in Achievement Gap Math & ELA Scores and Transformational Leadership

Correlations	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
MeansSAG	1		39	-.013	.939	39
MeansCCTLQ	-.013	.939	39	1		52

The researcher also analyzed leadership style and SBA student achievement data by subject to determine if there was a positive correlation based on subject matter. There was not a statistically significant correlation between principals' overall scores on the CCTLQ transformational questions and their school's SBA math results for students in the achievement gap, $r(37) = -.140$, $p = .397$ (see Table 9). Principal leadership style statistically explained ($r^2 = 0.01$) 00% of the variability in students in the achievement gap for SBA math. There also was not a statistically significant correlation between principals' overall scores on the CCTLQ transformational questions and their school's SBA ELA results for students in the achievement gap, $r(39) = .115$, $p = .485$ (see Table 10). Principal leadership style statistically explained ($r^2 = 0.01$) 00% of the variability in students in the achievement gap for SBA ELA.

Table 9*Correlation for Students in Achievement Gap Math Scores and Transformational Leaders*

Correlations	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
MeansCCTLG	1		52	-.140	.397	52
MathSAG	-.140	.397	39	1		39

Table 10*SPSS Correlation for Students in Achievement Gap ELA Scores and Transformational Leaders*

Correlations	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
MeansCEE	1		52	.115	.485	39
MeansCCKK	.115	.485	39	1		39

** Correlation in significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Demographic Survey Results (CCTLQ)

A request to conduct a research study was sent to seven public school districts in the Sound Puget Sound area of Washington State. The seven school districts are within a 60-mile corridor on Interstate 5, one of the fastest growing locations in the United States according to U.S. Census (2018). The targeted participants worked in districts serving highly diverse and high poverty student populations in urban settings. Three principals from Northshore School District participated in this study after being invited by an associate from Seattle Pacific University. Of the seven school district representatives the researchers sent requests, four allowed the study to take place in their district. There was

a possible total of 94 head principals. The Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Scale (CCTLTS) was sent to the 94 principals from the approved school districts plus another group small group contacted by the SPU associate. A total of 52 principals participated in the project.

The demographic question asking for school name was coded for anonymity to ensure participants were anonymous. The participants' responses for experience were divided into two categories: principals with 10 years or less of experience and principals with 11 years or more experience. Fifty participants responded to that question: 24 with 10 years or less experience and 26 with 11 or more years of experience. The participants in the study were evenly divided according to gender with 26 females and 26 males. A total of 52 principals completed the entire survey, but only 38 had accessible state achievement data and accessible CEE data. Table 11 details participants' (Principals) gender as depicted in the 52 surveys collected and the participation years of experience as an administrator as depicted in the 50 surveys collected.

Table 11

Principals by Experience 10 Years or Less/11 Years or More and by Gender

(Female/Male)

Principals' Gender	N	Percent
Male	26	50.0%
Female	26	50.0%
Principals' Experience	N	Percent
10 Years and Under	24	48%
11 Years and Over	26	52%

Descriptive Analysis

The analysis of the data from the CCTLQ survey results started with the two questions that required comparing mean scores to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in mean scores. The third question analyzed: Will there be a statistically significant difference on the transformational leadership section of the survey based on gender? The question was accompanied with a null hypothesis that stated there is no statistically significant means difference between male or female results on the transformational leadership section of the questionnaire and an alternative hypothesis that stated there is a statistically significant means difference between male and female results on the transformational leadership section of the questionnaire. The researcher also investigated transformational leadership and principals experience to determine if principals with 11 or more years of experience were more transformational than principals with 10 years or less of experience.

Data are mean \pm standard deviation, unless otherwise stated. There were 24 males and 26 female participants. An independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there were differences in transformational leadership between males and females. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Transformational scores for both males and females were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (males, $p = 0.20$) (females, $p = 0.20$), and there was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variance ($p = .244$). The results from the independent-sample t-test indicated that there was not a statistically significant difference in means transformational scores between males and females, -0.15 (95% CI, -0.39 to 0.10), $t(48) = -1.225$, $p = .23$ (see Table 12).

Table 12

Independent Sample t-test for Transformational Leadership Between Genders

Levene's Test for Variance Equality								
					Significance			
					One-Sided p	95% CI		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Two-Sided p	Low	High	
Means Trans	1.390	.244	-1.22	48	.113	.226	-.393	.095

Equal variances assumed

The researcher also investigated the means difference for transformational leadership and years of experience. This was not one of the research questions, but the researcher wanted to determine if principals with 11 or more year of experience were statistically significant more transformational than principals with 10 years or less of experience. The results from the independent-sample t-test indicated that there was not a

statistically significant difference in means transformational scores based on years of experience, -0.15 (95% CI, -0.39 to 0.09), $t(48) = -1.259$, $p = .21$ (see Table 13).

Table 13

Independent Sample t-test for Transformational Leadership and Principals Experience

Levene's Test for Variance Equality								
					Significance			
					One-Sided p	95% CI		
					Two-Sided p	Low	High	
	F	Sig.	t	df				
Means Trans	.337	.564	-1.260	48	.107	.214	-.397	.091

Equal variances assumed

The MLQ-5 questions for transformational leadership were separated according to Bass's (1985) original four constructs: Individualized Influence (II), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individual Consideration (IC). An independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there were differences in any of the individual constructs of transformational leadership between males and female principals. There were no statistically significant differences between males and female principals' transformational leadership scores on any of the individual four constructs of transformational leadership. Idealized influence (II) had the highest mean difference ($3.202 \pm .573$) for males compared to ($3.410 \pm .377$) females for a difference of ($-.203$). The p-value ($p = .143$) for II was also the lowest and closest to significant. The confidence interval for II barely crosses zero (95% CI, $-.477$ to $.070$) another indication of how close it was to being statistically significant. The mean differences for idealized influence ($-.203$), inspirational motivation ($-.112$), intellectual stimulation ($-.083$), and

individual consideration (-.143) were all like the overall means difference (-.15). Table 14 displays the complete independent-samples t-test results for the four constructs of transformational leadership.

Table 14

Independent-samples t-test of 4 Transformational Leadership Constructs for Gender

Levene's Test for Variance Equality								
	F	Sig.	t	df	Significance			
					Two-Sided p	One-Sided p	95% CI	
							Low	High
MeansII	5.737	.021	-1.500	48	.071	.143	-.477	.071
MeanIM	2.317	.135	-.839	48	.203	.406	-.381	.157
MeanIS	.043	.837	-.620	48	.269	.538	-.353	.187
MeanIC	.220	.642	-.737	48	.232	.465	-.400	.185

Equal variances assumed

The researcher used a tool previously checked for reliability and validity, Culturally Competent Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ) (Mason, 1995) to measure cultural competency. The CCSAQ consisted of 25 questions with questions five and six containing an additional seven and five sub-questions. The 25 questions were divided into three theoretical constructs: knowledge of community; personal involvement; and resources and linkage. The first 13 questions assessed the leaders' knowledge of the community they serve. Questions 14 thru 20 assessed personal involvement in the community, and the final five questions assessed leaders' knowledge of resources and linkage to those systems within the district as well as in the community.

Principal preparation programs were criticized in the early 2000s for not having a comprehensive culturally competent curriculum (Khalifa et al., 2016; Rusch, 2004; Toufé 2008). This was the impetus for the research questions: Will there be a statistically significant difference in means scores between leaders with 10 years or less of experience and leaders with 11 or more years of experience on the culturally competent section of the questionnaire? An independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there was a culturally competent differences between leaders with 10 years or less of experience compared to leaders with 11 or more years of experience. The results from the independent t-test provided the means for principals overall culturally competent as well as the means for the three domains of cultural competency.

A descriptive method was required to answer question four which asked: Will there be a statistically significant difference in means scores between leaders with 10 years or less of experience compared to leaders with 11 or more years of experience on the culturally competent section of the questionnaire? That question was accompanied by the null hypothesis that stated there is no statistically significant means difference between leaders with 10 years or less of experience and leaders with 11 years or more of experience on the culturally competent section of the questionnaire. An alternative hypothesis stated there is a statistically significant means difference between leaders with 10 years or less of experience and leaders with 11 years or more of experience on the culturally competent section of the questionnaire. The researcher also investigated if gender had an influence on cultural competency leadership.

The same descriptive statistical analysis used to investigate the third question was also used for the fourth question. Data are mean \pm standard deviation, unless otherwise

stated. An independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there were differences in culturally competency between principals with 11 or more years of experience compared to principals with 10 years or less of experience. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Culturally competent scores for each group were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (10 or less $p = .642$) (11 or more $p = .389$), and the assumption of homogeneity of variances were violated, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .036$). The researcher conducted a Log (10) transformation to address the violation of homogeneity of variances, but homogeneity of variances remained violated. The results from the Welch t-test or the second row from the independent-samples t-test was reported for this question because equal variances were not met (Field, 2018). The Welch t-test results (see Table 15) showed that there were no statistically significant differences, $-0.11(95\% \text{ CI}, -0.388 \text{ to } 0.164)$, $t(37.96) = -0.823$, $p = .415$. The differences in means are virtually identical.

Table 15

Independent-Samples T-test for Years of Experience and Culturally Competency

Levene's Test for Variance Equality								
					Significance			
					One-Sided p		95% CI	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Two-Sided p		Low	High
Means Trans	4.666	.036	-.823	37.9	.208	.415	-.380	.163

Equal variances assumed

The researcher also analyzed culturally competency to determine if there was a statistically significant means difference according to gender. The independent-samples t-

test results (see Table 16) showed that there were no statistically significant differences, $p = .05$ (95% CI, -.273 to .182), $t(48) = -.403$, $p = .689$.

Table 16

Independent-Samples T-test Administrator Gender and Culturally Competency

Levene's Test for Variance Equality								
					Significance			
					One-Sided p	95% CI		
					Two-Sided p	Low	High	
	F	Sig.	t	df				
Means Trans	008	.928	-.403	48	.344	.689	-.274	.182

Equal variances assumed

Similar to the MLQ-5, the *Abridged Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire* (CCSAQ) (Mason, 1995) has three individual domains: Knowledge of Community (KC), Personal Involvement (PI), and Resources and Linkage (RL). After a deeper review of the questions from the *Abridged Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire* (Mason, 1995), the researcher noticed that the sub-questions for questions five and six (birth/death rate, clergy, informal leaders, business alliance, owner occupancy rates, income differences, etc.) were not relevant in educational practices, so a second independent-samples t-test was run without those questions to determine if there were statistically significant differences in the individual domains of culturally competency between principal according to years of experience. Principals with 11 or more years of experience were more culturally competent for the construct of knowledge of community (KC) (3.10 ± 0.38) than principals with 10 years or less of experience (2.80 ± 0.50), a statistically significant difference of -0.26 (95% CI, -0.512 to -0.001), $t(48) =$

-2.02, $p = .049$. Statistical analysis indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in means on the other two culturally competent constructs. The mean differences for both were minimal (PI -.070 and RL -.051) and nonsignificant .

Chapter 5

As previously mentioned, this study was conducted to explore the relationship between principal leadership practices and behaviors and their influence on student achievement and stakeholders' perception. The foundational purpose of this research was to determine if transformational and culturally competent school leaders' practices and behaviors correlated with student achievement and to determine if principals' self-assessment cultural competency results were positively correlated with their stakeholders' perception. The final chapter of the dissertation restated the research problem and briefly reviewed the methodology used in the study. The major sections of the chapter summarized the results from the statistical analysis and discussed the practical implication of the results.

Research Problem

There were an abundant of studies that investigated the effect of school leadership on student academic achievement. Researchers were interested in principals' direct and indirect effect on student academic achievement as well as their impact on school culture and climate. For example, one study indicated that effective leadership has an effect size of 0.25 (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Walters et al., (2003) indicated that a 0.25 effective size translated to 10 percentage point or higher on school academic achievement data. On an average, an effective principal can increase student achievement from the 50th percentile to the 60th percentile. One study determined the effect size was 0.50 which increased student achievement from 50th percentile to the 69th percentile (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2004).

In the current study, cultural competency leadership and transformative leadership was investigated for these leadership styles and behaviors impact on student academic achievement and stakeholders' perception. The targeted participants for the study were principals at public schools in the South Puget Sound region of Washington State. The South Puget Sound region of Washington State and specifically Pierce County with its close proximity to Joint Base Lewis McCord Military Base experienced some of the fastest population growth in the country. According to the U.S. Census (2018), Washington state was the third fastest growing state behind Nevada and Idaho. Since the mid-2000s, school districts across western Washington experienced an influx of diversity among its student population. Demographic data from Washington State Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) indicated that school districts around South Puget Sound all experienced rapid demographic shifts from 2005 to 2019. The impetus for this study came from the researcher, a 15-year administrator in the area knowledge of the challenges district leaders specifically principals met attempting to lead their rapidly growing diverse student population.

As diversity increased, the achievement gap between "students of color" increased also. For the entire state, "students of color" academically trailed White and Asian students in proficiency by an average of 20% in core subject areas (OSPI, 2019). There were factors associated with the subpar academic performance "students of color" in South Puget Sound area of Washington State. One of the issues was the demographic makeup of the teaching staff. A study conducted in New York indicated that diversity of teachers positively impacted student achievement (Educational Trust, 2017). While the number of teachers in Washington State increased by approximately 11,000 in the last

twenty years, the racial and ethnic diversity of the teachers' workforce made minimal gains (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). During the 2015-16 school year 90% of the teachers were white and over 60% of the student were not white which creating a substantial cultural gap. Poverty was also a factor, with over 60% of the student living in poverty, according federal free and reduced lunch eligibility statistics (OSPI, 2019).

Methodology

Research questions in this study called for a descriptive research design and correlation research design using quantitative methodology. The first question required the researcher to determine if there was an association between leadership style and cultural competency and principals' CEE perception survey results. The researcher used a correlation method to determine the extent to which two variables, leadership style and cultural competency were associated with perception results. The second question required an investigation of an association with the same two variables, leadership style and cultural competency and the participants' OSPI student achievement results. Both questions were analyzed with a correlation research design using quantitative methodology. To measure the association, the researcher conducted a Pearson's product moment correlation to determine the strength of the relationship. Pearson correlation coefficient is symbolized with a r . The value of r ranges for +1.00 which mean there is a strong positive relationship, to -1.00 which indicates a strong negative relationship and a zero is no relationship (Crowl, 1996). The third question required the researcher to determine if there was a mean difference between female and male administrators' leadership style, while the fourth question sought to determine if principals with 10 year

or less of experience were more culturally competent than principals with 11 or years of experience. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to determine if there were differences in the groups.

Summary Results

Throughout the study, the research questions provided a foundation that guided the literature review and required selecting a methodology dedicated to determining transformational leadership and culturally competent leadership effects on and association with a variety of educational variables. Research question one as restated from chapter 1 asked: *Will there be a positive correlation between administrators results on the CCTLQ investigating cultural competency and principal's perception result from their CEE climate survey?* As indicated in chapter 4, there was not a positive statistically significant association with principals' results on the culturally competent section of the CCTLQ and their CEE climate survey results for effective leadership. The finding from the statistical analysis indicated a negative relationship between the two variables. The researcher predicted a positive covariance between the two variables: as the CEE scores increased, CCTLQ culturally competent scores would increase also. Instead, the variables went in opposite directions than predicted. Principals who were rated as effective leaders by their stakeholders, rated themselves low for cultural competency. For example, one principal self-rated cultural competency (1.98) on CCTLQ five-point Likert Scale, while the stakeholders rated that principal (4.3) on CEE five-point Likert Scale. The culturally competent scale was designed to assess targeted culturally competent domains. Most of the principals rated themselves with needs for professional development in all three domains, knowledge of community, personal involvement, and resources and linkage.

Stakeholders rated them as highly effective leaders on the effective leadership section of the CEE survey.

Research question two as restated from Chapter 1 asked: *Will there be a positive correlation between administrators results on the CCTLQ investigating leadership style and cultural competency and their school OSPI academic report card for student assessment?* This study was built on the foundation of this specific question because transformational leadership and culturally competent leadership were at the core of this study. The researcher sought out to determine if those two leadership models had relationships with student academic achievement specifically Black, Hispanic and low-income students or “students of color” as identified in this study. Students of color were analyzed for this question because that group had a disparity in student achievement. The primary indications from the Pearson’s product-moment correlation indicated that there was not a statistically significant correlation with principals’ results on the CCTLQ and their students of color academic achievement as measured by the Smarter Balance Assessment (SBA) (OSPI, 2018). The statistical analysis showed a very small negative correlation with an r value of $(-.013)$ that was not recognizable on a scatterplot and indicated a small effect size according to Field (2018) ratings that suggest r (0.00 to 0.29) represents small effective sizes. For references, a Pearson’s test for correlation was also conducted to determine if those principals’ CCTLQ results would correlate with their Asian and White students’ academic achievement results on the SBA. The primary indication for that investigation was like the results of the initial correlation investigation for students of color. There was very weak correlation $(.051)$ or zero effect size that

indicated there was no association with the participating principals' leadership style and student achievement.

The final two questions for this study focused on determining if gender or years of experience as an administrator impacted their leadership style and practices. Both questions were statistically analyzed by conducting independent-samples t-tests to compare the means of the two independent groups, male and female and principals with 10 years of less of experience and principals with 11 or more years of experience (Field, 2018). Question three as restated from Chapter 1 asked will there be a statistically significant difference in mean scores on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ based on gender? The primary finding indicated that there was not a statistically significant means difference between male and female results on the CCTLQ. Those finding are consistent with the null hypothesis for this question. However, female principal means were higher for every construct of transformational leadership, especially idealized influence, where the results were close to significant. These results will be discussed in the discussion and implication section of this chapter.

Question four as restated from Chapter 1 asked will there be a statistically significant difference in mean scores on the culturally competent section of the CCTLQ based on years of experience? The primary finding indicated that there was not a statistically significant means difference between principals based on years of experience. Those finding also were consistent with the null hypothesis. Principals with 11 or more years of experience had higher means scores for all three domains of culturally competent leadership, knowledge of community, personal involvement, and resources and linkage. The finding indicated that there was a statistically significant means difference between

principals with 11 or more years of experience compared to principals with 10 years of less of experience for the knowledge of community domain. These findings were opposite of the researcher's prediction who thought the principals with less experience would be more culturally competent based on current emphasis on culturally competent leadership the last two decades. These finding will be discussed in detail in the discussion and implication section of this chapter.

Discussion

Based on the finding from the primary statistical analysis, it was difficult to make inferences regarding the parameter with such a small sample size as well as generalize about some of the minor statistical findings. The researcher based this study on the impact of transformational leadership and culturally competent leadership for principals at public schools. Two correlation questions and two descriptive comparison questions investigated how principals rated themselves on the two leadership models. The correlation questions investigated how principals rated themselves as transformational and culturally competent leaders and if the results indicated any association with student academic achievement specifically "students of color" and any association with stakeholders specifically staff, students, and parents' perception of those principals. The comparison questions investigated the means difference between gender and years of experience on the CCTLQ. The researcher wanted to know if there was a statistically significant difference between female and male results on the CCTLQ. The researcher also wanted to determine if there was a means differences based on principals' years of experience on the culturally competent section of the CCTLQ.

This discussion started with a review of the impetus for this study. The researcher had an interest in the behaviors and practices of principals who were successful in closing the achievement gap in urban and highly diverse schools to address issues school districts in South Puget Sound were experiencing with rapidly growing diverse student population, yet minimal growth of diversity amongst the teaching staff and principals. The lack of diversity among staff members and the growing diversity among the student population was one glaring indicator for the achievement gap between students identified by the research as “students of color.” The researcher investigated culturally competent leadership as well as social justice school, urban school, effective school, successful school, and turnaround school leadership to identify districts and schools that were effective in leading highly diverse and high poverty student populations. The researcher also investigated transformational leadership along with transactional, distributed, servant, and several other leadership models before narrowing the focus for this dissertation to two specific leadership models, transformative and culturally competent. Early research investigating transformational leadership in politics, business, military, and education produced positive results (Avolio & Bass, 1998; Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978; Leithwood, 1993; Leithwood & Janzi, 1993, 1998, 1999). The researcher initially believed culturally competent leadership in combination with transformational leadership could be the leadership to address the consistent achievement gap between “students in the achievement gap” and Asian and White students. Although the results from the current study’s statistical analysis were not statistically significant there was still growing evidence that practices and behaviors attributed to both leadership models enhanced principals’ leadership abilities however, the researcher overestimated their direct impact

on student achievement and stakeholders' perception. The major implication from the literature review and the finding from the current research suggested that there may be a need for a new educational leadership framework that includes transformational leadership, culturally competent leadership, and instructional leadership.

The foundation for this study was based on the hypothesis that transformational leadership was the model most suited for schools under improvement plans or reform. Burns (1978) introduced transformational/transformational leadership as the leadership model that featured building relationships, providing motivation, and inspiring followers to exceed performance expectations. Research conducted to investigate the effectiveness and impact of transformational leadership indicated it to be the most effective model for school leaders especially in challenging school settings (Leithwood & Janzi, 1990, 1998, 1999). However, results from the current study aligned with previous studies regarding transformational leadership in education: it enhances overall staff performance but does not have direct impact on student academic achievement (Leithwood & Janzi, 1990, 1998, 1999). Transformational leadership is a universal leadership model that has proved to be effective in all areas of leadership (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Burns, 1978). The four constructs or pillars of transformational leadership, idealized influence, inspiration motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration are the foundation for effective leadership specifically in education. However, there are additional leadership attributes to effectively lead highly diverse student population that will be discussed in the implication section of this chapter.

Research investigating culturally competent leadership in education was considered a new phenomenon in educational research a couple of decades ago (Khalifa

et al., 2016). With the dynamic of the current study research problem, culturally competent leadership was the natural leadership model to align with transformational leadership model to form an effective leadership model for the principals leading highly diverse and high poverty schools. Although research was limited pertaining to culturally competent leadership in education, the research was positive and effective leaders of urban schools, turnaround schools, and social justice schools displayed characteristics of culturally competent leadership (Khalifa et al., 2016; Rusch, 2004; Tourè, 2008). The researcher hypothesized that principals' self-rated results on the culturally competent section of the CCTLQ would show an association with their Center for Excellence in Education (CEE) perception results. The rationale for that hypothesis was based on prior research of culturally competent leadership behaviors specifically, their inclusion of the family and community (Kowalchuk, 2019; Zang et al., 2018). The researcher hypothesized that if principal rated themselves to be culturally competent then their stakeholders rated them high for effective leadership on the CEE survey. One section of the CEE survey asked stakeholders to rate their principal for effective leadership on a Likert Scale with 1= *not effective* to 5 = *very effective*. The CEE effective leadership responses were isolated from the remaining CEE items and correlated with principals' response on the isolated culturally competent section of the CCTLQ. The statistical analysis indicated a large statistically significant negative correlation. The finding was significant but in the opposite direction the researcher hypothesized. As the CEE scores went up the culturally competent scores went in the other direction. Principals with CEE scores in the 4.5 range rated themselves in the 1.9 range for cultural competency. One explanation for the statistically significant negative correlation directions could be that

the culturally competent questions were at the end survey when participants were rushing. That reason was supported by the fact that most administrators rated themselves as a two on a four-point Likert Scale even for a question that was as basic as describing the communities of color in your school. In a closer analysis to determine correlation for individual culturally competent domains, two of the domains, knowledge of community and personal involvement were negatively statistically significant, and resource and linkage was negative, yet it was not statistically significant. The practical implication for these results were also reviewed in the practical implication section of this chapter.

The researcher was also interested to determine if principals with 10 years or less of experience would be more culturally competent than principals with 11 years or more of experience. The research studies investigating culturally competent educational leadership revealed that over the last two decades there was growing criticism for the lack of culturally competent training, and researchers called for more culturally competent curriculum in principal preparation programs (Rusch, 2004; Tourè, 2008). If principal preparation programs and district leadership professional development responded to demand for culturally competent training over the last couple of decades, administrative program graduates over the last decade should be more culturally competent. That hypothesis was proven not to be correct. The primary results from the statistical analysis indicated that there was not a statistically significant means difference in responses on the CCTLQ culturally competent section based on years of experience. Another independent-samples t-test was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant means difference among the individual constructs of cultural competence and principal years of experience. There was a statistically significant means difference for the construct of

knowledge of community based on years of experience. However, principals with 11 years or more of experience mean scores for knowledge of community were statistically significantly higher than principals with 10 years or less of experience. The sample size for this question limits the reliability of any generalization or inferences. The question remained to be answered whether principal preparation programs placed more emphasis on culturally competent training. The results from this study suggested that culturally competence skills may have grown with experience instead of restructuring of principal preparation programs. The rationale and implication for these results were discussed in the next section of this chapter.

One of the research questions asked would female principal mean scores on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ be statistically significant different than male principals. That question was a secondary question in this study yet an important question to investigate a claim from an earlier study that stated female leaders were more transformational than male leaders (Bass, 1999). The overall results from the CCTLQ indicated that there was not a statistically significant mean difference between how female rated themselves on the CCTLQ and males rated themselves. Females did have higher means for all four constructs of transformational leadership with Idealized Influence having the largest mean difference. Although the differences were not statistically significant, the higher means for each construct aligned with the claims from an earlier study that females appeared to be more transformational than males (Bass, 1999).

The question and hypothesis that moved this study forward, guided the research efforts, and focused the literature review suggested that transformational leaders would

be associated with student academic achievement as measured by the state-wide assessment SBAC. The researcher hypothesized that there would be a correlation with “students in the achievement gap” academic achievement and principals’ self-rated scores assessing the four constructs of transformational leadership. The researcher separated the transformational leadership constructs from transactional, passive avoidant, and other outcomes of leadership on the MLQ-5x (Mind Garden, 2021). The other leadership constructs were removed to specifically determine if transformational leadership behaviors and practices were associated with academic achievement among historically marginalized students. The results from the statistical analysis indicated there was not a direct association with transformational leadership and student academic achievement. The results aligned with results from prior studies conducted with similar hypotheses investigating relationships with transformational leadership and student academic achievement (Leithwood & Janzi, 1990, 1998, 1999). The current study’s correlation was minimal and nonsignificant, yet transformational leadership behaviors were prevalent in literature about effective and successful education leadership (Anderson, 2017; Day et al., 2020; Hatch et al., 2019; Leithwood et al., 2008, 2019,). The statistically nonsignificant results from these studied are explored during the implication section of this chapter.

Limitations

This study presented the researcher with some challenges and obstacles that created a few limitations. The first limitation was the sample-size that max out at 52 participants. The researcher was very persistent with the effort to garner more participants. The researcher sent many emails to district representatives seeking approval to conduct the study in their districts. Seven districts were asked to participate in the

study with a possibility of 162 principals participating. Four of the seven districts requested to participate approved the study. One district approved the study, but no principals from the district participated. Emails were sent weekly with a link to the survey as a reminder to complete the survey. Paper copies were sent directly to every principal school addressed to individual principals. With each reminder, the researcher made sure to remind the perspective participants that they would receive a \$10 Starbucks gift card for completing the survey. The sample size limitation limited the researcher's ability to make an inference about the characteristic of the population based on the descriptive statistics (Gall et al., 2015). The central limit theorem informs the researcher that sampling distribution will be normal with larger the sample size and "the widely accepted value is a sample size of 30" (Field, 2018, p. 177). The researcher had a sample size ($n=50$) for the two descriptive research questions that compared means differences for gender and years of experience, a sample size ($n=30$) for one of the correlation questions, and a sample size ($n=39$) for the second correlation question. As detailed in the results chapter, primary analysis showed normal distribution as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test for normality for testing all four hypotheses.

The challenge of sample size could be addressed in future studies by requesting to meet with participants face to face. The researcher suggests that a replication of this study should include requesting to meet district leadership team in person either at a district leadership retreat or leadership meeting. Sending emails requesting principals to complete a survey for someone they are unfamiliar with was challenging. Future researchers will benefit from the opportunity to briefly explain the study and detail the benefits for individual participants in a face to face or video meeting. Another strategy to

increase participation is to network with two organizations that collaborate with state principals, Washington State regional Educational Service Districts (ESDs) and the Association of Washington School Principals (AWSP). The researcher could schedule meeting with both association superintendent to present the study benefits to practicing administrators as well as offer to present findings and practical implications at an association workshop or administrative conference. This level of recruitment would also take a considerable amount of time, travel, and funding but the findings would not have sample size limitation. The funding however could be an issue because the researcher spent \$540 in Starbuck gift cards by offering \$10 gift cards for completion of the CCTLQ.

The second limitation or concern was the lack of culturally competent measurement in the educational field. After reviewing many scholarly articles investigating cultural competency, most of the qualitative studies were conducted in the medical and health related field. Culturally competent research in education was limited at the time of the study and considered a new field of study by educational researchers (Khalifa, Gooden, & Davis, 2016). However, the researcher was able to find a culturally competency measurement tool (Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire CCSAQ) created at a medical center in Portland, Oregon that had been statistically factor analyzed to ensure that the tool concisely measured the defined factors of interest (Pett et al., 2003). The CCSAQ consisted of three domains: knowledge of community, personal involvement, and resources and linkage. The questionnaire contained 25 questions, however questions five and six contained sub-questions that were more aligned to the medical field. The researcher did not include those questions in the statistical analysis and

recommend they are removed in replication of this study. The researcher recommend that more educators use the CCSAQ to measure leadership culturally competency in large scale studies. The researcher also recommends that an educational leadership cultural competency measurement tool be developed to measure additional educational cultural competency variables pertaining to classroom environment.

The final limitation or concern was the number of questions on the survey: Seventy-Five questions could have been narrowed down to less than half that number. It took the participants an average of 18 minutes to complete the survey. Nineteen surveys were not totally completed, so they could not be used for the statistical analysis. A few reasons come to mind for the incompletions as well as ways to address that issue. The MLQ-5x contained 45 questions but only 20 pertained to transformational leadership practices which was relevant for this study (Mind Garden, 2021). The remaining 25 questions assessed transactional, passive avoidant, and outcomes of leadership. The current research focused on principals' transformational leadership behaviors and practices and their effect and impact on their schools. The 20 questions were isolated from the other questions for the statistical analysis to ensure transformational leadership was the only leadership being measured. The researcher suggested that if the study is replicated to only include the 20 transformational questions in the survey and omit the other leadership questions. By omitting 25 non-transformational leadership questions as well as omitting questions five and six sub-questions from the CCSAQ, the survey will be shorter and more concise. The researcher was puzzled with the negative finding for culturally competent and stakeholders' perception. The researcher struggled with understanding why principals rated themselves so low, and the researcher believed that a

smaller number of questions would have reduced completion time and led to more concise answers at the end of the survey.

Implications

Although the small sample size and non-statistically significant results for this study did not provide clear implication for practice, this study, and the substantial amount of prior research on transformational leadership in education, culturally competent leadership, and successful school leadership provided the impetus to propose a new leadership framework titled *The Diverse School Leadership Framework* created by this study researcher. The major implication from this study suggested that principals need to implement transformational leadership practices, culturally competent practices, as well as instructional leadership practices to effectively lead school with high diverse populations (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 2004; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood et al., 2008, 2019; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990, 1998, 1999).

A key finding from this study was that culturally competent and transformational leaderships are universal leadership models that can be transferred to business, politic, and military leaders (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Burns, 1978). One practical implication from this study and other studies reviewed for this dissertation suggested that principals in all public schools implement culturally competent practices into their daily routines especially in highly diverse and high poverty schools. The current study showed a statistically significant finding that principals with 11 years or more of experience for knowledge of community compared to principals with 10 years or less of experience. This was an important finding since the knowledge of community questions was so closely aligned to the practices and behaviors of effective principals at challenging

schools, turnaround schools and schools that beats the odds (Hitt, 2019; Hitt & Tucker, 2015; Shriberg & Clinton, 2016; Zang et al., 2018). Howley et al., (2009) posited that one of the main features of culturally competent leaders was the inclusive way they collaborated with families and community members to leverage creative and innovative leadership decisions. Yoon and Barton (2019) suggested that school improvement plans most include collaboration efforts with families and community members or they are destined to fail. The research was limited regarding culturally competent school leaders but the research investigating effective principals at challenging and underperforming schools was tied to inclusion of families and community

The second finding suggested a need for a new framework with transformational leadership as the base or foundation. The impetus for Leithwood and associates' investigations into transformational leadership and eventually recommending adopting transformational leadership in education came from the positive results from prior leadership studies with military, business, and political leaders (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Burns, 1978). The decision to label transformational leadership the foundational leadership model was based on practices and behavior of the models were attributed to effective leaders universally. The four constructs of transformational leadership, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration are effective and transferrable to all professional leader practices. Prior studies as well as the current study also indicated that neither transformational nor culturally competent leadership directly impacted student academic achievement and that the key to successful school leadership in diverse schools included instructional leadership. Hallinger (2003) an instructional leadership researcher posited

that instructional leadership was more effective when in conjunction with transformational leadership. Hallinger (2003) probably one of the strongest advocates for instructional leadership claimed that transformational leadership and instructional leadership cannot be successful without each other. Hallinger (2010) recommendation solidified the researcher's position that transformational leadership constructs set the foundation for the proposed leadership framework. The Diverse School Leadership Framework introduced a practical and theoretical outline for effective leadership at highly diverse schools in urban as well rural settings (see Table 17).

Table 17

Components of Diverse School Leadership Framework Based on Transformational Leadership

Constructs

 Diverse School Leadership Framework

<i>Transformational Leadership Constructs</i>	A. Idealized Influence	B. Inspiration and Motivation	C. Intellectual Stimulation	D. Individual Consideration
<i>Culturally Competence Leadership Practices & Behaviors</i>	1. Asset-Based 2. Strength-Based 3. High Expectation 4. Positive School Climate 5. Inclusive Practices	1. Critical Conciseness 2. Visionary 3. Compassion 4. Providing Incentive to Learning	1. Multicultural Instructions 2. Critical Pedagogy 3. Culturally Responsive Instruction	1. Personal Involvement 2. Community Involvement 3. Strength-Based 4. Knowledge of Community Resources
<i>Instructional Leadership Practices & Behaviors</i>	1. Managing Instructional Programs 2. Professional Learning Communities 3. Goal Oriented	1. Data Driven Decisions 2. Clear School Goals 3. Providing Incentive to Teach 4. Capacity Builder	1. Coordinating Curriculum 2. Frequent Formative Feedback 3. Professional Learning Communities	1. Instructional Coaching 2. Targeted PD 3. Monitoring Student Achievement 4. Teacher Mentoring 5. Evaluating Instruction

In some ways the researcher offered a simplistic presentation of the intersection of the three leadership models. This is done purposefully in the hopes of breaking down the complexities and intricacies of diverse school leadership into identified practices and behaviors that can be recognized, understood, and efficiently and effectively incorporated into daily practices. That is, the elements of transformational, culturally competent, and instructional leadership can be seen as practical measures to lead diverse schools. The remaining implication section details the intersection of the three leadership models and how they are interconnected.

The *Diverse school Leadership Framework* and its theoretical roots are found in the Ontario Leadership Framework (Leithwood, 2012), Social Justice Leadership Framework (Zhang et al., 2018), Culturally Competent Leadership (Theoris & Sebastian, 2006), Turnaround School Leadership (Hitt et al., 2019), Seven Strong Claims of Successful School Leadership (Leithwood et al., 2008, 2019) and Instructional Leadership (Hallinger, 2003). The proposed framework for school leadership is built on the four constructs of transformational leadership and those constructs interaction with culturally competent and instructional leadership.

Idealized Influence Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional Leadership:

Idealized influence could be considered the most abstract of the four constructs because it has more to do with demeanor and behaviors than the other three constructs. In Bass (1985a) initial factor analysis of transformational leadership, idealized influence was defined as charismatic leadership. For the current leadership framework this construct is based on how educational leaders address problems of practices that positively influence

followers. For example, instructional leadership and idealized influence aligns when principals implement professional learning communities to enhance professional collaboration, as well as systems they use to impact school climate demonstrating decision making at a level of expertise, personal values, and ambition (Hallinger, 2010). Idealized influence aligns with culturally competent leadership in the way the leader influence follower perception of student ability, expectation for students, connection with the community, and partnership with parents. The inclusive approach to school leadership has been shown to enhance student achievement as well as to create positive relationships with parents (Zhang et al., 2018). Idealized influence was called charismatic during earlier transformational leadership studies, however later research supported and acknowledged the impact that leaders influence can have over followers with both positive and negative outcomes (Bass, 1999).

Inspiration/Motivation Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional Leaders

Inspiration and motivation may sound more abstract, but the practices and strategies are more concrete than idealized influence. For example, the use of data for inspiration and motivation aligned with instructional leadership practices as well as using that data to set clear and measurable goals. The presentation of student achievement data assist principals with setting clear and measurable goals. This construct and leadership models also aligned with how effective principals motivate and inspire by providing positive incentive and assisting staff with building capacity to work through problems of practice (Hallinger, 2010). Culturally competent leadership and motivation and inspiration constructs aligned when principals provide incentive for learning with culture

impacting systems and programs. According Beachum and McCray (2004), cultures collide when there were no systems in place to recognize, honor, include, and celebrate all student cultures by their teachers and principals. Systems and programs created to address culturally competent issues in schools work when leaders truly address these issues by changing how people feel and act which requires adaptive not technical change (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017).

Intellectual Stimulation Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional Leadership:

The construct of intellectual stimulation is the most important construct regarding leading in diverse school setting especially when the staff is not diverse. Culturally competent leaders intellectually stimulate followers by providing professional development in areas of multicultural instructions, critical pedagogy, and culturally responsive instruction (Banks, 2002; Jordan-Irvine, 2003;Ladsen-Billings & Tate, 2004). They provide practical strategies that challenge status quo and change the way staff think about students, parents, and the community they serve. Principals at schools with diverse student population must also intellectually stimulate followers by being an instructional leader who provides training and support to enhance instructional practices in their school. Instructional leaders must provide professional development in areas of differentiated instruction, formative and summative feedback, academic engagement strategies, and professional learning communities to name a few instructional strategies (Hallinger, 2004; Hallinger, 2010).

Individual Consideration Intersection with Culturally Competent and Instructional Leadership

Individual consideration construct is grounded in authentic and effective professional relationships as well as effective family and community relationships. Individual consideration interacts with culturally competent leadership when principals implement systems to recognize diverse cultures within a school. They work to understand the dynamics of each group's culture, traditions, as well as resources and linkage to those resources, and they create systems of inclusion where parents, who historically have not participated in process of their child education, feel welcomed and valued (Santamaria & Santamaria, 2015). These principals also make sure that their school improvement plan includes family and community involvement (Tourè, 2008). Davis (2002) was more direct suggesting that leaders must expand their knowledge so being cognizant of the importance of inclusiveness is never lost in the efforts to reform schools. Culturally competent leaders must practice individual consideration to ensure all students receive culturally relevant and responsive instruction and that family and community members feel included as well as welcomed to participate in their child's learning process.

Individual consideration is a very important element of instructional leadership. According to Hallinger (2010), one of the duties of an instructional leader is to supervise and evaluate instruction and this is where instructional leadership and individual consideration intersects. Evaluating teachers is not a one size fits all activity; it requires individual consideration to identify strengths and weakness to design a professional growth plan. Leithwood et al., (2006) posited that instructional leaders tend to use the same basic practices but in a manner that is responsive to each individual teacher. Instructional leaders also use distributive leadership strategies to identify and grow

leaders within the institution. Instructional leaders are data driven to a point where they know the individual reading and math scores of their most challenging students, and some know the scores of all their students (Hallinger, 2010). Individual consideration is vital for teacher and principal to have positive working relationship as well as just a friendly overall relationship. Principals must build effective group and individual relationships to positively impact student achievement. Principals must have a professional as well as personal relationship with teaching staff to build trust, synergy, and shared effort to meet shared goals.

Conclusion

This quantitative descriptive and correlation study investigated leadership styles and behaviors of principals at public schools in the Puget Sound area of Washington state. The participants in this study completed a 75-question survey assessing transformational leadership and culturally competent leadership. The results from the current study survey, the CCTLQ were statistical analyzed using independent-samples t-tests and Pearson's product-moment correlations. The study focused on transformational leadership constructs of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The other main investigation for this study focused on culturally competent sub-domains of knowledge of community, personal involvement, and resources and linkage. The researcher identified knowledge of community as a key element of culturally competent leadership that had statistically significant findings. The literature and research supported the recommendation for the implementation of culturally competent, transformational, and instructional leadership framework for public schools especially schools with highly diverse student population

and historically low academically performing Black, Hispanic, and low-income students. The proposed framework, *The Diverse School Leadership Framework*, was detailed in the practical implication section of this chapter. The intersections detailed in the previous section represented a small sample of how culturally competent leadership, instructional leadership, and transformational leadership intersects. The constructs of transformational leadership and some of the specific behaviors and strategies are interchangeable in the *Diverse School Leadership Framework*. For example, professional development suggestions for intellectually stimulating staff can also be used to motivate and inspire staff. Districts and principal preparation programs need to focus leadership professional development on training and developing future leaders to be culturally competent, transformational, and instructional leaders. The combination of the three leadership models forms a practical framework for principals working in highly diverse school setting. In sum, this study suggests avenues for improved school leadership practices and behaviors for principals in challenging school settings. Future researchers of educational leadership as well as practicing administrators should highly consider the *Diverse School Leadership Framework* as a tool to enhance student achievement, staff performance, and stakeholders' perception.

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Appendix A: MLQ 5x-Short

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™ Leader Form (5x-Short)

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

1.	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.....	0	1	2	3	4
2.	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	I fail to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6.	I talk about my most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7.	I am absent when needed.....	0	1	2	3	4
8.	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9.	I talk optimistically about the future.....	0	1	2	3	4
10.	I instill pride in others for being associated with me	0	1	2	3	4
11.	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12.	I wait for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13.	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.....	0	1	2	3	4
14.	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15.	I spend time teaching and coaching.....	0	1	2	3	4

Continued =>

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Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4
16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.....	0	1	2	3 4
17. I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3 4
18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0	1	2	3 4
19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.....	0	1	2	3 4
20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.....	0	1	2	3 4
21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me.....	0	1	2	3 4
22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.....	0	1	2	3 4
23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.....	0	1	2	3 4
24. I keep track of all mistakes.....	0	1	2	3 4
25. I display a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3 4
26. I articulate a compelling vision of the future.....	0	1	2	3 4
27. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.....	0	1	2	3 4
28. I avoid making decisions.....	0	1	2	3 4
29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.....	0	1	2	3 4
30. I get others to look at problems from many different angles.....	0	1	2	3 4
31. I help others to develop their strengths	0	1	2	3 4
32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3 4
33. I delay responding to urgent questions	0	1	2	3 4
34. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.....	0	1	2	3 4
35. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations.....	0	1	2	3 4
36. I express confidence that goals will be achieved.....	0	1	2	3 4
37. I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.....	0	1	2	3 4
38. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying	0	1	2	3 4
39. I get others to do more than they expected to do.....	0	1	2	3 4
40. I am effective in representing others to higher authority.....	0	1	2	3 4
41. I work with others in a satisfactory way.....	0	1	2	3 4
42. I heighten others' desire to succeed	0	1	2	3 4
43. I am effective in meeting organizational requirements.....	0	1	2	3 4
44. I increase others' willingness to try harder.....	0	1	2	3 4
45. I lead a group that is effective	0	1	2	3 4

Appendix B: Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire

Administration Version (Short)

This questionnaire is designed to assess cultural competence training needs of school principals. The self-assessment process is used to develop agency-specific training interventions which address cross-cultural weaknesses and build upon cross-cultural strengths of the staff generally and organization specifically. Cultural competence is a developmental process; therefore, the goal is to promote positive movement along the cultural competence continuum. Thus, the assessment should be viewed as an indication of areas in which the agency and principals can, over time, enhance attitudes, practices, policies, and structures concerning service delivery to culturally diverse populations. Your responses are strictly confidential and will solely be used to identify areas in which planned growth and greater awareness can occur.

Name of School _____

Years as an educator _____

Years as an administrator _____

Years at current school _____

Gender (circle one) Male Female

Knowledge of Communities

1. How well are you able to describe the communities of color in your school?
Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)
2. How well are you able to describe with-in group differences?
Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)
3. How well are you able to describe the strengths of the groups of color in your school?
Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)
4. How well are you able to describe the social or community problems of the groups of color in your school?
Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)
5. To what extent do you know the following demographic characteristics within communities of color in your school? (*circle the number of your response for each area*)

Not at All Barely Fairly Well Very Well

a. Unemployment rates	1	2	3	4
b. Geographic locations	1	2	3	4
c. Income differences	1	2	3	4
d. Educational attainments	1	2	3	4
e. Birth/death rates	1	2	3	4
f. Homicide rates	1	2	3	4
g. Owner occupancy rates	1	2	3	4

6. To what extent do you know the following resources regarding the people of color in your school? (*circle the number of your response for each area*)

	Not at All	Barely	Fairly Well	Very Well
a. Informal supports	1	2	3	4
b. Informal leaders	1	2	3	4
c. Advocates	1	2	3	4
d. Clergy	1	2	3	4
e. Business alliance	1	2	3	4

7. Do you know the prevailing beliefs, customs, norms and values of the groups of color in your school?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

8. Do you know the social services needs within communities of color that go unaddressed by the formal social service system?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

9. Do you know of conflicts between or within groups of color in your school?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

10. Do you know the greeting protocol within communities of color?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

11. Do you understand the conceptual distinction between the terms “immigrants” and “refugee”?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

12. Do you know what languages are used by the communities of color in your school?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

13. Are you able to describe the common needs of people of all colors in your school?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

Personal Involvement

14. Do you attend cultural or racial groups holidays within communities of color?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

15. Do you attend school-based meetings within communities of color in your school area?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

16. Do you attend community forums or neighborhood meetings within communities of color?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

17. Do you patronize businesses owned by people of color in your school neighborhood?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

18. Do you pursue recreational or leisure activities with communities of color?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

19. Do you feel safe in communities of color?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

20. Do you attend community or culturally based advocacy group meetings within communities of color?

Not At All(1) Barely(2) Fairly Well(3) Very Well(4)

Resources and Linkage

21. Do you provide professional development who can help staff members work more effectively with groups of color?

Not At All(1) Seldom(2) Sometimes(3) Often(4)

22. Does your district utilize interpreters to work with non-English speaking persons?

Not At All(1) Seldom(2) Sometimes(3) Often(4)

23. Does your school subscribe to publications (local or national) in order to stay abreast of the latest information about population of color?

None(1) A Few(2) Some(3) Many(4)

24. Do your staff have access to culturally-related materials (books, videos, etc.)?

None(1) A Few(2) Some(3) Many(4)

25. Do your school staff regularly attend cross-cultural workshops?

None(1) A Few(2) Some(3) Many(4)

Appendix C: PHRP Cert



CERTIFICATE OF COMPLETION

PHRP Online Training, Inc. certifies that

Stout Andre

has successfully completed the web-based course "Protecting Human Research Participants Online Training."

Date Completed: **2021-06-04**

Certification Number: **2867029**



Appendix D: SPU Consent Form



Study Title: An Examination of Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Influence of Student Achievement and Stake-holders Perception

Principal Investigator: Andre Stout, Master of Education, and SPU Doctoral Candidate

Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Mvududu

PURPOSE

My name is Andre Stout. I am a doctoral student in the School of Education at Seattle Pacific University. You are invited to take part in a research project that examines the impact of transformative leadership and culturally competent leadership on student's academic achievement and school stake holders' perception.

You will be asked to complete an anonymous survey that includes a demographic form and a set of questionnaires. The survey takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. Participants' school will be given a pseudonym, and each participant will receive a Starbucks \$10 gift card upon completion of the survey. The gift card will be mailed to school addressed to the building principal.

RISK

There is minimal risk involved in this study. School names will be converted into a number code to ensure confidentiality. There is no way to perform poorly since cultural competence and transformational leadership are developmental processes. The results of the questionnaire will not be used for comparisons between individuals, programs, or systems; rather, the goal of this effort is to identify the cultural and leadership training needs of school principals

BENEFITS

To date, there is very limited research on the impact of transformative and culturally competent leadership on student academic achievement and stake holders' perception. We encourage you to participate in this study. The districts will receive an overall report on their school leaders' strength and areas to grow. The main potential benefits are that the principals will improve their leadership skills and cultural competency in order to positively impact academic achievement for Black, Hispanic, and low-income students.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your participation is in the survey completely anonymous as stated in this information letter. There is no identifying information (e.g., name) on the survey. You can skip any question you do not feel comfortable answering. The anonymous online survey data will be stored in a password protected website and downloaded onto Andre Stout's personal computer after the study has been completed. School will be given a pseudonym. Only Andre Stout and his faculty sponsor (Dr. Nyaradzo Mvududu) have access to the raw data. Reports resulting from this study will not identify you as a participant; only aggregate results will be presented or published.

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, please call Andre Stout or write him at astout1@spu.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the SPU Institutional Review Board Chair at 206-281-2201 or IRB@SPU.edu.

CONSENT

Your participation in the study is completely voluntary. By check "Yes" on the electronic survey form, you indicate that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding your participation in this research project and agree to participate in this study. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the investigators, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities.

IRB # 202106006

; Expired: Your approval is indefinite

Appendix E: Completed District Request to Participate Application

Department of Learning and Teaching**Application to Conduct Research Studies in Renton Public Schools**

As the District's decision will be based on information provided in this application, it is the researcher's responsibility to provide all requested information on this form. If more space is needed to answer any item, please attach additional sheets. Supplementary materials may be attached, as appropriate. All studies and surveys to be conducted in the Renton School District must have written approval of the Assistant Superintendent to the Department of Learning and Teaching. If the study is to fulfill degree requirements, this form must be signed by the graduate advisor to the investigator. The district reserves sole discretion to deny approval of any research request received. **NOTE: Completed Applications should be returned to the Assistant Superintendent, Learning and Teaching.**

Name of Researcher: Andre Stout **Date:** 8/9/2021

Position Title: Middle School Principal **Phone:** 253-444-7263

Home Address: 10802 95th Ave Ct SW Lakewood WA, 98498

Email: stouta1@spu.edu

Institution/Agency: Seattle Pacific University

Office Address: 3307 3rd Ave West, Seattle WA 98119 **Phone:** 206-281-2201

Title of Study: An Examination of Culturally Competent Transformational

Leadership Influence of Student Achievement and Stake-holders Perception

Purpose of Study:

The purpose of this study is to examine and describe transformative leadership components and cultural competencies in relationship to school leadership to provide

methods for school leaders to positively impact academic achievement for all students regardless of race or social economic status and regardless of teacher's race. The goal is to identify a leadership model that will assist principals in transforming their staff instructional practices, classroom management practices and curriculum choices to meet the academic and social emotional needs of students who do not look like them, live like them, and were not raised like them. I will closely examine the leadership traits of transformational leadership and the components of culturally responsive school leadership. I will use two previously used tools, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Culturally Competent Self-Assessment Scale (CCSAS) to measure traits of transformational leadership and components of culturally responsive school leadership.

Value of results of this study to Renton School District:

I will offer participating districts three to six hours of results analysis with the leadership team as well as leadership and culturally competent professional development.

Schools and grade levels in which this study will be conducted:

I would like to survey principals at all levels.

School records required to be reviewed for this study:

If you are having CEE survey data, I would need to access that data. All other data will be obtained from OSPI district report card.

Estimated time required by staff to participate in this study:

Participants will have to spend approximately 30 minutes on the survey.

Is this study legally mandated? NO If so, by what agency or authority?

(Please be specific)

Date requesting study to commence: 8/12//2021 Conclude: 9/15/2021

Approximate date of data collection: The survey is electronic: the survey data will be collected from 8/12//2021 to 9/15/2021 via email after submission

Expected completion of final report: 11/30/2021

Please describe the ways in which the Renton School District would directly benefit from your study.

The districts will receive an overall report on their school leaders' strength and areas to grow. The main potential benefits are districts will be provided with detailed leadership strategies to improve their building leadership skills and cultural competency in order to positively impact academic achievement for Black, Hispanic, and low-income students. I will also provide participating districts three to six hours of free leadership and culturally competent professional development.

Please describe staff responsibilities/expectations in fulfilling the requirements of the study.

Principals will only have to complete the 70-item survey and submit.

Please indicate the number of participants and the approximate amount of time that would be required of each participant by grade level.

Number of Participants	Students by Grade	Teachers by Grade	Principals	Parents	Others
23			23		

Describe the specific procedure to be used to select participants.

I am only request that head principals volunteer to complete the survey. The study is designed to access head principals' impact on student learning.

Please describe the instruments, forms, questionnaires, or tests to be used to collect data and explain how those instruments relate to the study.

Investigator have developed an electronic survey on culturally competent and transformational leadership by combining two previously used questionnaires (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Culturally Competent Self-

Assessment Scale (CCSAS). The combination of the two questionnaires makes up the Culturally Competent Transformational Leadership Scale CCTLS which assess transformational leadership constructs and culturally competent constructs.

Who will be responsible for administering tests or questionnaires?

Principals volunteer to participate; no one else has to be involved in the process.

Time required to administer each: approximately 30 minutes

Are parent permission forms required? _____ Yes, X No

If yes, please attach a copy. If the project is approved, a list of students whose parents have signed parent permission forms must be provided to the Department of Learning and Teaching before administering tests or questionnaires.

Study Design:

✓ **What question does your study seek to answer?**

The overall goal of my questions is to determine if principals who are culturally competent and display transformational leadership behaviors can positively impact student academic achievement. In my literature review, several studies indicated that females are more transformational than males so I want to see if that finding is confirmed in my study.

Will there be a positive correlation between administrators results on the CCTLQ investigating leadership style and cultural competency and their school OSPI academic report card for student assessment?

Will there be a statistically significant difference in mean scores on the transformational leadership section of the CCTLQ based on gender?

✓ **How will the data be physically tabulated?**

Survey data will be transferred to excel and statistically analyzed with SPSS for means differences and correlation patterns.

✓ **What analytical tools will you use in your design?**

I will conduct an independent sample t-test and Pearson correlation using SPSS statistical software.

List the facilities need at each school (tables, chairs, rooms, etc.). NA

How will you report the results of the study, and to whom?

The results of the study will be reported in chapter 4 of my dissertation. I will share the results with participating school districts.

Will results be published? _____ **Yes** **X** **No** **If yes please describe by who, when and how:**

To this application, attach a copy of the following:

- A copy of all questionnaires, forms, tests, and communications which will be distributed to participants.
- A parent permission form, if appropriate
- An abstract summary of your research proposal or dissertation prospectus, if applicable or a complete description of this research project or study.
- A copy of your university's approval for your research on human subjects, if it is required by the university.
- If you are affiliated with an organization, please provide company/agency policy regarding research/data collection on human subjects.
- Alert the district if results are to be disseminated in any public forum. Include names/media sources that you will release information about the study.
- Submit copies of the results and/or outline of the presentation prior to dissemination.
- Submit copies of reports and findings from the study/research.
- If you are involved in independent or self-directed research, please provide copies.
- Recognize the value of individual's time and commit to minimizing the impact on district staff/operations.
- Plan on how you will communicate with teachers, principals and district personnel before, during and after the study.

NOTE: The District reserves the right to deny any requested study at its sole discretion.

If the study is conducted to fulfill the requirements for an advanced degree, researcher must provide the Department of Learning and Teaching with a copy of the thesis or dissertation.

Statement of Researcher:

In submitting this application, I assure the Renton School District that I will conduct the research in all respects according to the conditions under which this

application may be approved, including the Guidelines for Research Projects in the Renton School District. In compliance with the Family Education Rights and Privacy Act of 1974, I assure the Renton School District that identifiable data collected for this study will be kept confidential. Upon completion of this research, I will present to the Department of Learning and Teaching an electronic copy and one hard copy, as well as an abstract of my final report.

Andre Stout
Principal Researcher

8/09/2021
Date

Deputy Superintendent for Learning and Teaching

Date

Appendix F: Jacqueline Jordan Irvine Nine Strategies

1. Placing teachers in diverse population in the center of discussions on school reform
2. Lobbying and advocating for children who have no voice or vote
3. Adopting a multicultural teacher education curriculum as well as changing the organizational climate and culture of schools of education
4. Recruiting more faculty deans, and students of color in schools of education
5. Recruiting teacher of color for public education
6. Improving the working condition of K-12 teachers
7. Developing new models of training educational researchers that include more collaboration with schools, communities, and teachers of color
8. Adopting systems of assessment founded and implemented in the language of equity and not simply equality
9. Devising authentic and community-based models of teacher education and professional development that prepare teachers to increase the achievement of students whom schools have failed (Jordan Irvine 2003, p. 85).

Appendix G: Banks Essential Multicultural Principles

1. Professional development focused on the complex characteristics of ethnic groups within U.S. society ... and how social classes interact to influence student behavior.
2. Schools should ensure that all students have equitable opportunity to learn and to meet high standards.
3. The curriculum should help students understand that knowledge is socially constructed and reflects researchers' personal experiences as well as the social, political, and economic contexts in which they live and work.
4. School should provide all students with opportunities to participate in extra- and cocurricular activities that develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes that increase academic achievement and foster positive interracial relationships
5. Schools should create or make salient superordinate cross-cutting group memberships in order to improve intergroup relations.
6. Students should learn about stereotyping and other related biases that have negative effects on racial and ethnic relations.
7. Students should learn about the values shared by virtually all cultural groups.
8. Teachers should help students acquire the social skills needed to interact effectively with students from other racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups.
9. Schools should provide opportunities for students from different racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups to interact socially under conditions designed to reduce fear and anxiety.
10. A school's organizational strategies should ensure that decision-making is widely shared and that members of the school community learn collaborative skills and dispositions in order to create a caring environment for students.
11. Leaders should develop strategies that ensure that all public schools, regardless of their locations, are funded equitably.
12. Teachers should use multiple culturally sensitive techniques to assess complex cognitive and social skills (Banks, 2002, pp. 126-127)

Appendix H: Johnson CRSL Common Practices

- Emphasizing high expectations for student achievement
- Incorporating the history, values, and cultural knowledge of students' home communities
- Working to develop a critical consciousness among both students and faculty to challenge inequities in the larger society
- Creating organizational structures at the school and district level that empowers students and parents from diverse racial and ethnic communities