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The Relationship between Students' Achievement Scores of Administrators who Completed the Missouri Leadership, Excellence, and Development Program

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by

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A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree.

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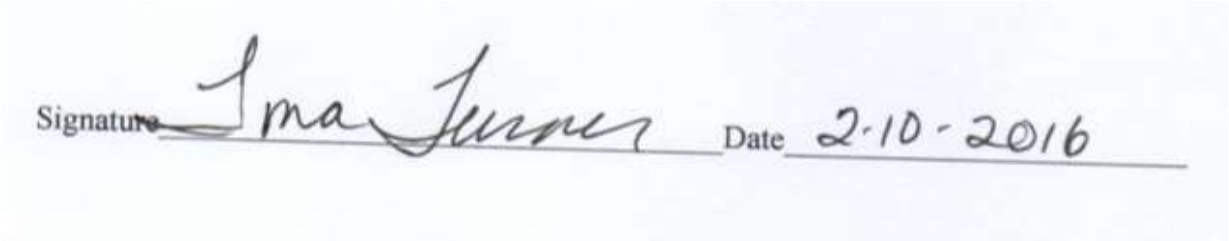

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Abstract

The focus of this study was to examine the impact of Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development (MoLEAD) program on the school district administrators who attended and their constituents. After three cohorts of school leaders have attended the MoLEAD training, Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education authorities have yet to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. The purpose of this study was to determine the value and benefit of administrators attending the MoLEAD professional development. The participants of this study included school administrators who attended MoLEAD training in Cohort One in the state of Missouri. Data from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (MODESE) was reviewed, along with the participants' survey results. The outcome of the study indicated no correlation between administrators' participation in the MoLEAD training and their students' achievement test scores. Participants responded to open-ended questions and replied that the MoLEAD training offered great collaboration opportunities, but the program needed updating. Participants in Cohort One of MoLEAD scored highest in the area of Model the Way on the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Survey; no school districts who experienced an increase in school achievement scores as measured by Missouri School Improvement Plan (MSIP) Phase 5. The essential elements identified in this study served MoLEAD directors and provided MoDESE insight into supporting the improvements needed in this established program.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter One: Introduction

Principals of school districts across the country often have been judged as effective or ineffective leaders based upon the results of how their students performed on standardized tests (Campbell & Gross, 2012). According to Campbell and Gross (2012), less than 10 years ago, teachers were in the spotlight for their roles in students' academic performances. Currently, however, the accountability for students' academic performance measures also has been indicative of the effectiveness of district leaders (Cook, 2014). Often, the public has looked for a direct correlation between educators' effective teaching practices and students' academic growth as a result of these practices (Cook, 2014). Currently, leaders have begun to share the spotlight (Campbell & Gross, 2012). The new standards introduced by No Child Left Behind placed additional emphasis on school systems and school leaders to assume an increased degree of accountability for student achievement (Wallace Perspective, 2013).

Since the new accountability measures were introduced, school leaders have been expected to influence teachers' effectiveness and students' learning in classrooms, directly and indirectly (Cook, 2014). Louis, Leithwood, Walhstrom, and Anderson (2010) explained leadership was second, only to the teachers' quality of teaching, in determining school-related factors that influenced student learning. Mendels and Mitgang (2013) proposed effective school leaders created school cultures in which staff reflected on data to determine their professional development needs and to create learning environments to develop those needs.

As school district officials became more aware of the impact of administrators' effectiveness on student achievement, they searched for methods to improve

administrative impact (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015). In response, the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (MoDESE) leaders introduced the Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development (MoLEAD) Program, which began in 2013 (MoDESE, 2015). State officials developed the program in a collaborative effort with the National Institute for School Leadership (NISL) (MoDESE, 2014). The program's purpose, according to MoDESE (2014), was to strengthen teachers' classroom instruction and to teach principals from participating schools how to lead more effectively, thereby, potentially increasing student achievement.

The MoLEAD program was developed to be comprised of three cohorts (MoDESE, 2015). The first MoLEAD cohort, Cohort One, consisted of 237 participants from 56 school districts within nine surrounding regions in Missouri. The nine regions in the state of Missouri included the following: a) St. Joseph, b) Raytown, c) Springfield, d) Central Missouri, e) Southeast Missouri, and f) four areas in St. Louis. Leading the efforts, 46 national trainers were employed to help each of the individual cohorts (MoDESE, 2014). At the time of this publication, MoDESE leaders (2014) explained Cohort Three participants were still in training.

The MoLEAD training consisted of web-based instruction and face-to-face instruction aligned to the needs of individual principals, school buildings, and school districts (MoDESE, 2013). The training also included hands-on and mentoring experiences for participants to enhance best leadership practices in their schools (MoDESE, 2015). The MoLEAD training involved 27 days of instruction, in addition to 40 hours of on-line training (MoDESE, 2015). The participants also were provided with a

variety of library resources (MoDESE, 2013). The MoLEAD program was influenced by research and development by the directors of the National Institute for School Leadership (2014). The NISL (2014) spent four years and $11 million on research and development for this training program. At the time of this publication, the department of education in six states, as well as several individual school districts in other states, had already implemented the MoLEAD program (NISL, 2014). In its first two years of implementation, the training addressed four key components with school districts' leaders: a) Leadership knowledge and skills, b) Best practices in learning and teaching, c) Subject area knowledge, and d) Best practices in delivery of adult curriculum (NISL, 2015).

The MoLEAD program's initiation was not comprised of novel ideas (Popham, 2010). Popham (2010) wrote educators have searched for the means to improve school performance throughout history. In 1965, the U.S. Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and established Title I of the ESEA; this act was the first mention of accountability, which provided money to support students performing below par in underprivileged schools (Popham, 2010). These laws required educators to show how moneys were being well-spent by reporting instructional effectiveness (Popham, 2010). In 1983, the Commission of Excellence issued its report, *A Nation at Risk*, which stated America's educational decline could be traced to school districts' poor academic performances (*A Nation at Risk*, 2015).

Equally important, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation was enacted which was one of the strongest mandates that placed emphasis on accountability for academic standards. The federal initiative, No Child Left Behind (NCLB), was designed to improve

students' academic performance results (Rosenberg, Westling, & McLeskey, 2010). Rosenberg et al. (2010) claimed the act mandated high standards and sanctioned schools who failed to meet the criteria. Some members of Congress believed state officials were not doing enough in order to ensure the academic success of student groups who were disadvantaged due to economics or disabilities, in order to ensure their academic success (Rosenberg & Westling, 2011). The legislation of No Child Left Behind was based on four principles: a) strong accountability for results, b) expanded flexibility and local control of schools, c) emphasis on teaching methods, and d) expanded options for parents (United States Department of Education, 2002).

Conceptual Framework

According to Fink (2014), effective program evaluations provided benefits to communities and individuals. In order to provide accurate results, program evaluations were unbiased and analyzed the merit, quality, and effectiveness of programs (Fink, 2014). Summative evaluations had been used to summarize and to assess programs' development and achievements (Fink, 2014). These evaluations were descriptive in nature and provided details of how the programs were developed (Fink, 2014). Fink (2014) reported, in order to conduct evaluations, researchers first posed questions and then collected, analyzed, and interpreted the information.

In education, students' academic valuable resources in program evaluation (Marzano, 2011). Marzano (2011) explained how student data was indicative of the effectiveness of academic programs. Learning outcomes were significant assessment tools used by administrators and teachers to determine the efficacy of the schools'

programs (Marzano, 2011). Therefore, Marzano (2011) found teachers influenced student performance by using this data in order to make decisions in many ways.

Applying the conceptual framework of the program evaluation model in the educational realm, evaluators used students' learning outcomes to determine programs' effectiveness (Fink, 2014). Marzano and Frontier (2011) emphasized how students' performances impacted their educational experiences. Stakeholders embraced the impact of programs on students' performance, and policy makers followed suit, making this the primary focus in legislation (Marzano, 2011). Data collected was based on the average of students' performances over a particular period (Marzano, 2011).

Teachers who most frequently supervised student populations were usually evaluated (Marzano, 2011). Often, teachers' lesson preparations and delivery methods of the content correlated with the performances of the students in their classrooms (Marzano, 2011). Marzano (2011) added other factors affecting academic outcomes included peer influence, social backgrounds, and economic variables. Leaders who utilized data in their decision-making processes developed conclusions with social interactions and self-reflection, not in vacuums, according to Louis et al. (2010). Therefore, Louis et al. (2010) continued, leaders' professional development goals should be considered in the contexts in which leaders' everyday social interactions and internalizations occur. In other words, in order to become better leaders, administrators needed to learn how to make more impactful decisions in their authentic sites (Louis et al., 2010). Also, Louis et al. (2010) implied the professional development of our leaders should be continuous, cumulative, and cyclical, which included regression and progression analysis.

Statement of the Problem

While educational researchers have established evidence of a relationship between school principals and students' achievement scores, program developers of MoLEAD have not yet analyzed data collected during the first two years of the program to determine if the program has been successful in Missouri schools (Marzano, 2011; MoDESE, 2015). According to representatives with the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015), there have not been investigative measures to determine if relationships existed between principals involved in the MoLEAD program and the students' academic performance in the participating schools (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). The researcher aimed to collect and to evaluate the MoLEAD program to determine whether or not the program has made a significant impact on participating school districts and their students' academic performance.

Throughout the nation and the state of Missouri, current demand for increased accountability to raise students' achievement and school districts' performance has been added to the plate of school leaders (Brockmeier, Starr, Green, Pate, & Leech, 2013). Brockmeier et al. (2013) suggested school administrators too often function as managerial leaders, whereas administrators needed to be strong instructional leaders as well. Thus, effective programs prepared leaders to lead people and not just programs (Brockmeier et al., 2013). One program developed to address this concern was the Missouri School Improvement Plan (MSIP), which had undergone five revisions since first introduced in 1990 (MoDESE, 2015).

The most recent phase, Missouri School Improvement Plan Phase 5, was modified as the state's accountability plan for reviewing and accrediting public school districts in

Missouri (MoDESE, 2015). The Missouri School Improvement Plan 5 Performance Standards required school districts' students and faculty to perform at 70% on the overall Annual Performance Reports (APR) formula in order to remain in Tier I Accreditation (MoDESE, 2014). Another change has been that Missouri school districts have been reviewed annually rather than once every five years (Hollingsworth, 2011). Hollingsworth (2011) proposed MSIP 5 focused solely on student performance and did not address variables, such as the student-teacher ratio in classrooms and the courses offered across the school districts. Legislators, along with Missouri state department officials, developed the Annual Performance Reports to assess school districts' performances and annual growth, if applicable (MoDESE, 2014). According to the MoDESE web site (2014), these reports were designed to help schools in need of improvement obtain appropriate supports and interventions, while, at the same time, to recognize high performing school districts. The high performing school districts also were shared as models of excellence (MoDESE, 2014). The MoDESE (2014) web site explained school districts receiving this recognition of high performing status earned between 70% and 75% of possible APR points (see Table 1).

A Missouri school district identified as Provisionally Accredited received the following supports under the guides of MSIP 5: a) monthly on-site instructional monitors, b) formative and summative assessments, growth model, and teacher evaluation model, c) a targeted audit to determine research-based intervention to improve student performance, and d) a community-school compact executed (MoDESE, 2015). According to MoDESE (2014), schools receiving Unaccredited Status with MSIP 5

Figure 1

Definitions for Accreditation Levels of Performance Standards in MSIP 5

Accreditation Levels in MSIP 5	**Percentage of Points Earned by School District**
Accredited with Distinction	The district earned a minimum of 90% or more of the APR points possible **AND** meets other criteria established by the Missouri State Board of Education.
Accredited	The district earned 70% or more of the APR points possible.
Provisionally Accredited	The district earned 50% or more of the APR points possible.
Unaccredited	The district earned less than 50% of the APR points possible.

Note. Definitions obtained from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015).

received the following supports: a) monthly onsite instructional monitors, b) formative and summative assessments, growth models, and teacher evaluation models, c) targeted audits to determine research-based intervention, d) community school compacts, e) department appointed transition task forces, f) state Board of Education reviews district's

governance structure, and g) department appoints fiscal monitors and conducts on-site finance audit.

Determining school districts' APR scores was complicated and based on five areas: a) academic achievement, b) subgroup achievement, c) college and career or high school readiness, d) attendance rates, and) graduation rates (MoDESE, 2014). Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2014) officials explained the performance standards were designed to recognize the achievements and continuous growth of all students. Although much research has reinforced the claim principal leadership made a positive impact on the excellence of schools and student knowledge, the manner in which leadership contributed to school improvements cannot be oversimplified (Hallinger & Heck, 2010). Today's school leaders have been confronted on a daily basis with a variety of issues from how to implement the new standards to how to handle parent complaints and how to support overwhelmed teachers (Tobin, 2014). Tobin (2014) explained principals have been charged with fulfilling many responsibilities, including being instructional and visionary leaders. To complicate matters, principals also have been expected to meet every need and want in their respective school communities (Tobin, 2014). The author explained principals were responsible for supervision, employment, professional development, and management of teachers, who accounted for the largest share of student-learning (Tobin, 2014).

After combining the increased expectations of building administrators and increased accountability, Calvin (2010) suggested, many school districts experienced difficulty in finding qualified candidates for vacant principal positions. This has been especially true in urban school districts, where educators have reported need was at crisis

levels (Calvin, 2010). Human resources officials in urban schools reported receiving a minimal number of applications per principal job posting and the candidates lacked general high quality characteristics (Calvin, 2010). Many current administrator programs in higher education have responded by implementing programs of studies to prepare future leaders to become more than just managers of schools (Campbell & Gross, 2012). In the past, administrator courses focused on budgeting and facilities, for the most part (Campbell & Gross, 2012). Gettys, Martin, and Bigby (2010) agreed programs should focus on the manager of the workforce completing the necessary tasks of the district.

More recently, however, administrators designing administrative programs have shifted their paradigm, focusing on leaders who needed to become more multi-faceted (Gettys et al., 2010). Leaders in today's schools have been expected to maintain these different roles (Gettys et al., 2010). Gettys et al. (2010) emphasized leaders needed to focus on the development of teachers, and, in today's environment, development of teachers and manager of the workforce were needed for optimal effectiveness of schools. Colin Powell, former U.S. secretary of state, said, "Leadership is the art of accomplishing more than the science of management says is possible" (Harari, 2002, p. 42).

While many officials in the United States Department of Education have followed several common tenets in order to address these changes, Herrington and Roe (2015) explained, each state is responsible for the certification of its leadership. State officials had been given had the power to set licensure requirements to include specific coursework, school based learning, and faculty qualifications. State officials determined the criteria for initial license and renewal (MoDESE, 2015). The Principal Policy State Survey revealed states were not effectively using their authority to increase the quantity

of high quality applicants, and states lacked key data on the supply and quality of school leaders (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). While every state reported defining and setting state standards for what principals should know and be able to do, nearly all relied on the principals' jobs simply as the building managers, not as instructional leaders (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to examine the Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement and Development (MoLEAD) program as it related to the students' academic performance in participating school districts. The program has progressed into its third cohort of participants since it was implemented in 2013, but data has not been analyzed to determine the impact of leadership on students' achievement after MoLEAD professional development was taken into account (MoLEAD, 2014). In this study, the researcher aimed to determine if there was an increase in student achievement scores in buildings in which principals participated in MoLEAD training. While there has been research conducted on this topic, there has not been specific research related to Missouri's Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development program (MoDESE, 2014).

Based on the time, energy, and expenses exerted throughout implementation of the MoLEAD program, there was a need to closely evaluate the program's impact on participating building leaders and their students' academic outcomes. The findings of this investigation could be beneficial to MoLEAD officials to identify which components of the program have been effective in helping leaders in their school environments. Overall, determining if the MoLEAD program has been effective would be beneficial to students

in school districts participating in the program, as well as administrators who attended the training.

Not very long ago, researchers believed principals made little impact on student achievement (Marzano & Simms, 2012). In a 10-year meta-analysis, Witziers, Boskers, and Kroger (2003) found no direct correlation between leadership and student achievement scores. Witziers et al. (2003) explained the study was conducted across several countries. When Marzano and Frontier (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of student achievement in school districts across the United States, on the other hand, they found a positive correlation between leadership and student performance. This study also included an extensive review of the literature related to leadership styles, student achievement, and the MoLEAD training. Dr. Chris Nicastro, former Missouri Commissioner of Education, offered as part of Missouri's Race to the Top, educators across the state were moving "to make sure that those at the reins of its districts and school have the skills and tools to become instructional leaders who can improve student achievement in low performing schools" (Nicastro, 2013, para. 3).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided the study:

1. Since the program's implementation, has the Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development (MoLEAD) program had a significant impact on the students' academic performance of the building principals' who participated in MoLEAD?

$H1_0$: There was not a significant relationship between students' achievement scores of administrators who completed MoLEAD training.

H1$_a$: There was a significant relationship in students' achievement scores of administrators who have completed MoLEAD training.

2. What are the levels of leadership effectiveness for the MoLEAD participants based on their Leadership Practice Inventory scores?

Definitions of Key Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms were defined:

Academic Achievement. Academic achievement was defined as students' performance on assessments required by the Missouri Assessment Program (MoDESE, 2014). For school districts to demonstrate improvements in academic achievement, students met or exceeded the state standards or demonstrated improvement in performance over time (MoDESE, 2014).

Andragogy. Knowles (1975) defined andragogy as the practice of educating adults. The researcher constructed a model of andragogy, which included the beliefs that instruction for adults should be less about content knowledge and more about application of skills (Knowles, 1975). Some examples of effective teaching strategies to use in andragogy included 360° assessments, cohort-based learning, job-embedded learning, simulations, case studies, group discussion, and extended period of study (Knowles, 1975). The Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2014) officials developing the MoLEAD program claimed to have adhered to these principles in the forefront of activity design.

Best practices in learning and teaching. To define these terms, the researcher applied the definition provided by the Missouri Educator Evaluation System, which stated best practices in learning and teaching encompassed effective practices involving

the following: a) coaching and teacher supervision, b) using standards-based classrooms, c) using formative assessment data, d) building instructional teams, e) having a compelling school vision, f) encouraging differentiated instruction, and g) facilitating professional learning communities (Missouri Educator Evaluation System, 2013).

Cohort. A cohort was defined as a small group of people specially trained for a particular purpose or profession who remained together for the entire program or mission (Pemberton & Akkery, 2010). According to Pemberton and Akkery (2010), the members in a cohort follow the same progression of activities and/or courses.

Highly effective schools. Highly effective schools were defined as schools that met or exceeded the Missouri School Improvement Plan 5 Performance Standards (MoDESE, 2015).

Leadership knowledge and skills. Northouse (2015) defined leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to achieve a common goal" (p. 8).

In the context of this study, leadership knowledge and skills was one facet under the umbrella of leadership, leadership knowledge and skills. The National Institute for School Leadership (2015) explained this term referred to strategic thinking in influencing school culture and team building. Leadership skills also referred to the ability to lead a data-driven organization, understand the importance of systems, and demonstrate other turnaround leadership competencies (NISL, 2015).

Leadership Practices Inventory Survey. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Survey was a 360-degree tool developed by Kouzes and Poysner to measure

leadership qualities (Kouzes & Poysner, 2012). The LPI was utilized as the research instrument in this study (Kouzes & Posner, 2013).

Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development Program. The Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development Program, or MoLEAD, was defined as a program that focused on enhancing the instructional leadership skills of participating school principals (MoDESE, 2013). Principals were identified based on their students' performance on standardized tests (MoDESE, 2014).

Missouri School Improvement Plan. In this study, the Missouri School Improvement Plan, or MSIP, was defined as the program responsible for assessing and accrediting Missouri public school districts (MoDESE, 2014). The MSIP committee members have been given the responsibility of monitoring 520 public school districts in Missouri (MoDESE, 2014).

National Institute of School Leadership. The National Institute of School Leadership was defined as an organization that served to strengthen the leadership of both serving principals and aspiring leaders (National Institute for School Leadership, 2014).

Student Attendance. For the purpose of this study, student attendance was defined as "during the regular school year, the average percentage of days that students are present for school" (MoDESE, 2015, para. 2). According to MoDESE (2015), students, who were not in their regularly assigned classrooms due to discipline reasons, should not have been considered present for excused absences, unexcused absences, or any period of time (i.e., in- or out-of-school suspension).

Student Performance. Student performance was defined as the information about the academic progress of an individual student in grades kindergarten through senior year of high school (MoDESE, 2015). The information of academic progress included results from annual Missouri Assessment Program and growth throughout the years (MoDESE, 2015).

Subgroups. The term subgroup was defined as each category of students identified under Elementary and Secondary Education Act section 1111(b)(2)(C)(v)(II) (MoDESE, 2015). These categories included the following: a) free/reduced priced lunch, b) racial/ethnic background, c) English language learners, and d) student with disabilities (MoDESE, 2015).

Subject Area Knowledge. Another facet of the leadership framework MoLEAD involved was in the area of subject area knowledge (MoDESE, 2014). The department defined being proficient in subject area knowledge as, "Creating excellent school-wide programs in English language arts, mathematics, and science, as well as identifying and coaching towards strong instruction in the content areas" (MoDESE, 2014, para. 7).

Limitations

The limitations of this study included the following: a) sample demographics, b) the cohort data, c) curriculum, and d) the LPI survey.

Sample Demographics. Participants in this study were varied in age. The participants' genders and races were also varied. Another limitation regarding the participants' demographics was their academic abilities and socioeconomic statuses defined by free and reduced lunch rates based on income.

Cohort Data. Data for Cohort Two through Four was not available (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). This data was not available because the Cohorts were still in training at the time of publication. Cohort Two through Four also had other circumstances for comparing data (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). National trainers trained Cohort One, and trainers for upcoming cohorts while Missouri trainers trained Cohorts Two through Four (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). Funding for the MoLEAD program also shifted from being state and federally funded to becoming locally funded (MoDESE, 2013).

Curriculum. Another limitation of the study was the researcher was not able to determine if the curriculum was aligned to state testing, as well curriculum fidelity. Ainsworth (2011) acknowledged the function of curriculum was to raise the level of teaching so students were prepared for skills necessary to be successful in college and after high school as productive citizens in the work force. Effective curriculum offered students learning targets, which were meaningful and provided multiple opportunities to succeed (Ainsworth, 2011).

Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) Survey. The instrumentation used in the study was a limitation as well. The Leadership Practices Inventory survey was a self-rated survey and, therefore, was a self-perception of the participants' own leadership abilities. Korb (2011) explained at times were not the same, feelings and opinions observed by outsiders and were not always the same as people's behaviors. Korb (2011) further explained participants may not have accurately reported their true feelings on a self-report questionnaire or may have portrayed themselves in a more favorable light than they actually deserved.

Summary

In order to address concerns with struggling schools, legislators with the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2014) chose to focus on school leaders to impact students within their respective school districts. The program, MoLEAD, was implemented to provide additional training through an intensive program, which was set to improve student performance in low achieving school districts (MoDESE, 2013). As of the time of publication, MoLEAD coordinators, however, had not yet tracked the effectiveness of the program with participating principals and their school districts (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). While the certification and renewal process fell into the jurisdiction of the state's education department, there were no clear criterions as to when leaders received the renewal process (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015).

In this study, the researcher investigated the MoLEAD program and evaluated its effectiveness based on the program's intent to improve student achievement in participating school districts. The study's findings contributed to data in public education at the state level, as well as the local school district levels. In Chapter One, an overview of the study was provided, as well as the research questions that guided the study. In the next chapter, Chapter Two, the researcher collected and will review current literature related to the topic of student achievement, leadership styles, and leaders' impact on student achievement. Chapter Two also will provide more in-depth background on the MoLEAD program.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Like other areas of modern society, public education has changed at a rapid rate (Sosik & Jung, 2010). These changes required leaders who willing to adapt to find leverage in these opportunities to excel from such trends (Sosik & Jung, 2010). The purpose of this study was to determine if the Missouri Leadership for Excellence and Academic Development (MoLEAD) program impacted participating building principals and the student achievement in the principals' buildings. This review of the literature afforded a background of the origins and foundations of leadership and accountability in public education to help better understand the study, overall. In order to examine leaders in the context of this study, it was relevant to include leadership models and professional development schematics in this study (Marzano & Frontier, 2011). The researcher also provided background of educational strategies utilized in school districts during various initiatives to improve student learning (Marzano & Frontier, 2011). As for the MoLEAD outcomes in the past three years, the researcher found insufficient research on the specific program, which initiated this study. Leading up to the study, the researcher explored the following topics to provide a review of existing literature: a) foundations of leadership, b) types of leadership, c) the Leadership Practice Inventory, d) school leadership, e) school improvement initiatives, f) the Missouri Leadership Excellence Achievement and Development program, and g) principals' preparation programs.

Foundations of Leadership

Research has shown a relationship between leadership and self-efficacy for both administrators and teachers (Marzano, 2011). Marzano (2011) suggested leaders who believed in their abilities motivated employees to improve their performance. Bellanca

and Brandt (2010) elaborated teachers and school leaders needed much deeper preparation in order to help students become more successful, especially in lower performing school districts. The authors added school leaders had to be competent in communication with all stakeholders, including teachers, parents, and students in order to promote growth (Bellanca & Brandt, 2010). Dunlap, Li, and Kladifko (2015) identified five key areas of effective leadership: (a) vision and ethics, (b) instructional leadership, (c) organizational learning, (d) management and operation, and (e) parent and community involvement.

Vision and ethics. One key area of effective leadership identified by Bellanca and Brandt (2010) was in the area of vision and ethics. Curtis and Manning (2014) defined ethics as the study of moral judgment and the difference between right and wrong conduct. Curtis and Manning (2014) added whether or not people trusted and respected their leaders was one of the most important dimensions of leadership, and leaders' levels of trust and respect depended on the leaders' level of morality. Curtis and Manning (2014) reported leaders were responsible for the development of clear and compelling pictures of their organizations' futures, along with the commitments to achieve these pictures. Also, effective leaders needed to have well-planned strategies to give life to their visions (Curtis & Manning, 2014). Zepeda (2011) suggested values and norms shaped the culture of the school, and practice and rewards depended on the nature of the school climate.

Instructional leadership. Bellanca and Brandt (2010) explained the task of a leader merely ordering textbooks, making schedules, and handling discipline issues according to the manual has ended. Bellanca and Brandt (2010) reported school leaders

as instructional leaders were responsible for three tasks: (a) making time for teacher collaboration in the development of the curriculum, (b) implementing a professional development program that includes coaching and mentoring, and (c) enabling teachers to excel in the classroom or to exit the profession. Bellanca and Brandt (2010) reported leaders needed to recognize when teachers were struggling in the classroom and provide needed supports. Teachers who were unable to make improvements after supports were in place, required leaders to counsel the staff into more appropriate careers (Bellanca & Brandt, 2010).

Organizational learning. No matter what purpose an organization serves, its members often have been expected to learn and to grow while serving the organization (Zepeda, 2011). Zepeda (2011) suggested effective schools were learning organizations. Every aspect of a school should be interrelated, including staff development and collaboration planning (Zepeda, 2011). According to Curtis and Manning (2014), employees desired being parts of organizations committed to high-quality work and to make a connection to the school's missions. Staff members needed to feel they were performing to the highest level every day and their opinions mattered (Curtis & Manning, 2014). Schein (2010) explained how lack of organizational leadership could be observed in two classrooms with students engaged in different behaviors, despite the fact the teachers' materials and teaching styles were the same. The example demonstrated an effective leader assessed assumptions of their groups on all levels and addressed anxiety that occurred when the assumptions were challenged (Schein, 2010).

Management and operations. Curtis and Manning (2014) reported leaders required the ability to influence the activity or behavior of those around them while

management denoted the formal authority and accountability for day-to-day operations of budgeting, facility management, and personal issues. Connelly (2007) suggested that schools not only needed visionary leaders but also a principal who is a calm, well-balanced, and a helpful leader. Connelly (2007) proposed effective principals first took control of their schedule. Second, according to Connelly (2007), effective principals prioritized their days and planned backwards based on yearly goals. Lastly, effective principals placed the following a) objectives, b) action steps, c) resource needed, d) person responsible, and e) completion date on all goals to monitor progress (Connelly, 2007). Bambrick-Santoyo (2012) suggested it was imperative leaders confronted warning signs of poor culture of day-to-day operations. Bambrick-Santoyo (2012) offered leaders had a moral and managerial duty to act, or the behavior could spread and weaken a culture.

Parent and community involvement. Relations between home and school have made definitive effects on school improvement (Curtis & Manning, 2014). Curtis and Manning (2014) proposed relationships between classroom teachers and parents were crucial to the school climate. Not only have school officials placed demands on parents to be involved in their students' school environments, but the school officials also should have demands on themselves (Curtis & Manning, 2014). Also, administrators needed to focus on providing resources to parents to promote good parenting skills, to provide family support, to provide child development education, and to create good learning environments at home (Gardner & Marszalek, 2014). Gardner and Marszalek (2014) recommended school representatives host volunteer programs with parents to foster growth in these areas. Effective volunteer programs included parents, as partners in

discussions, when administrators and educators made decisions and communicated to parents to let them know their opinions were valued (Gardner & Marzalek, 2014). Gardner and Marszalek (2014) further recommended school administrators coordinate resources and services with other community organizations. Not only did administrators play key roles, but parents also made significant influences on their students' preparations for success in college (Gardner & Marszalek, 2014).

Types of Leadership

In today's educational environment, administrators have increased accountability standards (Marzano & Simms, 2012). To meet these standards, administrators have been required to draw on various leadership theories (Fourman, 2010). Transactional leadership, shared leadership, and transformational leadership all centered on making positive changes for the organizations (Fourman, 2010).

Transactional leadership. Marzano and Simms (2011) defined transactional leadership as leadership that involved trading one thing for another, while transformational leadership was focused on change. Like other leadership styles, leaders who adopted a transactional style provided constructive feedback that allowed followers to improve (Nahavandi, 2015). However, followers of transactional leaders often were not encouraged to be creative or to find new solutions to organizations problems (Nahavandi, 2015). According to Nahavandi (2015), transactional leaders were effective in crisis situations and implementation of simple tasks because they focused on the maintenance of the group and accomplishing tasks but could prevent or limit followers from achieving their full potential. Cherry (2015) added transactional leaders functioned more like managers and focused on supervision of group performance through more of a

behaviorist approach. Operant conditioning often has been associated with transactional leadership and employees' behaviors and consequences by promoting followers with rewards or correcting them with punishment (Cherry, 2015). According to Marzano and Simms (2012), constructive transactional leadership was the most effective and active of the transactional leadership styles. This type of leader set goals, clarified desired outcomes, exchanged rewards and recognition for accomplishments, provided feedback, and gave employees praise when it was deserved (Marzano & Simms, 2012).

Shared leadership. Berg, Bosch, and Souvanna (2013) reported in shared leadership style, teachers felt they made more of an impact than when not involved in shared leadership. Beauchamp and Parson (2012) suggested the structure of faculties become horizontal and less hierarchical when shared leadership was in place. One example of shared leadership models involved Professional Learning Communities, which allowed leadership committees to aid in decision-making with building administrators (Beauchamp & Parson, 2012). These meetings allowed educators to feel more empowered as if they were all sharing common goals (Beauchamp & Parson, 2012). Also, these PLC meetings, as well as other shared leadership models, allowed structured discussions to focus on achievement of the school vision (Beauchamp & Parson, 2012). Berg et al. (2013) also reported the benefits of shared leadership, adding leadership teams provided opportunities for meaningful conversations about fulfilling responsibilities and having clear senses of authority.

Another characteristic of shared leadership demonstrated a fragile balance that allowed administrators to provide needed direction, while supporting creative thinking and initiative at all levels (Wilhelm, 2013). Transferring the emphasis from the principal

as the exclusive judgment maker to greater teacher participation fostered reflection and positive change among teachers (Hauserman & Stick, 2013). Berg et al. (2013) found teacher leaders often expressed positive feelings toward sharing these responsibilities. The teachers often believed they had more of an impact in their schools and expressed more ownership as a result (Berg et al., 2013). Berg et al. (2013) suggested this sense of ownership also frequently motivated teachers to be more active, which benefited principals and even improved student learning.

Unfortunately, not all leaders fully grasped the shared leadership theory (Wilhelm, 2013). Many leaders in education have applied a more industrial approach to leadership by introducing a shared culture (Wilhelm, 2013). Turregano and Gaffney (2012) agreed and explained how some leaders, for example, showed teachers a video or made a Power Point presentation on a topic in hopes this would lead to a change in their schools' respective cultures (Turregano & Gaffney, 2012). In reality, this method had little to no impact, as the principal was the individual solely involved in the organizational discussion related to change (Turregano & Gaffney, 2012).

When principals made decisions without input, teachers were reluctant to support the decisions (Stegall & Linton, 2012). However, when all staff worked together to create a common vision, trust and collaboration also increased (Stegall & Linton, 2012). In schools where shared leadership was common, teachers felt they made a difference in their roles (*Hidden Curriculum*, 2014). Berg et al. (2013) reported when teachers' efforts aligned with school-wide plans, leaders experienced increased support, trust, and collaboration. Leaders were also likely to feel more confident and motivated because the leaders felt supported by their teachers (Stegall & Linton, 2012).

One of the main objectives in shared leadership was developing trust (Berg et al., 2013). Lencioni (2014) addressed the priority of trust when discussing functional teams, no matter what type of organization. The researcher found teams accomplished more when members of the team trusted each other (Lencioni, 2014). According to Wilhelm (2013), building shared leadership created ownership in teaching and learning, and ownership trumped buy-in. When teachers took ownership and participated in decision-making and planning, decisions often were more productive and well-received (Stegall & Linton, 2012).

When administrations empowered teachers to participate in making leadership decisions, this also led to an increase in teachers' sense of efficacy (Stegall & Linton, 2012). Stegall and Linton (2012) stressed the importance of the appropriate environment for teachers to become effective leaders. Another quality of strong leaders who effectively incorporated shared leadership and empowered those around them was by giving others credit for jobs well done (Stegall & Linton, 2012). Stegall and Linton (2012) suggested people innately enjoyed rewards, which motivated them.

At the same time, it was necessary for leaders to accept blame when something went astray and to offer solutions to correct mistakes (Stegall & Linton, 2012). Turregano and Gaffney (2012) added effective administrators gave clear and nonjudgmental feedback, which resulted in teachers becoming more open to feedback. These effective administrators also provided teachers with pre-determined actions needed to improve performance (Turregano & Gaffney, 2012). Therefore, in a shared leadership style, the administrators became staff developers (Turregano & Gaffney, 2012). This included leading staff in analyzing student data, facilitating discussions about improving

instructional practices, and locating research-based methods of best practices (Wilhelm, 2013). The shared leadership style also aligned across all vertical and horizontal levels in the school (Turregano & Gaffney, 2012).

Transformational leadership. In transformational leadership models, leadership referred to the ability to set directions and to help others to do the right thing and to move in the right direction (Northouse, 2015). Ayden, Sarier, and Uysal (2013) proposed transformational leaders inspired those around them by creating enthusiasm to reach higher goals and by continually motivating others. Ayden et al. (2013) added leaders should ensure their employees are satisfied in their jobs as a top priority. When people enjoyed their jobs, generally they worked harder and took greater pride in their work (Ayden et al., 2013). Effective transformational leaders also accomplished goals by sharing the same visions and missions of their organizations (Ayden et al., 2013). Ayden et al. (2013) concluded, a strong relationship exists between transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and the dimension of compliance.

In another study of transformational leadership and student functioning in high schools, researchers gained information from teachers' insights into (Hauserman & Stick, 2013). Teachers expressed being happier with their school leadership and more eager to put forth greater effort into their positions and tasks when working with a principal who exhibited a highly transformational style of leadership (Hauserman & Stick, 2013). Kurland, Peretz, and Hertz-Lazarowitz (2010) added high-functioning schools with transformational leaders created a positive learning environment by sharing clear expectations, school visions, and mission statements within their organizations. Highly transformational leaders developed capacity in all staff members, and teachers were

granted opportunities to share their leadership skills (Hauserman & Stick, 2013). Shared leaders identified the needs of those within the organization as their top priority for improvement (Fourman, 2010). Fourman (2010) suggested transformational leaders inspired others to go beyond meeting basic expectations to benefit the group, as a whole, to promote change. Fourman (2010) added this style of leadership was rarely delegated or dominated but an act of leading by example and collaborating with people. Referent power came from leaders earning respect, admiration, and loyalty from those with whom one is working (Fourman, 2010).

The *Transformational Leadership Report* (2007) stated high-performing leaders often acted out of internal motivation for a sense of enjoyment, trust, and self-worth. Authors of the report explained these leaders were more likely to use transformational leadership styles and to believe they could succeed in creating change and reaching goals (*The Transformational Leadership Report*, 2007). This often occurred because employees trusted their leaders and adhered to the visions of their leaders (Trepanin, Fernet, & Austin, 2012). Sosik and Jung (2010) agreed transformational leadership was at the upper end of the full-range leadership model, and this leadership model required the highest levels of individual, group, and organizational performance. Sosik and Jung (2010) summarized the four components of transformational leadership: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration.

Leadership Practice Inventory

The Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) used in the study is a 360-degree tool developed by Kouzes and Poysner to measure leadership qualities (Kouzes & Poysner,

2012). The two researchers explored qualities of hundreds of leaders across disciplines to determine common characteristics (Kouzes & Poysner, 2012). In addition to writing several top-selling books on the topic of leadership, the two created an instrument for anyone to use to determine their strengths and weaknesses (Kouzes & Poysner, 2012). The concept of leadership has had different meanings to different people (Kubicek, 2015). Archichvili and Manderschaid (2008) explained how the definition of leadership depended on the values the leader demonstrated or the authority the leader exhibited. Furthermore, Archichvili and Manderschaid (2008) added leadership entailed creating an inspiring vision and, at the same time, motivating people to realize the vision. Leadership skills were among the most important virtue individuals possessed (Archichvili & Manderschaid, 2008).

Leadership skills have determined individuals' abilities to co-exist with their subordinates (Adair, 2007). Moreover, the influence leaders displayed with followers was the most important determinant of the leaders' successes (Adair, 2007). Kouzes and Posner (2010) suggested, the examples leaders displayed to their followers indicated the leaders' values. Leading by example, demonstrated leaders' commitments to their beliefs and policies, which made it easier for them to gain the trust of the followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

Traditionally, the power leaders exercised over their followers identified their leadership styles (Archichvili & Manderschaid, 2008). Consequently, possession of extreme and uncontrolled power led to the emergence of dictators and authoritarian forms of leadership (Jones, 2010). Jones (2010) implied many presumed leaders inherited their leadership skills, and, therefore, only certain affluent families or clans became leaders.

These assumptions were rooted in the ideals of earlier monarchs over the centuries, Jones (2010) wrote powerful leaders have been born to be leaders and raised to become leaders. According to McKinney, Labat, and Labat (2015), in many school districts today, the authoritarian leadership style has been prevalent, even though research has shown it was not conducive to academic growth. Jones (2010) explained how in this model of leadership, leaders are very strict and provide direct supervision along with close regulation of policies.

Leadership Traits

For centuries, people have searched for exemplary leadership traits (Dufour & Dufour, 2012). Philosophers, such as Plato and Plutarch, disagreed about desired traits for distinguished leaders (Dufour & Dufour, 2012). Recognition of the importance of leadership inspired the need to study the underlying characteristics of the most influential and charismatic existing leaders (Dufour & Dufour, 2012). Dufour and Dufour (2012) offered traditional leadership ideas such as the 19th century concepts of monarchs and lords collapsed. The shift in power prompted researchers to analyze the characteristics such leaders possessed (Dufour & Dufour, 2012). Dufour and Dufour (2012) compared the traits with ideas that interested the general population.

Therefore, researchers of leadership traits, such as Thomas Carlyle and Francis Galton, identified skills, talents, and physical characteristics of various people who rose to power (Pearson, 2011). Galton's studies showed, for most leaders, their power, prominence, and influence reduced when the leadership shifted from first-degree to second-degree relatives (Pearson, 2011). Therefore, Galton's studies suggested leaders were born and not developed (Pearson, 2011). According to Galton, leadership skills

were inheritable from one person to another (Pearson, 2011). Galton and Carlyle's studies offered a basis for studying modern leadership, because it was at that time common knowledge leadership was rooted to an individual's characteristics (Pearson, 2011).

According to Kouzes and Posner (2012), leaders generally possessed five basic leadership practices. These leadership practices were the following: a) *Modeling the Way*, b*) Inspiring a Shared Vision*, c) *Challenging the Process*, d) *Enabling Others to Act*, and e) *Encouraging the Heart* (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Transformational leaders needed to practice these five skills to influence policies and to exercise authority over followers in their organizations (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Leaders rarely engaged in *Encouraging the Heart*, which involved being sincere with employees and celebrating their successes (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). In modeling, leaders behaved in the way they wanted others to behave (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). Inspiring a shared vision encouraged the development of goals and vision with which everyone in the organization could identify (Kouzes & Posner, 2013).

Modeling the Way. Leading by example was among the most popular leadership approaches in the modern world (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). In the transformational leadership style, leaders were supposed to execute the policies they came up with in tandem with their followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Therefore, in this model of leadership, morale, motivation, and job performance were greatly improved (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Serving as a role model to others created a sense of identity for the followers, the leader, and the project itself (Whitaker, 2012). Effective leadership was not completely related to personality (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

Instead, it was about behavior displayed by a given set of skills and abilities (Conant & Norgaard, 2011). These skills have not commonly been displayed by everyone, meaning not everybody can be a leader (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Besides gender, cultural, and age differences, leaders possessed unique abilities to harmonize people and activities in an organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). *Modeling the Way* was one of the practices of a distinguished leader (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). According to Kouzes and Posner (2013), modeling referred to the practice of establishing principles, which guided the conduct of the people and various ways of pursuing organizational goals. Through modeling, leaders created standards that illustrated excellence to their followers (Conant & Norgaard, 2011).

Leaders served as examples to their followers (Conant & Norgaad, 2011). As part of modeling, leaders set achievable goals for themselves and the rest of their organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Creating manageable goals enabled the people working in the organizations to achieve the set objectives without becoming overwhelmed (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). By achieving goals in segments, people in organizations were able to work toward larger objectives (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Kouzes and Posner (2010) proposed through *Modeling the Way*, ideal leaders unraveled bureaucracy when it impeded action; figuratively, they put up signposts when people were unsure of the direction to take or how to get there. Effective leaders also created opportunities for victory (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Therefore, modeling as a leadership practice cemented opportunities for employees to develop themselves and to perfect their leadership skills as well (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Personal credibility was one of the most important aspects of good

leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Kezar and Carducci (2009) added on this topic, followers needed to trust messengers in order to believe the messages.

As Northouse (2015) offered, leaders were appointed their titles, but they had to earn their leadership from their followers. By setting examples, leaders found their voice and were able to model the way for other people (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Also, in *Modeling the Way*, ideal leaders were able to stand for certain beliefs and principles (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). These beliefs guided the leaders' policies, and, therefore, leaders must have authentically given a voice to these values to be acceptable to others (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). For ideal leaders, it was not possible to impose unacceptable policies and beliefs on followers and expect them to respect those beliefs without first illustrating how useful they were to the followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Giving speeches to the people on common values was not enough; and it required clarification of the values and demonstration of them so people could embrace those values (Kouzes & Posner, 2010).

In most cases, when choosing ideal leaders, people gauged whether leaders were consistent in action and whether leaders practiced what they said (Northouse, 2015). As a leader, simple daily acts illustrated one's capacity to lead by role-modeling (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Most leadership positions called for relentless effort, competence, steadfastness, and attention to detail (McCauley, DeRue, Yost, & Taylor, 2014). McCauley et al. (2014) explained good leaders worked side by side with the people in their organizations and were present in times of uncertainty and hardship. Furthermore, exemplary leaders asked questions that helped the people to focus on proper values (McCauley et al., 2014). Being a role model as a leader was similar to servant leadership,

as McCauley et al. (2014) explained, since leaders acted as the servants of the people in these situations, the leaders were not authoritarian. Instead, these leaders led in a way in which others could follow (McCauley et al., 2014).

Inspiring a Shared Vision. Perks and Middleton (2014) proposed it was important for leaders to realize how different people working in the same organizations had different visions and ideas about the success of the projects they were undertaking. Leaders also shared a vision about the positions they held and the ways in which they influenced policies for the well-being of their organizations (Perks & Middleton, 2014). Kezar and Carducci (2009) agreed and added ideal leaders identified endless possibilities of what the organizations they led could become in the future. These leaders continued to maintain high expectations and better performance in members of their organizations by positively influencing their employees (Kezar & Carducci, 2009). Leaders such as these, according to Northouse (2015), encompassed the ability to inspire a shared vision by creating a clear vision about the future of the organization and enlisting others to help with the vision. Ideal leaders demonstrated personal drive and, confidently believed they made a difference (McCauley et al., 2014).

Another characteristic of ideal leaders was they were driven to improve their organizations for the better and for the organizational members' futures (Perks & Middleton, 2014). Perks and Middleton (2014) explained these ideal leaders used hurdles facing their organizations in order to envision a way to solve these problems. For these leaders, Perks and Middleton (2014) also implied every challenge they faced in the process served as motivating factors for better situations in the future. By inspiring shared

visions, ideal leaders demonstrated authenticity and introduced new ways of doing things (Kouzes & Posner, 2010).

Also, effective leaders of organizations developed shared visions by communicating the visions to the rest of the people (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). According to Northouse (2015), the vision had to be shared; this included all aspects of the vision and not necessarily only the leaders' vision for the organization. The leaders' visions had to be comprised of everyone's hopes, dreams, and aspirations for them to be acceptable and shared by all (Northouse, 2015). The employees needed to see themselves in the visions to identify with them (Northouse, 2015). Shared visions created motivated workforces and made it easier to manage the employees (Northouse, 2015). When the leaders communicated the vision and it was acceptable to all the people, it became easier to handle challenges that came along, since all stakeholders were involved in making the vision a reality (Northouse, 2015).

By using positive communication, leaders promoted resilience, demonstrated optimism, and renewed the people's faith in the shared vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). According to Kouzes and Posner (2012), when providing feedback, efficient leaders used five times as many positive statements as negative statements. Kouzes and Posner (2010) suggested the positive remarks made by leaders inspired people to follow them and to believe in their visions. Charismatic leaders also inspired people to share their vision by expressing their emotions (McKeown, 2014). Inspirational leaders, also called charismatic leaders, often were more animated than other leaders when it came to addressing needs and concerns (McKeown, 2014). Charismatic leaders communicated more effectively, put on pleasant dispositions, and demonstrated energy in their conduct

(McKeown, 2014). These traits assisted followers in building confidence in their leaders' shared visions (McKeown, 2014).

For people to follow their leaders' visions for their organization, leaders had to be able to speak their language and identify with the problems they were facing (Perks & Middleton, 2014). Demonstrating an interest in the people's welfare enabled the leaders and the people to forge a unity of purpose (Perks & Middleton, 2014). Leaders breathed life into visions by using vivid language (Perks & Middleton, 2014). Perks and Middleton (2014) continued, true leaders inspired people with compelling perspectives on the need to strive for a better future than the present.

Challenging the Process. Ideal leaders also exhibited adventurous spirits (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). These transformational leaders ventured out to look for better alternatives, compared to what they had (Sims, 2011). Sims (2011) explained as a general practice, leaders were unsatisfied with one method of doing things, and they constantly challenged the system. Ideal leaders also often volunteered radical and fresh ideas, and they continuously searched for ways to integrate them into organization operations (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Leaders attained success by challenging the process, by taking risks, and by experimenting with different methods of doing things (Weinsberg, 1992). Maintaining the status quo was not a form of transformational leadership, and therefore, leaders should seek to inject new and fresh ideas into their respective organization (Weinsberg, 1992). Williams (2010) explained, by challenging the system and trying new ideas, effective leaders identified opportunities that had never occurred to others. True leaders were also pioneers (Sims, 2002). In transformational leadership styles, it was better to make a path where none existed than to follow an already established path

(Sims, 2002). Leaders stepped out into the unknown and challenged the status quo (Sims, 2011). By challenging the system, leaders came up with innovations, and they were able to grow and improve their organizations (Sims, 2002). However, leaders were not necessarily the only creators of innovation and change (Sims, 2002). In most cases, changes occurred in an organization due to external challenges that faced the organization directly or indirectly (Sims, 2002). Therefore, according to Sims (2002), it was prudent as a leader to be open-minded and be ready to embrace future changes, including unpredictable ones. Leaders constantly engaged in communication with the rest of the team about their views on the current systems (Sims, 2002). By listening to members' contributions, effective leaders selected good ideas to help their organizations to establish new products, processes, and services (Sims, 2002).

Continually challenging the process paved the way for changes (Williams, 2010). Consequently, the leader needed to be in a position to help other people to manage change (Williams, 2010). The change-management process required understanding, and it took time for employees to adapt to it equally (Williams, 2010). Williams (2010) suggested change was stressful, and therefore leaders were supposed to create and to enable an environment in which people were psychologically prepared. In order to prepare the people for the change, it was important to ensure the change was not prodigious (Williams, 2010). By using small victories, people gathered the courage and confidence to meet greater challenges (Sims, 2002).

Even when they were not successful, effective leaders viewed mistakes and failures as opportunities for growth and not as setbacks (Sims, 2002). If leaders found their members within their organizations were incapable of adapting, changing, and

growing, it did not achieve its organizational goals, even over extended periods of time (Sims, 2002). Therefore, according to Sims (2002), implementing change was not a short-term process. Instead, it was an opportunity for the organization to face major challenges (Sims, 2002). However, as a leader, it was important to differentiate between challenging the process and challenging values and standards (O'Toole, 2012). O'Toole (2012) proposed it was a mistake to use the change-management process as a scapegoat to challenge set standards, if they exceeded expectations.

Enabling Others to Act. Effective leaders acknowledged they needed others to be successful (Lencioni, 2011). Ardichvili and Manderschaid (2008) implied effective leaders were aware they could not manage their organizations alone. Successful leaders engaged in elaborate team efforts with the other members of the organization (Ardichvili & Manderschaid, 2008). By empowering others, leaders were in better positions to articulate their ideas for change and organizational development (Ardichvili & Manderschaid, 2008). Jones (2010) suggested creating the spirit of teamwork, trust, and empowerment of every member of the organization was a vital aspect of enabling him or her to optimally deliver.

Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson (2007) reported good leaders also fostered collaboration with other organizations as well as leaders who shared their beliefs and vision. Through collaborations, organizations could access partnerships, making it easier to pursue the long-term projects set for the organizations (Mumford et.al, 2007). Moreover, through partnerships, leaders learned from each other and shared important processes, which, in turn, impacted change in the leaders' organizations (Whitaker, 2012). Furthermore, partnerships and collaborations enabled leadership to solicit for

finances and other necessities needed for the effective running of the organization (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007). Through cooperation, leaders created an atmosphere of trust (Whitaker, 2012).

Adair (2007) reported leaders who understood mutual respect also sustained more dramatic efforts. When mutual trust was the foundation of leadership and cooperation, different parties in the partnerships more often embraced changes, took risks, and kept organizational programs running (Adair, 2007). Solansky (2010) wrote, empowering members of organizations created environments in which every member of the organization was in a position to contribute toward organizational goals. Empowering others gave people an opportunity to be leaders in other areas in the future (Solansky, 2010). Leading others by commitment and support rather than by command and control created an environment in which people were in charge of their own initiatives (Solansky, 2010). Enabling people to act gave leaders feelings of strength, information, and connection (Solansky, 2010).

Encouraging the Heart. According to Kouzes and Posner (2012), in ascending the ladder of success, many people became exhausted and gave up along the way. In most cases, the journey toward setting goals and objectives was frustrating and disenchanting (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Leaders encouraged the heart by recognizing influences and celebrating the values and victories of their employees (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Kouzes and Posner (2012) presented demonstrating genuine care and interest toward employees' performance helped to uplift their spirits. Sometimes leaders adopted fun theories in the workplace (Kouzes and Posner, 2012). Jones (2010) suggested it was crucial to create an environment in which employees found it fun to work with creative ideas. Successful

leaders who encouraged others noticed their employees and rewarded individual employee contributions (Jones, 2010). In addition, Jones (2010) said communicating an individual's good work to the rest of the team was very important in assuring him or her that his or her contribution was appreciated.

Exemplary leaders set high standards for their organizations and subsequently communicated high expectations to the rest of the team (Mumford et al., 2007). The leader communicated his or her expectations to the people in the hope of achieving the set objectives (Mumford et al., 2007). Mumford et al. (2007) reported the leader rekindled the employees' focus and helped to create a positive outlook for the organization by paying attention to the individual needs of employees. Offering personal appreciation stimulated the people and produced a greater focus in their activities (Mumford et al., 2007). Through simple gestures during the working process, employees received a feeling of encouragement and belonging (Mumford et al., 2007). Other forms of appreciation leaders used included sending cards and providing recognition (Mumford et al., 2007). Mumford et al. (2007) emphasized the importance of leaders making sure words of encouragement were given in sincerity and not given for phony flattery (Mumford et al., 2007).

Other ways leaders encouraged their employees' hearts were by visibly linking rewards with performance and by creating cherished organizational values (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Kouzes and Posner (2010) said demonstrating care with sincerity builds stronger ties between the leader and the team members. The mutual trust and respect came along with appreciation and often propelled organizations through turbulent times in the future (Kouzes & Posner, 2010).

School Leadership

Leadership theory has expanded beyond the battlefield into business and, more recently, into public education (Whitaker, 2012). Administration of school districts, including superintendents, have expected building principals to accept responsibility for the success of their schools, but they must do so within the confines provided by the district (Marzano, 2011). Whitaker (2012) suggested great principals had high expectations not only for teachers and students, but also for themselves in their leadership roles. In the 1970s, a body of empirical studies referred to as effective school research concluded strong administrative leadership was one of a number of factors that had an impact on student learning (Rousmaniere, 2013). Effective principals understood the power of praise and positivity (Whitaker, 2012). The key role, accepted by many effective principals was to teach teachers (Whitaker, 2012). Whitaker (2012) offered the only way to increase school improvement was to hire better teachers or to improve teachers who already worked in the district. Whitaker (2012) found effective principals allowed time to build the skills of ineffective teachers. The researcher added effective principals made time to be in the classrooms (Whitaker, 2012). Whitaker (2012) reported they visited classrooms often to improve discipline and instruction. Effective principals also served as role models of how to positively interact with students (Whitaker, 2012).

History of Principalship

According to Rousmaniere (2013), educational reformers in the 1920s viewed school systems as corporate enterprises, with principals' roles being that of middle managers. School reformers emphasized the principal's role was to improve classroom

instruction (Rousmaniere, 2013). In 1926, a national study tried to distinguish between teaching principals, building principals, and supervisory principals, but it was difficult to differentiate between them (Rousmaniere, 2013). In some districts, the principal also served as the superintendent, while in others principals were teachers with additional administrative duties (Rousmaniere, 2013). Rousmaniere (2013) proposed many people viewed school principals as white men who ordered others around while completing administrative tasks according to their educational history. The principal actually acted as the single link between large bureaucratic systems and the teachers and students (Rousmaniere, 2013).

Role of Principals and Superintendents. Historically, principals managed resources, gave personal leadership, and communicated effectively with the community, while attending to student performance (SRI International, 2011). SRI International (2011) proposed principals played a key role in maintaining morale and keeping all stakeholders focused on a common goal. Beauchamp and Parsons (2012) offered one practical and multifaceted problem principals confronted was their routine activities occurring within a framework that almost insisted on immediate administrative responsiveness–the organizational facet of their work. Such attention almost always involved people, happened quickly, and seemed to narrow a principal's work to effective school management, while dragging principals away from the visionary or big-picture activities that were the lifeblood of instructional leadership (Beauchamp & Parsons, 2012). Beauchamp and Parsons (2012) suggested many aspiring principals began their careers as instructional leaders, visiting classrooms and focusing on the quality of instruction, but once the job responsibilities became demanding, they reverted to being

operations managers. The skills needed as a building manager were very different from those needed to be successful as an instructional leader (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012).

SRI International (2011) reported an effective school focused on adult learning along with student learning. SRI International (2011) proposed it was the principal's responsibility to work with staff to gauge the learning needs of everyone and to make resources available to support adult learning. A focus on adult learning built capacity in teachers and a professional culture of trust (SRI International, 2011). The superintendent of schools had great influence over the management of modern schools, but the superintendent's position was often misunderstood (Houston, 2001). Houston (2001) found the first documented historical record of a superintendent was in New York in 1812, about 10 years after the start of public schools.

The need for superintendents increased as states passed laws for public education and began to allocate money for public education (Houston, 2001). Local boards saw the need to have committees oversee these monies (Houston, 2001). Houston (2001) suggested as these funds increased, so did the need for full-time positions. Superintendents' first job duties included data collection and distributing state funds (Houston, 2001). In 1965, with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), more emphasis fell on students' rights (Houston, 2001). This added extra responsibilities to the superintendent's position (Houston, 2001). Houston (2001) offered this change in the position would require a leader and manager to maintain relationships and to be knowledgeable in student learning.

School Improvement

Erwin, Winn, Gentry, and Cauble (2010) confirmed school leadership was second only to classroom instruction in terms of affecting student achievement. Principals impacted student achievement through their influence on teachers' instructional capacity, since they were one step removed from the classroom (Grissom, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2014). Bellanca and Brandt (2010) implied classroom practices might affect students' achievement. Bellanca and Brandt (2010) wrote, "The stress on skills that may be under emphasized because they are inconsistent with current classroom culture highlights a substantial challenge to infusing these twenty-first century skills framework into educational practices and policy" (p. 111). The goal of state testing mandated by the federal Department of Education was to improve schools (Nichols, Glass, & Berliner, 2012).

Administrators at the federal Department of Education believed the way to improve student achievement was through negative consequences placed on school districts (Nichols et al., 2012). Federal education representatives believed if schools performed poorly, this provided an incentive for faculty members to become more effective in its practices (Nichols et al., 2012). According to Beteille, Kalogrides, and Loeb (2012), President Obama allocated $4 billion to help the nation's lowest performing schools in 2009. Low-achieving schools had to make significant changes, including replacing their administrators and large portions of their teaching staffs, in order to receive federal funds (Beteille et al., 2012). Nicastro (2013) emphasized improving leaders' effectiveness possibly was one way to increase student achievement rather than simply dismissing them. Brockmeier et al. (2013) suggested principals needed adequate

time to effect change. In fact, using negative consequences produced more harmful effect on instructional practices in the classroom, but policymakers continued to argue for its effectiveness in improving student-learning (Nichols et al., 2012). Nichols (2012) added, legislators even asked for the reauthorization of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2010.

Educators also have gained greater responsibilities for improved student achievement due to increased accountability measures (Brockmeier et al., 2013). Brockmeier et al. (2013) offered due to the increased accountability for student achievement, increased responsibilities, and longer hours, many principals were leaving the profession. Erwin et al. (2010) suggested, teachers experienced increased pressure to meet standards with limited resources. Newcomb (2014) argued principals and teachers needed to work together collaboratively in order to increase instructional capacity. Principals were given more responsibility for increased student achievement, which led to an increased need for teacher leadership as well (Newcomb, 2014). As school systems faced challenges from federal, state, and local mandates to meet student achievement standards, this era of accountability had created a paradigm shift in the leadership framework (Newcomb, 2014). Most studies supported a transformational leadership style in an environment in which subjects faced second-order change to increase the success rate (Onorato, 2013). Onorato (2013) added effective principals were more conscious of the behaviors that influenced teachers, and thus affected student achievement.

No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top

George W. Bush signed No Child Left Behind into law on January 8, 2002 (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). The legislation mandated for the first time in U.S. history, federal funding for K-12 public school was contingent upon the use of students'

standardized achievement test results (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). No Child Left Behind required states implement sanctions for low-performing schools that received Title I funds (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). The policy also required states' departments of education introduced rewards and sanctions for every school based on Adequate Yearly Progress. These requirements caused some schools to focus on the "bubble students," taking instructional efforts away for high- or low-performing students to meet proficiency scales (Dee & Jacob, 2011, p. 12).

The regulations also required school districts to reallocate efforts away from non-testable subjects (Dee & Jacob, 2011). Research showed the use of standardized testing did not accurately judge teacher or school effectiveness, but was more about social factors such as parents' schooling, level of income, and access to health care (Dee & Jacob, 2011). The Race to the Top was the Obama administration's most significant education initiative to date (Miller & Hanna, 2014). According to Miller and Hanna (2014), the competitive grant program included $4.35 billion aimed at kick-starting education reforms in states and districts to create greater educational innovation. Race to the Top was part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act, which President Obama announced in July 2009 (Miller & Hanna, 2014).

The key points of the grants were adopting new rigorous standards and assessments, recruiting and retaining highly effective teachers and principals, turning low-performing schools around, and building data systems that measured student success (Miller & Hanna, 2014). Miller and Hanna (2014) reported 40 states, along with the District of Columbia, applied for funding through the U.S. Department of Education. Seventeen states were awarded grants through this program over three phases of

implementation (Miller & Hanna, 2014). The president asked for an additional $1.35 billion for the program (Miller & Hanna, 2014).

Professional Learning Communities

In response to *NCLB* and the *Race to the Top*, many school districts have established Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) to break down the barriers and isolation that exist in traditional school settings, to allow teachers to communicate about student data and best practices, and to share in lesson planning (Williams, 2010). Bellanca and Brandt (2010) wrote Professional Learning Communities have three overarching concepts: (a) a commitment to higher levels of learning for all students, (b) a collaborative and collective effect, and (c) a focus on results to support students' needs and informed practices. According to Bellanca and Brandt (2010), in a PLC, every stakeholder knew about the plan in place to guarantee student learning, and school leaders developed schedules to support this approach. Bellanca and Brandt (2010) also emphasized school leaders spent their time working with collaborative teams instead of individual teachers.

During the PLC process, teachers remained focused on building a productive, collaborative culture (Williams, 2010). Stegall and Linton (2012) explained all data should be transparent and used to improve instruction. Reports, informal and formal, included data about students, teachers, schools, and the school districts (Stegall & Linton, 2012). Dufour and Marzano (2011) added school principals made a difference in school improvement through indirect contact with students. The most powerful impact administrators made on learning was by facilitating the learning of teachers through the PLC process (Dufour & Marzano, 2011).

Dufour and Marzano (2011) suggested department chairs were the only leadership roles that teachers held in traditional schools in traditional schools. Department chairs often played important roles in the leadership team, and they met with the administrators regularly to discuss procedural and operational problems (Wilhelm, 2013). In contrast, Wilhelm (2013) found, in shared leadership, every student achieved at the highest level when all the teachers regularly met and learned together. Leaders worked to create high-performing collaborative teams, working on specific performance goals (Wilhelm, 2013). Wilhelm (2013) argued organizing teachers into teams did not impact the school's performance. For teams to be effective, the members must have worked on common goals and the creation of specific, measurable, achievable, results-focused, and time-bound (SMART) goals (Wilhelm, 2013). DuFour and Marzano (2011) proposed collaborating on the wrong topics would not have a positive impact on student learning.

National Institute for School Leaders

Two rigorous independent studies, demonstrated by the National Institute for School Leaders (NISL) program, which originally started in 2005 in Pennsylvania, generated considerable gains in student achievement (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2014). Knowing what was required for principals to thrive was imperative, but actually preparing principals with leadership skills, knowledge, and competencies, was a challenge for any state (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2014). In another recent study, researchers with the Old Dominion University found a 10% improvement in proficiency rates in Pennsylvania high schools led by principals who were trained in the National Institute for School Leaders program (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2014). Despite the notable gains in schools participation in NISL, Nicastro and Hughes

(2013) found what was most often missing from such programs were ways to connect the dots between best practices in leadership and teaching, learning, and curriculum.

Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement and Development (MoLEAD)

In January of 2013, the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (MoDESE) began a new program in collaboration with the NISL (MoDESE, 2015). Representatives with MoDESE (2015) reported the aim of this program was to focus on enhancing instructional leadership skills in principals, aspiring principals, teacher leaders, and central office staff. The Missouri Leadership Excellence, Achievement and Development (MoLEAD) program fell into Goal 3 which was that Missouri will prepare, develop, and support effective educators in Missouri's Top Ten by Twenty Goal (MoDESE, 2015). The Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education developed the MoLEAD program through research from the following organizations: a) the Broad Foundation, b) the Stupski Foundation, c) the New School Venture, d) The Carnegie Foundation, e) the National Center of Education and the Economy, and f) the National Institute for School Leadership (MoDESE, 2015). According to MoDESE (2015), MoLEAD participants completed 26 training days, which were offered two days per month. The curriculum addressed the following four sections with 14 lessons:

A) Leadership knowledge and skills
    1) Education challenge
    2) Principal as strategic thinker
    3) Principal as ethical leader
    4) Principal as driver of change

B) Best practices in teaching and learning, which included lessons on elements of standards-based instructional systems, foundations of effective learning, promoting a professional learning environment, and the principal as an instructional leader

C) Subject matter knowledge, which included lessons on leadership for excellence in literacy, math, science, and team building

D) Best practices for delivery of the adult curriculum. The training also included two simulations and one targeted institute (MoDESE, 2015).

The funding for the MoLEAD training for Cohort One was allocated through the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) Flexibility Waiver (MoDESE, 2014). All leaders in schools, identified as focus schools, attended MoLEAD training to fulfill the leadership component of the ESEA flexibility waiver (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). Cohort One training began in January 2013, and consisted of 244 participants who met in nine different locations across the state which were facilitated by national trainers (MoDESE, 2015). Cohort Two training began in October 2013 with 100 participants, but only four sites across the state offered the course, and local trainers also received training (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). In June 2014, an expansion of the program included a third cohort and a pilot program through Missouri State University from Springfield, Missouri (MoDESE, 2015). The Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015) reported the funding for Cohort Three included support from federal, state, and local funds. The state department paid the cost of the training for focus schools and non-school improvement grant funded schools (MoDESE, 2015). All other schools paid $2,000 per participant (C.

Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). All schools were responsible for funding meals and travel as well (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015).

The MoDESE state appropriation for each participant was approximately $6,000 (MoDESE, 2014). As Marzano and Simms (2012) explained, this was important because principals impacted the hiring, training, and retention of teachers who affected student achievement. According to MoDESE (2015), instructors from the Missouri State University School of Education initiated a pilot program called the Missouri Institute for Leadership in Education. The program merged the MoLEAD standards with the Missouri State University Educational Leadership Preparation Program, which focused on preparing principals to become strategic thinkers and instructional leaders (MoDESE, 2015).

Principal Preparation Programs

Just as officials with state departments have made strides to address low-achieving schools' performances, in higher education, professors have sought to revisit principal preparation programs (Fuller, Young, & Baker, 2011). Fuller et al. (2011) examined the effects of principal preparation programs on schools' student achievement. They found principals' programs centered on research were more effective than regional institutions that focused on overall campus improvement. A survey of superintendents in 2001 found 92% believed preparation programs were ineffective (Davis, Leon, & Fultz, 2013). Davis et al. (2013) implied traditional methods of preparing principals, from schools of education to leadership development, have been falling short, especially those in low-income areas. More than half of the principals graduated from a state preparation

program in which the school was out of touch with today's reality of school programs (Davis et al., 2013).

Williams and Szal (2011) found superintendents also expected more out of universities' teacher education programs. Superintendents complained about the lack of skillful hiring pools and ineffective candidates (Williams & Szal, 2011). Williams and Szal (2011) reported each state education department was responsible for the standards for its principal programs. Dunlap et al. (2015) suggested preparation programs for principals were not preparing them for what they faced in today's schools. Dunlap et al. (2015) suggested principal preparation programs often had a domino effect. They influenced the values and career aspirations of aspiring administrators, which in turn affected their leadership styles and behaviors in school (Dunlap et al., 2015). The leadership style affected teaching staff and climate, which in turn influenced student achievement (Dunlap et al., 2015).

The programs principals attended were management programs based on theories of education from the 1960s and 1970s (Ducharme & Ducharme, 2015). Ducharme and Ducharme (2015) added the basis for many of the classes were budgeting and school facilities topics. Sparks (2013) proposed a principal today also faced issues in curriculum and school culture. Hess and Kelly (2007) questioned whether graduates of principal preparation programs were being prepared for the challenges and opportunities presented by an era of accountability. According to the George Bush Institute (2015), only 43 states included topics related to developing a positive school culture in their standards for principals, and many did not track what courses were offered to new leaders before they entered into the school environment (*Educational Reform*, 2015). Sparks (2013) proposed

effective principals intentionally and consciously worked to influence their schools' climate.

Marzano and Simms (2012) maintained effective principal leadership focused on school climate had a positive influence on teachers and students. Specific behaviors practiced by effective principals were as follows: a) supervising teachers, b) promoting high expectations for students and teachers, c) focusing on basic skills, d) monitoring the curriculum, and e) monitoring students' learning goals (Marzano & Simms, 2012). Recently, the state of Missouri's official from the Department of Education were not tracking university programs to determine if the programs were producing strong leaders (MoDESE, 2015). The state of Missouri only required university courses to meet minimum standards (MoDESE, 2015). This left the training to the discretion of each university, which also led to inconsistencies (MoDESE, 2015). The National Association of Elementary School Principals (2008) identified six standards for instructional leadership:

1. Leading schools by placing priority on students and adult learning;
2. Setting high expectation and standards;
3. Demonstrating content and instruction that ensure student achievement;
4. Creating a culture of adult learning;
5. Using multiple sources of data as diagnostic tools;
6. Actively engaging the community.

In 2008, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) revised its standards to align with leadership needs of the 21st century (Davis et al., 2013). Canole and Young (2013) reported 50% of the states in the United States mandated

administrators took standardized examinations as a condition of attaining administrative licenses, and, of these states, 16 states required the School Leaders Licensure Assessment, which was aligned to the ISLLC standards (Canole & Young, 2013). Canole and Young (2013) explained one concern of the ISLLC standards has been the disconnection with student achievement and the omission of technology leadership. According to Superville (2014), the primary goal of the standards was to set a picture of what an effective leader looked like in today's public school system. Superville (2014) reported the ISLLC standards focused on the skills needed to affect student achievement. The ISLLC standards were basic competencies principals were expected to demonstrate upon graduating in order to be successful at running a schools (Superville, 2014).

Even though these standards had been established, most administrators' preparatory programs still emphasized the development of managerial skills with little emphasis on developing a culture that promoted students' learning (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Superville (2014) reported the ISLLC standards were again under review to reflect the ever changing and demanding skills needed from today's leaders and would increase from six standards to 11 standards to include social factors such as poverty. The courses required at most universities recently had focused on supervision, schedules, law, and finance (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Also, the courses often had placed little emphasis on learning how to develop relationships or cultures that promoted school performance (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). The standards, as noted by Superville (2014), were not mandatory, but 45 states adopted them. In a rapidly changing community, schools can no longer afford administrators of past decades (Davis, Leon, &

Fultz, 2013). School administrators were expected to be creative leaders who were problem solvers and transformational leaders for the 21st century (Mumford et al., 2007).

This chapter detailed the literature, related to foundations of leadership, types of leadership styles, school leadership, and the leadership practices inventory, along with principals' preparatory programs. The researcher's review of existing literature led to several areas of inquiry. Furthermore, the researcher sought clarification and additional information regarding the MoLEAD program, effective leadership, and their relationship to NCLB and collaboration in today's school system. The next chapter will detail the researcher's design and methodology for this mixed methods study of effective leadership, student achievement, and program evaluation.

Chapter Three: Methodology

In this study, the researcher examined the relationship between Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development (MoLEAD) training and student achievement scores in their respective school districts. The researcher aimed to determine if there was a positive correlation between administrators attending MoLEAD professional development programs and increased student achievement. This mixed methods study provided both quantitative and qualitative data related to students' performance as collected through the MoDESE website, as well as participants' feedback about their experiences in the MoLEAD program. Fink (2014) explained mixed methods research was a type research in which qualitative and quantitative, or statistical data, were combined within a single study. Quantitative research designs tested the relationship among variables by analyzing data and determining all possible conclusions (Johnson & Christensen, 2013). The study also included a survey of participants using a cross-sectional design.

Another important part of the study included an analysis of pre- and post-Missouri State Improvement Plan 5 student achievement scores, including subgroup scores for the varying demographics of the student populations (Salkind, 2010). The Spearman Correlation was used to determine whether there were are any significant differences between the means of three or more of the independent groups within the data (Salkind, 2010). This test was conducted, using the data from participants' Leadership Practice Inventory results (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). In order to determine the results of this study, the researcher used an independent t-test to compare the mean of one sample with the mean of another sample to evaluate if there was a statistically significant difference between the two. Data was used to compare the student achievement scores gathered

from the MSIP data. This study was inferential as the researcher concluded with inferences that the resulted from the sample applied to the whole population of participating schools (Salkind, 2010). To avoid a Type I error, the researcher ensured the *p* value was set at .5 or lower. To avoid Type II errors, the researcher planned to increased sample size, if necessary (Salkind, 2010).

First, all data obtained before beginning participation in the training from the schools that were required to attend the MoLEAD program in Cohort One was collected. Three sets of data were used from Missouri Department of Education website: a) academic achievement, b) subgroup, and c) attendance. Next, data from these same areas was collected from participating schools after administrators participated in MoLEAD training. Other relevant quantitative data was collected for each Cohort One participating school from MoDESE's website to determine if there were other factors that accounted for the schools' low academic performance.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following Research Questions guided the study:

1. What was the relationship between MoLEAD training and student achievement scores?

H1$_0$: There was no relationship between students' achievement scores and administrators who have completed MoLEAD training.

H1$_a$: There was a relationship in students' achievement scores and administrators who have completed MoLEAD training.

2. What were the levels of leadership effectiveness for the MoLEAD participants based on their LPI scores?

Population and Sample

The target population for this study involved the 114 public school districts and participating administrators in Missouri who participated in the MOLEAD training Cohort One (MoDESE, 2015). The student demographic information of the school districts selected to participate in MoLEAD, included the following: a) 75.7% white, b) 17.8% black, c) 4.1% Hispanic, d) 2.0% Asian/Pacific Islander, and e) 0.5% American Indian (MoDESE, 2016). When Cohort One participants were selected, the student population for the districts had a mean 43.8% poverty rate and 83.7% graduation rate. The researcher utilized probability sampling of the target population in the study. Fink (2014) explained probability sampling argued it was the best way to ensure the validity of any inferences made about a program's effectiveness and its generalizability across populations. Demographics were not used because the researcher found participating schools existed across all variables of outside influences to include poverty, rural, urban, and school size. Information was collected from the MoDESE website to determine each school district's recent Missouri School Improvement Plan (MSIP) scores, Race to the Top ranking, and other data around school improvement.

Instrumentation

In addition to data from MoDESE, the researcher used the Leadership Practice Inventory as an electronic survey (Fink, 2014). Fink (2014) reported a survey was a method for the collection of information from a select group of participants using standardized questions. Several aspects of the study design dictated the selection of this precise type of instrument. First, a survey was the most applicable tool for acquiring data from a considerable sample covering an ample geographic area (Fink, 2014). A survey

was also the most fitting instrument for describing characteristics of leadership (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2012). In order for data collected in this study to be analyzed, it was essential participants answered the questions honestly (Plaza & Fischbach, 2015). The ability to remain anonymous promoted integrity in replies, which was one reason a survey was an appropriate method for data collection; for this reason respondents' anonymity was protected (Plaza & Fischbach, 2015).

Leadership Practice Inventory. The survey used in the study was a Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) (Kouzes & Pousner, 2013). An online request was also submitted to The Leadership Challenge for permission to use their LPI Survey (Kouzes & Pousner, 2013). Participants from Cohort One of the MoLEAD training were sent the LPI electronically using Google Forms. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) survey, developed by James Kouzes and Barry Posner in 1982, was used to determine leadership styles (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). The LPI instrument, a scale that measured a broad range of leadership styles from transformational leadership to passive leadership, included a 30-item profile that supported the profiles of Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). The Leadership Practice Inventory was created for individuals interested in applying the concepts to becoming an effective leader (Harwell, 2011). Harwell (2011) reported the assessment was developed using qualitative and quantitative research methods and studies.

The conceptual framework was generated through written case studies and interviews (Harwell, 2011). Behavioral statements were then created and administered to managers and non-managers across a variety of organizations and demographic backgrounds (Harwell, 2011). Harwell (2011) proposed the LPI had been routinely tested

through analysis of internal reliability. Harwell (2011) reported all five of the practices showed strong coefficients and tests and retests were high. Kouzes and Posner (2012) established reliability and validity of the LPI. The LPI's test-retest reliability was high. Internal reliability was measured by Cronbach's Alpha with scales above the .75 level (see Table 10).

Missouri State Improvement Plan 5 Data. The researcher also utilized the data from the Missouri School Improvement Plan (MSIP) 5, established by the state's expectations while promoting continuous improvement and innovation for student achievement (MoDESE, 2015). MoDESE (2015) reported MSIP 5 applied accountability to a super subgroup. This eliminated duplicate counted in multiple subgroups along with leveling the accountability across districts by measuring only one subgroup.

The data from the MSIP Phase 5 results were analyzed in this study, which allowed the researcher to examine the performance of school districts for the last three years (MoDESE, 2015). The data included points for other student indicators affected by leadership, such as attendance (MoDESE, 2015). Each school selected for the sampling had the same MSIP indicators.

Data Collection

For the purpose of this study, the participating school districts' data from the MSIP 5 status in 2013 and 2014 was used for all districts with levels of sanctions (MoDESE, 2015). The researcher located the schools selected for the MoLEAD training in the MoDESE School Directory (2015), which provided principals' names and electronic email addresses. The data collection tool utilized for this study was a self-administered electronic survey (Fink, 2014). During the fall of 2015, the researcher

requested a list of participants from Missouri Department of Education to obtain data of schools who had participated in the MoLEAD Training (see Appendix H).

The researcher e-mailed a hyperlink to a leadership style survey through Google Forms to all elementary school principals in the State of Missouri. Data specifically MSIP score, were then collected from each school that had responded to DESE, specifically MSIP scores. The study was conducted to analyze schools that had the same MSIP student indicators. Participants were not asked their names or other distinguished information. Subjects were not placed in any risk by participating in this study. No personal data information was used, published or retained.

Data Analysis

The rationale for selected statistical treatment of data with the mean of another sample was used to see if there was a statistically significant difference between the two. This would be used to compare the student achievement scores taken from the MSIP data. This study was inferential, because it was going to make an inference that the results from the sample applied to the whole population. In order to avoid a Type 1 error, the researcher ensured that the *p* value was set at less than 0.5 (Salkind, 2010). This mixed-method study included a survey of leadership styles of cross-sectional design. It also included an analysis of pre- and post- MSIP student achievement data, including subgroup scores and attendance rates. The Wilcoxon-Matched pairs test, One Sample t-test, and a Spearman Correlation test were used to analyze the collected data.

Correlation analysis of the data was used to determine whether there were any significant differences between the means of three or more independent groups. This test was applied to the LPI leadership survey results (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). The researcher

applied an independent t-test and compared the mean of one sample. To avoid Type II errors, researcher increased the sample size (Salkind, 2010). A point value was assigned for academic achievement to account for differences in testing measures in the last three years.

Wilcoxon-Matched Pairs Test. The researcher used a Wilcoxon signed rank test, which is a nonparametric test used to compare two sets of scores from the same participants (Salkind, 2010). The Wilcoxon Matched Pairs test was used to compare the following data from the years 2013 and 2014. The data included the following: a) academic achievement, b) subgroup achievement, and c) student attendance. The Wilcoxon test assumed the differences were disturbed symmetrically around their median (Salkind, 2010).

One Sample t Test. One sample t test compared the sample to a defined population (Salkind, 2010). The defined population for this research was the 2003 LPI Normative sample. Kouzes and Posner (2013 collected 1,259 participants' scores were used to calculate the 2003 norms (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). Salkind (2010) explained how the shape and the position of the normal distribution curve depended on two parameters, the mean and the standard deviation. The confidence level used for this study was 95% (Salkind, 2010). A confidence level, as Salkind (2010) defined was a specific interval estimate for a parameter that uses data from a sample size and sample standard deviation.

Spearman Correlation. Spearman's correlation coefficient, measured the strength of association between two or more ranked variables (Salkind, 2010). A correlation was an index of how much two variables had in common (Salkind, 2010).

According to Spearman's rank order correlation, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program (2015), variables had a direct or indirect correlation to each other. Spearman's rank order correlation, using SPSS statistics (2015), also stated the more alike the variables were to each other, the closer one was to its coefficients. This study compared participants' positions, trainings, and experiences.

Ethical Considerations

Everyone who participated in the study did so willingly. Participants chose to participate without penalties and had the option to withdraw at any time. Participants were able to choose to not to complete parts of the LPI and could have refused to answer any of the questions (Wilder Research, 2009). Collection of the LPI results (Kouzes & Posner, 2013) was in an electronic password folder, which was deleted at the completion of this study. All identifying information was disguised in the study (Wilder Research, 2009).

Summary

The researcher employed a mixed-method design that utilized data from the participants' LPI responses and their school districts' MSIP 5 data. The data obtained from MoDESE's (2015) Data Resource Online was used to better understand leadership and how it impacted student achievement. Identification of schools who participated in MoLEAD training was obtained by permission from MoDESE (2015). The data obtained through the MoDESE Online Resource were analyzed using the Wilcoxon matched-pair test for student indicators of success: a) academic, b) subgroup academic, and c) attendance. The mean scores from the indicators of success were then compared to the

school years' data of 2013 and 2014. Once identified, school principals were electronically requested to participate in the LPI and the study.

The participants' responses to the LPI Inventories (Kouzes & Posner, 2013) were evaluated to compare perceptions of highly effective leaders and MoLEAD Training. Additionally, the results were used to determine if MoLEAD training was increasing the effectiveness of leaders. Descriptive data was used to evaluate the LPI survey. Next, a t-test was used to compare the LPI responses from participants to those of the 2003 Norm study group. Lastly, a Spearman Correlation was conducted as a final analysis of LPI survey responses. The next chapter outlines the qualitative and quantitative results of the mixed methods analysis the researcher completed to study leadership effectiveness and student performance. The researcher sought to investigate whether the MoLEAD program was effective in improving leadership in the school system.

Chapter Four: Analysis of Data

Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to examine student achievement data to evaluate the effectiveness of the MoLEAD program. The outcome of this investigation aimed to determine if the effects of this training could be linked to improved student achievement. The study included a review of literature related to leadership, principal programs, and best practices. In this study, the researcher examined the effect(s) of MoLEAD training and the results on the schools' performances. The point of the research was to determine if these professional development programs contributed to positive student outcomes.

Overview of the Study

The researcher completed a multi-step process to review data from the study. The first step in the study was to gather participating schools' public data from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. The schools' Annual Performance Reports for 2013 and 2014 were gathered (MoDESE, 2015). The percentages earned by participating schools in each category for academics, subgroups, and attendance rates were recorded. The researcher then received permission from Lindenwood University's Internal Review Board to pursue the research (see Appendix A). The next step in the research was to gain permission, via an electronic mail, from the superintendents of the 90 school districts in the sample provided by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (MoDESE, 2015) to participate in the research project (see Appendix B). This phase began in November of 2015.

After receiving notification of permission, next, the researcher contacted the building administrators of the Cohort One participating school districts through electronic communication (see Appendix C) to explain the purpose and the content of the study including the timeline for the project. Attached to this communication was the Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities document (see Appendix D), which explained to participants what their involvement in the study included, as well as the security measures taken to insure anonymity and confidentiality for all participants. The online survey was accessible for a six-week window, beginning in November. Administrators from the participating schools were e-mailed a copy of the recruitment letter (see Appendix B) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (see Appendix E).

In the survey, the researcher asked administrators to complete the LPI, which included 30 Likert scale statements and two open-ended questions. The survey also included demographic information about the years of experience, positions currently held, and positions held at the time of participating in the MoLEAD training.

After two weeks awaiting responses, the researcher had collected a small pool of responses. In order to collect more responses and make the study more valid, the researcher made numerous contacts via e-mail and personal phone calls to the administrators in different districts who had agreed to participate to encourage completion of the survey before the close of the survey window. After several attempts to solicit responses by phone contact and via electronic mailings from school administrators who agreed to participate in the study over a six-week period, the researcher closed the survey with an increase in participants of 15 participants. Following this step, the researcher collected data using the Google Forms online tool (Google Forms, 2015). As

the online program collected participants' responses of the survey, the data was recorded in a table to provide an overview of the information that was obtained (see Appendix E).

The following research questions guided the study:

Research Question One. Since the program's implementation, has the MoLEAD program had a significant impact on students' academic performance of the building principals who participated in MoLEAD?

Research Question Two. What were the levels of leadership effectiveness for the MoLEAD participants based on their LPI scores?

Demographic Data

To begin organizing data, the researcher analyzed individual data components provided by MoDESE's Public Resource Online (MoDESE, 2015). The first step was to examine the descriptors provided by the participants to better understand the different variables within the school districts of the administrators who participated in the MoLEAD training. The demographic descriptors collected and analyzed included school districts' student body populations and school districts' free and reduced lunch percentages. After collecting and organizing the data for individual school districts participating in the study, the researcher combined the data to compare and contrast descriptors.

Ninety participants were invited to participate, and 22% of the participants from Cohort One responded (n=20). The largest populations of participating administrators were in the student population of 301 to 400, with 25 participants coming from this size of school. The next largest population of participants was in the student population of 401 to 500, with 21 participants from this school size; 19 participating administrators came

from school buildings with 201 to 300 students. The following were the student population sizes of the participating administrator's schools: a) 14 from 101 to 200, b) four from 1 to 600, c) two from 601 to 700, d) three from 701 to 800, and e) three from 1 to 100. Only one participating administrator was from the school building sector with the largest student population of 801 to 900 students (see Table 1).

Table 1

Participating Administrators According to School Population

Student Population in School Building	No. of Participants
1-100	3
101-200	14
201-300	19
301-400	25
401-500	21
501-600	4
601-700	2
701-800	3
801-900	1

Note. Data collected in the study.

Table 2

Percentages of School Buildings' Free and Reduced Lunch

Free and Reduced %	No. of School Buildings in Study	Total % of Study Population
40-50%	4	4%
51-60%	11	11%
61-70%	15	16%
71-80%	16	17%
81-90%	24	25%
91-100%	25	27%

Note. Data collected from Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015).

The largest percentages of schools in this study were in a high poverty area with 27% of participants being administrators of schools with 90 to 100% of students qualifying for free and reduced lunches. In the study, 24 schools or 25% of the potential population fell in the next category of 80 to 90% free and reduced lunch. No participating MoLEAD schools in the study fell below the 40% range for free and reduced lunch.

Analysis of Data

A data analysis was performed on each of the independent variables, which included the summary of the data related to Missouri School Improvement Plan 5 (See Table 2). In 1990, the Missouri Department of Education developed the Missouri Improvement Plan, which is now in its fifth cycle (MoDESE, 2015). The accountability system had been used by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary

Education for reviewing and accrediting school districts and was designed to recognized student growth and achievement (MoDESE, 2015). For elementary schools, the state determined their performance standards based on academic achievement, subgroup achievement and attendance rates (MoDESE, 2015). The researcher also conducted a survey using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Kouzer & Posner, 2013).

The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership was a framework that resulted from the research of Kouzer and Posner (2013). The tool was first designed to assist leaders in their personal development of individual areas to build competencies (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). The participants responded to the LPI survey using a 10-point Likert scale. For each item on the scale, participants indicated how often they engage in the behavior with 1= Almost Never and 10=Almost Always. A high value represented more frequent use of the behavior (Kouzes & Posner, 2013).

Participants' Descriptive Statistics

The following descriptive data provided a profile of the administrators in the school districts who completed MoLEAD Cohort One training and participated in the research study. Nearly all of the participating schools were located in rural areas in the state of Missouri. The schools varied in student population from 34 to 881 students in the participants' school building. The range of years of experience in school administrators who participated in the survey varied. Six respondents had 15 to 19 years in administration and four respondents had 25 to 29 years of experience. Fourteen of the participants were serving as building principals during the MoLEAD training. Four of the participants were assistant principals; one participant was a superintendent; and one reported their position as "other." Twelve of the survey respondents had completed their

specialist's degrees. Five participants held their doctoral degrees, while three had completed education classes at the master's degree level. The respondents also had remained in their positions following the training with little vertical movement. Two participants elevated to the position of superintendent while three of the assistant principals worked in the position as a head principal (see Table 3).

Table 3

Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 20)

Variable	Category	*n*	%
Years of Experience			
	6 to 14 years	5	25.0
	15 to 19 years	6	30.0
	20 to 24 years	5	25.0
	25 to 29 years	4	20.0
Current Position			
	Superintendent	2	10.0
	Assistant Superintendent	1	5.0
	Principal	15	75.0
	Other	2	10.0
Position During Training			
	Superintendent	1	5.0
	Principal	14	70.0
	Assistant Principal	4	20.0
	Other	1	5.0
Education			
	Doctoral	5	25.0
	Specialist	12	60.0
	Master's	3	15.0

Note. Data collected from survey.

Table Three displayed the frequency counts for selected demographics. For the 20 participants who completed the LPI, their years of experience ranged from six to 29 years (M = 18.60, SD = 6.02). The most common current position was from principals who accounted for 75% (n=15) of the participants. The most common position during training was also principal who accounted for 70% (n=14), of the participants. All 100% (n=20) of the participants surveyed had at least a Master's degree 60% (n=12) of the participants also possessed a Specialist degree and 25% (n=5) had also earned a Doctorate degree (see Table 3).

Table 4

Participating Administrators Survey Responses (N = 20)

Respondent	Years of Experience	Position during Training	Degree
1	20	Principal	Specialist
2	29	Principal	Masters
3	19	Principal	Specialist
4	22	Principal	Doctoral
5	28	Principal	Doctoral
6	6	Principal	Masters
7	13	Principal	Specialist
8	11	Superintendent	Specialist
9	18	Principal	Doctoral
10	20	Assistant	Masters
11	18	Other	Masters
12	13	Other	Doctoral
13	26	Principal	Specialist
14	20	Principal	Specialist
15	22	Principal	Specialist
16	18	Principal	Specialist
17	10	Assistant	Specialist
18	15	Assistant	Doctoral
19	19	Assistant	Specialist
20	25	Principal	Specialist

Note. Data retrieved from the LPI Survey.

Student Indicators of Success Data

For the purpose of this study, school indicators of success included: a) average attendance rates, b) academic scores, and c) subgroup academic scores. The researcher

collected this demographic data from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015). To determine the school districts' indicators of success, the researcher visited the site for each of the potential participating districts to collect applicable data, noting all of the data for each school.

Attendance rates Data. The Missouri Education Department reported each school district was required to ensure that all students attended school regularly (MoDESE, 2015). The mean score of average attendance rates in 2013 calculated was 83.17% in daily attendance, while in 2014 these same participating schools' attendance rates were 82.72%, which was a decrease of 0.45%. The Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015) required schools to maintain an average attendance rate of 90% students attending daily in order to receive accreditation on Missouri School Improvement Plan (MSIP) reviews. This state requirement helped to explain the consistency in this statistic and may have impacted the school districts' administrators being required to attend the MoLEAD program (MoDESE, 2015).

Academic Scores. Academic scores were obtained from the State of Missouri through the state's annual standardized tests, the Missouri Assessment Program (MoDESE, 2015). In, 2013 and 2014, every student in Missouri was required to take a grade-level assessment at the end of the school year (MoDESE, 2015). The expectation was students would perform at expected benchmarks each year on the assessments in order to demonstrate growth and to gauge the quality of teaching they received throughout the school year (MoDESE, 2015).

Students in each school were expected to demonstrate improvement in performance over time (MoDESE, 2015). Although the intention was for students to

improve on these annual standardized tests, the academic scores of the school buildings in this study indicated a negative effect. In 2013, the mean score of students' assessments from all 90 schools required to attend MoLEAD was 69.63% (*n*=90). In 2014, the following year, the mean score for the students in the same school districts participating in MoLEAD was 68.41% (*n*=90).

Subgroup Academic Scores. According to MoDESE (2015), students attending schools assigned to MoLEAD also needed to demonstrate improvement in the different subgroups as well. Subgroups for each building were the following: a) students identified as free/reduced lunch candidates, b) students with racial/ethnic backgrounds other than white, c) students who qualified as English language learners, and d) students with disabilities (MoDESE, 2015). This study concluded that in 2013, the mean score for subgroup academics was 61.72% with a negative result in 2014 of 58.19%.

Research Question One

The first research question guiding this study was the following: "Since the program's implementation, has the MoLEAD program had a significant impact on the students' academic performance of the building principals' who participated in MoLEAD?" To answer this question, the researcher analyzed quantitative data, which included results to Wilcoxon two-tail study using MAP data from MoDESE for the school districts participating in MoLEAD.

The data was grouped into three categories: a) academics, b) subgroup academics, and c) attendance. The researcher used the 2010 version of the statistical program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), to sort the data to determine the mean of the participants' responses. The data was placed in descending order, as noted in Table

3. Change scores were calculated by subtracting participating school districts' 2013 scores from their 2014 scores. Wide variations in gains and losses in students' academic achievement were noted across the 90 school buildings, with a standard deviation of 7 or more times larger than the mean scores (see Table 5).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Selected Variables (N = 90)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Low	High
Academic 2013	69.63	26.50	12.50	100.00
Super Subgroup 2013	61.72	30.12	0.00	100.00
Attendance 2013	83.17	26.64	0.00	100.00
Academic 2014	68.41	25.66	0.00	100.00
Super Subgroup 2014	58.19	30.29	0.00	100.00
Attendance 2014	82.72	24.75	0.00	100.00
Change in Academic [a]	-1.22	20.00	-56.30	50.00
Change in Super Subgroup [a]	-3.52	27.66	-91.70	91.70
Change in Attendance [a]	-0.44	29.57	-80.00	100.00

Note. Data collected from study. a Change = 2014 score minus 2013 score. Table Five displayed the descriptive statistics for the school years, 2013 and 2014, as well as the change scores for the participating schools' academic scores, super subgroup scores, and attendance scores.

The first research question in the study was, "Since the program's implementation, has the Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development (MoLEAD) program had a significant impact on the students' academic

performance of the building principals who participated in MoLEAD?" The related null hypothesis predicted that, "*$H1_{0:}$* There was not a significant relationship between students' achievement scores and administrators who completed MoLEAD training." To test this hypothesis, Wilcoxon matched-pairs tests were used to compare the schools' 2013 scores with their 2014 scores. Wilcoxon matched paired tests were used instead of the more common paired *t* test or repeated measures ANOVA test due to the wide variability in the change scores as previously noted in Table 2. The researcher found a decrease in all mean scores in all three areas: a) attendance rates b) academic scores and c) subgroups (see Table 6).

Table 6

Wilcoxon-Matched Pairs Tests Comparing 2013 and 2014 Variables (N = 90)

Variable	Year	*M*	*SD*	*z*	*p*
Academic				0.75	.45
	2013	69.63	26.50		
	2014	68.41	25.66		
Super Subgroup				1.48	.14
	2013	61.72	30.12		
	2014	58.19	30.29		
Attendance				0.67	.51
	2013	83.17	26.64		
	2014	82.72	24.75		

Note. Data obtained in the study.

The change scores were displayed below in Table 7. These scores were tabulated by subtracting the data from 2013 from 2014 for the three primary variables. The percentage of schools that experienced declines in school performance academic results despite their administrators attending MoLEAD training were in the following areas: a) academic (45.5%) (*n*=90), b) super subgroup (44.5%) (*n*=90), and c) attendance (24.4%) (*n*=90).

Table 7

Distribution of Change Scores for Academic Schools (N = 90)

Change Range	*n*	%
-56.3 to -40.00	2	2.2
-20.00 to -39.00	11	12.2
-1.00 to -19.00	28	31.1
No Change	22	24.4
1.00 to 19.00	14	15.6
20.00 to 39.00	11	12.2
40.00 to +50.00	2	2.2

Note. Date retrieved from MoDESE (2015) website.

Table 8

Distribution of Change Scores for Super Subgroup (N = 90)

Change Range	*n*	%
-91.70	1	1.1
-40.00 to -59.00	7	7.8
-20.00 to -39.00	15	16.7
-1.00 to -19.00	17	18.9
No Change	19	21.1
+1.00 to +19.00	16	17.8
+20.00 to +39.00	9	10.0
+40.00 to +59.00	5	5.6
+91.70	1	1.1

Note. Data retrieved from MoDESE (2015) website.

Table 9

Distribution of Change Scores for Attendance (N = 90)

Change Range	*n*	%
-60.00 to -80.00	2	2.2
-40.00 to -59.00	4	4.4
-20.00 to -39.00	11	12.2
-1.00 to -19.00	5	5.6
No Change	53	58.9
+1.00 to +19.00	2	2.2
+20.00 to +39.00	8	8.9
+40.00 to +59.00	0	0.0
+60.00 to +79.00	2	2.2
+100.00	3	3.3

Note. Data retrieved from MoDESE (2015) website.

Research Question Two

The second research question guiding this study was the following: "What are the levels of leadership effectiveness for the MoLEAD participants based on their LPI scores?" To answer this question, the researcher analyzed qualitative data, which included results to open-ended responses and 30 Likert scales statements on the survey. In 1982, Kouzes and Posner (2012) discovered the five exemplary leadership practices.

The Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) was developed by Kouzes and Posner as a leadership tool in both self and observer format. In this research study, the LPI (2013) self-reporting format was utilized. The LPI contained 30 statements, addressing five different factors associated with transformational leadership. Each factor contained six statements ranked one to 10 on a Likert scale.

Table 10

LPI Matching Statements to Indicators

LPI Factor	Matching Statements
Modeling the Way	1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26
Inspire the Vision	2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27
Challenge the Process	3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28
Enable Others to Act	4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29
Encourage the Heart	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30

Note. Data retrieved from *LPI Facilitator's Guide* (4th Ed.).

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), 3rd Edition
Version 3.0, New Norms
May 2003

		MTW	ISV	CTP	EOA	ETH
Valid		1256	1252	1257	1256	1255
Missing		3	7	2	3	4
Mean		47.016	44.3442	46.1146	49.3973	47.0553
Median		48.0000	45.0000	47.0000	50.0000	48.0000
Std.Deviation		7.09851	8.79206	7.21505	6.41827	8.19911
	%ile					
	10	38.0000	33.0000	36.0000	42.0000	36.6000
	20	41.0000	37.0000	40.0000	45.0000	41.0000
	30	44.0000	40.0000	43.0000	47.0000	43.8000
	40	46.0000	43.0000	45.0000	49.0000	46.0000
	50	48.0000	45.0000	47.0000	50.0000	48.0000
	60	50.0000	48.0000	48.0000	52.0000	50.0000
	70	51.0000	51.0000	51.0000	53.0000	52.0000
	80	53.0000	53.0000	53.0000	55.0000	54.0000
	90	55.0000	55.0000	55.0000	57.0000	57.0000

Figure 2. Leadership Practices Inventory Benchmark Scores. This figure illustrated the norm data from 2003 that was obtained from1,200 participants and was used to compare to the LPI survey results of the MoLEAD participants.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for LPI Scores (N = 20)

LPI Score	*M*	*SD*	Low	High
Model the Way	51.95	6.30	33.00	60.00
Inspire a Shared Vision	48.70	6.31	32.00	60.00
Challenge the Process	49.15	6.62	31.00	60.00
Enable Others to Act	51.45	5.34	35.00	57.00
Encourage the Heart	49.30	5.79	33.00	60.00
Total Score	250.55	28.34	164.00	294.00

Note. Data retrieved from research.

In Table 11, the descriptive statistics for the participants' LPI scores have been displayed. The LPI Total score had a mean of *M* = 250.55 (*SD* = 28.34). Among the five subscales, the highest was *Modeling the Way* (*M* = 51.95, *SD* = 6.30). The lowest subscale was *Challenge the Process* (*M* = 49.15, *SD* = 6.62) (see Table 11).

Research Question Two asked, "What are the levels of leadership effectiveness for the MoLEAD participants based on their LPI scores?" In response to the LPI survey questions in regards to the different levels of leadership effectiveness, participants responded the most strongly to *Model the Way*. The mean response 51.95 compared to the survey's mean response of 47.02, which was a 4.93 higher response. The three highest levels of leadership for the participants' item responses all ended with item means above 8.

Table 12

Survey Responses Related to Model the Way (N=20)

Item 1	Item 6	Item 11	Item 16	Item 21	Item 26
9.0	8.4	9.0	8.3	8.5	8.6

Note. Data retrieved from LPI Survey.

Table 13

Survey Responses Related to Inspire the Vision (N = 20)

Item 2	Item 7	Item 12	Item 17	Item 22	Item 27
8.2	7.75	7.6	8	8.4	8.75

Note. Data retrieved from LPI Survey.

Table 14

Survey Responses for Challenge the Process (N = 20)

Item 3	Item 8	Item 13	Item 18	Item 23	Item 28
8.9	8.2	7.7	8.3	8.2	7.95

Note. Data retrieved from LPI Survey.

All participants answered all of the questions on the survey, which were divided into five categories to determine leadership effectiveness. To answer these questions, Table 15 displayed the one-sample *t* tests comparing the current sample ($N = 20$) with the LPI normative sample ($N \approx 1{,}250$). All five subscale scores were significantly higher than

the LPI normative sample with the $p = .10$ level. The largest differences between the samples were for two sub-scales of *Modeling the Way* ($p = .002$) and *Inspire a Shared Vision* ($p = .006$) (see Table 15).

Table 15

One Sample t Test Comparing Current Sample to 2003 LPI Normative Sample (N = 20)

LPI Score	Group	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Model the Way					3.50	19	.002
	Current	20	51.95	6.30			
	2003 Norms	1,256	47.02	7.10			
Inspire a Shared Vision					3.09	19	.006
	Current	20	48.70	6.31			
	2003 Norms	1,252	44.34	8.79			
Challenge the Process					2.05	19	.05
	Current	20	49.15	6.62			
	2003 Norms	1,257	46.11	7.22			
Enable Others to Act					1.72	19	.10
	Current	20	51.45	5.34			
	2003 Norms	1,256	49.40	6.42			
Encourage the Heart					1.73	19	.10
	Current	20	49.30	5.79			
	2003 Norms	1,255	47.06	8.20			

Note. Data obtained through participants' responses to survey.

N=Number of participants M=Means SD= Standard Deviation t=t-test df= degrees of freedom p=p value

Table 16

Spearman Correlations for LPI Scores with Selected Demographic Variables (N = 20)

	Position During				
Model the Way	-.15	-.09	-.23		.04
Inspire a Shared Vision	-.08	-.14	-.41	*	.24
Challenge the Process	-.24	-.31	-.24		.11
Enable Others to Act	-.34	-.02	-.25		.02
Encourage the Heart	-.14	-.14	-.31		.16
Total Score	-.23	-.17	-.28		.15

Note. Data obtained through LPI survey

** $p < .10$.*

[a] *Position: 1 = Superintendent to 4 = Lower Position.*

[b] *Education: 1 = Doctorate to 3 = Master's.*

Additional Findings

Cohen (2013) suggested some guidelines for interpreting the strength of linear correlations. He suggested a weak correlation typically had an absolute value of r =0.10 (approximately 1% of the variance explained), a moderate correlation typically had an absolute value of r = 0.30 (approximately 9% of the variance explained) and a strong correlation typically had an absolute value of r = 0.50 (approximately 25% of the variance explained). Given the exploratory nature of this study and the small sample size (n=20), the correlations that were of moderate strength, even though they were not statistically significant, based on the Cohen (2013) criteria these correlations were

noteworthy. This notable finding also will be recommended as a possible avenue for future research.

As an additional set of analyses, Spearman correlations were used to compare the six LPI scores with the four demographic variables, as displayed in Table 5. Upon inspection of Table 8, the researcher found 4 out of 24 correlations to be of moderate strength based on the Cohen (2013) criteria. Specifically, respondents with less experience rated themselves higher on *Enable Others to Act* (r_s = -.34, p = .14). Respondents with higher level positions rated themselves higher for *Challenge the Process* (r_s = -.31, p = .18). Respondents with more responsible positions when they received the training rated themselves higher for *Inspire a Shared Vision* (r_s = -.41, p = .07) and *Encourage the Heart* (r_s = -.31, p = .19) (see Table 16).

Participants' Feedback on MoLEAD

At the conclusion of the LPI survey, the research included open-ended questions to allow participants to provide feedback about their experiences in MoLEAD. The following questions were at the conclusion of the survey: "Do you believe the MoLEAD training you received was beneficial in your professional development growth as a leader and to your students? If so, please explain how it was beneficial." and "Do you have any suggestions and/or recommendations to the directors of MoLEAD as to how they could improve this program? If yes, list suggestions."

Positive reflections of MoLEAD training. In response to Question One, 100% of the respondents (n=20) gave affirmative responses in regards to the MoLEAD training. Several administrators highlighted the benefit of attending professional development that provided current, research-driven advice. Another aspect of the MoLEAD program

participants complimented was the opportunity to collaborate with others across the state of Missouri. One respondent stated,

> The MoLEAD training contributed to my professional development growth as a leader. The trainers provided some different perspective and caused my thinking to change about different implementation approaches. I also appreciated getting to know other area principals throughout the cohort. I found the Principles of Teaching and Learning very beneficial. I used that information frequently with my building staff.

Another participant agreed he/she learned from the MoLEAD training, despite the lack of immediate academic results. The participant stated,

> Yes, it expanded my thinking greatly. It modeled professional development in a new way in which I was able to replicate for my own leadership team and building. I was able to use all of the mission and vision information and process in creating a mission for my building.

Recommendations for future MoLEAD training. Although most respondents were positive in reflecting about their MoLEAD experiences, several participants also added recommendations for further improvements for trainers to add to enhance the program.

Limit time away from school. One participant recommended the MoLEAD organizers' offerings included more sessions during the summer. The participant explained he/she would appreciate less time would be spent away from the buildings during the school year. Another recommendation was for the MoLEAD instructors to

hold yearly follow-up sessions during the summer for past MoLEAD cohort participants to maintain collaborative relationships and to receive up-to-date training opportunities.

Need for updated resources and instruction. In addition to holding sessions outside of school time, another common recommendation was to use more current resources. Four of the respondents stated information needed to be updated and technology needed to be added to the curriculum. One participant wrote, "Much of the research, videos, and articles were extremely outdated. More current research would make the learning more relevant."

Another participant echoed the same opinion. He/she stated:

> I would urge that NISL continue to update their materials. Often the videos and resources seemed to cite studies from 15 to 20 years ago. Update using more current research and initiatives! The MoLEAD trainers were highly qualified and effective! I have respect for each member of the team.

Overall, the participants expressed feedback on the program, most of which was positive. In addition to the participants' input, another noteworthy observation the researcher made by analysis of the survey results was the number of administrators who attended MoLEAD, but chose not to participate in this study. In fact, as the researcher attempted to anonymously recruit more MoLEAD participants to complete the survey, several administrators responded by questioning how the researcher obtained their names or asked if MoDESE would see their responses and their identities. These observations were also noted as relevant data by the researcher.

Summary

This chapter outlined the qualitative and quantitative results of a mixed-methods analysis the researcher completed to study students' academic performance and effective leadership after completing the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education's MoLEAD program. The researcher sought to investigate whether the MoLEAD program was meeting the needs of Missouri administrators and improving students' academic performance, as its purpose implied. Quantitative analyze yielded evidence to suggest that after their MoLEAD training, participating administrators were no more effective in aiding increases in student performance. In this study, the researcher also collected feedback from MoLEAD participants to better understand their perceptions of the training they received. Thus, after collecting all data, the researcher did not observe the program to be effective to school districts who were required to attend. When addressing the self-reporting LPI results, evidence suggested that those who completed MoLEAD training rated themselves higher in three areas compared to the norm group. The chapter provided an overview of the processes used to develop this research study and to collect data about the MoLEAD program.

In Chapter Five, the researcher will summarize the study and explain the conclusions drawn from this research. This chapter also will include a synopsis of unexpected concerns and limitations within this study. The researcher will suggest future research topics related to the study, as well as provide implications for future practice for educators based on the outcomes of this study. Finally, the researcher will summarize the research project and its findings.

Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusion

The MoLEAD program continues at the time of this publication, and Cohort Three of participants has nearly completed (MoDESE, 2015). Since the program's implementation, MoDESE officials admitted, a thorough program evaluation has not yet been conducted (C. Rector, personal communication, March 3, 2015). This study was conducted in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the MoLEAD program after Cohort One participants finished their training. In this chapter, the researcher provides a discussion of the findings of this research as detailed in Chapter Four, implications of the results to practitioners, responses to the two research questions, and recommendations for subsequent research. The researcher will compare and contrast the outcomes of this study to what was learned in related literature.

This comparison will be used in order to draw conclusions, to note implications for other educators, and to make a series of recommendations. This mixed-methods study was designed to analyze the results from participants' responses to the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2013) and to compare the results to effective leadership skills used by administrators who completed MoLEAD training. Quantitative data was also collected from the MoDESE public data source (MoDESE, 2015). School performance was measured using criteria that contributed to student success. The state of Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary education measured success specifically by focusing on the following: a) academics, b) subgroup academics, and c) attendance.

The second source of quantitative data was collected from surveys completed by administrators' using responses to 30 Likert scale statements for the Leadership Practices

Inventory. These results were analyzed and compared to the norm scores of the beginning LPI norms (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). The qualitative data was collected from administrators through responses to two open-ended questions. These questions allowed administrators to offer their opinions about the MoLEAD training. All of the data was analyzed and used to answer the research questions.

Research Questions

The data and how it related to the guiding research questions was described in Chapter Four. In this chapter, the researcher will discuss how the findings related to the research questions. The research questions in this study were the following:

Research Question One. Since the program's implementation, has the Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, and Development program had a significant impact on students' academic performance of administrators who completed MoLEAD training? To answer Research Question One, public MSIP 5 Performance Standards and Indicators data was gathered from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education website. The data from 2013 to 2014 was compared to determine if there was an increase in students' achievement. The result of the analysis of the public data indicated a significant statistical relationship did not exist between MoLEAD training and student achievement. Using the Wilcoxon two-tail study, the researcher grouped the data into three categories and found no significant differences from 2013 to 2014 in the area of academics ($p=.45$), super subgroup ($p=.14$), or attendance ($p=.51$). This combination of findings proved support to retain the null hypothesis

Research Question Two. What were the levels of leadership effectiveness for the MoLEAD participants based on their LPI scores? The 30 Likert scale statements allowed

administrators to elaborate on their perceptions of their leadership styles. These responses were compared to the Likert scale survey of the LPI normative database from 2003 of approximately 1,200 other respondents from which 45% were female and 55% were males. The normative database included respondents from varied educational levels with 5% at the Doctoral level, 29% at the Masters' level and 41% at the Bachelor's level. The LPI measured the level of transformational leadership practices on five ideals. The results found the strength of the MoLEAD participants was in *Modeling the Way*. The respondents, therefore, often expressed they often led by example and set the standards for their school buildings. A weakness determined by the participants' results was *Inspire a Shared Vision*. However, the respondents' mean score was higher than the normative database of 2003.

Demographic Data

There were 20 administrators from the State of Missouri who responded to this survey and all of the administrators responded to all of the items on the survey. The researcher invited 90 administrators to participate in the survey. This was a 22% response rate (*n=20)*. The schools varied in size and location around the State of Missouri. The administrators who responded during the time of the MoLEAD training consisted of the following: one superintendent, 14 principals, four assistant principals, and one position noted as other, which was not disclosed. The levels of education from the respondents were the following: five Doctoral degrees, 12 Specialist degrees, and three Masters' degrees. Since all but one respondent held the position of a principal or higher and held a Masters' degree, the assumption was all have acquired leadership training, professional development, and on-the-job training in this area prior to their MoLEAD training. All of

the schools administrators who participated in this training had more than 40% students qualifying for free and reduced lunch percentages with more than 50% of the participating schools above the 90% free and reduced lunch percentages. The researcher did not collect data related to poverty or resources available in the communities of the schools.

Analysis of Data

A discussion of the findings of this research as they related to the research literature helped to clarify or discern the phenomena of student achievement and MoLEAD training. These findings could be valuable to decision-makers in school districts today and in the future. The qualitative and quantitative data collected was used to address the research questions. The answers to these questions were used to make inferences about the impact of MoLEAD training on student achievement. The researcher analyzed data from the public data collected from Missouri Department of Education MSIP five along with data collected through the Leadership Practice Inventory (2013) administered online through Google Forms (2015) to MoLEAD participants.

Student Indicators of Success

A purpose of this research and the outcome of Research Question One was to determine the impact MoLEAD training had on student achievement. To measure student achievement in this study, the researcher used three student indicators of success, which included: a) academics, b) attendance, and c) subgroup academics. The results of this study found the research of Davis et al. (2013) fell short in the area of traditional methods of principals' preparedness. Williams and Szal (2011) reported superintendents complained about the lack of a skillful hiring pool and ineffective candidates when hiring

principals. This was consistent with Dunlap et al. (2015), who found that principals' preparation programs often had a domino effect in their schools. Principals' preparation programs influenced the values and careers of aspiring administrators, which, in turn, affected their leadership styles and behaviors at school. Officials with the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015) used these indicators in the MSIP cycle 5 to determine school districts' accreditation and accountability for students' performance.

Academic averages. The results of this study did not support the theory that MoLEAD training significantly affected students' academic averages. Academic averages for all of the participating schools were consistent. The conclusion was based on the mean score for schools' academic averages between the school years of 2013 and 2014, which was a difference of -1.22. In fact the mean score indicated students' performance on standardized testing declined rather than of improving. Actually, the mean score of the schools participating in the study demonstrated lower student's achievement scores following the MoLEAD professional development. The standard deviation for academic average was 26.5%. Twenty-two schools experienced no change in academic performance, which accounted for 25% of the participating school districts, leading to the assumption that more time was needed to implement change in the buildings to influence academic averages and more studies are needed in this area.

The data may, however, not be conclusive for a number of reasons. First, mobility of administrators was not accounted for in this study. Several of the MoLEAD program participants reportedly moved positions vertically or horizontally within the same districts, into other school buildings, or even other school districts. Second, the schools'

rates of poverty, access to resources, and schools' current events were not addressed in this study as well, and may have impacted the data.

Subgroup academic averages. The results of this research indicated students falling into subgroups also were not significantly impacted by the administrators' MoLEAD training. This conclusion was based on the mean scores difference from 2013 to 2014 which was -3.52. Again, 25% of the schools experienced no change in this area. It was reasonable to assume if the larger student bodies of the school populations were not making progress, then students in the subgroups also did not make improvement. It was also of concern the subgroup contained students who qualified for free and reduced lunch programs. Therefore, in all of the schools in the study, more than 50% of their student populations were included in the subgroup scores.

Attendance. The results of this research did not find MoLEAD training made a significant impact on students' attendance rates either. The mean difference between 2013 and 2014 was -0.44. In more than 53 schools with administrators participating in MoLEAD program's Cohort One, no improvements were observed. Many of the schools with administrators included in the study reported attendance rates above the state's requirements of 90% of the students attending 90% of the time, exceeding minimum requirements.

Conclusions

The conclusions for this study were based on and organized around the following research questions:

Research Question One

The first research question guiding this study was the following: "Since the program's implementation, has the MoLEAD program had a significant impact on student's academic performance of the building principals' who participated in MoLEAD?" Based on the findings of the comparative analysis of the student indicators of success the answer to this question was no; administrators who attended MoLEAD training did not observe increased student achievement in their schools. The researcher used the Wilcoxon two-tail study, grouping the data into three categories. Significant differences from 2013 to 2014 were found for academic results ($p=.45$), super subgroup ($p=.14$), or attendance ($p=.51$). This combination of findings proved support to retain the null hypothesis (see Table 2).

One concern noted by the researcher while analyzing data was difficulty in isolating the factors that impacted student achievement, such as poverty and curriculum alignment. Children from poverty are subject with chronic stressors and acute stress which resulted from repeated exposure to abuse or violence (Jenson, 2013). 100% of the participating districts qualified at the 40% or above level for free and reduced lunch. Poverty has been found to have significant impact on children and their education (Jenson, 2013). Children from very poor households with incomes 50% below the poverty line scored seven to 12 points lower than children who came from homes nearing the poverty line (Jenson, 2013). Children in poor households with incomes between 50% and 100% of poverty scored four to seven points lower (Jenson, 2013).

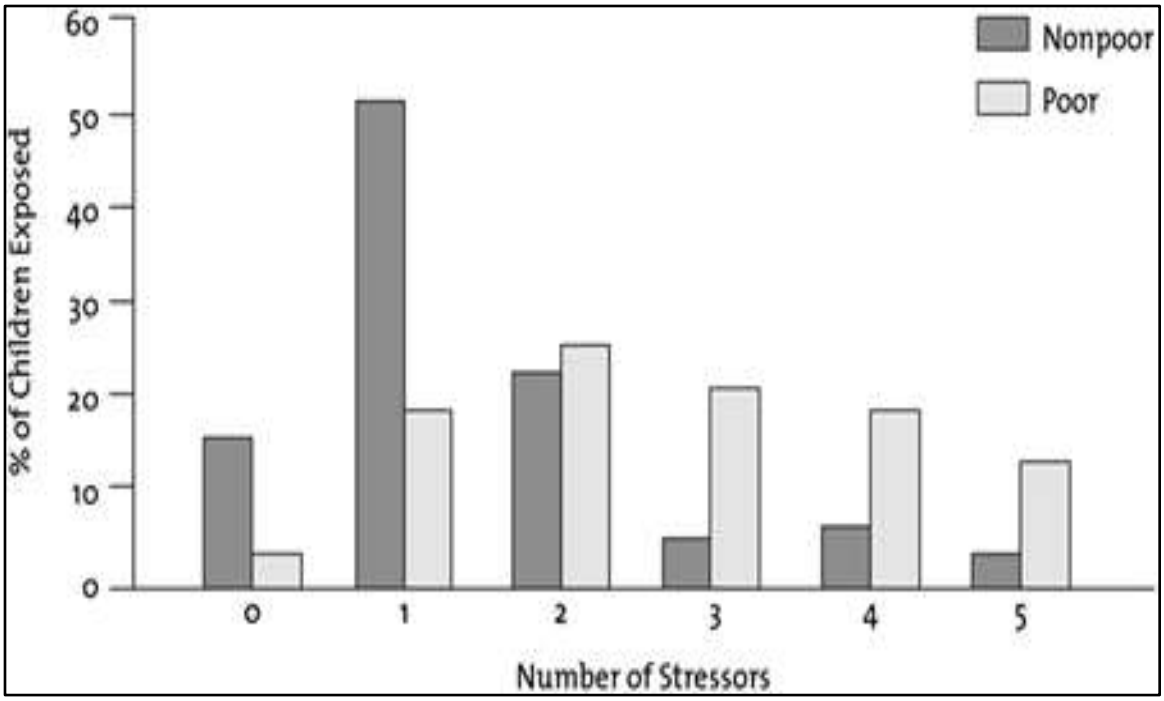

Figure 3. Percentage of Stressors of Children. Data retrieved from *Development Psychology*. This figure illustrated the number of stressors experienced by children in comparison of poor and non-poor economic situations.

Research Question Two

The second research question that guided this study was the following: "What are the levels of leadership effectiveness for the MoLEAD participants based on their LPI scores?" By the comparing the responses of the Likert data to determine level of leadership effectiveness from the 2003 LPI norm scores, the researcher was able to answer this question. The results of this study, determined by these comparisons with the LPI norm group of approximately 1,200 respondents, indicated there was a significantly high relationship between questions related to the theme of *Model the Way* and the respondents with a mean difference of 4.93. Exemplary leaders have been known to lead by example, expecting employees also to desire such high standards and they lived by

(Kouzes & Posner, 2013). The most important qualities others looked for and admired in leaders and admired followed these basic foundations (Kouzes and Posner, 2013). Participants who completed MoLEAD training rated themselves high in this guiding principle. Respondents also had a significantly high relationship with *Inspire the Vision* with a mean difference of 4.35.

Effective leaders, developed visions and their followers believed in these visions (Whitaker, 2012). Leaders communicated their hopes with those on the teams and pulled everyone together, creating a shared purpose (Whitaker, 2012). The MoLEAD participants rated themselves high in appealing to others to create enthusiasm and excitement for a shared goal. Lastly, a significantly high relationship was noted with *Challenge the Process* with a mean difference of 3.03. Great leaders continuously looked for ways to improve the process and improve the work not only of the team but also of themselves (Whitaker, 2012). The work of a great leader is change, and in the ever-evolving world of education it is noted that the survey participants rated themselves high in this category. Leaders today have to create a climate others feel safe while change is occurring and risks are being taking outside of one's comfort zone (Whitaker, 2012).

Participants' responses to the statements regarding *Encourage the Heart* and *Enable the Others to Acts* showed no significant relations with mean difference of 2.24 and 2.05 respectively; all held at the 95% confidence levels. The study found the respondents rated themselves high on the LPI survey in *Clarifying Values* and *Setting Examples* of shared values along with enlisting others in the vision. Respondents also rated themselves high in searching for opportunities to maximize opportunities and take risks while learning from experiences. This data aligned with the MoLEAD professional

development classes of promoting a professional learning environment and the principal as an ethical leader. The state of Missouri would benefit from the addition of professional development in the area of strengthening others through developing capacities and showing appreciation for individual excellence, which the participants rated themselves low in the areas of.

Limitations of the Study

This study involved several limitations. This was the first year of MoLEAD training. Participants who attended later groups for professional development may have had different experiences. Another limitation of the study was that the survey was a self-reported instrument. Participants provided perceptions about their own leadership styles. Therefore, leaders' employees may have answered differently, if they were asked to express their perceptions. A more consistent source of data would have been to follow administrators and to survey faculty and staff who taught in their school buildings. These scores would have perhaps been a more reliable source of data since the scores would have derived from a consistent third party.

A further limitation of this study was the opportunity for the participants to indicate if their schools' curricula (written, taught, and tested) were aligned to the Missouri state standards. While the MoLEAD training addressed leadership styles, it did not address school districts' curriculum or instructional practices. The number of administrators who responded to the survey also was a limitation. The researcher had targeted 90 participants to represent the sample for this study. Timing for the project may have interfered with the collection results. Although the researcher sent several reminder contacts to participants to encourage completion of the project, only 20 participants

returned and completed the survey. Consequently, sample size proved to be a limitation of this study. A larger sample size would have decreased the margin of error in a study (Salkind, 2010).

Implications for Practice

Implications of this study of MoLEAD training efforts to support administrators and student learning did not show a strong statistical relationship overall. However, based on the high mean scores of five exemplary practices of leadership, the study's implications suggested the administrators' responses and student achievement scores be examined separately for more individual focus to include other factors affecting students' achievement. One premise of this research study was how MoLEAD training affected student success. The findings indicated school administrators developed leadership skills early in their training and improvements needed to be considered by the Missouri educator programs for administrators. The reality, however, was the practice of removing administrators or requiring a mandated training for failing schools was not found to be best practices. Whitaker (2012) and Marzano (2011) suggested best practice in instructional leadership included the following a) building a school vision, b) sharing leadership, c) leading a learning community, d) using data to inform instructional decisions, and e) monitoring curriculum and instruction. The MoLEAD trainers should, therefore, add sessions on motivation of staff, as well as help to create the big picture of long-term goal setting in the school buildings of the participating administrators.

Further study recommendations included determination of primary evaluation of programs through the university system in administrators' principal preparatory programs. Bambrick-Santoyo (2012) suggested professional development was useless, if

it did not change how our students learn and increase student achievement. In fact, based on the findings and the lack of impact MoLEAD had on student achievement scores MoDESE officials should even consider discontinuing financially supporting this program.

Recommendations for Future Research

During the course of this research, the researcher was interested by several questions that could provide the basis for further studies. First, a future research topic would be to explore the National Institute for School Leadership (NISL) programs in other states that have implemented with their administrators. Also, this study could involve questioning program participants to see if the programs were implemented differently in other states, and, if so, what were the results? Another interesting approach would be a quantitative analysis of students' academic performances in the other states in which participants attended other professional development formatting. Next, another related topic that would be beneficial to educators would be for researchers to determine what is unique about the highest achieving school districts across the nation. This study would entail a review of the best practice recommendations across the states that have proven results.

Another area of further recommendation for future research would be to include the students who attended the schools in the study. This study would focus on students' poverty levels, school interventions, and their impact on student achievement. All schools who participated in this study were above the 40% poverty level, which indicated there was a significant correlation between lower academic performance and poverty. School administrators in Cohort One of MoLEAD were chosen due to their MSIP status of Focus

schools. Further studies should review poverty and the effects of resources on student performance. One study by Curtis and Manning (2014) found relationships between home and school have made definitive effects on school improvement. Therefore, further research is needed in the area of poverty, academic performance, and school leadership. Lastly, the need for future research has been identified in order to study MoLEAD's Cohorts 2, 3, and 4 to determine if impacts on student achievement occurred during these professional development cohorts.

Finally, an idea for future research would be to examine the relationship between student achievement and attrition of administrators within those school districts. Many answers remain unknown in regards to administrators and attrition within school districts and how new administrators and their transitions within school districts impacts students' academic success. Therefore, future research should address the following question of principal preparation programs and school success over an extended period of time, as well as the length of time spent in the same position. In 2012, the state of Texas closed their first school due to low performance, which in 11 years had 13 different administrators (Fuller, 2012). Fuller (2012) proposed higher administrator turn over led to negative impacts on the school resulting in high teacher turn over and negative impacts on student achievement scores on standardized tests.

Summary

This study focused on MoLEAD program and the impact on student performance in the state of Missouri. The research was conducted using an online survey tool to collect Likert scale data to determine participants' self-perception of transformational leadership skills, as determined by the Leadership Inventory Practices.

The survey also offered the administrators an opportunity to respond to two open-ended questions related to their opinions of how MoLEAD training could be improved and what they found most beneficial. Information was collected from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2015) website to provide data on student success; the three indicators of student success as determined by the Missouri School Improvement Plan Cycle five were as follows: a) academic achievement, b) subgroup academic achievement, and c) attendance rate. All of the data was analyzed and used to make inferences to answer the research questions.

The study conducted a thorough review of literature related to current research on all aspects of leadership and leadership development. The researcher summarized the foundations of leaderships and the types of leaderships. Second, the outcome of this study showed that MoLEAD training was not the determining factor in student success. Administrators who supported students and teachers through caring and supportive climates were just as likely to produce high levels of student achievements. It was possible poverty and the lack of resources available to the schools, class sizes, and quality of instruction provided also impacted the students' success rates. As the future cohorts continue to conclude their training in MoLEAD future research should continue.

Appendix A

LINDENWOOD

LINDENWOOD UNIVERSITY ST. CHARLES, MISSOURI

DATE: November 6, 2015

TO: Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board

FROM: Tina Turner, Ed.S

STUDY TITLE: The relationship between students' achievement scores of administrators who have completed the Missouri Leadership, Excellence and Development program

IRB REFERENCE #: 805945-1

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: APPROVAL

DATE: November 6, 2015 EXPIRATION DATE: November 6, 2016

REVIEW TYPE: Expedited Review

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this research project. Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a study design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

This submission has received Expedited Review based on the applicable federal regulation.

Please remember that informed consent is a process beginning with a description of the study and insurance of participant understanding followed by a signed consent form. Informed consent must continue throughout the study via a dialogue between the researcher and research participant. Federal regulations require each participant receive a copy of the signed consent document.

Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be approved by this

office prior to initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure.

All SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported to this office. Please use the appropriate adverse event forms for this procedure. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

All NON-COMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this project must be reported promptly to the IRB.

This project has been determined to be a Minimal Risk project. Based on the risks, this project requires continuing review by this committee on an annual basis. Please use the completion/amendment form for this procedure. Your documentation for continuing review must be received with sufficient time for review and continued approval before the expiration date of November 6, 2016.

Please note that all research records must be retained for a minimum of three years.

If you have any questions, please contact Megan Woods at (636) 485-9005 or mwoods1@lindenwood.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

If you have any questions, please send them to mwoods1@lindenwood.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board's records.

Appendix B

Recruitment Letter

November 4, 2015

Central Office Administration

Superintendent

Missouri School District

Superintendent,

I am writing to ask permission to request principal participation in my doctoral dissertation research project at Lindenwood University. I believe the information gathered through this research study will positively contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship of professional development (Missouri Leadership Excellence Achievement and Development program) and its impact on student achievement.

A great deal of research has supported the belief that leadership is correlated to student achievement outcomes. The purpose of this research study is to discover if predicative relationships exist between the MoLEAD training, and school achievement.

Attached to this document is the survey that will be presented to administrators who have completed MoLEAD training. Participation in this study is voluntary and may be withdrawn at any time. Confidentiality is assured; specific data related to school districts will be coded. If you have any questions, you may contact me at tturner@richlandbears.us.

Administrators provide consent to participation in this study by completing the survey. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Tina Turner

Doctoral Candidate

Lindenwood University

Appendix C

Message to Participants

To participating administrators,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study related to MoLEAD program and its impact on student achievement in your school districts. Surveys may be accessed through the Google Form link shown below. The survey includes 30 questions related to leadership skills.

Please return the surveys within two weeks of receiving this message, if possible.

Your participation is voluntary and you may choose not to participate in this research study or to withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You will NOT be penalized in any way of the participating school districts. As part of this effort, the identity of the school district will not be revealed in any publication or presentation that may result from this study, and the information collected will remain in the possession of the investigator in a safe locked location and will be password protected. All specific data related to the school district will be coded to help maintain confidentiality.

You may request the results of this survey upon completion of this project.

If you have any questions, you may contact me at (573)528-7073 or via email tturner@richlandbears.us

Thank you for your time, effort, and participation.

Sincerely,

Tina Turner

Appendix D

LINDENWOOD

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

1.1.1 Lindenwood University

1.1.2 School of Education
209 S. Kingshighway

St. Charles, Missouri 63301

"The relationship between students' achievement scores of administrators who have completed the Missouri Leadership, Excellence and Development Program."

Principal Investigator Tina Turner_____

Telephone: 573-528-7073 **E-mail:** tturner@richlandbears.us

Participant _____

Contact information: _____

1. You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Tina Turner, a doctoral candidate with Lindenwood University under the guidance of Dr. Jodi Elder, Lindenwood University doctoral advisor. The purpose of this research to investigate the relationships between Missouri Leadership for Excellence, Achievement, Development (MoLEAD) program, as well as its impact on student success.

2. Your participation will involve:

Participants will either return the recruitment letters to the principal investigator or return the completed survey. All participating schools will be emailed surveys. The researcher will collect and analyze 100 percent of administrator's schools to answer research question number one. The researcher will analyze 100% of the returned surveys.

a) The 90 schools will each receive a link to complete the on-line Leadership Practice Inventory survey.

b) The amount of time involved in your participation will be approximately 30 minutes to complete the survey.

3. Approximately 100% school districts will be involved in this research in regards to question number one.
4. There are no anticipated risks associated with this research.
5. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study. However, your participation will contribute to the knowledge about MoLEAD program and may help participants gain a better understanding of the ways MoLEAD professional development impacts student success.
6. Your participation is voluntary and you may choose not to participate in this research study or to withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You will NOT be penalized in any way should you choose not to participate or to withdraw.
7. The researcher will do everything she can to protect the privacy of the participating schools. As part of this effort, the identity of the school district will not be revealed in any publication or presentation that may result from this study and the information collected will remain in the possession of the investigator in a safe locked location and will be password protected. All specific data related to the school districts will be coded to help maintain confidentiality.
8. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, or if any problems arise, you may call the Investigator, Tina Turner (573) 528-7073 or Dr. Jodi Elder, supervising faculty at (573) 201-3868. You may also ask questions of or state concerns regarding your participation to the Lindenwood Institutional Review Board (IRB) through contacting Dr. Jann Weitzel, vice president for Academic Affairs at (636) 949-4846.

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I will also be given a copy of this consent form for my records. I consent to my participation in the research described above.

_____ _____

Participant's Signature Date Participant's Printed Name

Appendix E

Leadership Practices Inventory Survey

Demographics:

Years teaching and/administrator in education: _____

Position:_____

Degrees earned:_____

Scale: 1-Almost Never 2-Rarely 3-Seldom 4-Once in a While 5-Occasionally

6- Sometimes 7-Fairly Often 8-Usually 9-Very Frequently 10-Almost Always

1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others.
2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.
4. I develop cooperative relationships among people I work with.
5. I praise people for a job well done.
6. I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.
7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.
8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.
9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.
10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.
11. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.
12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
14. I treat others with dignity and respect.
15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.
17. I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
18. I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.
19. I support the decisions that people make on their own.
20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
21. I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.
22. I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.

23. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measureable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.
26. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.
27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.
29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

Please answer the following questions as honestly as you can. Feel free to provide specific examples and details in response to your answers. Please remember your identity is protected and will be kept confidential.

31. What position did you hold in your school district while attending the MoLEAD training in 2013?

32. Do you believe the MoLEAD training you received was beneficial in your professional development growth as a leader and to your students?

Appendix F

Follow-up E-mail Correspondence

To all participating school district administrators,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study related to MoLEAD program and its impact on student achievement in your school districts. This message serves as a reminder that surveys are due November 22, 2015.

Please note your participation is voluntary and you may choose not to participate in this research study or to withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You will NOT be penalized in any way should you choose not to participate or to withdraw.

I will do everything I can to protect your privacy. As part of this effort, your identity will not be revealed in any publication or presentation that may result from this study and the information collected will remain in the possession of the investigator in a safe locked location and will be password protected. All data related to specific schools will be coded to help maintain confidentiality.

You may request the results of this survey upon completion of this project.

If you have any questions, you may contact me at (573) 528-7073 or via e-mail at tturner@richlandbears.us

Thank you for your time, effort, and participation.

Sincerely,

Tina Turner, Ed.S

Doctoral Candidate

Lindenwood University

Appendix G

Superintendent Permission Letter 2nd Request

November 9, 2015

Central Office Administration

Superintendent

Missouri School District

Superintendent,

I am sending this second invitation to administrators in your school district to request principal participation in my doctoral dissertation research project at Lindenwood University. I believe the information gathered through this research study will positively contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship of Missouri Leadership for Excellence Achievement Development (MOLEAD) and its impact on student achievement. I realize that your time is valuable, and the commitment to participate only requires completing a one-time short survey. A prompt reply would allow me to begin the research process.

A great deal of research has supported the belief that great leadership is correlated to student achievement outcomes. MoLEAD professional development promotes learning environments that create positive student-teacher relationships, which can also impact student success. The purpose of this research study is to discover if predicative relationships exist between the MoLEAD professional development and achievement for students in Missouri.

Participation in this study is voluntary and may be withdrawn at any time. Confidentiality is assured; specific data related to school districts will be coded. If you have any questions, you may contact me at tturner@richlandbears.us

Administrators' consent to participating in this study with an affirmative response via email. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Tina Turner, Ed.S

Doctoral Candidate

Lindenwood University

Appendix H

Permission from MoDESE to use Data for Research

To: Tina Turner

Wed, Oct 7, 2015 at 11:55 AM

Attached are all the participants and trainers in MoLEAD Cohort I, II and III. Please note that all listed in Cohort III are participants.

The Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Quality Schools, Grants and Resources Unit, has provided Ms. Tina Turner with the MoLEAD data. She has our permission to use the data provided in her doctoral dissertation.

Please note: This permission does NOT allow the names of participants/trainers and/or school district information to be used in the research study.

Renee M. Hasty | Administrative Assistant

Appendix I

All Participants,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my dissertation project that investigates MoLEAD, and student success. I realize that this is a busy time of the year and that many of you may be testing. If you could complete the survey and submit it by XXXXX, I would be appreciative.

If you experience any trouble accessing the link or completing the survey, please contact me. For convenience, the link is listed below.

For all that have completed the survey and those who will, I appreciate your time and effort.

Sincerely,

Tina Turner

Appendix J

August 26, 2015

Tina Turner

P. O. Box 112

Richland, MO 65556

Dear Ms. Turner:

Thank you for your request to use the LPI®: Leadership Practices Inventory® in your dissertation. This letter grants you permission to use either the print or electronic LPI [Self/Observer/Self and Observer] instrument[s] in your research. You may ***reproduce*** the instrument in printed form at no charge beyond the discounted one-time cost of purchasing a single copy; however, you may not distribute any photocopies except for specific research purposes. If you prefer to use the electronic distribution of the LPI you will need to separately contact Eli Becker (ebecker@wiley.com) directly for further details regarding product access and payment. Please be sure to review the product information resources before reaching out with pricing questions.

Permission to use either the written or electronic versions is contingent upon the following:

(1) The LPI may be used only for research purposes and may not be sold or used in conjunction with any compensated activities;

(2) Copyright in the LPI, and all derivative works based on the LPI, is retained by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. The following copyright statement must be included on all reproduced copies of the instrument(s); "Copyright © 2013 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. All rights reserved. Used with permission";

(3) One (1) **electronic** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data must be sent **promptly** to my attention at the address below; and,

(4) We have the right to include the results of your research in publication, promotion, distribution and sale of the LPI and all related products.

Permission is limited to the rights granted in this letter and does not include the right to grant others permission to reproduce the instrument(s) except for versions made by nonprofit organizations for visually or physically handicapped persons. No additions or changes may be made without our prior written consent. You understand that your use of the LPI shall in no way place the LPI in the public domain or in any way compromise our copyright in the LPI. This license is nontransferable. We reserve the right to revoke this

permission at any time, effective upon written notice to you, in the event we conclude, in our reasonable judgment, that your use of the LPI is compromising our proprietary rights in the LPI.

Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Ellen Peterson

Permissions Editor

Epeterson4@gmail.com

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