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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, PERCEPTIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS, by GRAHAM ALLEN OAKLEY, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Philosophy, in the College of Education & Human Development, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chairperson, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty.

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PERCEPTIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by

GRAHAM ALLEN OAKLEY

Under the Direction of Yinying Wang

ABSTRACT

Purpose: School leaders have an ability to instill trust, efficacy, and motivation in their teachers through transformational leadership. The school's actions and behaviors also can lead to increased motivation, efficacy, and a sense of justice for teachers through organizational justice. These characteristics of teachers are major factors in the academic performance of English language learners (ELLs). Finding a relationship between the school leader's transformational leadership and the school's organizational justice may help meet the needs of teachers and lead to increased ELL performance. **Research Methods:** This dissertation focuses on two constructs: transformational leadership and organizational justice. This study utilized teacher surveys to understand their perceptions of both the principal's leadership and the school's justice. The data for two regression models came from teacher surveys and publicly available data. The sample for this study was 163 classroom teachers from the north Georgia area. This study provides insight into organizational justice and transformational leadership. **Findings:** Through regression, organizational justice was found to be a significant predictor of transformational leadership with organizational justice accounting for 56% in the variation of transformational leadership. Gender, years of experience, or level of education did not have a significant impact on the findings. The conclusion states that a 1 point increase in organizational justice yields a 1.6 point increase transformational leadership. **Implications:** This research provides connections between organizational justice and transformational leadership and the supports the need to continue integrating justice and leadership theory. It also supports the need for principal training so that they build a better ability to motivate teachers while building efficacy and trust, which improves the performance of ELLs in the classroom.

INDEX WORDS: Transformational Leadership, Organizational Justice, English Language Learners

PERCEPTIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by

GRAHAM ALLEN OAKLEY

A Dissertation

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in

Department of Educational Policy Studies

in

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Georgia State University

Atlanta, GA
2020

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my grandfathers: Dr. Bob Edward Allen, Th.D., J.D. and the Honorable Gregory Lewis Oakley, Sr. These two men had a profound influence on me and I am forever grateful to have had them in my life.

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1 A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature collected. First, the literature review explores the description of English language learners, the policies and laws that govern their education, and the problems they encounter. Next, teaching methods and improvement efforts for the achievement of English language learners (ELLs) highlight the areas of research and barriers for ELLs. Then, the constructs of transformational leadership and organizational justice are defined, and links are drawn between these constructs and student achievement. Finally, the link between transformational leadership and organizational justice will be explored, with the area for new research presented.

Generally, English language learners are students where the home language is not English or has limited English proficiency (Abedi, 2004; National Academies of Sciences, 2017). As a result, the *Bilingual Education Act* (1968) attempts to improve the learning conditions of ELLs (Stewner-Manzanares, 1988). However, ELLs continue to perform poorly compared to their classmates (Fry, 2008; Hemphill & Vanneman, 2011; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Lack of English comprehension is not why ELLs perform poorly (Hoff, 2013) as ELLs can perform well when given proper support (Deville et al., 2011; Reardon & Galindo, 2009; Reyes & Garcia, 2014; Swanson et al., 2014). Teachers underperform if not adequately trained, prepared, or motivated (Hoff, 2013; Stoddart et al., 2002; Thoonen et al., 2011). Teachers can be properly motivated and develop self-efficacy (Kanno & Kangas, 2014; Thoonen et al., 2011) if knowledgeable leadership provides support and sets clear goals for them (Padron & Waxman, 2016) and the

school district works towards the betterment of ELLs (Kanno & Kangas, 2014; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

A review of the history, policies, laws, and achievement issues with ELLs gives a better understanding of the connections between leadership and the school as an organization as it relates to the academic success of ELLs. This review will include the efforts of teachers, leaders, and districts that show improvement. These successes are put in the context of transformational leadership and organizational justice, the two constructs of this study. Finally, a hypothesis is developed to show a relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice based on the literature.

Education faces a growing challenge with the increasing number of ELLs. In 2003, the ELL student population in the United States was 4 million, or 9% of the total student body (Solano-Flores & Trumbull, 2003). By 2015, the number was 4.5 million, or 10% of the overall student body (United States Department of Education, 2017). Starting with the *Bilingual Education Act* (1968), efforts have been made to improve the learning conditions of ELLs (Stewner-Manzanares, 1988). Unfortunately, meeting the needs of ELLs has been, and continues to be, a challenge for schools (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Leadership must be able to adapt to meet the needs of ELLs for them to be successful (Padron & Waxman, 2016). However, ELLs continue to perform poorly compared to their classmates (Fry, 2008; Hemphill & Vanneman, 2011; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Lack of English comprehension is not why ELLs perform poorly (Hoff, 2013) as ELLs can perform well when given proper support (Deville et al., 2011; Reardon & Galindo, 2009; Reyes & Garcia, 2014; Swanson et al., 2014). Leadership and schools have struggled to overcome the challenges involved with ELLs (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

The demand for increased student performance has been rising for years (Darling-Hammond, 2000) as well as the demand for school districts to perform well on standardized tests (Kanno & Kangas, 2014). While leadership does not appear to have a direct impact on student performance, they can indirectly influence it by motivating teachers and providing resources to them (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Over the last three decades, transformational leadership has become a significant concept in educational leadership. The definition of transformational leadership is the actions of leadership where the leader identifies areas in need of change, creates a vision and inspiration for that change, and brings about change by working with members of the group (Heru & Ogbonna, 2013). Bass (1985) explored transformational leadership in a multitude of roles. At its core, transformational leadership states that leadership can influence its employees (Avolio et al., 2004). Transformational leadership can change the motivation of workers (Leithwood & Sun, 2012), as well as their organizational citizenship behaviors (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), efficacy (Barbutto, 2005; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015), sense of trust (Ngodo, 2008), and a sense of equity or fairness (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Sun et al., 2017).

Interestingly, justice research shows a similar effect (De Cremer et al., 2007). However, the literature offers little to show a link between transformational leadership and organizational justice. This dissertation looks to bridge the divide between these two concepts and determine whether or not a relationship exists.

Several characteristics of a school and faculty increase the academic achievement of ELLs. Motivated teachers positively impact the performance of ELLs (Kanno & Kangas, 2014; Kazemi, 2016). Trust is an essential part of ELL student growth (Irizarry & Williams, 2013), as well as mutual trust between leadership, staff, and students (Paquette & Rieg, 2008). Organizational citizenship behaviors, like tutoring (Parker et al., 2016) and efficacy (including collective

and self-efficacy), directly linked to improved performance (Haworth et al., 2015; Téllez & Manthey, 2015). Having a sense of equality and justice is also vital for ELLs to succeed (Villegas, 2007).

Research into justice reveals that the concept of organizational justice provides a path for organizations to influence the outcomes of its members through its policies (De Cremer et al., 2007). As defined by Greenberg (1987), organizational justice is the perceptions of employees and how they judge the actions and behaviors of the organization, and how those perceptions influence the attitude, behaviors, and actions of the employee. Policies can affect the motivation of employees (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009), the trust among those in the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), collective efficacy (Capone & Petrillo, 2016), and a sense of fairness and justice (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1987). The literature shows that both transformational leadership and organizational justice have a positive impact on the factors that influence ELL success. However, a gap exists in knowledge about how transformational leadership and organizational justice interact. This gap extends to the existence of a relationship.

The relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice has been studied mainly in the business world. The link between transformational leadership and organizational justice improves the quality of work-life (Gillet et al., 2013) and builds trust in an organization (Ngodo, 2008). People's perceptions of justice influence the effectiveness of transformational leadership practices (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). Motivated teachers, a sense of efficacy, trust, and justice, as well as a focus on equity in schools, are the factors that can impact ELL performance. These factors also affect the perception of an organization's fairness by its employees (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Pillai et al., 1999) as well as the actions of the leadership, specifically through transformational leadership (Barbutto, 2005;

Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Thoonen et al., 2011). However, the link between transformational leadership and organizational justice is seldom studied in education. A gap exists in the literature on their relationship as it pertains explicitly to ELL success.

English Language Learners

English language learners are students that have limited English proficiency (IDEA, 2004; ESSA, 2015). According to the United States Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (2018), ELLs accounted for 4.9 million students, or 9.6% of the total, in 2016. The population is up from 3.8 million, or 8.1% of the total, in 2000. The report continues; 43 states have seen an increase in the percentage of ELLs since 2000. For the state of Georgia, the ELLs percentage was 6.4% in 2016, which is below the national average but is equal to the national median (Mitchell, 2018). The rate at which the number of ELLs is increasing appears to be outpacing the general population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017), however, these numbers can be faulty as the definition of ELLs is not universal and changes over time (National Academies of Sciences, 2017).

Definition and Identification of English Language Learners

Identifying students that qualify for ELL services is not straightforward. Most historically marginalized groups do not need testing and assessment profiles to determine their eligibility for that group or its services. It is required that schools test students they think may qualify to serve them better (ESSA, 2015; IDEA, 2004). Due to ELL accommodations not being met, Researchers have questioned the reliability of these tests and the results they produced (Abedi, 2004). To combat this, some schools have started creating assessments with the particular culture and language of the ELL in mind (Solano-Flores & Trumbull, 2003).

ELLs must be identified for them to be successful. The *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) Act of 2001 provides a general description of the characteristics of those who qualify. *Every Student Succeeds Act* (ESSA) of 2015 also contains these descriptions. These students must be between 3 and 21 years of age, enrolling in elementary or secondary school, either born outside of the US or having a first language other than English, or having difficulty with any of the aspects for communicating in English at a level needed to succeed in an English-speaking classroom. This broad definition allows individual systems to define an ELL, leading to multiple meanings with a variety of characteristics (Abedi, 2004; National Academies of Sciences, 2017). Creating an assessment that works best to determine which student qualifies has been a challenge. World-class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) Consortium created the Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State for English Language Learners (ACCESS for ELLs, or ACCESS) which many states, including Georgia (Deville et al., 2011; Mitchell, 2018) use.

According to the Georgia Department of Education (2018), ELLs are "students whose primary or home language is other than English and who are eligible for services based on the results of an English language proficiency assessment" (p. 46). It states that language proficiency is a necessary language skill for taking part in classes, as determined by ACCESS. The implementation of the English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program, which helps move students towards proficiency, was updated to meet the requirements of Title I and Title III in ESSA (Georgia Department of Education, 2018).

Policy History of English Language Learners

In the early history of the United States, the education system told ELLs to 'sink or swim' regarding learning English. In 1967, Congress enacted a bill that would provide schools with the

assistance they needed to educate ELLs (Smith & Rodriguez, 2011). Though initially only for Spanish speakers, the law began the trend of minority students seeking accommodations to meet their needs that were not associated with segregation and racial discrimination (Crawford, 1987; Smith & Rodriguez, 2011). The federal government provided funding in the form of competitive grants (*Bilingual Education Act*, 1968). The monies provide resources for ELL programs, train teachers, develop and distribute materials, and involve parents and the community. However, the federal government did not first provide funds until 1969 (Stewner-Manzanares, 1988).

Many states had laws requiring English-only education. In *Lau v Nichols* (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1973), the Supreme Court of the United States found that merely providing the same teachers, books, facilities, and curriculum was not equal education. Because ELLs have limited English proficiency, they were unable to receive any meaningful training (Crawford, 1987). The Equal Education Opportunity Act (EEOA) of 1974 expanded *Lau* by requiring that all schools must create specific programs to help ELLs overcome language barriers.

In 2001, NCLB reauthorized BEA under Title III. With NCLB, accountability became the focus of education policy (United States Department of Education, 2014). Schools must now meet certain milestones for achievement and growth. Many states use ACCESS by WIDA to achieve this milestone (Deville et al., 2011). In 2015, ESSA replaced NCLB. ESSA moved the accountability for ELLs from Title III to Title I, which is more focused on student success and performance (United States Department of Education, 2016). Performance standards were also lowered and gave more power to the states to determine the accountability targets for themselves (Mitchell, 2018). According to a report by the nonprofit, bipartisan group *Achieve* (2018), Georgia set the accountability standards as meeting the same academic standards as native-English

speakers and weighted at 3.5% for elementary/middle schools and 3.0% for high schools for school performance.

Underperformance of ELLs

Despite their growing presence in our classrooms, and laws requiring improvement, the academic performance of ELLs lags behind their classmates (United States Department of Education, 2018). The graduation rate for ELLs in 2016-17 was 66.4%, compared to 84.6% for all students – the lowest-performing subgroup listed (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). The average composite ACT score for Non-ELLs was 20.4, compared to 13.5 for ELLs without accommodations and 14.8 with accommodations in the fall of 2017 (Moore et al., 2018). Institutional barriers severely limit access to advanced or rigorous courses for ELLs (Kanno & Kangas, 2014), and ELLs have a lower success rate in these courses. This leads to a lower success rate at the college-level compared to their native-speaking counterparts (Shi, 2017). Using the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) scores, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2019) found in 2019 that 71% of Non-ELLs in Grade 4 scored at or above the NAEP Basic score in reading while only 35% of Grade 4 ELLs did so. The trend continued into Grade 8, where 76% of Non-ELLs were at or above the NAEP Basic score, compared to 28% of ELLs for 2019. As Stronge (2018) states, ELLs are more likely to live in poverty, more likely to underachieve, less likely to graduate, less likely to take college-readiness tests (like the ACT and SAT), and less likely to attend college.

The reason for this discrepancy is a combination of several institutional barriers, perpetuated inequities, and prejudices in the education system. These include poor financial support to meet the needs and goals of the English as a Second Language (ESL) programs, inadequate methods of assessment, lack of ELL support or support teams, and simply ignoring the students

(Hoff, 2013; Kanno & Kangas, 2014; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Darling-Hammond (2000) states there are three contributing factors for poor performance: encouraging or harboring a lax curriculum devoid of rigor, allowing a poor academic climate that has low expectations, and segregating the population by race, ability, or other characteristics. Accountability and accommodations are also an issue. According to Mitchell (2018), Georgia does not allow native-language assessments, nor are testing accommodations permitted for ELLs. He also states that the accountability standards are the lowest in the nation – 3.5% for elementary/middle and 3.0% for high school - meaning that a school could receive a 0% for ELL performance, but receive high marks overall.

Improving ELL Performance

There is a range of proactive steps that schools, leadership, and teachers can take to strengthen ELL equity and performance. The strategy of Equity and Inclusive Education states that equity is to recognize, find, and remove any prejudices and impediments that hinder a student from learning and a person from growing (Shewchuk & Cooper, 2018). Additionally, equity for ELLs includes the actions needed to support the unique needs of ELLs (DeMatthews et al., 2017). Equity does not mean providing an equal educational experience but a fair one (Bottia et al., 2016). As the need to remove inequity is vital for ELLs, schools and districts need to fund, support, and implement the ESL program properly for it to make an impact on the equity of the ELL population (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Generally, leaders need to establish ESL goals, enable teachers to be leaders and role models, improve teachers' skills through professional development, and support the ESL program (McGee et al., 2015). Teachers have the most significant impact on students (Padron & Waxman, 2016; Pereira & Gentry, 2013), and because of this, they need to counter the inequities faced by ELLs (Flores et al., 2015). Stronge (2018) mentions

four things that teachers can do to help ELLs: designing instruction that builds on preexisting knowledge and language skills, collaborating with other teachers and in particular the ESOL teacher, recognizing that ELLs take a longer time to understand academic language and task directions, and building vocabulary use.

As the ELL population grows, leaders need to adapt (McGee et al., 2015; Padron & Waxman, 2016; Pereira & Gentry, 2013). Since teachers have the most significant impact on their students, supporting their actions is essential for improving the academic success of ELLs. As school leaders do not have a direct effect on the success of students (Leithwood & Sun, 2012), principals need to provide support to their teachers, have a clear understanding of the ESL programs, and know what success in that program will look like (Padron & Waxman, 2016). Inexperienced or poor leadership can lead to poor performance among ELLs and track them to continue being unsuccessful (Pereira & Gentry, 2013). Unfortunately, while research shows that leadership can have a profound effect on student achievement (mediated through teachers) in general, it lacks in the impact on the ELL population (McGee et al., 2015; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Principals must support teachers to ensure student success. The school leadership must play an active role in the implementation of the ESL program for it to succeed (Padron & Waxman, 2016). ELLs that find their school environment enjoyable, have positive interactions at the school, and are committed to their schoolwork when principals commit to the equity of these students (Pereira & Gentry, 2013). Several factors challenge ELL support, but a principal with strong leadership capacity, a clear vision, and knowledge to champion the ELLs can counter these factors (McGee et al., 2015). Finally, principals need to adequately fund ESL programs and

reach out to the families and communities of ELLs if equity is to be reached (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Factors for Student Achievement

A focus of education research remains to ensure that students succeed in their education (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998; Lodico, 2010). Several factors in the literature impact the student's achievement. DiPaola and Hoy (2005) mention that there are only a few properties of an organization outside of socioeconomic factors that affect student achievement. These factors include trust, collective efficacy, and emphasis on academic success, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). While these studies show the impact of these factors on student achievement in general, it also overlaps with ELL research. This section will focus on the factors that impact student achievement and demonstrate how they affect ELL achievement.

The first of these factors is teacher efficacy. The definition of teacher efficacy is the perception of teachers that their efforts, combined with those of other faculty members, will have a net-positive impact on students (Goddard et al., 2000). Related to efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), motivation consists of the external and internal factors that promote work-related task-performance behaviors to include how intense, how long, and how well employees work (Latham & Pinder, 2005). These two dimensions are so closely related that some propose (Thoonen et al., 2011) teacher motivation constitutes a characteristic of teacher efficacy. Both of these characteristics, teacher efficacy (Haworth et al., 2015; Téllez & Manthey, 2015) and teacher motivation (Kanno & Kangas, 2014; Kazemi, 2016; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011), correlate with an increase in ELL achievement. Motivation is a dimension of transformational leadership, and transformational leadership empowers both leaders' and followers' motivation mutually (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Organizational justice bolsters collective efficacy

(Capone & Petrillo, 2016). The perception of an organization, relationships between leadership and employees, affects the motivation of the workers (Latham & Pinder, 2005).

Trust is the next factor in student achievement. Trust is an openness to vulnerability based on the belief that others involved are reliable, honest, and act with good intentions (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Trust also includes feeling comfortable enough to take risks (Wang, 2018). Trust is used by people to determine if an organization is acting just (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013). Trust helps set a sense of justice, mainly through organizational processes and relationships (Colquitt, 2001). Because justice and trust so strongly relate, some argue that the two are facets of the same construct (DiPaola & Guy, 2009). A sense of justice for ELLs derives directly from being accepted, inclusivity, and trusting leadership and the school (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Trust is central for the success of ELLs. It requires that teachers pay attention to their students and not ignore them, that schools do not place a negative light on non-English speakers, and that teachers take time to get to know their students (Irizarry & Williams, 2013). Trust between teachers and ELLs is reciprocal and can help ELLs grow and develop as learners (Paquette & Rieg, 2008). Transformational leaders can influence their staff, instilling trust in the leadership (Bass, 1985; J. Burns, 2003).

Furthermore, equity relates to justice (Theoharis, 2007; Villegas, 2007). Justice theory (and specifically the distributive justice element of organizational justice) has its roots in equity theory (De Cremer et al., 2007). Multiple studies demonstrate that a focus on ending inequity has a positive impact on ELLs (DeMatthews et al., 2017; Rosenblatt & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2017; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Likewise, justice and fairness are connected. The definition of justice is a perception of fairness (Di Battista et al., 2014). Colquitt (2001) states that justice and fairness are, in fact, the same construct and that their usage is interchangeable. He continues,

saying that distributive justice is the perception of equity, while procedural justice is the perception of fairness. Fairness is integral to good leadership (Cho & Dansereau, 2010) and positively relates to the enactment of transformational leadership (Sun et al., 2017).

OCBs, the third factor, have a significant impact on the performance of students (Buluc, 2015; Burns & DiPaola, 2013; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Wagner & DiPaola, 2011). The definition of OCBs is the actions taken by an employee, at their discretion, that benefits the organization but is not rewarded or recognized by the organization (Burns & DiPaola, 2013). OCBs have five components: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Bass (1985) states that transformational leaders get their employees to perform above and beyond their expectations. Transformational leadership affects OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 1996), though trust can mediate this effect (Podsakoff et al., 1990). OCBs also affect teacher self-efficacy and student achievement (Bogler & Somech, 2004). The perception of justice an employee has about their organization relates directly to OCBs exhibited (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Conscientiousness is strongly related to the academic success of ELLs (Fazeli, 2011). Altruistic teachers of ELLs can grow to understand the ELL's culture and them as a person (Jakubiak, 2012). However, the studies on the relationships between OCBs and academic success tend to focus on the general student population or other subgroups, but do not focus primarily on ELLs.

There are two issues with including OCBs in this study. First, as Burns and DiPaola (2013) state, "justice provides coherence between teacher citizenship behaviors and other contextual factors shaping student performance outcomes" (p. 15), but it may not be the case as it is "[a]n important assumption ... that justice bolsters organizational citizenship behavior. Future research should seek to determine whether or not this assumption is supported by empirical evi-

dence" (p.20). However, Buluc (2015) found a significant and positive correlation between organizational justice and OCBs. Moorman (1991) found that organizational justice partially corresponded to OCBs, through only one element, procedural justice. Through a meta-analysis, OCBs correspond to organizational justice through only two elements (distributive and procedural justice), but no others (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Second, while studies of specific examples of OCBs and their effect on ELL success exist (altruism through tutoring and mentorship [Parker et al., 2016], courtesy by volunteering [Elfers & Stritikus, 2014], and civic virtue through participating on ESL and school improvement teams [Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011] to name a few), no direct relationship exists between OCBs and ELL performance. To summarize, there is not a strong case for an organizational justice-OCBs connection, nor is there one for an OCBs-ELL success in the literature.

Finally, the last factor of DiPaola and Hoy's (2005) list is that having a focus on academics leads to success for all students (Goddard et al., 2000). Indeed, a lack of academic emphasis can lead to declining ELL performance (Hoff, 2013), even though ELLs can perform at the same level as native speakers if schools push ELLs to excel (Swanson et al., 2014). Academically capable ELLs are placed on lower tracks thanks to several factors, including inexperienced leadership (Pereira & Gentry, 2013). Principals who develop robust procedures that support teachers see an increase in academic emphasis throughout the school (Hoy et al., 2008). Likewise, motivated teachers can increase academic achievement and emphasis (Hoy & Smith, 2007). In summary, evidence exists showing teacher motivation and teacher efficacy, trust and justice, and a focus on academics and ending inequities impact the success of ELLs.

Transformational Leadership

The educational system goes through changes resulting from various political, economic, and social approaches (Honig et al., 2017). These contribute to the theoretical elements regarding leadership, social thinking, and technology in education. For example, a significant concept prevalent today is the need for communication skills and intellectual abilities of the teacher (Osborne-Lampkin et al., 2015). Educational institutions continuously need to make the necessary adjustments that allow them to approach the educational trends that are happening in an accelerated way in the world, to contribute not only to the resolution of global problems but also to the development of nations. These changes require leadership that is oriented organization to guide people, teachers, non-teachers, and students to implement improvements in the educational field (Burns, 2003). Education institutions play a crucial role in consolidating a solid education and training (Quin et al., 2015). To this end, it is vital to view leadership from these institutions as able to produce profound changes for the benefit of society.

Transformational leadership claims that a small number of practices, such as inspiration, can increase the likelihood of meeting the goals of an organization (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). A critical piece of transformational leadership is the ability to motivate teachers (Avolio et al., 1999; Barbuto, 2005). Motivation, a dimension of transformational leadership, has a direct relationship with teacher effectiveness and efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Teacher efficacy has a positive correlation with student achievement (Goddard et al., 2000) and includes a direct impact on the performance of ELLs (Karabenick & Noda, 2004).

History of Transformational Leadership

In 1978, transformational leadership was, for the first time, used to describe a joint process in which "followers and leaders work as a team helping each other to advance to higher lev-

els of motivation and morale" (Burns, 1978, p. 66). In the 1980s and continuing through the 1990s, the work in transformational leadership was expanded. Bass (1985) extended the research of Burn, widening the explanation about the psychological mechanisms of leadership. Leithwood (1992) saw it as an opportunity to go beyond applying the methodology to schools. He considered the transformational leadership to be superior compared to other prevalent models, like transactional and instructional leadership. He called for principals to abandon transactional and instructional leadership modes in favor of transformational leadership.

A leader can be transformational when they are measured in terms of the scope of their influence on the followers, showing how much they trust, admire, respect and are loyal to that leader; with the willingness of employees to make unexpected extra efforts is often seen (Burns, 2003). Transformational leaders provide a mission that inspires their followers while encouraging them to work for more than their own gain; it lets the listed measured outcomes of transformational leadership occur. In Bass's (1985) model, the leader assesses, motivates, and transforms followers through their charisma, consideration, and intellectual stimulation. This type of leader encourages followers to face events that foster success (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

As the demands on school leaders increased, Burns (2003) proposed new ways of thinking about leadership, suggesting several ways for those teachers and educators that worked through the transactional leadership style, to go a step over and become transformational leaders. He argued that people in leadership positions should take into account the human needs and the necessary social change while being aware that leadership aims to fulfill human needs through human values. Consequently, he focused his model on the ways that recognized world leaders became dynamic agents of significant social changes.

Transformational leadership is a theory of behaviors and attributes based on the existent relationship among leaders and followers of a group or institution (Avolio et al., 1999). Bass and Avolio (1993) state that the theory involves four factors. The model emphasizes follower development and their motivation, as transformational leaders aim to raise the followers' values to higher performance levels thereby reaching established group goals rather than self-interest goals.

Based on the work of Bass's (1985), the definition of transformational leadership has four components: (a) idealized influence, (b) intellectual stimulation, (c) inspirational motivation, and (d) individualized consideration.

Idealized influence. Bass (1985) defines idealized influence as the ability of leaders to lead by example and being the model that followers would want to emulate. Leaders need to have a charismatic and influential personality. Charisma instills trust in the leader. Characteristics that define these leaders are risk-taking, having high standards, the admiration of their employees, and having an ethical, moral compass. Because idealized influence relates to how to feel about the character of the leader, it can be called charisma (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). However, the behaviors resulting from these influences are not always the same (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). They are honest and have a sense of responsibility (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Their influence creates school conditions that promote a unified vision and goals for achievement (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Principals can influence their schools by creating and nurturing a shared vision, setting high expectations, fostering support, and collaboration within the school (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Providing teachers with a structure to do their work is also an example of idealized influence (Robinson et al., 2008).

Intellectual stimulation. Transformational leaders challenge their employees to take risks, try new ideas, and achieve above and beyond the expectation. They do this by creating an environment within their organization that fosters creativity and builds trust. This is the definition of intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders can persuade their employees to take their side based on the merits of their arguments and the issue at hand (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). They provide the appropriate information for their employees to self-reflect, evaluate their work, and provide the tools for them to refine their practice (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Leaders can demonstrate stimulation if they challenge teachers to take risks and be innovative in the classroom (Moolenaar et al., 2010). Leaders use stimulation to get their staff to re-think their roles and tasks and how they perform them (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Inspirational motivation. According to Bass (1985), the definition of inspirational motivation is the ability of leaders to inspire followers by creating a clear vision. Transformational leaders can motivate their followers to perform at their highest abilities. He continues that transformational leaders help followers understand and promote the reasons behind their work. They communicate passionately and offer an idealistic view of what the future of the organization will be (Barbuto, 2005). These leaders give their staff challenging but achievable goals while providing optimism that these goals will be met (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Motivational leaders speak of a future, idealistic school while inspiring others to work towards that goal (Barbuto, 2005).

Individualized consideration. Bass (1985) defines individual consideration as leaders showing concern and acknowledgement to followers and helps them realize their personal goals. Transformational leaders carefully listen to and provide personalized support and feedback to their employees (Bass, 1985). Leaders provide their followers with coaching, mentoring, and opportunities to grow as they develop their followers into leaders themselves (Bass & Steidlmeier,

1999). For example, principals actively listening and engaging with the concerns of their teachers would be a consideration (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). Teachers are not a simple means to an end, and principals exhibiting consideration will respect their teachers' interests and treat teachers fairly (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Transformational leadership and ELLs

Leadership has a mediated impact on student achievement (Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Scanlan & Lopez, 2012) and specifically, transformational leadership has moderated or mediated effects (Heck & Hallinger, 2014), but no direct impact on student achievement has been found (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Teachers tend to underperform when they have difficulties in the classroom that they either do not understand or lack preparation (Stoddart et al., 2002). Because of this, principals need to provide advice, training, and support by fully understanding their ESOL program (Padron & Waxman, 2016). The mediating effects of transformational leadership on achievement for students in general, and ELLs specifically, flows through teacher motivation and efficacy (Thoonen et al., 2011), trust (Spillane & Shirrell, 2017), and a sense of justice, fairness (De Cremer et al., 2007), and equity (Bottia et al., 2016; Di Battista et al., 2014). The quality of the relationship between the employee and their supervisor (Karriker & Williams, 2009), as well as the distance between them professionally (Avolio et al., 2004), play a role in perceptions of leadership. Recalling DiPaola and Hoy (2005), the four factors that impact student learning are trust, collective efficacy, and emphasis on academic success, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Transformational leadership needs to be viewed through its dimensions and how they affect the authors' four factors for student achievement.

Idealized influence and ELLs. Influence can change the culture and climate of an organization, making it more likely to trust and accept social change (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). Build-

ing trust in the school for ELLs, particularly between them and their teacher, is a definite benefit for ELLs (Ardasheva et al., 2015). Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015) state that principals have a significant influence over school culture, which can foster trust and student achievement.

Leadership can use their influence and charisma to promote and support a vision of the school among teachers (Kurland et al., 2010). If their vision promotes equity and supports the goals of the ESOL program, then ELLs can be successful (Padron & Waxman, 2016). ELLs find their school environment enjoyable, have positive interactions at the school, and are committed to their schoolwork when principals are committed to the equity of these students (Pereira & Gentry, 2013). Idealized influence can build self and collective efficacy (Sun et al., 2017), which can improve achievement and increase the expectations of ELLs (Haworth et al., 2015). To summarize, idealized influence can create, encourage, and further advance a vision for a school culture to meet the needs of ELLs.

Intellectual stimulation and ELLs. Stimulation requires that leaders promote innovation and risk-taking among their staff (Bass, 1985). There is no single best method for teaching ELLs. While there are several methods for teaching ELLs in the literature, research into these methods seems complicated because of differences in research style or research emphasis and ideology (Lee, 2005). Therefore, principals should challenge their teachers and promote innovation (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Several systems still use less effective methods, such as pull-out classes and other poor classroom designs, rather than using what current research shows is significantly more practical, such as integration into the class with differentiation and L1 support (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Innovative intervention methods like these should have a strong effort to implement as they lead to better academics, not just for ELLs, but for all students (Hoff, 2013). Professional development is needed to appropriately train teachers to handle the needs of

ELLs but a significant portion of teachers is not adequately prepared. Intellectual stimulation through principals can encourage more professional development and training for teachers (Moolenaar et al., 2010). Professional development can also lead to greater use of scaffolding and the use of language acquisition methods on large and small scales (Lucero, 2014). The achievement gap between ELLs and their peers closes with professional development for teachers - especially for those students with minor English deficiencies (Lee, 2005). Based on the literature, intellectual stimulation can lead to more innovative and highly-trained teachers, which leads to improved ELL academic achievement.

Inspirational motivation and ELLs. Transformational leaders, by definition, can inspire and motivate their workers to achieve high goals (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985). The importance of leadership in ELL outcomes and success is evident (DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2018; Scanlan & Lopez, 2012). Instilling motivation and developing teacher efficacy are two characteristics of transformational leadership (Barbuto, 2005; Thoonen et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015). Motivated teachers directly impact ELL outcomes and performance (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Kibler et al., 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015). While teachers can challenge the goals and methods of the ESOL program, a principal's ability to motivate by having a clear vision, in-depth knowledge of the program, and enthusiastically championing ELLs can change their minds (McGee et al., 2015). Therefore, transformational leadership can improve the motivation of teachers, which leads to increased academic outcomes of ELLs.

Individualized consideration and ELLs. Principals must build relationships with their teachers and staff to be effective as leaders. By taking into account the needs and concerns of teachers, being open to criticism, and providing advice and resources as needed, principals characterize individualized consideration (Bass, 1985). This openness in communication allows

teachers to feel safe to take risks, which shows that individualized consideration supports both trust and an innovative school climate (Moolenaar et al., 2010). Both trust (Irizarry & Williams, 2013) and innovation (DaSilva Iddings & Rose, 2012) lead to ELL success. Administration creates mentor and mentee roles while enabling collaboration between teachers to show individualized consideration (Hitt & Tucker, 2016). Improvement in the learning outcomes of ELLs links to collaboration between the teachers, specifically content teachers and ESOL teachers (Davison, 2006; York-Barr et al., 2007). Based on the empirical research, individualized consideration can improve trust in the teacher-principal relationship. As it increases, trust allows teachers to feel more confident, take greater risks, and be more innovative in the classrooms to support ELLs.

Organizational Justice

The construct of organizational justice has been well-established in the business field (Greenberg, 1987). Within the past few years, research with this construct has started to emerge in the field of education (Thoonen et al., 2011). There has been a rise in the call for organizations to be fairer and thinking socially forward in recent years. Actions included here are the involvement of employees in the decision-making process, open communication (both between and within all levels of an organization), and fostering a climate within the organization that promotes fairness, trust, equity, and justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Three things that influence the justice within an organization are affected: the characteristics and personality of the worker, the quality of and adherence to the rules for employees, and the goals and desired outcomes of the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). These factors can have a significant impact on the work and performance of an employee, work behavior (such as organizational citizenship behaviors), their attitudes and motivation, and whether or not (and to what extent) their work exceeds the job description. (Colquitt et al., 2011). To this extent, an organization

needs to know the perceptions of fairness and justice by its employees to produce better outcomes.

Organizational justice is the view of fairness and trust that employees have on their employer's or organization's behavior (Greenberg, 1987). Organizational justice has a direct influence on the members of the organization through distributive justice (Latham & Pinder, 2005). As an element of organizational justice theory, distributive justice has a significant impact on the perception of fairness by teachers (Colquitt et al., 2011). ELLs succeed in environments where practices are socially just, inclusive, and fair (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

History of organizational justice

Stemming from equity theory, Greenberg (1987) presents the concept of organizational justice as dealing with how employees judge their employers or organization in terms of behavior, thus leading to changes in the practice and attitude of the employee. According to Colquitt (2001), organizational justice includes individual experiences based on personal factors in different situations. The definition of organizational justice is the attitude, actions, and behaviors of an employee based on their perceptions of fairness in their organization (Greenberg, 1987). The concept of organizational justice consists of the issues and concerns related to the employees' perceptions and the attitudes of the members of the organization with the relevant regulations and policies (Kovačević et al., 2012). Organizational justice consists of rules and the social norms that can help to describe resource distribution in an organization (Pan et al., 2018). The concept focuses on the functions of an organization and its specific view of the organizational behaviors (Terzi et al., 2017), which are among different perspectives of the organization's operation. The construct of organizational justice has been the most empirical concept that can help

reduce personal variables applicable to the non-variable environment (Colquitt et al., 2011; Kovačević et al., 2012).

Organizational justice relates to the positive developments of the organizations that refer to the equality and fairness among the organization's employees specifically related to the rules and regulations about the individual interests that are perceived by the top managers or the internal members of the organization (Colquitt et al., 2011; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Organizational justice separates into two categories – fairness and justice of regulatory policies and perceptions of internal members of the organizations towards equality and righteousness of these policies and regulations in the organization (Karam et al., 2019). The members perceive that the implementation of rules and regulations at the organization have a positive relationship with the trust, job satisfaction, performance, and commitment of the employees (Terzi et al., 2017).

For most of the existence of the construct, there have been three types of organizational justice – distributive, procedural, and interactional (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Greenberg, 1987). However, Colquitt (2001) states that interactional justice is comprised of two distinct components: informational justice and interpersonal justice. The scientific community does not fully accept splitting interactional justice into these two distinct components (Colquitt et al., 2011).

Distributive justice. The definition of distributive justice is the employee's view of the distribution of resources, whether it be through rewards, fulfilling requests, or other means of getting needed supplies (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1987). For distributive justice, equality is not fairness, as the needs of the individuals weigh against the groups receiving (Bottia et al., 2016). Leaders exhibit distributive justice when deciding how to allocate funds and resources. A

principal shows distributive justice when they place a teacher or student into a position that is appropriate and equal to their merits (Bottia et al., 2016).

Procedural justice. The definition of procedural justice is the employee's views on the processes of the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Six criteria make up procedural justice; (a) consistency of application of the procedures, (b) the lack of bias, (c) the use of accurate information in making decisions, (d) ways to correct poor choices, (e) conforming to the personal views of morality and ethics, and (f) that the decision reflects the opinions of the employees (Colquitt et al., 2011; Leventhal, 1980). A school that allows their staff to take part in the decision-making process demonstrates procedural justice (Burns & DiPaola, 2013). Transparency through the decision-making process demonstrates procedural justice as well (Pan et al., 2018).

Informational justice. Informational justice is considered by some to be a part of *interactional justice* (Greenberg, 1987). The definition of informational justice is the employee's viewpoint on the way information is shared and explanations provided for the decisions made (Colquitt, 2001). Leadership that promptly shares their rationales for the choices they make exhibits informational justice (Franche et al., 2009) and includes honesty and truthfulness towards teachers and staff (Colquitt et al., 2011).

Interpersonal justice. The other half of *interactional justice* is interpersonal justice (Greenberg, 1987), which is defined as how people are treated within an organization, specifically by those with authority by their politeness, respect, and equity (Colquitt, 2001). Modeling expected behaviors for teachers (such as respect, timeliness, and positive interactions) would be an example of interpersonal justice (Nelson et al., 2019). Leaders can also interact with their staff sincerely and genuinely (Kovačević et al., 2012).

Past research shows that these particular justice decisions are each prescient of work and laborer related results. According to Kovačević et al. (2012), the scientific categorization of work and laborer can produce verifiably applicable hypotheses if their specific situation is considered. The authors state that along with the criteria, or principle choices, used to decide the decency of results, methods, and relational treatment in a study, the situational points of view must be concerned for the study to have a more extensive impact. Current justice research analyzes the reasons employees care about justice included in the content theories and the procedures that lead to both the development of reasonableness recognitions, just as people respond to witnessed injustice, which is relevant to the process theories (Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Much of the justice literature to date has concentrated on how much employees see themselves as treated fairly, it is acknowledged by recent studies that the research should consider the employees' response to the treatment of others (Colquitt et al., 2011). The literature additionally drives analysts to think about employees' reactions to corporate social duty. As Colquitt (2001) states, justice research investigates how a shared impression of justice, structures inside work gatherings and organizations, and how justice recognitions and responses differ crosswise over social groups like national, social, or organizational culture. As such, justice research has turned out to be progressively staggered as a consequence of increased understandings of the relationships between employees, leaders, and duty.

Organizational justice and ELLs

Organizational justice is one of the factors closely related to the willingness to work and ability to succeed. As organizational justice research is relatively new to the field of education (and even more unique to ELLs in particular), there is not a significant amount of research to review (Sabbagh & Resh, 2016). Most of the investigations into organizational justice in education

come from single surveys or over a few months to a year. The lack of long-term studies has resulted in calls for them, as well as longitudinal studies (Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Karam et al., 2019). Burns and DiPaola (2013) state that the particular contexts for which organizational justice is assessed and studied need to be better understood in the universal terms of a school. Currently, a significant portion of organizational justice research in education looks to link its functions with that of teacher, school, or district leadership. Several studies have called for further research into this link (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; De Cremer et al., 2007; Gillet et al., 2013; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Karam et al., 2019). A search of the databases does not find any academic journal articles with *organizational justice* (including its four elements) and *English language learners* (and synonyms for ELLs) as keywords or in the abstracts. With that said, there is research into the effects of organizational justice on teachers and students. From there, the previous research into ELLs can build a connection between these two areas of study.

For ELLs, a historically marginalized group (Theoharis, 2007), to be successful a fair and just environment is needed (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). The perception of fairness and justice has an impact on the motivation of teachers (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Organizational justice affects this perception (Capone & Petrillo, 2016), which in turn corresponds with student achievement (Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Prelli, 2016). Organizational justice informs this study by detailing the nature in which perceptions of fairness, justice, and trust by the employees can affect their motivation. The four components – distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice (Colquitt et al., 2011) – influence the perception of an organization's actions and the attitudes of employees that result from it (Greenberg, 1987). Once again, using DiPaola and Hoy's (2005) four factors that impact student learning (trust, collective efficacy, and emphasis on academic success, and organizational citizenship behaviors), organizational

justice needs to be viewed through its four elements and determine how they affect the four factors the effect student learning.

Distributive justice and ELLs. For a school, the distribution of resources, assignment of tasks, and rewards are essential for how well teachers identify themselves as part of the school (Terzi et al., 2017). Distributive justice relates to personal-referenced outcomes (Kovačević et al., 2012), and so reflects the perception of equity. Distributive justice has a direct impact on the understanding of equity by employees (Colquitt et al., 2011). In the classroom, ELLs will have successes and challenges, but the balance can be tipped based on the focus on equity (Swanson et al., 2014).

Distributive justice promotes interdependence and collaboration between teachers while they accept collective responsibility (Nelson et al., 2019). ELLs success correlates to collaboration between the ESL teacher and the content teacher (Davison, 2006; York-Barr et al., 2007). Acts of distributive justice can cause an increase in trust between the individuals (Nelson et al., 2019; Sabbagh & Resh, 2016). An atmosphere of trust provides ELLs with a fundamental element to their success and their development as learners (Paquette & Rieg, 2008). Kovačević et al. (2012) found a strong correlation between distributive justice and general student achievement at both the high school and university levels. He goes on to state that the concept of distributive justice may follow students as they change academic environments. The idea of a reward system involved in distributive justice could carry over to new learning environments. Kanno and Kangas (2014) promote this idea, stating, "If ELLs knew that if they worked hard and performed well in their current courses, they would be rewarded with the possibility of moving up the rank, they might sustain their original motivation" (p. 873). In summary, distributive justice

can motivate teachers, promote collaboration, and demonstrate rewards for hard work. These actions promote ELLs success.

Procedural justice and ELLs. Leaders provide teachers with a clear understanding of the decisions, and the rationale behind them affects their view of the schools. Trust mediates procedural justice (Moorman, 1991) and efficacy (De Cremer, 2006) for leadership's impact on staff. Through procedural justice, teachers help each other (Nelson et al., 2019). Collaboration between teachers leads to success with ELLs (Stronge, 2018). Schools with higher perceptions of procedural justice lead to more innovation, as mediated by OCBs (Somech & Khotaba, 2017). Innovative teaching practices can lead to closing the achievement gaps between ELLs and their peers (DaSilva Iddings & Rose, 2012). Task completion (Ngodo, 2008), positive emotions, and efficacy of teachers (De Cremer, 2006) increase with an increase in an understanding of the procedures. Efficacy, and its consequence – task completion, are both tied to effective school-wide ESL program implementation (Télez & Manthey, 2015). Trust and motivation for teachers positively correlate with increased procedural justice (Di Battista et al., 2014), both of which correspond to improvements in academic outcomes for ELLs. The literature shows that procedural justice instills trust, which can lead to ELLs' academic achievement.

Informational justice and ELLs. People feel as if they are more part of an organization when they share information promptly, along with an explanation behind the choices made surrounding it (Franché et al., 2009). As a component of interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2011), informational justice impacts teacher motivation (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015). Motivated teachers have higher efficacy and lead to higher ELL performance (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Kibler et al., 2015). Kazemi (2016) found that motivation mediates

informational justice and that informational justice improves student achievement. Individually, informational justice can motivate teachers and, in turn, improve ELLs success.

Interpersonal justice and ELLs. Treating teachers with respect and sincerity is vital for a healthy school climate (Kovačević et al., 2012). Interpersonal justice is related to the belief in a fair organization (Colquitt et al., 2011). An honest and just environment is needed for ELLs to thrive (Theoharis & O’Toole, 2011). The perceptions of interpersonal justice show through the actions of employees, who will work harder and work towards helping the organization as a whole (Karriker & Williams, 2009). These actions can lead to improved performance for ELLs (Télez & Manthey, 2015). Interpersonal justice acts as a mediator for bringing about organizational change (Wu et al., 2007). Institutional change decreases ELL achievement (Hoff, 2013; Theoharis & O’Toole, 2011). Based on this, interpersonal justice can help ELLs succeed by promoting fairness and acceptance of the change.

Relationship between the Constructs

Several researchers have called for further research into the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice. Judge and Piccolo (2004) state that future research is needed to link justice theory into leadership theory. Gillet et al. (2013) echo this, stating that future studies need to examine how transformational leadership relates to organizational justice, precisely the elements of procedural justice, informational justice, and interpersonal justice. There are calls to use all dimensions of transformational leadership when examining a relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). The same is true for organizational justice – researchers should consider more than one element of organizational justice when analyzing a relationship between it and transformational leadership (De Cremer et al., 2007). Conflicting information exists, establishing a link between trans-

formational leadership and how employees respond to change in an organization (Wu et al., 2007). Getting a clear picture of the connection between leadership evaluations and organizational justice is needed (Karam et al., 2019). Finally, multiple studies necessitate long term studies in the field (Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Karam et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2007).

The literature repeatedly mentions a need to continue research into the relationships between transformational leadership and organizational justice, especially as this interaction relates to education. Organizational justice is notably lacking (Sabbagh & Resh, 2016). The specific actions used to increase organizational justice in a school are not known (Capone & Petrillo, 2016). Burns and DiPaola (2013) encourage future research into how organizational justice relates to support of leadership and the principal, academic optimism, and dissent. They continue that we do not know the causal effects of gender, race, or other demographics. On perceptions of organizational justice in a school setting, De Cremer et al. (2007) call for organizational justice and transformational leadership to be integrated into a school setting. Finally, while a relationship is known, research is also needed to measure how transformational leadership can influence effective teaching practices (Robinson et al., 2008). These factors that impact teaching practices are also not well understood for a school's organizational justice (Capone & Petrillo, 2016).

Following previous recommendations for research, the study will differentiate between the four elements of organizational justice. Differentiation does not state that a relationship between each dimension will be a significant predictor of transformational leadership. Each of the four dimensions represents a unique and separate set of variables, as well as being statistically distinguishable from each other (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2011). Evaluations are a critical part of justice (De Cremer et al., 2007): Distributive justice links outcomes,

procedural justice to the organization, informational justice to leadership, and interpersonal justice to a sense of community.

Transformational leadership can change the employee's perception of an organization and the organization's actions (Kurland et al., 2010). Transformational leadership theory states that if employees see their leader as charismatic, the leaders must be fair to their employees as employees need to feel as if they have had their views considered and are active in the decision-making process (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). For any charismatic leader, followers respond to their leader just as much as their leader responds to followers (Shamir et al., 1993). The influence that transformational leaders create is grounded in building pride among their staff and being respectful to them (Sun et al., 2017).

Related to interactional justice is the concept that leaders attend to the needs of their followers (Rupp et al., 2017). Tending to the needs of employees seems to encompass elements of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. Interactional justice also provides a more unobstructed view of the organization's goals and rationale. Caring is a part of the inspiration and motivation aspects of transformational leadership (De Cremer et al., 2007).

Based on the line of reasoning above, the researcher proposes that organizational justice for ELLs will be a significant predictor of the perceptions of transformational leadership in principals.

Summary

The need for improved education for ELLs has been a stated goal of the American education system. Through various laws, policies, and court cases, states and school districts continue to home in on the needs of ELLs and methods to meet those needs (Smith & Rodriguez, 2011). There has been an increased focus on the academic achievement of ELLs. An increase in re-

sources and funds occurred as well to meet these goals. Despite this, ELLs continue to perform below native speakers (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019).

Teachers are the primary factor in the improvement of ELLs. Other than the socioeconomic factors of the student, four factors can impact student learning: trust, collective efficacy, and emphasis on academic success, and organizational citizenship behaviors (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). It is through these factors that teachers can have an impact. Two of these factors, collective efficacy (Haworth et al., 2015) and trust (Irizarry & Williams, 2013), have been shown in the literature to help not only the general student population but also ELLs. While principals do not have a direct impact on student achievement, they can indirectly affect student learning through the actions of their teachers (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Transformational leadership explains how this occurs through influence, motivation, consideration, and stimulation. The character of an organization as a whole can also impact how its employees work and accomplish tasks and meet goals (Colquitt, 2001). Similar to leadership, actions of the organization can impact the staff's motivation and efficacy (Latham & Pinder, 2005), and build trust (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013). Organizational justice describes how to achieve this through the distribution of resources, procedural outlines, positive interactions with leadership, and sharing information.

Even though there is some overlap between effects and correlations, organizational justice and transformational leadership are not directly linked (Sabbagh & Resh, 2016). There have been some studies in connecting the justice literature with transformational leadership, but it remains a point of emphasis for researchers. A possible path to link the two constructs is through the education of ELLs. Multiple researchers have called for studies to link the two constructs, which is the intent of this study.

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2 PERCEPTIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

This chapter presents the design of the study and the results from the analysis. The study will include the descriptions of population and samples, data collection and instrumentation, analysis, and validity checks. The conclusions and implications of the hypotheses are also included.

The review of the literature in Chapter One looked at two primary constructs: transformational leadership and organizational justice. The relationship of these constructs to the academic success of English Language Learners (ELLs) through mediators, such as trust and efficacy, were discussed. The researcher reviewed issues that ELLs encounter and how teachers can improve their academic success. The review then showed the actions those schools, through organizational justice, and the behaviors that leaders, through transformational leadership, can promote and assist these teachers. A connection between organizational justice and improved ELL performance through the mentioned mediators exists. This connection appears for transformational leadership as well. The review of the literature showed a lack of studies between transformational leadership and organizational justice. The literature confirmed that there is a need to determine a relationship between organizational justice and transformational leadership.

Justification for the Study

The passage of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 placed the first emphasis on meeting the needs of ELLs. With the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and subsequent reauthorization of this law through the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) in 2015, the emphasis changed to focus on student performance through testing. As a result, states like Georgia imple-

mented accountability measures to meet these guidelines. In Georgia, the College and Career Performance Index (CCRPI) is used to do this. CCRPI includes many indicators like content mastery, graduation rates, and financial efficiency, to award a score for the school. CCRPI also placed a higher emphasis on closing achievement gaps and on the performance of subgroups, which included ELLs. Because of these pressures to perform, ELLs find themselves in English-only environments, usually resulting in more unsatisfactory performance (Swanson et al., 2014; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). ELLs can achieve at high levels when supported (Swanson et al., 2014), and leaders continue to look for ways to make their efforts, as mediated by teachers, to the impact students that need it most (Nelson et al., 2019).

One of the ways for principals to positively impact their schools is through their teachers. Transformational leadership claims that a small number of practices, such as inspiration, can increase the likelihood of meeting the goals of an organization (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). A critical piece of transformational leadership is the ability to motivate (Avolio et al., 1999; Barbuto, 2005). Motivation, a dimension of transformational leadership, has a direct relationship with teacher effectiveness and efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Both have a positive correlation with general student achievement (Goddard et al., 2000) and specifically with ELLs (Karabenick & Noda, 2004).

Principals can also act through their schools as an organization. Organizational justice is the view of fairness and trust that employees have on their employer's or organization's behavior (Greenberg, 1987). Organizational justice has a direct influence on the members within the organization (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Teachers can become more motivated through actions, such as informational justice (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015). Likewise, employees perceive or-

organizations that promote organizational justice as more fair (Colquitt, 2001), and a fair environment is needed for ELLs to thrive (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Both transformational leadership and organizational justice can positively affect ELLs. However, few studies between transformational leadership and organizational justice exist in great detail (Sabbagh & Resh, 2016). A gap exists in the literature on the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice. One way to effectively measure this relationship is to examine teacher perceptions of the principals.

Leithwood and Sun (2012) state that principals do not have a direct impact on student achievement and must act through the actions of their teachers. Information needs to be gathered and measured from teachers so that the impact of principals on their teachers through transformational leadership and organizational justice can be determined. Measurement requires a quantitative study (Stake, 2010). While they have issues, surveys are concerned with an acceptable means for gathering data in a quantitative study (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Based on this line of reasoning and the purpose of this study, the assessment of transformational leadership and organizational justice will be through surveying teachers. This study gives leaders a better understanding of the links between these two constructs and allows them to develop better policies, programs, and support for teachers and ELLs.

Additionally, this study contributes to the body of knowledge for educational leadership and school management. Only recently has the concept of organizational justice been applied to education, and there is limited information in the literature to how it relates to transformational leadership or ELLs. This study provides leaders with knowledge of how particular organizational elements affect the perceptions of their leadership behaviors, allowing leaders to promote policy

and equity accordingly. The research shows a relationship between the two constructs and to improve the educational environment for ELLs through them.

Theoretical Framework

Organizational justice and transformational leadership are the basis for the theoretical framework. Given that the equity and justice in a school are vital for ELLs to succeed, the factors influencing this need to be better understood. The relationship between the perceptions of leadership and the justice of the school requires examination. It is essential to understand the relationship between organizational justice and transformational leadership, as well as show these two theories relate to schools with high ELL populations.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is one of the factors that closely relates to the willingness to work and ability to succeed. For ELLs, a historically marginalized group (Theoharis, 2007), a fair and just environment is needed to succeed (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). The perception of fairness and justice has an impact on the motivation of teachers (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Distributive justice has a direct impact on the perception of fairness by teachers (Colquitt, 2001). Distributive justice is a crucial component of organizational justice theory (Colquitt, 2001; Karriker & Williams, 2009). Multiple studies have shown a direct connection between high distributive justice and high perceptions of equity (DeMatthews et al., 2017; Rosenblatt & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2017; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011) and fairness (Di Battista et al., 2014).

Organizational justice informs this study by detailing the nature in which perceptions of fairness, justice, and trust by the employees can affect their motivation. The four components – distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice (Colquitt et al., 2011) – influence the perception of an organization's actions and the attitudes of employees

that result from it (Greenberg, 1987). Organizational justice influences teacher efficacy (Capone & Petrillo, 2016), which in turn corresponds with student achievement (Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Prelli, 2016). Interactional justice, which consists of interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001), is known to have an impact on teacher motivation (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Kazemi, 2016; Sabbagh & Resh, 2016; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015). The view of the organization can impact the employee's motivation, and therefore their work performance (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Zapata-Phelan, Colquitt, Scott, & Livingston, 2009). While organizational justice is known to impact task performance (Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009), there does not appear to be research on organizational justice and the importance of academics in schools. In summary, organizational justice impacts the perception of efficacy, motivation, trust, justice, fairness, ending inequality, and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Transformational Leadership

The importance of strong leadership on ELL outcomes and success is evident (DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2018; Scanlan & Lopez, 2012). Motivation and developing teacher efficacy are two characteristics of strong leadership (Barbutto, 2005; Thoonen et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Developing motivation is an element of transformational leadership theory (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Motivated teachers directly impact ELL outcomes and performance (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Kibler, Walqui, & Bunch, 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Therefore, transformational leadership can improve the motivation of teachers, leading to increased academic outcomes of ELLs. Transformational leadership has been shown to have a healthy relationship with fairness (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Sun, Chen, & Zhang, 2017) and can be used to change societal norms to create a more fair and equitable school (Tillman, Brown, Jones, & Gonzalez, 2006).

Transformational leadership informs this study by providing a mechanism with which to motivate teachers. The four core components – idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation – are used to have employees buy-in to the organization's vision and empower the employees to make changes (Avolio et al., 2004). Transformational leadership can change the employee's perception of an organization and the organization's actions (Kurland, Peretz, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2010). It can influence the culture and climate of an organization, making it more likely to accept social change (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). These characteristics of transformational leadership lend to this study the functions and measures of leadership for motivating teachers.

The perception of leadership passes through one's own experiences and point of view. In transformational leadership theory, this point of view filters through the four elements. The elements of transformational leadership are fundamentally different and measured by different factors (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Berkovich, 2017; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Procedural justice mediates transformational leadership's impact on principal-teacher trust (Ngodo, 2008). Through organizational justice, the idealized influence and inspirational motivation that a leader utilizes has a mediated impact on the organizational commitment and citizenship behaviors of their followers (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). Procedural justice (Zapata-Phelan, Colquitt, Scott, & Livingston, 2009) and informational justice (Kazemi, 2016) correlate with increasing motivation as well. Leaders that show individualized consideration produce followers that are less likely to blame the leader for the instituted changes because they have given information (informational justice) while being supportive (interpersonal justice) of their followers' needs (Wu, Neubert, & Yi, 2007). Transformational leadership influences organizational justice through procedural and distributive justice, but only if leader-member exchanges are present (Pillai, Scandura, & Wil-

liams, 1999). The literature shows there is an interaction between transformational leadership and organizational justice for influence on employee behavior. In many cases, transformational leadership experiences a mediating effect through organizational justice.

However, leaders should consider how their followers perceive their actions. The perception of justice has an influence on the style of leadership that one may choose to use (Afzalur Rahim, Shapiro, & Magner, 2000). For example, procedural and distributive justice have a healthy relationship between evaluations of leadership and organizations (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2011; Rupp, Shapiro, Folger, Skarlicki, & Shao, 2017). Informational and interpersonal (collectively, interactional) justices affect how employees view the organization's leadership and their authority (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). Trust and the building of relationships through the leader-member exchange are also positively impacted by interactional justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). The methods of building relationships through support, prioritization, and delegation match those found in the individualized consideration construct of transformational leadership (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). The literature shows that leadership perceptions and evaluations are affected by a sense of justice within the organization.

This study has a focus on ELLs, and consideration of their needs is necessary. Ending inequity is at the center of providing ELLs with a chance to succeed (DeMatthews, Izquierdo, & Knight, 2017; Rosenblatt & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2017; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Inequity ends through resource allocation (DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2018; York-Barr, Ghere, & Sommers, 2007) and teacher training (Hoff, 2013; Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Padron & Waxman, 2016). Both of these are forms of distributive justice (Bottia, Giersch, Mickelson, Stearns, & Moller, 2016; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2011). Interactional justice improves teacher motivation (Kazemi, 2016; Sabbagh & Resh, 2016). Finally, procedural justice

improves teacher motivation (Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009) and trust in leadership (Ngodo, 2008; Zeinabadi, 2014) and moderates perceptions of fairness.

Several mediating constructs link the success of ELLs, transformational leadership, and organizational justice. Teacher motivation, efficacy, trust, seeking justice, and striving for equity intersect between the three concepts. There are some gaps in a complete framework. Specifically, the impact that organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) have on ELLs and organizational justice's impact on the perceptions of the importance of academics is not known. Direct relationships exist, as well. Organizational justice may have a direct impact, but one study to test this found only a mediated relationship (Burns & DiPaola, 2013). Leadership is known to have a mediated impact on student achievement (Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Scanlan & Lopez, 2012), and additionally, transformational leadership has moderated or mediated effects (Heck & Hallinger, 2014), or no direct impact (Leithwood & Sun, 2012).

Transformational leadership has been a long-established theory in education (Leithwood & Sun, 2012), but organizational justice has only recently entered the field (Thoonen et al., 2011). Several links between the two theories exist in other fields. Researchers have shown there is a complicated relationship between transformational leadership and the behavioral outcomes associated with organizational justice (Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, & Abu Sama, 2008; Ngodo, 2008; Pillai et al., 1999). The quality of the relationship between the employee and their supervisor (Karriker & Williams, 2009), as well as the distance between them professionally (Avolio et al., 2004), play a role in perceptions of fairness, justice, and trust. These perceptions affect the effectiveness of transformational leadership practices (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). The link impacts the quality of work-life (Gillet, Fouquereau, Bonnaud-Antignac, Mokoukolo, & Colombat, 2013) and builds trust between employees and leadership (Ngodo, 2008). Nevertheless, in

regards to the literature, there is a question of whether or not any relationship exists in regards to ELL academic success. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework regarding the literature's links between the success of ELLs through the mediating effects of transformational leadership and organizational justice. Figure 1 also represents the hypothesized relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice.

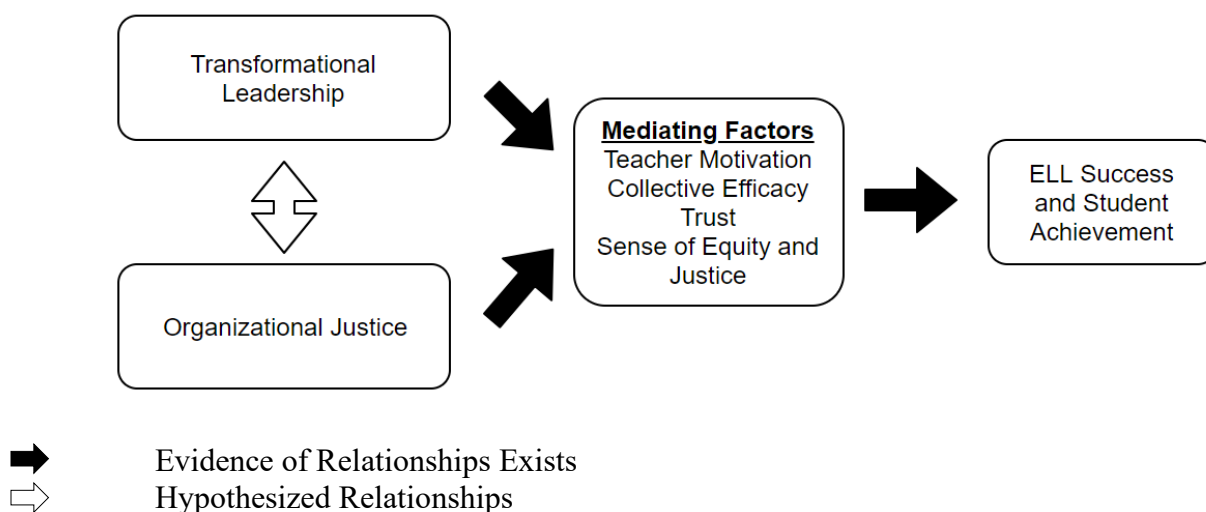


Figure 1. *Conceptual framework showing the relationships between transformational leadership, organizational justice, and ELL achievement*

In summary, there are three points: first, that transformational leadership and organizational justice affect each other; second, organizational justice influences the perceptions of transformational leadership, and finally, multiple elements of organizational justice have a direct or mediated impact on more factors affecting ELL success. Based on these points, the main prediction is that perceptions of organizational justice for ELLs will predict how teachers will perceive their principal's transformational leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis. Based on the framework above, a hypothesis was developed for this study.

H₁ Organizational justice for ELLs in schools is a significant predictor for teachers' perceptions of transformational leadership.

Methods

This study was independent of the researcher. The researcher concluded that an appropriate way to approach the problem was to use quantitative methods to determine if there was a relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice. Certified teachers in north Georgia with a focus on Atlanta were selected for invitation to participate. This Atlanta area has a statistically higher ELL population and an emphasis by the state on ELL performance.

After a review of the literature, the researcher determined that this study could be helpful to the research community and policymakers. There is little in the research linking transformational leadership to organizational justice and how the relationship may impact the academic performance of ELLs. The findings of this study may help leaders make better choices when seeking to improve the academic performance of ELLs in their schools.

Correlation statistics were used to determine relationships between the variables. Internal and external validity was taken into account. Afterwards, the researcher performed a regression analysis to determine the effect of organizational justice for ELLs on the teacher's perceptions of transformational leadership. Finally, after the data was analyzed and relationships identified, conclusions were drawn with implications given. This study will aid principals in determining the importance of crucial justice actions for ELLs and how they reflect on their staff's leadership perceptions. Ideally, this study will give guidance to principals in the decision-making process when seeking to increase ELL academic performance.

Research Question

The research question uses current research and literature on transformational leadership and organizational justice as its basis. By design, the answer to the research question results from testing the related hypothesis through the gathering of information from teacher survey data on transformational leadership and organizational justice. The following research question was developed for this study:

What is the relationship, if any exists, between transformational leadership and organizational justice for English language learners?

Measures

The data for the study came from one source: surveys administered to K-12 certified teachers via email. The researcher selected surveys (See Appendices A and B) regularly utilized in the field to examine the research question. Surveys are suitable data for a quantitative study (Gay & Airasian, 2003). This survey included forty-two items to be completed by teachers. The items included were designed to gauge teachers' perceptions of transformational leadership qualities of their school's principal and organizational justice for ELLs in their schools. It also asked for respondents to list the type of school (elementary, middle, or high) and well as the percentage of ELLs at their schools. For transformational leadership, the researcher used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X), developed by Bass and Avolio and validated by multiple researchers (Avolio et al., 1999; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Xu et al., 2016). For organizational justice, the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) developed and validated by Colquitt (2001) was used. Both surveys utilized a five-point Likert scale.

Transformational leadership. MLQ5X uses a Likert scale to analyze a range of leadership factors, including transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) found that MLQ5X overall fit of the multiple was statistically

significant, as revealed through their analysis of 138 cases with Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). MLQ5X has been used previously in Georgia by Gwinnett Public Schools, the state's largest school district (Maier et al., 2016). Researchers found it to be the best fit for statistical analysis for transformational leadership (Xu et al., 2016). The survey has been translated and used in multiple languages and cultures. These include Turkish (Erkutlu, 2013), Chinese (Cheok & O'Higgins, 2012), and Spanish (Molero Alonso et al., 2010). Other researchers comparatively validated the survey with other measures of leadership, such as the Human System Audit for Transformational Leadership (Berger et al., 2011).

MLQ5X has 20 items. There are eight questions for idealized influence (four for attributes and four for behaviors), four questions for inspirational motivation, four questions for individualized consideration, and four questions for intellectual stimulation. Items begin with the precursor "The person I am rating..." and are followed with statements, examples of which include "Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs" and "Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished." See Appendix A for the full list of questions. The authors use a traditional five-point Likert scale that runs from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

As previously mentioned, transformational leadership consists of four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Studies have shown that the dimensions are both hard to distinguish between and that the scales can highly correlate with each other (Avolio et al., 1999). Because of this, the researcher used the overall score for transformational leadership.

Organizational justice. Colquitt's (2001) OJS is used to measure the four factors of organizational justice. The scale consists of 20 items and is subdivided into four groups - one for each element. It is the dominant scale used in the research (Rupp et al., 2017) and validated by

other researchers (Shibaoka et al., 2010). It is the most cited scale for use in the literature (Rupp et al., 2017). As this study seeks to determine which of the four elements of organizational justice is a predictor of transformational leadership, the researcher assessed the four elements individually. The organizational justice scale has been tested and validated in multiple studies (Colquitt, 2001; Enoksen, 2015; Franche et al., 2009; Hansen et al., 2013; Shibaoka et al., 2010). Each element of organizational justice has also been validated as an appropriate measure for that concept (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013). The paragraphs below provide examples of questions used in the survey for each element of organizational justice. See Appendix B for the full list of questions.

Procedural justice. Colquitt's organizational justice scale is used to assess procedural justice. The scale contains seven items and measured on a 5 point Likert scale, from 1 (To very great extent) to 5 (Not at all). Example items include "Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?" and "Have those procedures been applied consistently?" For all questions, the phrase "academic success with ELLs" replaces the phrase "outcome."

Distributive justice. Colquitt's organizational justice scale assesses distributive justice for the study. The scale contains four items and is measured on a 5 point Likert scale, from 1 (To very great extent) to 5 (Not at all). The items "Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?" "Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?" "Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?" "Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?" are used. For all questions, the phrase "academic success with ELLs" replaces the phrase "outcome."

Interpersonal justice. Colquitt's organizational justice scale assesses interpersonal justice for this study. The scale contains four items and is measured on a 5 point Likert scale, from 1

(To very great extent) to 5 (Not at all). The items "Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?" "Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?" "Has (he/she) treated you with respect?" "Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?" are used.

Informational justice. Colquitt's organizational justice scale assesses informational justice for this study. The scale contains five items and is measured on a 5 point Likert scale, from 1 (To very great extent) to 5 (Not at all). The items "Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?" "Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?" "Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?" "Has (he/she) communicated details promptly?" "Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?" are used.

Population. The certified teachers that took part in this study were from the north Georgia area, centered in the metropolitan Atlanta area. This region includes thirty school districts. These districts include at least 1,083 individual schools and close to a million students, with the individual districts ranging in size from approximately 2,500 students to over 175,000 students. The estimated number of teachers employed in these school systems is about 65,000, with an estimated ELL population percentage of 6.4%. The survey results used in this study are from the 2019-2020 school year.

Sample. Using the G*Power software (Faul et al., 2007), a priori power analysis determined the sample size and controlled statistical power. G*Power provides an estimate for a sample size based on the effect size, conventional power, significance level, and the number of predictor variables. For this study, a moderate effect size (f^2) of 0.15, a conventional power of 0.95, and a significance level of 0.05 with the four elements of organizational justice (procedural, distributive, informational, and interpersonal justices) as well as gender, work experience, and level

of education, bringing the number of independent variables included in this study to seven. With these parameters, G*Power calculated the need for a sample size of 160 responses.

According to Robbins et al. (2018), the survey response rate among teachers is low. Recruited teachers have a 20% to 30% response rate. Teachers promised or given incentives to complete the survey has a response to similar response rates. However, not incentivized teachers that are randomly selected have at about a 14% response rate. The authors continue, stating that the random response rate can be as low as 1.5%. Based on this information, the researcher determined the appropriate sample size. For a 5% response rate, approximately a total of 2,500 teachers would need to be selected.

In order to comply with the guidelines of the institutional review board (IRB), the researcher only used publically available emails found on the internet. The sample is comprised of 2500 randomly selected teachers from 30 school systems. As there are 1083 schools with a student population of 950,000 representing approximately 65,000 teachers within the total population, a random method for selection was used. A random number generator from random.org was used. The researcher chose random.org as it uses atmospheric noise – the radio noise created from an electric phenomenon like lightning – as a source of entropy (or lack of order and predictability) to generate numbers (Haahr, 1998). According to a report by Trinity College Dublin's Computer Science Department (Kenny & Mosurski, 2005), because random.org uses natural entropy, it is a true random number rather than a deterministic algorithm, which only has the appearance of randomness. The study found that the numbers produced pass all of the tests required by the National Institute of Standards and Technology, thus deeming the randomness of the numbers to be sufficient for industry and research.

For the selection process, the researcher assigned numbers to school districts based on the number of schools. The schools were ranked in alphabetical order. For example, System Alpha had 14 schools and was assigned numbers 1 to 14. These numbers corresponded to the school's alphabetical rank. Next, the 11 schools in System Beta were assigned the next 11 integers, or from 15 to 25, and continued until all 1,083 numbers were assigned to the 30 school districts. Next, the number of teachers from each school to be chosen from each school would be a random number between five and ten, giving an average of 7.5 surveys per school. Random.org was used to give a list of approximately 333 unique but random integers from 1 to 1,083. Then, a random number from 5 to 10 determined the number of teachers from the school to select. Finally, once on the selected website, random.org was used to select which teacher was to receive an email based on their alphabetically rank on the school's website.

Data Collection. The researcher administered the MLQ5X and OJS surveys. The procedures for conducting this survey, as outlined by Georgia State University's internal review board, were followed. Georgia State University (GSU) also provided permission for the study as part of the completion of a dissertation. The researcher obtained informed consent via email, which contained a link to the survey. The informed consent email explained the nature of the survey and the research being conducted. It also explained that answering the survey was voluntary. Once informed consent was obtained, the teacher received a link to the two surveys. Participating teachers received weekly reminder emails that ended after four weeks.

Adherence to all IRB guidelines is vital in order to protect the confidentiality of the study's participants and followed for this study. According to GSU's IRB Manual (2019), the researcher must protect the privacy and confidentiality of the participants. It states that data protection is required and includes processes such as encryption and password protection. Above all

else, the rights and welfare of the participants must be secure. Data were collected and stored in GSU's Qualtrics program so that the guidelines were met. Only the researcher had access to the password-protected Qualtrics account. A backup of the data occurred daily on a firewall and password-protected computer. All data will be destroyed three years after this study's conclusion. Additionally, no identifying information exists in this dissertation as that only a summary of the findings as a group exists.

Demographics. The characteristics of those involved influence various relationships between leadership and teachers (Spillane et al., 2012). As both transformational leadership and organizational justice include an aspect of relationships in their frameworks, the data includes demographics of the participants Work experience, level of education, gender, and the interaction between them have a possibility of influencing these relationships, and thus the data collected and results (Barbuto et al., 2007; Liou & Daly, 2019).

In order to improve external validity, the work experience, level of education, and gender of the participants, the researcher incorporated these demographics as independent variables in the study. The social interactions between teachers and principals are often overlooked (Liou & Daly, 2019). These factors can have a significant impact on the behaviors or perceptions of the behaviors of leaders (Barbuto et al., 2007). To include work experience, level of education, and gender of the participants will increase the validity of the study.

Variables. The dependent variables in this study are the four dimensions of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation) as measured by the MLQ5X in the survey. The independent variables are the four elements of organizational justice (procedural justice, distributive justice, informational justice, and interpersonal justice) as determined by the organizational justice scale in the

survey as well as the work experience, level of education, and gender of the participants. It included regression modeling in determining the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice. Table 1 provides an outline of the variables and analysis of the research question below.

Table 1
The Research Questions, the variables, and the analysis used in this study

Research Question	Dependent	Variables		Analysis
		Independent		
What is the relationship, if any exists, between transformational leadership and organizational justice for English language learners?	Transformational Leadership	Organizational Justice		Regression
		Work Experience		
		Level of Education		
		Gender		

Research Design

As the researcher seeks to determine a relationship between two variables, quantitative methods are best. A quantitative methodology has some benefits over a qualitative methodology for this research. For one, where the researcher follows an open-ended line of reasoning in qualitative (Stake, 2010), quantitative is used to test a theory (Watson, 2015). Quantitative attempts to remove biases by removing the researcher from the study, randomizing the sample, and concealing identities (Watson, 2015). Quantitative research is also more likely to influence policy (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013).

Regression analysis estimates the relationship between two variables (Bowen, 2016). The researcher created an empirical model to determine the relationship between organizational justice and transformational leadership. First, all of the survey data was entered into and compiled

by Qualtrics. Once the study's time frame passed and all data collection finished, it was downloaded from Qualtrics and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) (Green & Salkind, 2016) for analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data set describing each category (high, middle, or elementary school) and total sample in terms of central tendency (mean and median) and variability (standard deviation).

For the research question, the researcher used regression analysis to determine if organizational justice is a significant predictor of transformational leadership. The researcher developed two models: one to include just the survey data for organizational justice and transformational and the other to expand the first by adding in the characteristics of the respondents. For the first case, the regression model is as follows:

$$\log Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \varepsilon$$

In Regression Model 1, “Y” represents transformational leadership. β_0 represents the constant. The coefficient β_1 represents the positive or negative relationship between the independent variable and the corresponding dependent variable or the change in transformational leadership for every point of the independent variables. The independent variable is organizational justice (X_1).

For the second case, the researcher developed a regression model to sync the survey data collected and the categorical variables of the participants' demographics. For gender, level of education, and years of experience, the researcher used categorical variables to represent the data. The multiple regression model with four independent variables to test this case is as follows:

$$\log Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \beta_4 X_{4i} + \varepsilon$$

In Regression Model 2, “Y” represents transformational leadership. β_0 represents the constant. The coefficient β_1 represents the positive or negative relationship between the inde-

pendent variable and the corresponding dependent variable or the change in transformational leadership for every point of the independent variables. The value of the constant, or intercept, will be mean value if all dependent variables are zero, and categorical variables convert into dummy variables with values of 0 or 1 (Grotenhuis & Thijs, 2015). The independent variables are organizational justice ($X1$), work experience ($X2$), level of education ($X3$), and gender ($X4$).

An F-test was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the regression model (Bowen, 2016). The F-test found a confidence level of 95% and $p = .05$ to confirm that errors happened less than that 5% of the time. Before the analysis, the data were checked for accuracy. This check included looking for missing, incomplete, or incorrect data and responses out of the population set (Bowen, 2016).

Results

The theoretical framework suggests that transformational leadership and organizational justice may be related and that organizational justice may predict perceptions of transformational leadership. The findings below represent the results from the analysis of data collected from teachers in the north Georgia area. Table 2 provides the Sample Size of the Study, as well as how the sample relates to national and state percentages. The next section, Testing the Hypotheses, states the regression models and their usage in order to address the research question. The regression models look to extend the independent variable of organizational justice, while taking into consideration the demographic characteristics of the participants, as a predictor for the score for transformational leadership.

Internal validity is vital for any survey. Cronbach's alpha determines validity. For the transformational leadership scale, Cronbach's alpha is $\alpha = .966$, and for the organizational justice

scale, Cronbach's alpha is $\alpha = .940$. Both of these are well above the acceptable range of .80 (Bowen, 2016). High Cronbach's alphas indicate that the results have high consistency.

Likert-scale surveys, particularly those surveys with ordinal responses, can have problems when attempting to apply interval operations to the data (Wu & Leung, 2017), such as regression. While used in multiple fields and multiple studies, the use of ordinal Likert-scale data can violate some of the underlying assumptions of statistics (Bishop & Herron, 2015). Parametric tests, such as linear regression, can be used to analyze Likert-scale data without adjustment, but the need to explain the reasoning behind this is required (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). For this study, we will examine the skewness and kurtosis of the data set to see if they fall into a normal distribution as both skewness and kurtosis are indicators of this (Wu & Leung, 2017).

The average scores for organizational justice were a mean of 2.12 out of 5 and a median of 2.05 out of 5, with a standard deviation of 0.649. There are 89 responses above the mean and 146 above the midpoint of the survey, 3. Of the 163 data points, 112 fell within one standard deviation of the mean, while six were higher than two standard deviations from the mean. The researcher used skewness and kurtosis calculations to determine if the data follows a normal distribution. Skewness was 0.317. As it is below 1.00, this indicates that the data generally follows a normal distribution. The kurtosis of the data was -.411. As it is below the threshold of 1.00, it indicates that the data does not sharply decline towards the edges of the distribution. These results indicate a normal distribution. See Figure 2 for the histogram of the data.



Figure 2: *Histogram of Organizational Justice*

The average scores for transformational justice were a mean of 1.79 out of 5 and a median of 1.56 out of 5 with a standard deviation of 0.793. There are 98 responses above the mean and 145 above the midpoint of the survey, 3. Of the 163 data points, 139 fell within one standard deviation of the mean, while ten were higher than two standard deviations from the mean. The researcher used skewness and kurtosis calculations to determine if the data follows normal distribution. Skewness was 1.276. As this is above 1.00, this indicates the data is shifted towards the left, or more towards a positive agreement. The kurtosis for the data set was 1.161. See Figure 3 for the histogram of the data.

The researcher used a log transformation to normalize the data. Log transformations are commonly used to shift the scales towards a normal distribution to adhere to the requirements or parametric tests (Kaptein et al., 2010). A log transformation changes the range from the 1 to 5 scale to a 0 to 0.7 scale, which corresponds to the log of (1) through the log of (5). The new

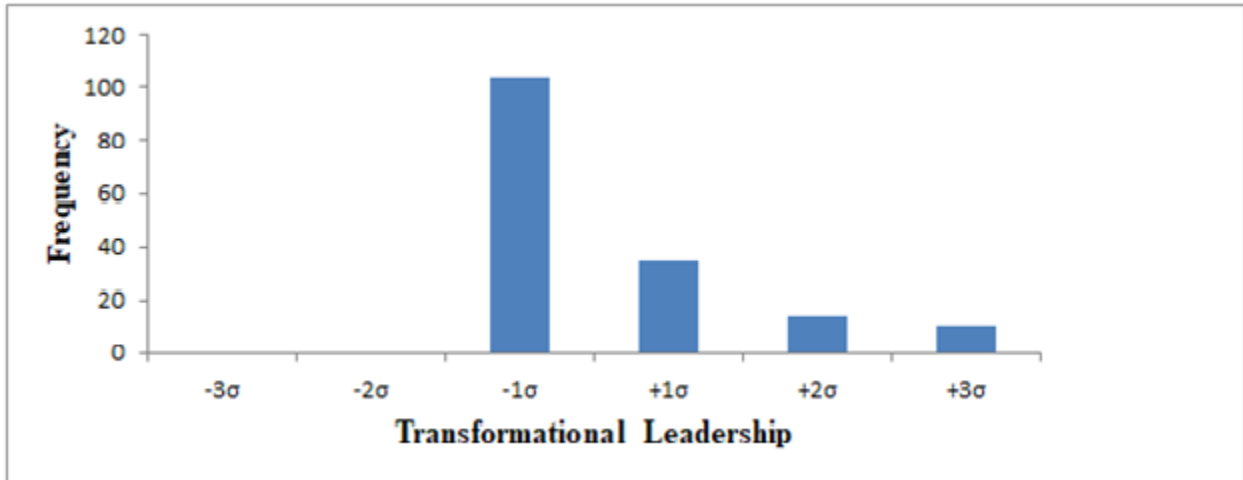


Figure 3: Histogram of Transformational Leadership

average scores are .215 for mean and .194 for the median with a standard deviation of 0.174.

There are 89 responses above the mean and 145 above a score of 3, the midpoint of the survey.

Of the 163 data points, 105 fell within one standard deviation of the mean, while five were higher than two standard deviations from the mean. The researcher used skewness and kurtosis to determine if the log transformation has appropriately distributed. The skewness is .557, and the kurtosis is -.614. Both of these numbers fall within the $+1$ to -1 bounds, indicating the data has a normal distribution. See Figure 4 for the corrected data after the log transformation.



Figure 4: Histogram of log-transformed Transformational Leadership

Sample size of the study. The demographics of the participants for this study were compared to the national statistics for teachers. The researcher used data provided by the National Center for

Education Statistics (2018) for comparison. For teachers nationwide, 48% are elementary, 20% are middle school, and 33% are high school. The sample closely matches the national average. 77% of teachers are female nationwide, compared to 78.5% for the sample. The work experience for teachers was as follows: 10% had less than three years, 28% had between three and nine years, 39% had between ten and twenty years, and 22% had twenty-one years of experience or more. This is similar to the sample's data. One major difference is the education level, where 74.2% of the sample had post-baccalaureate degrees, compared to a national average of 57%.

Table 2.
Demographics of Participants

	Frequency (%)	M (SD)
School Level		—
Elementary School	68 (41.7%)	
Middle School	36 (22.1%)	
High School	59 (36.2%)	
Gender		—
Female	128 (78.5%)	
Male	35 (21.5%)	
Education Level		—
Bachelors	42 (25.8%)	
Masters	76 (46.6%)	
Specialist	38 (23.3%)	
Doctorate	9 (5.5%)	
Years of Experience		12.0 (7.61)
≤ 2 years	18 (11.0%)	
3 – 9 years	52 (31.9%)	
10 – 20 years	67 (41.1%)	
≥ 21 years	26 (16.0%)	

Note: n = 163 teachers. M = mean, SD = standard deviation

Testing the hypothesis. This section will present the findings from the analysis of the data to answer the research question and address the hypothesis. Stated below are the null hypothesis (H_0) and the alternative hypothesis (H_a).

H_0 Organizational justice for ELLs in schools will not be a predictor for teachers' perceptions of transformational leadership.

H_a Organizational justice for ELLs in schools will be a significant predictor for teachers' perceptions of transformational leadership.

Table 3.
Comparison of Sample ELL Population with National and State ELL Percentages

School Level	ELL % Georgia Mean	ELL % National Mean	ELL % Sample Mean	Standard Deviation
Elementary	9.8%	14.2%	28.6%	28.5
Middle	5.2%	7.7%	8.9%	6.0
High	3.7%	5.5%	8.1%	8.2
Total	6.4%	9.6%	16.8%	21.7

Correlation and prediction test analysis. Regression estimates the strength of a relationship, whether or not the relationship is positive or negative (Bowen, 2016). The researcher used linear regression to predict the influence of the elements of organizational justice has on transformational leadership.

For the research question, the following models are as follows:

$$Y_i = f(\text{procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice}) \\ (X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4)$$

$$Y_i = f(\text{procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, work experience, education level, gender}) \\ (X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4 + X_5 + X_6 + X_7)$$

For both regression models, the variable's relationship will indicate the direction of the relationship (positive or negative), or if one exists at all. A t-test, if values greater than 2, and p values, less than .05, will be used to indicate a significant relationship and whether or not we fail to reject the null hypotheses or accept the alternative hypotheses.

Correlation tables. The researcher used Pearson correlation to investigate the relationships between variables. Table 3 has a list of results. The table displays the four dimensions of transformational leadership and the four elements of organizational justice. Significant correlations were found and verified through regression. Results indicate there are no negative correlations between any two variables, any of the dimensions of transformational leadership, and the elements of organizational justice. All relationships between the two constructs are significantly correlated. According to Bowen (2016), whenever the correlation is equal to or exceeds .500, the relationship is strongly positive, and between .500 and .300 is said to have a medium correlation. All relationships among the dimensions of transformational leadership, among the elements of organizational justice, and between the two groups fell in the high to medium range of correlation. However, two relationships see a low degree of correlation: distributive justice–inspirational motivation and distributive justice–intellectual stimulation. Including the demographics, we find only one significant relationship: that of work experience and the level of education. Except for the work experience–level of education correlation, there are no significant correlations among the demographics. There are also no significant correlations between the demographics and the dimensions of transformational leadership or the element of organizational justice.

Table 4.
Correlation Matrix for Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Idealized Influence	1										
2. Inspirational Motivation	.888‡	1									
3. Individualized Consideration	.841‡	.762‡	1								
4. Intellectual Stimulation	.847‡	.765‡	.810‡	1							
5. Procedural Justice	.500‡	.410‡	.478‡	.452‡	1						
6. Distributive Justice	.327‡	.265‡	.370‡	.278‡	.799‡	1					
7. Interpersonal Justice	.774‡	.665‡	.747‡	.671‡	.468‡	.300‡	1				
8. Informational Justice	.753‡	.669‡	.732‡	.697‡	.685‡	.489‡	.736‡	1			
9. Work Experience	.040	.036	-.007	-.001	-.018	-.051	.005	.022	1		
10. Education Level	.054	.058	.014	.007	.051	-.007	-.059	-.012	.341‡	1	
11. Gender	-.017	.024	-.004	-.008	-.008	-.030	-.095	-.011	-.040	.033	1

† Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

Regression series 1: The researcher used regression modeling to predict transformational leadership based on organizational justice. A significant regression equation exists ($F(1, 161) = 203.654, p < .000$) with an R^2 of .558 and adjusted R^2 of .556. The R^2 values indicate that approximately 56% of the variation seen in the transformational leadership data can be explained by the independent variable of organizational justice. This value implies that organizational justice can predict transformational leadership. Participants' predicted transformational leadership is equal to $-0.207 + 0.200$ (organizational justice). Organizational justice and transformational leadership were measured using a 5-point Likert scale. Organizational justice was coded as 1 = To very great extent, 2 = To great extent, 3 = To some extent, 4 = To very little extent, 5 = Not at all, and

transformational leadership was coded as 1 = Strongly agree, 2 = Somewhat agree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Somewhat disagree, 5 = Strongly disagree. The log-transformed transformational leadership increased 0.200 points for a 1 point increase in organizational justice. As this conclusion's basis is on log-transformed data, the corresponding scaling factor would be 1.585 for transformational leadership. This implies that for each 1 point increase in organizational justice corresponds to 58.5% increase. Organizational justice is a significant predictor of transformational leadership. This variable can be used to predict transformational leadership; thus, H_0 was rejected.

Table 5.
Regression Model 1 with Transformational Leadership as Dependent Variable

		β	t	p	R^2	Adj. R^2	SE
Model 1	Organizational Justice	-.207	14.270	.000*	.558	.556	.116

* $p < .0001$

Regression series 2. The researcher performed a multiple regression to predict transformational leadership based on organizational justice, work experience, level of education, and gender. A significant regression equation exists ($F(4, 158) = 51.462, p < .000$) with an R^2 of .566 and adjusted R^2 of .555. The R^2 values indicate that the independent variables explain approximately 56% of the variation seen in the transformational leadership data. This value implies that this model can be used to predict transformational leadership. Participants' predicted transformational leadership is equal to $-.224 + .205$ (organizational justice) $- .000$ (work experience) $+ .012$ (level of education) $- .005$ (gender). Demographic data were coded for the regression analysis. Work experience was coded as years. The level of education was coded as a dichotomous variable where 0=bachelor's degree and 1=advanced or graduate degree. Gender was coded as a di-

chotomous variable where 0=female and 1=male. Organizational justice and transformational leadership were measured using a 5-point Likert scale. Organizational justice was coded as 1 = To very great extent, 2 = To great extent, 3 = To some extent, 4 = To very little extent, 5 = Not at all and transformational leadership was coded as 1 = Strongly agree, 2 = Somewhat agree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Somewhat disagree, 5 = Strongly disagree. An increase in 1 point in organizational justice leads to the scaling of the log-transformed transformational leadership 0.205 points. The log-transformed transformational leadership did not change based on work experience, increased 0.012 points for level of education, and decreased 0.005 points based on gender. As this conclusion's basis is on log-transformed data, the corresponding scaling factor would be 1.603 for transformational leadership. This implies that for each 1 point increase in organizational justice corresponds to 60.3% increase. The demographic data of the participants are not significantly related to transformational leadership. Organizational justice is a significant predictor of transformational leadership; thus, H_0 was rejected.

Table 6

Regression Model 2 with Transformational Leadership as Dependent Variable

		β	t	p
Model 2	Organizational Justice	.204	14.338	.000*
	Work Experience	.000	-.027	.978
	Level of Education	.012	.531	.596
	Gender	-.005	.022	.807

$R^2 = .556$, Adj. $R^2 = .555$, SE = .115, * $p < .0001$

Summary of the Findings

This study's purpose was to determine if there is a relationship between the perceptions of transformational leadership by teachers and organizational justice for ELLs. For the first regression model, the independent variable was organizational justice as measured via survey results

and the dependent variable transformational leadership as measured by teacher surveys. For the second regression model, additional variables of work experience, level of education, and gender were independent variables alongside organizational justice, and the dependent variable was transformational leadership. Schools and teachers in this study were randomly selected and contacted through publicly available emails. The researcher contacted a total of 2500 teachers. 303 replied to the survey, but only 163 of these had completed the survey or a 6.5% response rate. Colquitt's (2001) OJS and Bass and Avolio's (1999) MLQ5X assessed the constructs. Analysis of the data collected indicates the organizational justice in the school is a significant predictor of transformational leadership and includes taking into account the demographics of the sample.

Table 7

Hypothesis and Results

Hypothesis	Supported?
Hypothesis: Organizational justice for ELLs in schools is a significant predictor for teachers' perceptions of transformational leadership.	Yes. According to the data, a 1 point increase in organizational justice on the OJS resulted in a statistically significant increase of 60% in transformational leadership. Thus, we can reject the null hypothesis (H_0) and accept the hypothesis (H_1)

Theoretical Implications

Since Greenberg (1987) introduced organizational justice, numerous studies have found relationships between justice in schools and teacher motivation, efficacy, and trust (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Additionally, there have been studies showing a link between overall student achievement and organizational justice (Kazemi, 2016). The review of the literature showed that organizational justice has some mediated influence on the academic success of ELLs.

Transformational leadership informed this study by providing a framework for understanding how principals implement change in their schools. As with organizational justice, numerous studies have shown a positive relationship between transformational leadership and teacher motivation, efficacy, and trust. Sun and Leithwood (2012) were able to show a significant, all be it small, the effect on student achievement. This effect carries over to the ELL population (Irizarry & Williams, 2013).

Researchers have stated that school reform requires transformational leadership behaviors (Geijsel et al., 2003; Sun & Leithwood, 2017) and justice within the school (DeMatthews et al., 2017; Zeinabadi, 2014). Teacher motivation is a significant component of school reform (Geijsel et al., 2003). However, there have not been a significant number of studies to find the relationships between transformational leadership and organizational justice despite calls to do so. Researchers should consider the role of justice should as they study leadership theory. The researcher sought to bridge this gap in the literature and determine if a relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice exists.

The findings for the research question showed that organizational justice was a predictor for teacher perceptions of transformational leadership. The results of this study align with those of previous studies. De Cremer et al. (2007) surveyed 257 Dutch students and professionals about the relationship between organizational justice and transformational leadership that the participants interpreted from a given scenario. The authors found that organizational justice was a predictor of transformational leadership, and that interactional justice (a combination of interpersonal justice and informational justice) was the sole significant predictor with all variables combined in a hierarchical regression analysis. Gillet et al., (2013), in a study of 343 French nurses, found that organizational justice mediates transformational leadership's effect on the

quality of work-life through distributive and interactional justice only. There is evidence that the link between organizational justice and transformational leadership may exist on a neurological level (Wang, 2018). This study used a regression model and found that organizational justice acts as a significant predictor of transformational leadership perceptions. Also, the test results indicate that organizational justice may account for 56% of these perceptions. These findings support other studies mentioned in the literature review, which propose a significant relationship between justice and leadership theories (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; De Cremer, 2006). Followers view justice-minded leaders as more transformational as they provide precise and open procedures (Ngodo, 2008). This study extends this research into a specific area, especially the ESOL programs and ELL policies.

However, the researcher was not able to account for the remaining 44% of the relationship. This percentage suggests that there are unknown variables that impact teacher perceptions of transformational leadership. There are several external factors (population characteristics, environment, and time) and internal factors (personal beliefs and values, intelligence, and disposition) can play a role in how leaders are perceived (Lynch, 1999). Gay and Airasian (2003) state that the relationship between leadership evaluation and the evaluators are affected the emotions of the evaluators, the personal relationship between the leadership and the evaluators, the specific evaluator's personality, and job satisfaction. Motivation and trust are both found to be predictors of job satisfaction (Latham & Pinder, 2005), morale (Lambersky, 2016), and resistance to new policies or policy changes (Geijsel et al., 2003). With so many contributing factors that impact teacher's perceptions of transformational leadership, it would be beneficial for future research to include these other factors that affect transformational leadership's perception.

To conclude, leadership and justice research are, and continue to be, vital areas of study in education (Sabbagh & Resh, 2016). This study has demonstrated the relationship between the constructs of transformational leadership and organizational justice through teacher perceptions. If we are to improve academic success for ELLs, then research on effective leadership behaviors needs to include the impact of organizational justice within its framework.

Practical Implications

Since 1968, with the enactment of the Bilingual Education Act, the government has recognized the specific needs of ELLs and implemented laws to help assure that schools meet their needs. Meeting the academic needs of ELLs continue to be emphasized through other significant reforms, such as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 and the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015. Recent laws have placed particular emphasis on increasing student achievement and accountability for all students. During the same time, the role of the principal as an instructional leader, as opposed to a facility manager, has expanded (Farley-Ripple et al., 2017). The demand for schools to improve and meet data-driven goals continues to increase, with many principals struggling to meet the goals set for their ELL population. While teachers shoulder most of the load for meeting these demands, the principal's style of leadership can influence teachers, thereby affecting ELL achievement. To this end, principals would be wise to consider the use of transformational leadership behaviors to bring about change. The literature notes several ways that principals improve their transformational leadership skills. Kurland et al. (2010) suggest that principals need job-embedded professional development to become more effective transformational leaders. Quin et al. (2015) recommend that principal preparation programs incorporate transformational leadership models along with a prescribed set of behaviors. Day et al. (2016) propose that principals need to tailor their leadership styles to meet the school's unique needs. To

further support ELL academic achievement, leaders should take into consideration the use of organizational justice. Taking the time to train principals to be more transformational in their leadership style is beneficial. One suggestion from the findings of this study would be to incorporate organizational justice into these training programs. As the relationship between teachers and principals is the basis for the perceptions of leadership (Minckler, 2014; Wagner & DiPaola, 2011), training programs should also account for the time it takes to grow trust within a staff.

There is a growing area of study into how organizational justice, and justice in general, can be applied through school leadership faithfully (Kazemi, 2016). One suggestion would be that principals obtain input from teachers around areas of need, followed by implementation of organizational justice reforms where procedures, resource distribution, and information are clearly defined and explained. The findings of this study do not state which methods may be best at enacting justice in schools but highlight their importance.

The literature review provided some connections between the different dimensions of transformational leadership and the elements of organizational justice. De Cremer (2006) found that procedural justice has a high impact on the emotive state of employees and exaggerated by transformational leadership behaviors. According to Kovačević et al. (2012), procedural justice was mediated by the motivation to impact student achievement. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) noted that authentic transformational leaders must foster distributive justice, along with liberty and utility. Cho and Dansereau (2010) linked interpersonal and informational justice (as part of interactional justice) to an increase in teacher motivation. These studies, along with this study's findings, highlight a need for principals to include a relationship-building component into a change in practice. A healthy relationship between leadership and teachers is needed as multiple studies continue to show that principals have indirect impacts on students that mediates through

various teacher characteristics (Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Scanlan & Lopez, 2012; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015). As such, the researcher recommends any principal who looks to reform or improves conditions for students must take care to build relationships with staff. This should be done through the efforts of teachers by providing the necessary tools to meet the goals of the ESL program.

As similarly determined in previous studies (Daly et al., 2014), when investigating the differences and changes in variables, including multiple factors, increases the finding's generalizability. Therefore, the independent variables included the respondents' gender, work experience, and educational level, along with organizational justice in regression model 2. The current study showed that gender, work experience, and level of education were not a factor in perceptions of transformational leadership. These findings are consistent with previous studies in the field (Barbuto et al., 2007). The literature does suggest that training can make principals better able to assess the needs of a school, get the staff to understand the vision, and make changes to address the school's needs (Kurland et al., 2010; Quin et al., 2015; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Raftar-Ozery, 2018). Training and education also improve how teachers serve ELLs. However, these factors only account for 56% of the variation in the results seen. The unknown variation means there is significant work that leadership can do to improve their perception as transformational. Specific programs, methods, and district policies were not examined in this study, nor were the average ACCESS level of ELLs for these schools.

In terms of leadership practice, many school systems may want to consider how teachers view their principals in terms of transformational leadership. As change is often spearheaded by principals, the perceptions and commitment of the teachers for the change are needed for any new program's success. Justice for ELLs impacts the perceptions of transformational leadership,

so perhaps the efforts to improve ELL success will translate into a commitment to other initiatives.

Policy Implications

ELLs continue to be underserved in schools. Principals continue to search for ways to improve the performance of ELLs, especially with their increasing number in the country and more vocal calls to address their needs. The literature review described the call for action by principals to bring the change in policy and teacher actions needed for ELLs to succeed and that the failure to do so could lead to a continued decline for ELLs. There has also been an increase in the demand for principals to make the changes necessary for improvement to happen (Quin et al., 2015). Academic researchers have been calling for changes to how policy should reflect the needs of ELLs (DeMatthews et al., 2017; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Organizational justice and transformational leadership are two tools that leaders can use to implement change in school policy. This study provides evidence that the two are linked – that leaders need to consider the needs of ELLs and provide them with a more equitable school environment. School districts should provide clear procedures with adequate funding and resources to meet the needs of ELLs. Previous research has shown that this is often not the case (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011), and schools continue to struggle to meet the needs of ELLs.

Barriers encountered by schools complicate policy for ELLs. Barriers like financial constraints, state regulations, and lack of staff support or knowledge can be challenging for any principal (Theoharis, 2007). This research, along with that of others (DeMatthews et al., 2017; Reeves & Van Tuyle, 2014), show that enacting open and fair policies, listening and building trust with staff, and providing resources and knowledge in an equitable way can make a differ-

ence. According to Téllez and Manthey (2015), teachers tend to rate their ability to provide a high-quality education for ELLs as low. The authors found that if teachers understood the policy and confidence in their abilities to incorporate the strategies of the ESOL policy, then teachers believed the opposite. They concluded that it did not matter if teachers were confident in the program, just that they understood it and had efficacy. Policy needs to be governed by the needs of the ELLs, and leaders should focus on access to resources and support to and by teachers (DeMatthews et al., 2017; Theoharis, 2007). The focus of principals should not be on student achievement, but on what can be done to improve the teacher's ability in the classroom. Training and support of teachers can lead to increased teacher efficacy and is recommended.

The research linking organizational justice and ELLs is limited but promising. The world of ELL education is complicated by a lack of resources, funds, clarity, priorities, and guidance. Principals are asked to close the achievement gap for ELLs but need pathways to do so. The results of this study show how transformational leadership and organizational justice work together to support and improve education for ELLs in the southeastern United States. Improving organizational justice in the school will both improve the motivation of teachers of ELLs in the classroom and the perceptions of leadership by teachers. As the perceptions of justice can change over time, leaders should never feel comfortable with their program selection. Leaders should constantly evaluate the ESL program, listen to the concerns of all stakeholders, and use innovative techniques to meet the needs of ELLs. This study supports the need for school districts to provide training to principals and support them as they build their capacity to motivate and inspire teachers. Making use of transformational leadership and organizational justice in schools leads to effective teaching methods that increase ELL achievement and set students up for success later in life and functional and productive members of society.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of this study provide an understanding of the relationship between organizational justice for ELLs and teacher perceptions of transformational leadership by examining these effects at the school level. The results of this study provide valuable insight for researchers and educators around transformational leadership and organizational justice. Like all research, there are limitations to the findings. These limitations provide future researcher areas where additional investigations are encouraged.

First, the results of this study show organizational justice as a predictor for transformational leadership. However, this study did not take into account the effects over time. More prolonged exposure to organizational justice within the school could strengthen the relationship. However, it is possible that as the perception of the procedures, distribution, information, and relationships become routine, they become more mundane, leading to a lower impact.

While the literature review promotes the benefits of transformational leadership and its positive relationship between leadership and teachers, not all transformational leaders operate positively. Transformational leaders can act through more destructive methods to manipulate staff to the benefit of their goals. Coercion, deceitfulness, and quid pro quo are some of the methods used by these leaders (Tucker & Russell, 2004). Because of these possible characteristics, teachers may not rate their principals by positive transformational leadership behaviors.

Similar to the possible negative characteristics, teachers may not know what the transformational characteristics are, or how to identify them. While this study did not show a significant relationship between the education level of teachers and their perception of leaders as transformational, this is not to suggest that the specific increase in education does not lead to better

understanding of transformational leadership. Additional investigations would be needed to make that determination.

Both transformational leadership and organizational justice were measured solely through teacher surveys. Principals did not self-evaluate, and only the data included only teacher responses. The possibility of bias presents itself when employees rate their leader. Surveys present issues with data collection and bias of the respondents (Gay & Airasian, 2003), and this is possible in this study as well. One way to look at bias would be to ask for the principal's responses as well. Comparing the responses from principal self-evaluations and those of teachers could be used to indicate this, as their perceptions may not match.

It is possible that common-method variables impacted the study and influenced the results. Various means mediate the variables identified in this study. These relationships were not measured, nor were they considered to change over time. The results are from a single instance. Being in a school with ELLs and comprehensive, clear policy is not enough to determine what caused the teacher to enact the policy. A study to determine what factors were involved in the teacher's decision to implement a specific policy to help ELLs could be useful.

Finally, use caution with extrapolation of these results from the sample population to the general population. The participants were randomly selected from a large area of northern Georgia. Their participation was voluntary and only collected from a single moment in time (Fall, 2019) and only represents a single data point. Quantitative studies, such as this, do not allow participants to explain their reasoning and choices. Elaboration and extrapolation of the participants were not allowed.

Recommendations for Future Inquiry

After an extensive review of the literature, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, the research and findings provided in this dissertation are unique. It provides the first study in the relationship between organizational justice for ELLs and teacher's perceptions of transformational leadership. The findings offer areas for additional inquiry and research. Based on this study, the researcher proposes the following recommendations for future research:

1. The four elements of organizational justice were not segmented out, and their individual effects on transformational leadership are not known. A future study could look at these elements and their impact on transformational leadership as a whole or its dimensions.
2. A sufficient link between OCBs and justice, leadership, and ELL research does not exist. A study confirming a link would be beneficial.
3. This study collected and used the demographics of gender, work experience, and education level of the respondents. A study accounting for other demographics, such as race, could help provide external validity to these findings.
4. Random sampling was the collection method for the sample population. A study purposefully sampling schools with significant ELL population, or those that better represent the state, or national average, could confirm the findings in this study.
5. Only north Georgia school districts were in this study. Incorporating a diverse geographic region could increase the applicability of these findings to the general population, as well as increase our understanding of this study's findings in multiple contexts.
6. The data included the ELL population about each respondent's school. However, there is no accounting for specific language requirements and ACCESS levels for the students in this study. As the majority of ELLs in Georgia are Spanish speaking, many teachers and

resources place a focus on this population. Increasing the diversity of the non-native speakers, perhaps through international studies, would extend these findings to a more diverse group of learners.

7. A follow-up study could see if these perceptions have changed. It would be beneficial to determine if there are shifts in the perceptions of teachers after justice reforms become more widespread, specifically considering recent changes in the application of education policy.
8. This study used a quantitative methodology. A qualitative or mixed methods study would provide greater insight, more detail, and clarity for this study. Likewise, understanding the specific teaching methods used by teachers to implement ELL success would be beneficial.
9. Organizational justice may be a mediator for transformational leadership to teacher motivation and trust. Future research could explore this possibility.
10. Transformational leadership is the only leadership theory considered in this study. Future research should explore other leadership theories.

Conclusions

If we are to improve the conditions and improve academic achievement for ELLs, then education may need a revival. "Social justice is always helped by revival..." (Allen, 1967, p.297). Many years have passed since the federal government recognized a need to meet the needs of ELLs, and the Supreme Court of the United States confirmed this. Swanson et al. (2014) state that ELLs can be just as successful as their native-speaking counterparts. The authors continue that we keep failing to meet the needs of these students, often falling short of the goals of the policies and laws. There is limited research into the importance of organizational

justice for accomplishing the authors' goals and breaking barriers in the system. However, what research exists tends to agree – ELLs benefit from improved organizational justice.

The results of this study showed that organizational justice for ELLs in schools is a significant predictor of transformational leadership perceptions by teachers. This study did not find a significant link between the participants' gender, work experience, or level of education. Leaders can use this information to drive policy reforms with ELLs in mind, connecting the effects of a policy-oriented by organizational justice and the measurable changes in the views of the principal's behavior. Pillai et al. (1999) indicate that leadership and justice play a vital role in determining how employees view their job.

Sabbagh and Resh (2016) state that there remains a significant portion of scholarly research into justice in education that is ignored or neglected even though the need growing. This study strengthens research as it attempts to connect leadership and justice theories. There is a positive, significant relationship between organizational justice and transformational leadership. Both of these constructs act through teacher motivation, teacher efficacy, trust, and a sense of equity or justice – all of which have direct impacts on the achievement of the general student population and specifically the ELL population. This study provides additional methods for school districts to improve the motivation and trust within the school. School districts looking to improve the performance of their students may want to consider implementing more organizational justice behaviors. The goal is to improve student achievement through teachers. Therefore “we must have the experience, we must have the know-how, we must have the chance to really establish the young men in their ... endeavor” (Cotton, 1958). Districts can accomplish this through training and building open and trusting relationships with their staff. Lastly, this study adds to the research for justice education for ELLs, the connections between transformational

leadership and organizational justice provides a meaningful path to meet the laws, policies, and most importantly – needs – of ELLs.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

My principal instills pride in me for being associated with him/her.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
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My principal goes beyond the self-interest for the good of the group.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
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My principal acts in ways that builds my respect.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal displays a sense of power and confidence.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal talks optimistically about the future.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal articulates a compelling vision of the future.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal spends time teaching and coaching.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal helps me to develop my strengths.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
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My principal re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
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My principal seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal gets me to look at problems from many different angles.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

My principal suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.

Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	----------------------------	-------------------	-------------------

Appendix B: Organizational Justice Scale

To what extent have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures governing the academic outcomes for ELLs in your school?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent have you had influence over the academic outcomes of ELLs arrived at by their governing procedures?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent have the procedures governing the academic outcomes of ELLs been applied consistently?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent have the procedures governing the academic outcomes of ELLs been free of bias?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent have the procedures governing the academic outcomes of ELLs been based on accurate information?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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To what extent have you been able to appeal the academic outcomes of ELLs arrived at by their governing procedures?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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To what extent have the procedures governing the academic outcomes of ELLs upheld ethical and moral standards?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent do your academic outcomes for ELLs reflect the effort you have put into your work?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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To what extent are your academic outcomes for ELLs appropriate for the work you have completed?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent do your academic outcomes for ELLs reflect what you have contributed to the organization?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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To what extent are your academic outcomes for ELLs justified, given your performance?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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To what extent has your principal treated you in a polite manner?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent has your principal treated you with dignity?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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To what extent has your principal treated you with respect?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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To what extent has your principal refrained from improper remarks or comments?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent has your principal been candid in his/her communications with you?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent has your principal explained the procedures thoroughly?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent were your principal's explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent has your principal communicated details in a timely manner?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
----------------------	-----------------	----------------	-----------------------	------------

To what extent has your principal seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?

To very great extent	To great extent	To some extent	To very little extent	Not at all
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Appendix C: Teacher Email

Dear Teacher,

My name is Graham Oakley, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Policy Studies at Georgia State University. I am contacting you because of your teaching role with English Language Learners. The purpose of this research study is to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice for English language learners. I would like to ask you to participate in a 10 minute online survey regarding your experience. This research will not benefit you personally. However, knowledge obtained can be used by district leadership and other systems engaging in similar activities, thus benefiting society. The research will be conducted remotely via the internet at a place of your choosing. Linked at the bottom of this email is the consent form with information about the study and detailed information regarding participation. Please read the consent form and decide whether you would like to participate in this study. If you are interested in participating, please click the link below.

Thank you,
Graham Oakley

Follow this link to the Survey:

[\\${1://SurveyLink?d=Take the Survey}](#)

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:

[\\${1://SurveyURL}](#)

Follow the link to opt out of future emails:

[\\${1://OptOutLink?d=Click here to unsubscribe}](#)

Appendix D: Informed Consent

Title: Transforming schools for ELLs: A quantitative study on the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice

Principal Investigator: Dr. Yinying Wang

Student Principal Investigator: Graham Oakley

Introduction and Key Information

You are invited to take part in a research study. It is up to you to decide if you would like to take part in the study.

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship, if any exists, between transformational leadership and organizational justice for English Language Learners.

Your role in the study will last 10 minutes.

You will be asked to do the following: take a 10 minute online survey at a place and time of your choice.

Participating in this study will not expose you to any more risks than you would experience in a typical day.

This study is not designed to benefit you. Overall, we hope to gain information about teacher's perceptions of transformational leadership as it relates to organizational justice for English language learners.

Purpose

The purpose of the study is to determine the relationship, if any exists, between transformational leadership and organizational justice for English Language Learners (ELLs). You are invited to take part in this research study because you are a certified teacher at a large, metropolitan school. A total of approximately 2500 people will be invited to take part in this study.

Procedures

If you decide to participate, you will take a 10 minute online survey at a place and time of your choice.

Future Research

Researchers will not use or distribute your data for future research studies even if identifiers are removed.

Risks

In this study, you will not have any more risks than you would in a normal day of life. No injury is expected from this study, but if you believe you have been harmed, contact the research team as soon as possible. Georgia State University and the research team have not set aside funds to compensate for any injury.

Benefits

This study is not designed to benefit you personally. We hope to gain information about the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational justice as it pertains to ELL academic success. Overall, we hope to add to the body of knowledge on leadership and its role in influencing justice in schools.

Alternatives

The alternative to taking part in this study is to not take part in the study.

Voluntary Participation and Withdrawal

You do not have to be in this study. If you decide to be in the study and change your mind, you have the right to drop out at any time. You may skip questions or stop participating at any time. You may refuse to take part in the study or stop at any time. This will not cause you to lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Confidentiality

We will keep your records private to the extent allowed by law. The following people and entities will have access to the information you provide:

- Dr. Yinying Wang
- Graham Oakley
- GSU Institutional Review Board
- Office for Human Research Protection (OHRP)

We will use a survey number rather than your name on study records. The information you provide will be collected and stored in Georgia State University's Qualtrics program. Only the student PI and PI will have access to the password-protected Qualtrics account. Data will be destroyed three years after the conclusion of the study. When we present or publish the results of this study, we will not use your name or other information that may identify you.

You should be aware that data sent over the Internet may not be secure.

Contact Information

Contact Dr. Yinying Wang at 404-413-8291 or ywang103@gsuu.edu

Graham Oakley at XXX-XXX-XXXX or goakley1@gsu.edu

- If you have questions about the study or your part in it
- If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about the study

The IRB at Georgia State University reviews all research that involves human participants. You can contact the IRB if you would like to speak to someone who is not involved directly with the study. You can contact the IRB for questions, concerns, problems, information, input, or questions about your rights as a research participant. Contact the IRB at 404-413-3500 or irb@gsu.edu.

Consent

Please save and/or print a copy of this page for your records.

If you consent and are willing to volunteer for this research, please click the [CONTINUE] button below.