THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL STRUCTURE AND COLLECTIVE STUDENT TRUST IN TEACHERS

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TRUST IN TEACHERS

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my two beautiful daughters, my loving mother, and my amazing husband who so unconditionally supported my walk down this path at different times throughout the 10 year long journey. Each of them played a special role in the accomplishment of this study and writing. To my daughters, I say to you – know who you are and devote yourself to life-long learning without ever losing sight of your end goals. Surround yourself with wisdom in order to grow wise, and allow others to push you – as you never know when you just might fly. Mom, thank you for all that you are and all that you do. You are my encouraging light at the end of every tunnel. And to the most amazing husband in the universe, hold on tight, because we have just begun to write our story. I am so thankful that this broken road has lead me straight to you.

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Abstract:

An awareness of the importance of trust as a cultural component of schools is growing among school administrators who seek to improve student outcomes; therefore, it is important to note that relatively little effort has been made to study student trust in teachers. Evidence suggests that trust is a necessary feature of effective, cooperative interactions within schools that lead to improved teaching and learning in the relationship between superintendents and boards, principals and teachers, parents and schools, students and parents, and students and teachers. An enabling bureaucracy is a structure that is helpful and leads to problem-solving among members rather than rigid coercive activities that demand conformity.

The purpose of this study was to test the relationship between enabling school structures and the formation of collective student trust. This study was built upon the extensive research by Adams and Forsyth on their generalized model of the formation of collective student trust. Quantitative survey data were collected from teachers and students in 72 elementary and secondary school sites within a large urban district. Students from the 5^{th}, 7^{th}, 9^{th}, and 11^{th} grades were randomly sampled.

Understanding enabling school structures through the lens of the self-determination theory indicates that schools with enabling structures have the potential to promote teacher perceptions of autonomy, competence, and relatedness which can lead to the promotion and encouragement of authentic and trusting relationships between teachers and their students. While results of the study indicate that these conditions do not directly or significantly relate to the formation of student trust, there is evidence that enabling structures lends to an environment of relationally supportive teaching and learning conditions. Findings from this study suggest that teacher-student relationships of trust can exist beyond or regardless of how restrictive, rule-binding or hindering the structures have been established. The study further finds that external factors such as minority status and economic status can impact the development of student-teacher trust.

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CHAPTER I

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL STRUCTURE AND COLLECTIVE STUDENT TRUST IN TEACHERS

Introduction

An awareness of the importance of trust as a cultural component of schools is growing (Adams, 2008, 2014; Adams & Forsyth, 2009; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth, 2008, 2013). Evidence suggests that trust is a necessary feature of effective, cooperative interactions within schools that lead to improved teaching and learning in the relationship between superintendents and boards, principals and teachers, parents and schools, students and parents, and students and teachers (Adams, 2009, 2013, 2014; Adams, & Christienson, 2000; Bromily & Comings, 1996; Butler, 1991; Coleman, J., 1990; DaCosta, J.L., & Riordan, 1996; Edwards, Ellis, Saifer, & Stuczynski, 2010; Glatthorn, 1992; Goddard, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Brissie, 1987; Hoy & Sweetland, 2001; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Mishra, 1996; Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Tschannen-Moran (2004) asserted that trust matters for school performance.

Bryk and Schneider (2002) contended that schools are likely to make the kinds of changes that help raise student achievement when there is a high degree of relational trust. In particular, where trust and cooperative adult efforts are strong, students experience greater academic challenge and have a greater sense of well-being (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). In these circumstances, students report that they feel safe and that they have a sense that teachers care about them (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Sebing & Bryk, 2000). When schools work within the

current policy environment to build and sustain trust within teacher and parent role groups, they are more likely to build and sustain healthy learning environments (Adams & Forsyth, 2007, 2013; Forsyth, Barnes & Adams, 2006) that lead to successful school reform (Ainscow, 2013; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Seashore-Louis, 2007) and student achievement (Casper 2012, Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy 2001; Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2006).

Three studies of trust in schools (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Goddard et al. , 2001; Hoy, 2002) demonstrated the power of faculty trust in parents and students to explain differences in student achievement. Research by Goddard et al. (2001) showed a direct, positive relationship between faculty trust in students and parents and higher student achievement in elementary schools, leading Goddard to assert that trust is an important organizational property that can overcome some of the political and social challenges schools face. This finding is important as schools today struggle to meet the challenges posed by new academic standards, teacher shortages, new testing requirements, evaluation procedures, and deep budget cuts. Hoy and Sweetland (2002) found a strong relationship between trust in clients (students and parents) and student achievement in a sample of 97 high schools. Finally, Bryk and Schneider (2002) in a three-year study of Chicago elementary schools found trust among teachers, parents, and students produced schools that were more likely to demonstrate substantial gains in student achievement, whereas, schools with weak trust relationships saw virtually no improvement in the achievement scores of their students.

Similar to the achievement effects of faculty trust, student trust has emerged as a predictor of student achievement. Romero (2012) found that trust in teachers was associated with better academic performance. Casper (2012) found the collective student trust in teachers accounted for student differences in reading and math achievement. Adams (2014) found that collective student trust was associated with stronger student identification with school and student achievement. Given the potential of student trust to influence student achievement, it is incumbent on researchers to investigate school conditions that lead students to trust their teachers.

Enabling School Structures

The term "enabling school structure" is a term that has recently been developed and operationalized in the literature. Hoy and Sweetland (2000, 2001) adopted terminology from Adler and Borys's (1996) research on organizations, to describe school bureaucracy as being *enabling* or *coercive*. An enabling bureaucracy is a structure that is helpful and leads to problem-solving among members rather than rigid coercive activities that demand conformity. The researchers used the term "enabling bureaucracy" until the term "enabling school structures" evolved. Hoy and Sweetland (2000, 2001) indicated that in schools an enabling school structure motivates teachers, creates healthier working environments, and allows hierarchical authority to coexist with processes affecting daily instruction. School structures ripe for the formation of trust include behaviors and conditions promoting problem-solving, innovation, and collaboration through supportive policies and procedures (Hoy & Hoy, 2013).

Problem Statement

Student-teacher relationships are important to student success. Students' perceptions of interpersonal connectedness to others and a sense of belonging to the school culture are associated with trust and may lead to academic engagement and psychological well-being (Goodenow & Grady, 1992; Hoy & Miskel, 2013; Wentzel, 1994). Enabling school structure is a likely feature of the internal context that has consequences for student trust in teachers.

Even when student/teacher relationships are high at the school level, outcomes are not always positive. Evidence of sources of student trust is particularly important in the urban context. Urban schools are often painted with broad strokes as being inhospitable and lacking in nurturing relationships that lead students to internalize the value of school and to engage in the educational process (Noguera 2008, Kozol, 2005). Although accountability and external pressure are dominant policy tools to bring about urban school improvement, these strategies neglect the human and social nature of learning. For social conditions such as trust to be viable improvement targets in urban schools, evidence is needed that describes its formation. With this noted

potential of student trust to influence student achievement, it is imperative that researchers investigate school conditions that lead students to trust their teachers.

While investigations on trust in schools and the formation of student trust have occurred to a limited degree, no evidence exists on the role of social conditions in shaping student trust. Findings in the literature indicate plausibility that enabling school structure promotes the collective student trust necessary for positive student outcomes. For example, findings indicate that structural, cultural, and individual characteristics of teachers and schools influence student perceptions of belonging (Adams & Forsyth, 2009). Brown (2004) noted the importance of teachers developing personal, respectful, and caring relationships with students in order to create a safe place for them to learn where they are likely to take risks, laugh, and trust their teacher. However, little is known about whether these characteristics actually influence collective student trust in teachers. Understanding the relationship between enabling school structures and collective student trust in teachers may promote understandings of school conditions that leaders can promote in order to facilitate the development of collective student trust. Understanding factors that influence the development of student trust is important as schools struggle to rise to the challenge of preparing all students for a changing world (Ravitch, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to understand the relationship between school structure and collective student trust in teachers. The results of this researchmay have practical implications for developing strategies to support the formation of positive student-teacher interactions. The primary research questions guiding this study follow:

(A) Do Enabling School Structures (ESS) predict differences in Collective Student Trust?

(B) If a relationship is found, what is the relationship of selected Enabling School Structures (ESS) or conditions related to the levels of Collective Student Trust (CST)?

Theoretical Framework

Self-determination theory (SDT) is the theoretical framework for this study. SDT describes an environment conducive to facilitating motivation and one that supports individuals' inherent needs for autonomy by providing choice and minimizing the use of controls (Deci & Ryan, 2011, 1985). The theory focuses on the degree to which human behavior is spontaneous and an act of free-will. SDT proposes differentiation among levels of self-regulated behavior through a larger conceptual model that combines organismic integration theory, cognitive evaluation theory, and psychological needs theory (Deci & Ryan, 2011; Reeve, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Reeve, Ryan, Deci & Jang, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Research focusing on self-determination theory has shown that teachers who have autonomy and a competence supporting style (rather than a controlling style) facilitate self-determination and intrinsic motivation in their students. Instructional styles that support students' psychological needs have positive consequences for teacher-student relationships and student engagement in learning (Lawman & Wilson, 2013; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009). Teachers and schools, however, vary in their ability to deliver learning in ways that support student autonomy, competency, and self-regulated behavior. Better grades and less likelihood of dropout, as well as positive emotions, more prolonged effort, and learning centered on comprehension are associated with these types of motivation (Reeve et al., 2004; Ryan & Brown, 2005; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009).

Researchers Pelletier and Sharp (2009), sought to understand why some teachers were supportive of autonomy while others were controlling. When proposing this question in the social context of the school setting, they determined that the school administration can thwart

teachers' autonomy by establishing a climate of control. This, in turn, leads teachers to be less autonomous, with correlation to negative results on teacher behaviors (Lawman & Wilson, 2013; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009). The educational pressures on teachers' interpersonal behaviors affect the students' motivation while reciprocally, the teachers are also affected by the students' behaviors. The educational and administrative pressures could be referred to as *pressure from above*, such as time constraints, high standards of achievement, or curriculum constraints (Pelletier et al., 2002; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009).

The enhancement of one's feelings of volition and the promotion of one's perceived internal locus of control may lead to a climate that meets another's psychological needs, interests, and values. Reeve and Jang (2006) established that this autonomy-supportive style allows for teachers to be responsive, supportive, explicative, and open to student-driven discussion. In contrast, controlling teachers utilize pressure (e.g. threats, criticisms, sarcasm) and refuse to allow students to voice opinions or work at their own pace in order to control student motivation (Assor et al., 2005).

In a study of 254 teachers, Pelletier et al. (2002) found that the more teachers felt pressured or controlled, the less self-determined was their work motivation and in turn, the less student autonomy they allowed. The discussion of this study points to controlling school conditions and pressures that may directly affect teachers' behaviors and motivation, which in turn may lead to a more controlling environment for their students. Grolnick and Apostoleris (2002) similarly studied the positive effects of autonomy support and negative effects of adult control on children. In their *Handbook of Self-Determination Theory (2002)*, Grolnick and Apostoleris sought to understand what makes parents controlling. Specifically, the authors pointed to evidence confirming that controlling parents are likely to create an external perceived locus of control in their children and to undermine their children's confidence in their own abilities. However, children who perceived their parents as autonomy-supportive exhibited more autonomous self-regulation, higher perceived competence, and higher school achievement (Deci

& Ryan, 2013; Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Grolnick & Apstoleris, 2002). Much like in the Pelletier study of 2002, researchers found that a perceived notion of internal or external pressures on adults can lead to controlling environments for children and can undermine a child's motivation. This idea is consistent with self-determination theory and the concept that when children's autonomy is supported, they feel valued, encouraged to solve their own problems, share their own perspectives, and take ownership of their own performance (Deci & Ryan, 2013; Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991).

Acting autonomously or in a self-regulated manner implies being self-governing or acting on one's own volition. These actions are freely endorsed and based on an individual's values and interests; therefore, the perceived locus of causality for these actions is internal (de Charms, 1968; Soenens and Vansteenkiste, 2005). Controlled self-regulation implies that an individual feels pressured to participate in an activity. External pressures, such as rewards for participation, may lead to a perceived external locus of causality. The locus of causality determines the motivation behind one's individual actions. In other words, the external environment influences the psychological state that motivates self-determined behavior (Soenens and Vansteenkiste, 2005).

Self-determination theory provides a clear understanding of the origination of motivation. An autonomy-supportive environment lends itself to an increase in trust because students are able to identify with the teacher and the purpose of the teaching. When teachers meet students' psychological needs, students become willing to risk vulnerability. Teacher openness to student-initiated discussion and interaction will lead to the students feeling that their teachers have their best interests at heart. This, coupled with a teacher's willingness to respond consistently and honestly to their needs, will lead to students' trust in teachers (Casper, 2012).

Collective student trust in teachers translates directly to thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that are associated with self-determination. An environmental structure created to facilitate shared student perceptions and affect concerning the trustworthiness of the teacher, occasioned by multiple social exchanges over time, will create a sense of collective student trust (Casper, 2012;

Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Self-Determination theory suggests that structure is important, and, more specifically, that structures are the way in which autonomy and self-regulated behavior can be communicated to students (Pelletier & Sharp, 2009).

For this reason, it is hypothesized:

H1: Enabling School Structures predict differences in Collective Student Trust.

H2: The ESS school conditions related to Collective Student Trust are support of professional judgment, innovation, and administrative rules that help rather than hinder.

Definition of Terms

Collective Student Trust (CST). Collective Student Trust (CST) is the shared understanding and normative belief of a student group toward another school group or individual (Adams & Forsyth, 2013; Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Adams and Forsyth (2009) defined collective trust formation in schools as the interplay between sociological and psychological factors that affect a social construction process. Social and individual factors have significant influence on commonly shared beliefs about the trustworthiness of another school group that become part of the social climate of the school (Adams, 2014).

Enabling Schools Structure (ESS). School structures ripe for the formation of trust are those behaviors and conditions promoting problem-solving, innovation, and collaboration through supportive policies and procedures. An enabling school structure motivates teachers, creates healthier working environments, and allows hierarchical authority to coexist with processes affecting daily instruction (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001; Wu, Hoy, & Tarter., 2013). .

Significance

To Practice

Although little is really known about what gives rise to students' trust in teachers, based on the Adams and Forsyth's 2007 study, it is reasonable to suppose that the principal could manage the school in ways that are designed to promote trust. Theoretically, all facets of trust could be affected by the way the principal designs the structures and processes of the school. In a

parallel comparison, the way the teacher designs the structures and processes of the classroom could affect all facets of students' trust.

To Research

A large body of research exists on both collective school trust and enabling school structures; however, the relationship between the two has not been investigated. The researcher believes that enabling school structures can directly affect collective student trust. Given the strong linkages reported in the literature on the effects of internal contexts of schools affecting all of the facets of trust identified in the Collective Trust Model (Adams, 2008), it is likely that enabling school structures will have consequences related to the development of collective student trust in teachers.

To Theory

Results of the research potentially could add to the existing research on collective student trust as it relates to urban classrooms across the country**.** The emphasis on contextual conditions in enabling school structures may help to inform the existing theory regarding the shaping of student trust. The application and further investigation of the theory may have an impact on education as it relates to best practices, professional development, leadership training, and policy development.

Summary

Chapter I introduced collective trust as associated with the potential to influence student achievement, outlining the importance of the identification of school conditions that lead students to trust their teachers. Understanding how school structures and conditions are associated with collective student trust is necessary to promote positive student outcomes. The statement of the problem was provided, and limitations in understanding of the formation of student trust were introduced. Chapter I also provided the purpose and research questions that guided the study. The theoretical framework of

self-determination theory was explained, and definitions of terms were provided. The significance of the research for theory, research and practice as well as limitations of the study were outlined.

Chapter II of the study provides a review of the literature on enabling school structures and the conditions of trust, the five facets of trust, and the formation of trust through the behavioral, cognitive, and affective mechanisms. Self-determination theory is discussed as the theoretical framework for the study and explains that SDT conceptualizes motivation and behavior as a result of the interaction of social and psychological factors. In the educational domain, SDT explains that teachers who support or inhibit students' autonomy affect students' motivation and behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2013; Deci et.al,2001; Reeve et. al., 2004; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009).

Chapter III describes research design and methods. Justification for choice of methods is provided. Included in this chapter is a description of the sample and tools for gathering and analyzing the data. Chapter VI reveals the results of this study. The descriptive statistics are presented in detail, along with an explaination of findings. Tests for homogeneity of variance are explained. Finally, in Chapter V, there is an in-depth discussion and explanation of findings. Implications for both research and practice are addressed by the researcher, who uses her practical experience to connect the findings to practioner application.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Trust Definition, Conditions, and Facets

Trust is intricate and complex; it creates a unique disposition in individuals and organizations (Rotter, 1971). The abstract nature of trust can make it seem difficult to define. Hosmer (1995) acknowledged the complexity in defining trust: "there appears to be wide-spread agreement on the importance of trust in human conduct, but unfortunately, there also appears to be an equally widespread lack of agreement on a suitable definition of the construct" (p. 380). Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) described the task of defining trust as "no simple matter" (p. 181).

The complexity of defining trust is evident in the many different definitions for the concept. Rotter (1971) defined trust as "an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied on" (p. 444). Zand (1971) noted that trusting behaviors increase vulnerability. According to Baier (1994), "To trust is to let another think about and take action to protect and advance something the truster cares about, to let the trusted care for what one cares about" (p. 138). Trust has also been compared to air: it is omnipresent, it is present all around yet it goes without being seen until it is threatened (Baier, 1986; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). Solomon and Flores' definition (2001) agrees with Baier. They note,

> Many people are blind to trust, not so much to its benefits as to its nature and the practices that make it possible. Indeed these practices tend to be invisible, and trust seems

> to most people, most of the time so transparent, so simple, so natural, so unproblematic — except for those special, awful occasions and situations when we are betrayed — that there is nothing much to notice, much less to understand. (p. 53)

In 1978, Gibbs explored the dimensions of trust and their relationship to its development. Gibbs described interdependence, openness, and intimacy as elements of trust. Other characteristics described by Gibbs consisted of being real in the presences of others, freedom of expression, and having confidence without fear of defensiveness from others. The definition used most frequently in school trust studies is by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). They defined trust as, "one party's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the later party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open"(p.189). This definition brings together properties of earlier trust definitions. Specifically, it covers expectations, confidence, and behaviors that evoke trust beliefs. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (2003; 1999) definition of trust will be used for this study.

Conditions of Trust

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's extensive review of the trust literature in psychology, sociology, and economics led them to identify conditions inherent in trust. These conditions include interdependence, vulnerability, and risk. The conditions are general and must be present in any relational context in order for trust to exist (Hoy & Miskel, 2013). If these conditions are not present, the need for trust diminishes.

A necessary condition of trust is interdependence. Interdependence occurs when the interests of one party cannot be achieved without reliance upon another (Rousseau et al., 1998). There is no need for trust where there is no interdependence. The degree of interdependence affects the degree of trust that is needed for a cooperative relationship. For example, the concept of teaching in its most simple form demands interdependence between the teacher and student. Students rely on their teachers to present information in a clear, concise manner and through different modalities so they can comprehend and learn critical concepts and objectives. In return,

teachers rely on students to come to class prepared to learn, to pay attention, and to participate willingly during the lesson.

Vulnerability in most cases of trust relates to power dynamics (Baier, 1986; Coleman, 1990; Deutsch, 1958; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Mishra, 1996; Zand, 1971). Students are vulnerable to teachers because teachers possess formal power and authority. The willingness to risk vulnerability can be described as the willingness to take a chance with a degree of self-assurance one has in the outcome of the situation. An example of vulnerability is a shy or quiet student's acceptance of the challenge to present his project to a classroom of peers, or a group of students participating in a task force to investigate a school-related problem. In both instances, individuals and role groups are vulnerable to those whom they are presenting their work or ideas to. The willingness to be vulnerable has particular significance in schools. Schools depend on cooperative interactions among individuals for the successful functioning of the organization (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

The third condition of trust involves risk. Without risk, there is no trust. The decision maker's perception of the probability of loss is risk (Coleman, 1990; Williamson, 1993). Risk creates an opportunity for trust, which leads to risk taking. Luhmann (1988) regarded trust as an "attitude which allows for risk-taking decisions" (p. 103). Spector and Gibson (1991) regard trust as important for risk taking. They stated, "The more trust students develop, the more willing they are to risk total immersion in an experience…and the more willing they are to take intellectual risks" (p.469). In many trusting situations, risk involves opening up or expressing one's needs consciously or unconsciously in order for these needs to be met. The existence of trust in a classroom can be observed by risk-taking behaviors on the part of students and teachers (Tchannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Facets of Trust

Five facets of trust evolved through studies across many disciplines. These facets provoke a willingness to risk vulnerability; that is, individuals need to perceive the other party as benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open to risk vulnerability (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) argued that although the facets of trust operate systematically, the significance of any facet is individualistic and circumstantial. In order to build trust, attention must be focused on all five of the facets of trust, not just one (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 1999). To illustrate, a sense of confidence and benevolence in students and teachers can increase the perception of trust in a classroom. Honesty and openness in communications can increase trust as well (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).

Benevolence is described as the most common facet of trust. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) noted, "Trust is a sense of benevolence, the confidence that one's well-being or something that one cares about will be protected by the trusted person or group" (p. 187). Benevolence is one of the most enveloping facets of trust for the reason that reciprocated acts of goodwill are imperative to creating and maintaining interpersonal relationships. Often, when parents send their children to school, they trust that their children will be cared for by school personnel. Additionally, students trust that teachers act in their best interest.

Reliability is the ability to count on another person to come through for what is needed. To be reliable is to know that others can expect an individual to act consistently. Reliability is the combination of a sense of predictability and benevolence (Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Hosmer, 1995; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Reliability is described as "the sense that one can consistently depend on another" (Tschannen-Moran, 2003, p. 164). Consistent enforcement of daily classroom rules or routines contributes to perceiving teachers as reliable. In schools, reliability might be demonstrated when the teacher delivers promised incentive rewards to the students or is consistent with expectations of acceptable behavior. People have greater trust when

they feel they can adequately predict the behavior of those in positions above them and that this behavior consistently bears benevolence (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

Competence is having the capability and level of skill to fulfill an expectation (Baier, 1986; Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Mishra, 1996). When one depends on another, there is an expectation that one will perform at a level of quality needed to fulfill that task. Similar to reliability, competence requires the interdependence that another will carry out the duties required to the best of his or her ability. To be perceived as competent, one needs the aptitude and expertise to perform at a satisfactory level. Demonstrated competence increases the probability of a trustworthy relationship; therefore, an individual or group's willingness to trust is often rooted in past experiences that demonstrate one's ability (Kee & Knox, 1970). For example, teachers who trust their principal may become less trusting with hasty decisions or continual negligence from the administration. A teacher's repetition of incorrect answers or unsureness of how to solve a problem maymay lead to less student trust. A history of competent performance by individuals and among groups is paramount to the development of trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Honesty, another facet of trust, is associated with integrity. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2007, 2003, 1999) described honesty as one's character, integrity, and authenticity. Honesty is to accept the consequences of one's actions without bending the truth to avoid blame. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 2003, argued, "Without the confidence that a person's words can be relied upon and that they accurately predict future actions, trust is unlikely to develop" (p. 165). Brewster and Railsback (2003) affirmed that honesty is comprised of a person's character, authenticity, and integrity. To be honest, an individual accepts the responsibility to act in good faith and not to distort the truth. As students build trust with teachers, they have the expectation that teachers will have integrity of word and deed, be authentic, and keep promises. Students expect that teachers will offer them honest feedback with the goal of helping them to be successful learners.

Openness is described as the degree to which information is shared and not kept to oneself. Openness is a process of being translucent, allowing for vulnerability. Openness allows the trustor the self-assurance that the information he/she shares will not be made public (Tschannen-Moran, 2003). When communication is guarded, others can become suspicious of what information is withheld (Brewster & Railsback, 2003). Openness in relation to student trust is about the teacher being present and listening to student concerns. Emotional connections are important for social exchanges in the classroom and if students perceive their teachers are not listening or are inattentive to their concerns they are less likely to believe their teachers are trustworthy (Adams & Forsyth, 2009).

In summary, trust is not automatically provoked by any one facet. Instead, it is the confluence of all facets that have a potential effect on trust beliefs. Within the discernment process, the facets of trust are weighed and judged. If students perceive the behavior of their teachers as open, honest, competent, benevolent, and reliable, then students can expect future teacher behavior will be consistent with these past experiences; hence, their trust will be higher (Adams, 2009).

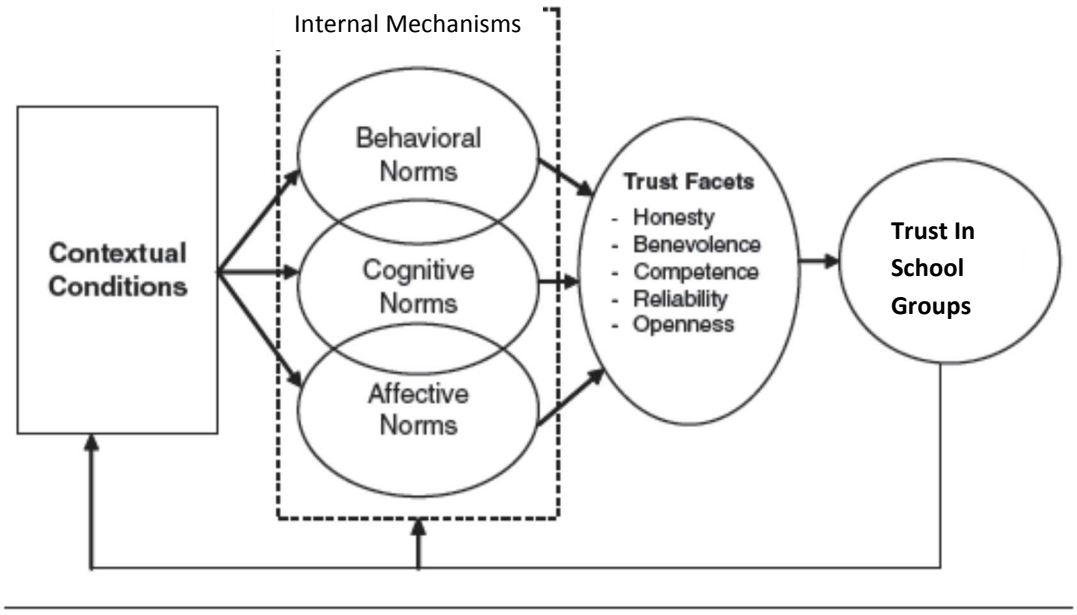
Formation of Trust

Because there is no model for the formation of student trust, the generalized model of trust formation will be used in order to identify general school conditions supportive of trust (Figure 1). Adams (2009, 2013) argued that trust mechanisms operate in the social environment of schools to influence trust discernments of individuals and school groups. The sources of trust formation identified by Adams are classified as behavioral norms, cognitive norms, and affective norms. Further, his model specifies contextual characteristics such as school size, economic status of students, school level, and prior academic performance as having only an indirect effect on trust through its direct effect on the social environment (Forsyth, Adams & Hoy, 2014; Adams, Forsyth, & Mitchell, 2009). This work will use the Adams' model to draw inferences

about plausible sources of student trust. Specifically, evidence on behavioral, cognitive, and affective mechanisms will be examined to understand the behaviors and conditions that give rise to trust.

Figure 1.

A GENERALIZED MODEL OF SCHOOL GROUP TRUST



Behavioral Mechanisms

Research indicates that open, authentic, and cooperative behaviors promote the formation of trust. These behaviors represent mechanisms that are a powerful source of trust, both individually and collectively. For example, a principal who remains open and collaborative is influencing trust through his actions and interactions with teachers (Adams, 2008, 2013.)

Openness is fundamental in the development of trusting relationships among principals and faculty. For trust to occur in an organization, openness is necessary (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Openness creates reciprocal trust among teachers and the principal. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) implied that openness must be high in order for there to be an existence of a

healthy climate and trust. In addition, they found that openness and listening on the part of managers can foster trust.

Openness is essential to different forms of trust in schools. Meaningful, relevant and accurate communication can lead to an elevated level of trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Tartar and Hoy (1988), found in a study of high schools in New Jersey that faculty trust in colleagues and faculty trust in the principal complemented each other. Tartar, Bliss, and Hoy (1989) argued that openness in the relationships between teachers and the principal as well as openness in relationships among teachers were both closely related to the degree of trust in the school. Young and King's (2002) study on principal leadership revealed that successful principals could increase their level of teacher trust through elevated levels of open communication. Gimbel (2003) described open communication and support of teachers by the principal as a key trust building behavior that shapes trusting relationship. By remaining open, visible, and transparent with information, the principal can influence trust.

Authenticity is a second behavior found to build trust. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) defined basic authenticity as "accountability, non-manipulation, and salience of self over role (p.344)." Hoy and Kupersmith (1984) studied principal authenticity and faculty trust in a sample of 45 elementary schools in New Jersey. They found that authentic principals were perceived by teachers as being more trustworthy. Authentic principals were more genuine, consistent in their beliefs and actions, and willing to admit mistakes. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) studied principal authenticity and faculty trust in a sample of 86 middle schools. Researchers showed that facilitating authentic participation by asking for the input of those affected by decisions is a valuable element in the formation of trust. Providing background information necessary for staff to weigh in on decisions, and treating teachers as capable professionals whose insights are valuable supports authentic behavior by principals.

Cooperation and the promotion of structural and normative conditions that support constructive social interactions among teachers comprise the third behavioral mechanism in the formation of trust. To cooperate is to act or work with one another for mutual benefit. Cosner (2009) found through a study of 11 high school principals, that principals who reengineered formal structures to allow for more teacher interaction, space for collaboration, and specific professional development generated high collegial trust. Cooperation and shared inquiry around instructional issues can be fostered by principals in order to leverage a school culture that will build trust (Forsyth, Adams & Hoy, 2011). In a study of 86 middle schools in a northeastern state, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) found that collegial leadership made a strong and significant contribution to faculty trust in the principal. They asserted that the most powerful determinant of trust is the behavior of the trustee. Individuals and groups who act authentically, openly, collegially, and cooperatively are more inclined to elicit trust.

Cognitive and Affective Mechanisms

Cognitive and affective mechanisms represent beliefs and feelings among individuals and/or group members that can give rise to greater social capacity (Hoy, Tarter & Woolfolk Hoy, 2006, Adams, Forsyth & Hoy, 2011). Faculty shared beliefs that rules and regulations along with leaders who support professional discretion and foster problem solving are predictive of principal and colleague trust (Hoy & Sweetland, 2002). Adams and Forsyth (2007) surveyed 580 parents and 545 teachers drawn from 79 schools in one quadrant of a Midwestern state and found that enabling school structure had an effect on parent-school trust, parent-principal trust, and parent collaboration. The authors concluded that when individuals believe structures support the work process, trust is more likely to be present. Enabling structure improves parent perceptions of their involvement and influence, which will promote the formation of parent trust (Casper, 2012).

Two cognitive mechanisms that stand out among others are the concepts of enabling school structures and efficacy. First, enabling school structure represents the belief that school structures support the professional decisions of the teachers. Second, efficacy represents the belief in the capabilities of faculty to advance student learning. Individuals cognitively judge the intentions of others based on social interactions, interpersonal exchanges and socially defined norms (Adams & Forsyth, 2006). Bryk and Schneider (2001) contended that collaboration and school social relations, including student-teacher relationships, are based upon trust. Diverse interests, expectations, and beliefs build the actual social structure of schools. Cognitive discernment of another party that compels the truster to either risk or not to risk vulnerability isbased on the confidence that the trustee will exhibit openness, honesty, competence, reliability and benevolence (Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Collective efficacy beliefs are a "group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 477). Collective teacher efficacy refers to the collective self-perception that teachers in a given school make a greater educational difference to their students than the impact of their homes and communities. Bandura (1993, 1997) was the first to broaden the study of efficacy to include collective beliefs of individuals nested within organizations (Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Forsyth & Adams,). Collective teacher efficacy is a characteristic of schools as experienced by teachers (Schechter & Tschannen-Moran, 2006).

Cohen completed his 1988 study of 168 teachers to determine the relationship between trust and collective efficacy as perceived by all teachers (n=168). All results were statistically significant, and each had a large effect size. Results of the correlation between trust and collective efficacy found $r(166) = .68$, $p<.01$. A strong positive relationship was found between trust and collective efficacy. As indicated by these findings, extending teacher leadership increases collective efficacy, and trust is foundational to both of these constructs. Additionally, a

2011 study out of the University of Akron sought to determine if teacher trust and self-efficacy were related to one another throughout eight Midwestern public schools. After a correlation had been conducted, results showed a positive and significant relationship between trust and self-efficacy (Adams & Forsyth, 2013; Byard, 2001).

Affective Mechanisms, in general, relate to feelings and emotions such as a student's sense of belonging or a teacher's positive commitment to student outcomes. Organizational identification and commitment are two very important affective mechanisms linked to trust in schools. For example, students who identify with school and feel a sense of belonging will naturally have the propensity to trust their teachers (Adams & Forsyth, 2009). Likewise, teacher and parents who are committed to the school are likely to have a stronger sense of trust through emotional attachment (Adams et al., 2009; Tarter et al., 1995). Adams (2010) found that in high-poverty elementary schools, student trust was largely dependent on teachers' trust of students.

Adams and Forsyth (2009) contended that "identifying with the purpose of schooling is easier if the students perceive the relational environment as supportive and caring, not impersonal contentious and unfair" (p.15). One could argue the internal control of normative values in student perceptions and commitment to these values are based upon student-teacher relationships and specifically allow trust to exist (Bankole, 2010). Students' perceptions of interpersonal connectedness to others and a sense of belonging to the school culture are associated with trust and may lead to academic engagement and psychological well-being (Goodenow & Grady, 1992; Wentzel, 1994). Feelings and emotions have a significant effect on the sensitivity of trust; negative feelings make an individual or group apprehensive about risking vulnerability whereas positive ones elicit confidence in the trustee (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Adams and Forsyth (2009) found that strong parent trust in the school had the reciprocal consequence of stronger faculty trust in parents and students. Students, teachers, and parents who identify with and are

committed to the school develop a stronger sense of trust with an emotional attachment (Adams et al., 2009; Tarter et al., 1995).

Emerging from this literature is a clear connection between the various trust mechanisms and the support of trust development. It is evident that behaviors and interactions are the most influential in the formation of trust, and that by creating a fertile environment for cooperative interactions, school leaders can promote the development of trust in schools. Affective and cognitive mechanisms support the specific types of behaviors that are necessary for trust to exist. For example, enabling structures promote interactions and social exchanges around teaching and learning. Collective efficacy underlies the type of behavior needed to persist and adapt to challenges. Connectedness and emotional security enable risk taking. In short, trust forms in environments that make it possible to engage in cooperative interactions.

Enabling School Structure

The review of literature demonstrates how behaviors, cognitive conditions, and affective conditions within the social context of schools shape trust. A very specific condition within the internal context that affects teacher and student interactions is Enabling School Structure (ESS). ESS is the perception in which leadership promotes innovation, collaboration, and trust among participants. Its flexible rules and procedures promote problem-solving (Wu, Hoy,, & Tarter., 2013; Hoy & Sweetland, 2000, 2001).

Hoy and Sweetland (2000, 2001) adopted terminology from Adler and Borys's (1996) research on organizations to describe school bureaucracy as being *enabling* or *coercive*. An enabling bureaucracy is a structure that is helpful and leads to problem-solving among members rather than rigid coercive activities that demand conformity. The researchers used the term enabling bureaucracy until the term enabling school structures evolved. Hoy and Sweetland (2000, 2001) indicated that an enabling school structure motivates teachers, creates healthier

working environments, and allows hierarchical authority to coexist with processes affecting daily instruction.

In a school setting, teachers utilize informal techniques by the exercise of shared beliefs and values, division into cliques, personal relations, and various communication avenues considered outside the formal structure (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2013, 2015; Hoy & Forsyth, 1986; Hoy & Miskel, 1996). In virtually every school district across the country, teacher lounges, workrooms, lunchrooms, and hallways are steadily filled with informal conversation that can become the "business of the school," equipped with agendas and political motives (Hoy & Miskel, 2013, 1996). Hoy and Miskel insisted that the impact of informal on formal can be constructive or destructive and is not an enemy by itself; rather, it is to be shared, monitored, and incorporated to impact the organization and becomes an identifiable "climate."

In an enabling hierarchy, shared decision making is likely a strategy of the principal who seeks teacher participation. Halpin described such enabling behavior of the principal as "open . . . low hindrance" (Halpin, 1966, p. 175). Principals and teachers working together cooperatively is a result of an open climate (Halpin, 1966). In contrast, a hindering hierarchy prevents change and problem solving from occurring and controls the organization in an unyielding, autocratic approach that discourages the member participation. Teachers perceive they have no voice in decisions made when a principal does not encourage teacher input in the decision making process (Wu, J. H., Hoy, W. K., & Tarter, C. J., 2013).

It is important that teachers trust their principal and each other. Hoy and Sweetland summarize that "enabling schools encourage trusting relationships between teachers and between teachers and the principal" (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 314). Moreover, "trust is a key aspect of organizational life; it enables a leader to innovate and deal with resultant confusion that often accompanies change" (Bennis & Nanus in Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 310).

Structure, rules, and procedures define school organizational life for teachers as well as for students. Schools adhere to rigid schedules, teach set curricula, have extensive rules

governing student and teacher behavior, and used standard procedures for everything from school lunch counts to scheduling teacher absences. Bryk and Schneider (2002) found that a set of organizational conditions, some structural and some socio-psychological, that make it more conducive for people to sustain and initiate the kinds of activities necessary to affect productivity improvements, leads to an indirect effect on student achievement and an environment ripe for the formation of trust.

Hoy and Sweetland contended that "school structures vary along a continuum from enabling at one extreme to hindering at the other" (Hoy& Sweetland, 2002, p. 88). An enabling school structure (ESS) describes the teachers' belief that the administration and rules of the school help them in their work. Organizations characterized as enabling structures tend to facilitate problem solving, enable cooperation, protect participants, and encourage collaboration, flexibility, and innovation (Wu, Hoy & Tarter, 2013; Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). Hoy described a model for an enabling structure as "a hierarchy of authority and a system of rules and regulations that help rather than hinder the teaching learning mission of the school" (Hoy, 2002, p. 91). In contrast, a hindering school structure would be more strictly controlled or managed by the leader with a top-down approach.

Hoy and Sweetland asserted, "Teachers need to do more than trust each other if they are to be innovative and effective; they must trust their leader" (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 310). They contended there is a reciprocal relationship between trust in principal and enabling bureaucracy (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). "That is, enabling structure facilitates faculty trust in the principal, and conversely, faculty trust in the principal reinforces enabling bureaucracy" (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 311). Covey further supported that "trust is critical for a productive environment because it enables the bureaucracy to function effectively" (Covey in Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 310).

In a study examining the effects of formalized and centralized school structures on parents, Adams and Forsyth (2007) surveyed 580 parents and 545 teachers drawn from 79

schools in one quadrant of a Midwestern state. Hierarchical multiple regressions were used to study the effects of enabling school structure on parent-school trust, parent-principal trust, and parent collaboration. Hoy and Sweetland's (2000) short version of the Enabling School Structure Scale was used to capture teacher's perceptions of bureaucratic features while Tschannen-Moran's (2001) Collaboration Instrument was used to measure parent collaboration. After aggregating data to the school level, the authors concluded that parents and school personnel are more likely to work together when trust and collaboration are present. Strict and rigid structures to regulate behavior can undermine the formation of parent trust, and an enabling structure improves parent perceptions of their involvement and influence.

Although little is really known about what gives rise to students' trust in teachers, based on these findings, one reasonably can suppose that the principal could manage the school in ways that enhance trust. Theoretically, the way the principal designs the structures and processes of the school could affect all the facets of trust. In a parallel comparison, the way the teacher designs the structures and processes of the classroom could affect all facets of students' trust.

On the basis of the literature review, this researcher believes that enabling school structures can directly affect collective student trust. Given the strong linkages in the literature on the effects of internal contexts of schools affecting all of the facets of trust identified in the Collective Trust Model (Adams, 2008), it is likely that enabling school structures will have consequences related to the development of collective student trust in teachers.

Collective Trust and Enabling School Structures

This proposed study is on the formation of collective trust rather than trust as an individual state. Collective trust, unlike individual trust, is not the aggregation of individual trust beliefs; it is the shared understanding and normative belief of a school group toward another group or individual (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Lewis and Weigert (1985) described trust as a property of collective units and not of isolated individuals. Collective trust is a shared condition that regulates the beliefs and behaviors of group members. Forsyth, Adams, and Hoy (2013)

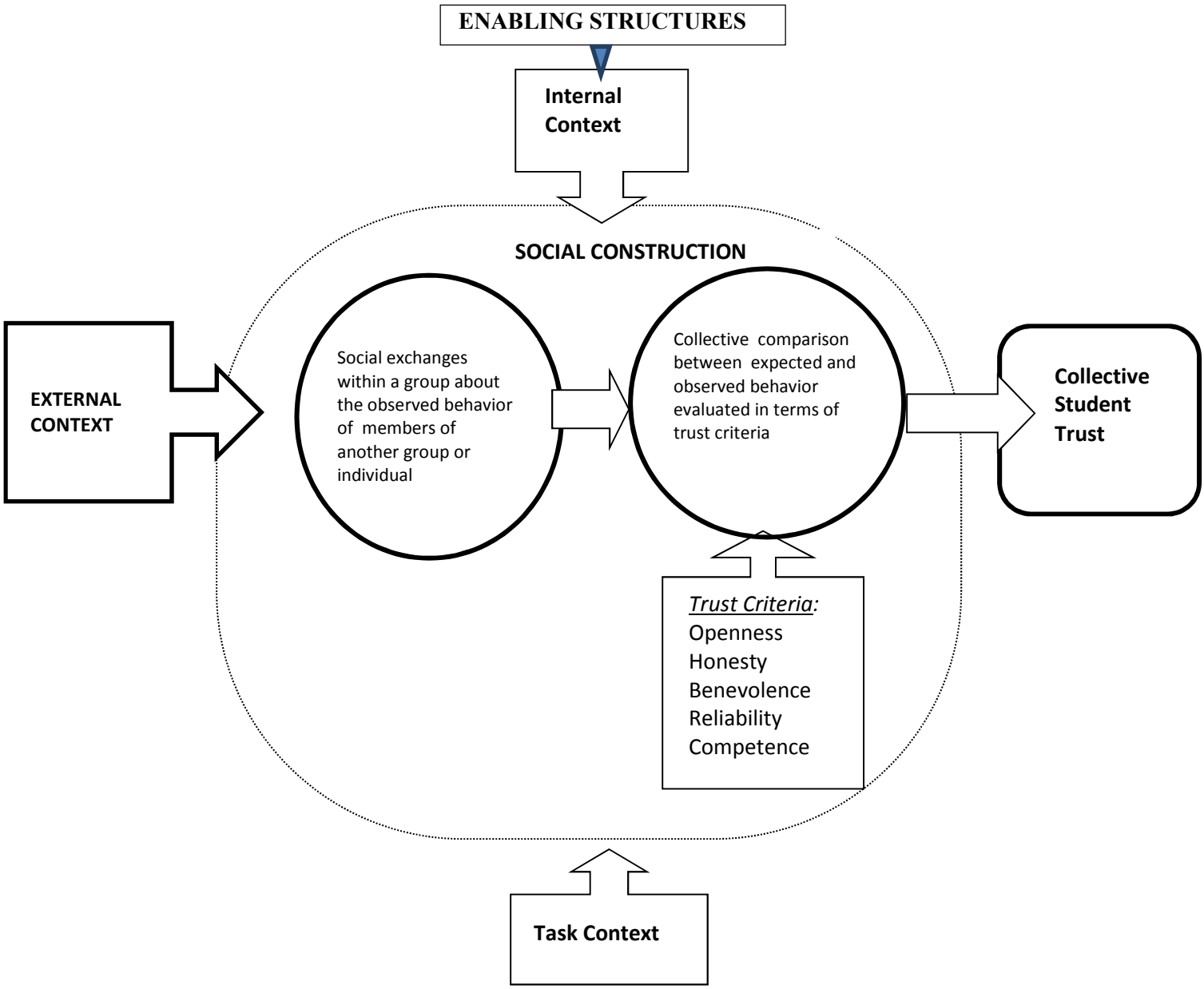
asserted that collective trust is " a stable group property rooted in the shared perceptions and affect about the trustworthiness of another group or individual that emerges over time out of multiple social exchanges within the group" (p. 22).

Students' shared view of teachers is a collective orientation manifested as student trust. It is also "collective" in the sense that it is influenced by existing student culture and collective norms that define the history of teacher-student relationships in the school (Adams & Forsyth 2009, 2013). Adams and Forsyth (2009) defined collective trust formation in schools as the interplay between sociological and psychological factors that affect a social construction process. In this sense, social and individual factors influence commonly shared beliefs about the trustworthiness of another school group (teachers' trust in this particular study) that become part of the social climate of the school.

Forsyth, Adams, and Hoy (2011) advanced a theoretical model to explain how collective trust forms (Figure 2). As illustrated in the model, collective trust emerges through a social construction process whereby interactions between students and teachers, as well as interactions among students, lead to judgments of teacher trustworthiness (i.e. openness, etc.) The social construction process will vary based on the internal school context, the external context, and the task context. The external context includes the values, expectations, and attitudes of individual group members that are shaped by all environmental influences and experiences. The internal context focuses on the influences and conditions within an organization that affect these same values, attitudes, and expectations of individuals within the group. The task context is the group's particular task or specialty that establishes the level of trust necessary for the group effectiveness within a set of inherent constraints (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Enabling school structure is a likely feature of the internal context that has consequences for student trust in teachers.

Figure 2.

A Model of Collective Trust Formation



Conceptual Framework: Self-Determination Theory

The perceived relationship between enabling school structures and collective student trust were analyzed and established through the theoretical lens of the self-determination theory (SDT). Self-determination theory (SDT) explains motivation and behavior as a result of the

interaction of social and psychological factors. The conceptualization of SDT in the education domain has proven useful by explaining that teachers who support or inhibit students' autonomy affect their students' motivation and behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Deci et.al, 2001; Reeve et. al., 2004; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009).

SDT holds that all students regardless of ability, background, or starting point possess the inner motivational resources to engage proactively and constructively in learning. Reeve et al. (2008) argued that students who are autonomous in their self-regulation tend to initiate and be more persistent when they feel their tasks are more interesting or important to them. Positive feedback via verbal rewards tends to enhance intrinsic motivation; tangible rewards may have the same effect if used to communicate competence or improvement (Deci, Koester, & Ryan, 1999). Greater autonomy and positive functioning flourish when the context is supportive. Excessive controls that hinder autonomy, diminish competence, and thwart relatedness block authentic and open relationships between students and teachers (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Reeve et al., 2008).

SDT suggests that structure is important and that the way in which limits are set and communicated can be controlling. Likewise, structures and autonomy supportive environments can encourage positive relationships among teachers, parents, and students. Davis (2001) noted,

> "The more competent students perceived themselves in their interactions with their teachers, the more likely they were to report utilizing their teachers as a source of support, identifying with their teachers' values, and having a supportive and trustworthy relationship with their teachers" (p.443).

An environmental structure created to facilitate shared student perceptions and affect concerning the trustworthiness of the teacher, occasioned by multiple social exchanges over time, will create a sense of collective student trust (Casper, 2012; Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Self-Determination theory suggests that structure is important, and more specifically, that structures are the way in which autonomy and self-regulated behavior can be communicated to students (Pelletier & Sharp, 2009).

CHAPTER III

Research Design

This quantitative correlational study was designed to test the relationship between enabling school structure and collective student trust in teachers. Data for this study comes from the 2013 data generated by the Oklahoma Center for Education Policy. The goal of OCEP was to publish the "School Health Indicators 2013: Path to Performance, Quality, and Capacity" from data collected from students, parents, faculty, and site principals from 72 schools in one urban district.

Research Population

The sample for this study was drawn from a large, urban district located in the Midwestern United States. This district had a total student population of 40,111 in October of 2013. The district is ethnically diverse with an ethnic composition of 30 percent Hispanic, 27 percent Caucasian, 26 percent African American, 9 percent Multi-cultural, 7 percent American Indian, and 1 percent Asian. Approximately 80 percent of the district student population is eligible for free or reduced lunch. The district consists of 54 elementary schools, 13 middle schools, and 11 high schools. The district employs over 3,000 certified staff with almost half of them having more than 11 years of experience and 100% highly qualified.

Data Source

Survey data were collected in the fall of 2013. A random sample of 30 faculty members from each school in the district were selected as participants in the study for a total sample size of 2,340. Surveys containing questions about Enabling School Structure were sent directly to each teacher through campus email addresses supplied by the district. Surveys were distributed and

data were collected utilizing Qualtrics software. Four reminders were sent to teachers who had not completed the survey or who had not chosen to "opt out" of the survey. All responses to the teacher survey were returned directly to the researchers.

Survey data for collective student trust in teachers were collected from a random sample of thirty students in each school with 5th, 8th, 9th, and 11th grade students for a total 1,680 students sampled. School officials administered and collected student surveys from sampled students during the school day. No signed parental consent forms were used because student data were collected by the district according to School Board policy. Students had the option to refuse participation, and parents could request that their student not participate in the survey. At a 98 percent return rate, 1,646 usable student responses were received.

Measures

Collective Student Trust

Student trust was measured using the Adams-Forsyth Student Trust scale (Adams & Forsyth, 2009). Similar to other trust scales, this tool captures student perceptions of openness, benevolence, competence, honesty, and reliability of teachers. The Adams-Forsyth Student Trust Scale is a 4-point, Likert-like scale ranging from Strongly Disagree coded as 1 to Strongly Agree coded as 4. The rating scale measures the quality of relationships between teachers and students. Questions address student perceptions about teacher concern for students, teacher competence in their teaching, teacher willingness to help students, teacher honesty, and teacher dependability. Sample survey items include: "Teachers are always ready to help at this school," "Teachers at this school really listen to students," and " Teachers at this school are good at teaching." Higher student trust suggests that students perceive teachers as being open, honest, reliable, competent, and benevolent in their social interactions with students. Reliability and Validity of the Student Trust in Teachers Scale has been established. Reliability, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was .90 for the STF-Scale, suggesting strong internal consistency among the items. The structure of

the factor analysis supported the construct validity, as did concurrent and predictive validity procedures (Adams, 2013; Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011).

Enabling School Structures

The degree to which a school structure is enabling or hindering was determined by the use of the Form ESS. The Form ESS is a 12-item, Likert-type scale that measures the degree to which school structure is enabling; the higher the score, the more enabling the school structure, and the lower the score, the more hindering the structure. The Form ESS contains short, descriptive statements that determine teacher perceptions of the structure of the hierarchy of the school as to whether it helps rather than hinders the effectiveness of teachers. The Form ESS characterizes the system of rules and regulations in the school structure that serve as guides to problem-solving rather than obstruct innovation and professional judgment. The scales responses range from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The higher the cumulative score, the more enabling the school structure is judged to be.

While formulating the ESS Form in 2000, Hoy and Sweetland (2000) concluded that school bureaucracies tended to vary along a continuum with enabling at one extreme and hindering at the other. Their study sampled 116 teachers (each teacher from a different school) with an 89% usable return questionnaire. The conclusion found the enabling bureaucracy measurement was stable and reliable with evidence of validity (Hoy & Sweetland). Using these findings, Hoy and Sweetland predicted the more enabling the structure of schools, the greater the extent of collegial trust between teachers. They also hypothesized that the more enabling the bureaucratic structure of schools, the less the sense of powerlessness among teachers.

Hoy and Sweetland (2001) conducted factor analysis on the Form ESS to determine reliability, which yielded alpha coefficients of .90 or higher. A number of studies have strongly supported the construct and predictive validity which have been strongly supported in a number of studies (Hoy & Sweetland, 2000, 2001). The Form ESS captures the degree to which formalization and centralization enable teachers to accomplish work. Samples of centralization

items include, “The administrative hierarchy of this school enables teachers to do their work,” and “The administrative hierarchy of this school obstructs innovation” (reverse scores). Examples of formalization items include, “Administrative rules help rather than hinder,” and “In this school, red tape is a problem” (reverse scored). The Form ESS has been used in numerous studies to determine enabling school structure as a hierarchy that helps rather than hinders and a system of rules and regulations that guides problem solving rather than punishes failure. Conversely, a hindering school structure is a hierarchy characterized by a system of rules and regulations that impedes and controls teacher behavior (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2015).

Contextual Variables

Contextual variables were also included in this study. As a proxy for school-level socioeconomic status, the percentage of students in a school qualifying for the federal lunch (FRL) program was used. The percentage of students determined to be English Language Learners (%ELL) was an analyzed variable, and the size of the student population reported as school size (SchSz).

Analytical Technique

A random coefficient model was used to test each hypothesis. First, descriptive analysis was used to describe the sample and the level of enabling school structures and collective student trust within the sample schools. Correlation analysis of an enabling school structure (ESS) and student trust was then conducted to determine if a relationship exists between these two variables. Each correlation used an alpha level of .05 as the level of significance. Third, additional demographic variables were entered in a step wise manner to determine which variables are statistically significant. A step-wise approach was used to determine statistically significant predictor variables. Statistically significant predicator variables are then retained in a combined model to determine the relative strength of each of the variables.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made regarding this study:

- Teacher and student data were collected and measured without error.
- Level one errors are independent and normally distributed with a common variance.
- Residuals are uncorrelated and have constant variance.
- Observations across teachers and students are independent.

Limitations

Several limitations were present in this study. The first limitation addresses the generalizability of the results. Because data were collected from schools in one urban district, results should be generalized to faculty and students in that district and other urban districts with similar characteristics. A second limitation is based on the subjectivity of survey research. Survey responses can be susceptible to misunderstanding or misinterpretation of the survey statements by the respondent.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to test the relationship between Enabling School Structure and Collective Student Trust in Teachers. This chapter gave a detailed account of the methodology that was used in the study. Background information was provided on the location of the study and the rationale for why this district was chosen. Descriptive information was provided on the sample that was selected for the study. Valid and reliable measures will be used for ESS and CST. Chapter IV discusses data analysis and findings.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Self-Determination theory and existing literature on collective trust formation and evidence on enabling school structures led to the hypothesis that schools with higher levels of enabling school structures and conditions will result in greater collective student trust. This relationship was tested in 72 schools from one urban district**.** This results section reports findings from the descriptive and correlational analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

Because student trust in teachers measures student perceptions of the conditions of the school, descriptive data are analyzed at the school level. The compositional characteristics of urban schools in the sample is described in the descriptive statistics in Table 1. The average free/reduced rate was 77% with a range from a low of 20% to a high of 99%. Schools averaged an 18% ELL student representation with a range of 0% to 54%. These demographics represent a high poverty, high minority urban school setting, although there were high minority schools with lower poverty percentages. There was an average school size of 519 students with a range of 36 in the smallest school to 1325 students in the largest school.

Table 1. *Descriptive School Data*

Variable Name	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
School Size	72	519.90	249.04	36.00	1325
Free/Reduced Lunch Rate	72	77.01	20.13	20.10	99.20
English Language Learners	72	17.87	14.55	0	54.30
Student Trust	72	3.03	.27	2.4	3.5
Enabling School Structures	72	4.29	.65	2.0	5.5

Note: N= 71 schools; although there were 72 schools in the sample, missing data led to a reduced N.

The mean for student trust in schools was 3.03 with a range from 2.4 to 3.5. Additionally, schools had a mean of 4.29 on the Enabling School Structures Scale with a range of 2.0 to 5.5.

Findings

Descriptive correlations were tested to analyze relationships between the variables in this study. The researcher expected to find a statistically significant relationship specifically between Enabling School Stuctures and Collective Student Trust in Teachers; however, the data were not supportive of the hypothesis (r=.119; p= .321). Therefore, findings from this study do not confirm the hypothesized relationship between enabling school structure and student trust in teachers. This finding suggests that teachers' perceptions concerning structures within the school appear not to influence the way that they ineract with students in order to build trust.

Table 2. *Correlations*

Correlations

		ESS	STT
ESS	Pearson Correlation	1	.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.321
	N	74	72
STT	Pearson Correlation	.119	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.321	
	N	72	72

Because a statistically significant relationship between ESS and Collective Student Trust in Teachers was not found, the researcher was unable to address the second research question. However, because the purpose of this study was to identify and examine factors that influence student trust in teachers, the researcher chose to further analyze demographic data gathered on the percentage of English Language Learners (ELL) within a school and SES (the percentage of students qualifying for Free or Reduced Lunch program/FRL) in each school and the influence of these factors on student trust in teachers. Because a statistically significant relationship was not found between student trust and enabling school structure, and because school size represents a structural characteristic of the school, school size was not considered in further analysis.

Because ELL and SES represent percentages of students within a school in each of those categories, and since percentages are contrived numbers, these numbers were converted into categorical variables to analyze whether the means in each group deviated from each other by student trust. Based on data collected on ELL percentages, the data fell neatly into 4 categories (0-7%= cat 1, 7-19.9% = cat 2, 20-30% = cat 3, and 31-54% = cat 4).

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics-ELL*

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: CST

ELLCat	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1	3.048	.2542	21
2	2.996	.2977	23
3	2.850	.3064	10
4	3.159	.1906	17
Total	3.030	.2754	71

Free and Reduced Lunch fell into only two categories. The decision to use two categories to analyze SES follows generally accepted understandings concerning classifications of "high poverty" schools. The researcher followed the rationale that schools are considered a Title 1 school, as a poverty designation, by the U.S. Department of Education when 40% or more of their students are determined eligible for the Free or Reduced Lunch program. Data gathered in this study, fell into categories of 45% or below and 46% or above. Therefore, if the school reported below 45% FRL, it was categorized as Low (1), and if it reported 46% or above FRL, it was categorized as High (2).

Table 4: *Descriptive Statistics- Free and Reduced Lunch*

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: CST

FRLCat	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1	3.182	.1940	11
2	3.002	.2801	60
Total	3.030	.2754	71

This determination was further justified as representative of the district in that, while there are many high poverty schools within this district, there are schools within the district that do not meet the threshold of 40% FRL and, therefore, are not categorized as Title 1 schools.

Homogeneity of Variance

A common assumption of ANOVA is that the variances of different populations are equal. A Levene's test is calculated by diverging the data for each group from the group mean and then comparing the absolute values (Statistics Solutions, 2015). A p-value less than .05 indicates a violation of the assumption of equal variance. For this study, both ELL [p=.054] and FRL [p= .079] categories satisfied the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance.

Because the homogeneity of variance was satisfied, a one-way ANOVA was conducted on each categorical variable and CST. First, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were mean differences across ELL groups on Collective Student Trust in Teachers. Findings suggest statistically significant differences in means of CST across groups of English Language Learners at the $p<.05$ level [$F=3.061$, $p= .034$]. An F-value of 3.061 and p-value below the threshold of .05 suggests that the amount of student trust across each group is, in all probability, not equal. Therefore, a post hoc test was run to gain a better understanding of mean differences between groups.

Table 5. *Collective Student Trust*

ANOVA

CST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.640	3	.213	3.061	.034
Within Groups	4.668	67	.070		
Total	5.308	70			

Findings from Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons analysis indicate a statistically significant difference between the two highest ELL categories with group 3 showing lower levels of CST than group 4 (-.3088).

Table 6. *Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons*

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: CST

Bonferroni

(I) ELLCat	(J) ELLCat	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.0520	.0797	1.000	-.165	.269
	3	.1976	.1014	.333	-.078	.473
	4	-.1112	.0861	1.000	-.345	.123
2	1	-.0520	.0797	1.000	-.269	.165
	3	.1457	.1000	.899	-.126	.417
	4	-.1632	.0844	.345	-.393	.066
3	1	-.1976	.1014	.333	-.473	.078
	2	-.1457	.1000	.899	-.417	.126
	4	-.3088*	.1052	.027	-.595	-.023
4	1	.1112	.0861	1.000	-.123	.345
	2	.1632	.0844	.345	-.066	.393
	3	.3088*	.1052	.027	.023	.595

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Collective Student Trust in Teachers by Free and Reduced Lunch Category

Findings from this study suggest there was a significant negative effect of the percentage of Free or Reduced Lunch on Student Trust in Teachers at the $p<.05$ level [$F(1)=4.1$, $p=.045$] with a Mean of 75.82 and SD of 21.53.

Table 7. *CST and FRL*

ANOVA

CST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.302	1	.302	4.158	.045
Within Groups	5.006	69	.073		
Total	5.308	70			

Because statistically significant differences in CST were found across means for both ELL and FRL categories, a Univariate ANOVA of CST by ELL category was run with FRL category as a co-variate. Findings from this analysis indicate a non-significant homogeneity of variance (p= .087) with statistically significant findings of both FRL category (p=.023) and ELL category (p=.020). Findings indicate a modest effect size (R squared = .187; adjusted R squared = .138) indicating that approximately 14% of the difference in CST is explained by FRL and ELL. This corrected model was statistically significant at the .01 level (p=.008).

Table 8: *Tests of Between-Subjects Effects*

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: CST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	.992[a]	4	.248	3.793	.008	.187	15.171	.870
Intercept	24.369	1	24.369	372.659	.000	.850	372.659	1.000
FRLCat	.352	1	.352	5.387	.023	.075	5.387	.628
ELLCat	.690	3	.230	3.519	.020	.138	10.557	.759
Error	4.316	66	.065					
Total	656.970	71						
Corrected Total	5.308	70						

a. R Squared = .187 (Adjusted R Squared = .138)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 9. *Frequency Table - FRL*

FRL

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20.1	1	1.4	1.4	1.4
	23.4	1	1.4	1.4	2.8
	28.6	1	1.4	1.4	4.2
	29.0	1	1.4	1.4	5.6
	33.7	1	1.4	1.4	6.9
	34.7	1	1.4	1.4	8.3
	43.1	1	1.4	1.4	9.7
	43.8	1	1.4	1.4	11.1
	43.9	1	1.4	1.4	12.5
	44.0	1	1.4	1.4	13.9
	44.9	1	1.4	1.4	15.3
	51.0	1	1.4	1.4	16.7
	56.9	1	1.4	1.4	18.1
	57.7	1	1.4	1.4	19.4
	61.1	1	1.4	1.4	20.8
	69.4	1	1.4	1.4	22.2
	70.8	1	1.4	1.4	23.6
	73.9	2	2.7	2.8	26.4
	75.8	1	1.4	1.4	27.8
	76.5	1	1.4	1.4	29.2
	79.4	1	1.4	1.4	30.6
	79.5	1	1.4	1.4	31.9
	81.3	1	1.4	1.4	33.3
	82.6	1	1.4	1.4	34.7
	82.7	1	1.4	1.4	36.1
	82.8	1	1.4	1.4	37.5
	82.9	1	1.4	1.4	38.9
	83.7	1	1.4	1.4	40.3
	84.1	1	1.4	1.4	41.7
	84.3	1	1.4	1.4	43.1
	84.4	1	1.4	1.4	44.4

	84.8	1	1.4	1.4	45.8
	84.9	1	1.4	1.4	47.2
	85.2	1	1.4	1.4	48.6
	85.3	1	1.4	1.4	50.0
	85.5	1	1.4	1.4	51.4
	86.0	1	1.4	1.4	52.8
	86.3	1	1.4	1.4	54.2
	86.6	2	2.7	2.8	56.9
	86.7	1	1.4	1.4	58.3
	87.0	1	1.4	1.4	59.7
	87.2	1	1.4	1.4	61.1
	87.3	1	1.4	1.4	62.5
	87.4	2	2.7	2.8	65.3
	88.6	1	1.4	1.4	66.7
	88.7	2	2.7	2.8	69.4
	89.2	3	4.1	4.2	73.6
	89.5	2	2.7	2.8	76.4
	89.7	1	1.4	1.4	77.8
	90.2	1	1.4	1.4	79.2
	90.7	1	1.4	1.4	80.6
	90.8	1	1.4	1.4	81.9
	91.1	1	1.4	1.4	83.3
	91.2	1	1.4	1.4	84.7
	91.4	1	1.4	1.4	86.1
	91.5	1	1.4	1.4	87.5
	91.7	1	1.4	1.4	88.9
	92.2	1	1.4	1.4	90.3
	93.2	3	4.1	4.2	94.4
	94.4	1	1.4	1.4	95.8
	94.8	1	1.4	1.4	97.2
	95.3	1	1.4	1.4	98.6
	99.2	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	72	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.7		
Total		74	100.0		

Table 10. *Frequency Table - ELL*

ELL

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.0	1	1.4	1.4	1.4
	.2	1	1.4	1.4	2.8
	1.3	1	1.4	1.4	4.2
	1.4	1	1.4	1.4	5.6
	2.1	1	1.4	1.4	6.9
	2.4	1	1.4	1.4	8.3
	2.5	1	1.4	1.4	9.7
	2.6	1	1.4	1.4	11.1
	3.1	1	1.4	1.4	12.5
	3.4	1	1.4	1.4	13.9
	4.2	1	1.4	1.4	15.3
	4.3	1	1.4	1.4	16.7
	4.4	1	1.4	1.4	18.1
	4.8	1	1.4	1.4	19.4
	5.1	1	1.4	1.4	20.8
	5.4	1	1.4	1.4	22.2
	5.8	1	1.4	1.4	23.6
	6.1	1	1.4	1.4	25.0
	6.3	1	1.4	1.4	26.4
	6.6	1	1.4	1.4	27.8
	6.8	1	1.4	1.4	29.2
	7.0	1	1.4	1.4	30.6
	7.3	1	1.4	1.4	31.9
	7.4	1	1.4	1.4	33.3
	7.7	1	1.4	1.4	34.7
	8.1	1	1.4	1.4	36.1
	8.8	1	1.4	1.4	37.5
	9.1	1	1.4	1.4	38.9
	9.5	3	4.1	4.2	43.1
	9.6	1	1.4	1.4	44.4
	10.1	1	1.4	1.4	45.8
	11.2	1	1.4	1.4	47.2

	11.6	1	1.4	1.4	48.6
	11.7	1	1.4	1.4	50.0
	12.9	1	1.4	1.4	51.4
	13.0	2	2.7	2.8	54.2
	13.5	1	1.4	1.4	55.6
	14.3	1	1.4	1.4	56.9
	14.8	1	1.4	1.4	58.3
	18.4	1	1.4	1.4	59.7
	19.9	1	1.4	1.4	61.1
	20.0	1	1.4	1.4	62.5
	20.2	1	1.4	1.4	63.9
	20.3	1	1.4	1.4	65.3
	22.0	1	1.4	1.4	66.7
	24.6	1	1.4	1.4	68.1
	24.9	1	1.4	1.4	69.4
	25.1	1	1.4	1.4	70.8
	26.6	1	1.4	1.4	72.2
	27.4	1	1.4	1.4	73.6
	27.8	1	1.4	1.4	75.0
	31.7	1	1.4	1.4	76.4
	32.4	1	1.4	1.4	77.8
	32.5	1	1.4	1.4	79.2
	34.5	1	1.4	1.4	80.6
	34.6	1	1.4	1.4	81.9
	36.3	2	2.7	2.8	84.7
	37.0	1	1.4	1.4	86.1
	39.0	1	1.4	1.4	87.5
	39.4	1	1.4	1.4	88.9
	40.0	2	2.7	2.8	91.7
	42.8	2	2.7	2.8	94.4
	42.9	1	1.4	1.4	95.8
	44.8	1	1.4	1.4	97.2
	49.9	1	1.4	1.4	98.6
	54.3	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	72	97.3	100.0	
Total		74	100.0		

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Trust has emerged through research as having significant effects on student achievement (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Previous studies of the formation of collective student trust have provided a greater understanding of the characteristics and conditions that may lead to better student-teacher relationships. Organizational conditions that may immediately affect teaching and learning environments include a variety of factors such as school size, instructional resources, social norms, and coordinating structures as well as management and leadership styles (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). These internal contexts shape the culture and environment of the school through conditions, processes, and structures that define how teachers bring life to learning in classrooms. School leaders are responsible for direct interactions shaping the organizational culture among stakeholders (Nye, 2002).

Bryk and Schneider (2002) and Tschannen-Moran (2004) found that leadership is a critical internal factor for trust formation; however, leadership by itself does not create conditions that support or hinder student trust. The construct of enabling school structures is the perception in which leadership fosters collaboration, innovation, and trust among stakeholders through rules and procedures that are flexible and promote problem-solving (Hoy & Sweetland, 2000, 2001). Hoy and Sweetland contended that "School structures vary along a continuum from enabling at one extreme to hindering at the other" (Hoy, 2002, p. 88). An enabling school structure (ESS) describes the teachers' belief that the administration and rules of the school help them in their work. Organizations characterized as enabling structures tend to facilitate problem solving, enable cooperation, protect participants, and encourage collaboration, flexibility, and innovation (Wu, Hoy & Tarter, 2013; Hoy & Sweetland, 2001).

Explanation of Findings

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the relationship between teacher perceptions of Enabling School Structures (ESS) and Collective Student Trust (CST). Results of this study did not support the hypothesis that higher levels of Enabling School Structures would predict or influence higher levels of Collective Student Trust. Because the correlation of ESS on CST is weak and not significant, these findings do not support the understanding that teacher perception of school structure influence the way students perceive their teachers. In other words, teachers may interact with students in a manner that promotes student trust even when teachers perceive their environments to be hindering rather than enabling. These findings identify what could be an unpredicted limitation in this study. The lack of finding a statistically significant relationship between ESS and CST may be the result of differences of teacher perceptions at the school level and student perceptions at the school level. Another explanation for these findings include the suggestion that teachers' interactions, forming student-teacher relationships, are not dependent on how supportive or "enabling" their schools are structured. In other words, teachers may be able to persist in their efforts to influence student learning despite their perceptions of how enabling or hindering the school culture may be.

Findings from this study do not support the idea that internal structures influence teacher behavior/attitude toward students, as perceived by students. An understanding of Self-Determination Theory would lead one to logically assume that enabling school structures that enhance collaborative processes and support school rules and policy that influence autonomous decision making would lead to enhanced relationships between teachers and students (the hypothesis of this study). Specifically, one could assume, according to Hoy's theory of Enabling School Structure, that when structures facilitate collaborative processes, relationships are established that enhance teacher motivation to meet educational goals. Additionally, when structures facilitate shared decision making and empowerment of teachers, teachers would likely respond with enhanced feelings of competence and autonomy, primary indicators of motivation

as defined by Self-Determination Theory. However, findings from this study suggest that teacher perceptions of the structure of the school do not necessarily influence the perception of students concerning their trust in teachers. These findings suggest that teachers' actions and attitudes toward students may not be as strongly influenced by teacher perceptions of school structure as one might assume. According to Adams and Forsyth (2009), collective trust is formed in schools at the intersection of sociological and psychological factors that affect a social construction process. Findings from this study indicate that teacher perceptions of school structure do not influence the formation of collective student trust. Additionally, the district where these data were collected is a high-poverty, urban school district. Understanding school structure in this district may present challenges as the district may be permeated with a culture of poverty with little difference in teacher perceptions of school structure across schools. Additional research is needed to gain a better understanding of this finding.

Student Trust and Context

Findings from this study support well accepted understandings that the percentage of ELL students in a school is significantly related to student trust [$F(2)=4.09$, $p= .021$] (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Ensley, 2014) and that poverty is significantly related to student trust [$F(1)=4.1$, $p=.045$] (Goddard & Tschannen-Moren, 2001; Goddard, Salloum, & Berebitsky, 2006; Ensley, 2014). These findings support the understanding that a group's capacity to trust can be greatly influenced by external contexts where social environments and individual dispositions shape the formation of collective trust (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011).

With intentions of identifying factors that influence the formation of student trust, variables such as the percentage of English language-learning students in a school and the percentage of students of poverty in the school were found as significantly related variables. Outcomes reflect higher levels of both FRL and ELL relate significantly to low levels of collective student trust. What is important to note is that variables such as ELL and SES are not

within the control of educators. Specifically, these findings suggest that teachers in some urban schools, those with higher levels of ELL students and higher levels of poverty, may experience inherent challenges in developing trusting relationships with students. Because these variables are outside of the school's control, lower levels of student trust in these schools can cause extreme frustration. What this study adds to these understandings is that teacher motivation to reach educational goals and build strong relationships with students may not be influenced by hindering school structures. Hindering structures are those that require strict adherence or are intended to coerce compliance rather than the encouragement of professional judgement. Therefore, it stands to reason that teachers may be able to overcome some of the bureaucratic structures within the context of their own classrooms to develop trusting relationships with students.

Findings from this study suggest that teacher-student relationships of trust can exist beyond or regardless of how restrictive, rule-binding or hindering the structures have been established. When examining the internal contextual conditions directly reflecting processes, structures, and practices capable of differentiating internal school environments, prior research shows that student-teacher interactions in high-achieving schools differ from those in lower performing schools (Bryk, et al., 2010). While results of the study indicate that these conditions do not directly or significantly relate to the formation of student trust, there is evidence that enabling structures (ESS) lend to an environment of relationally supportive teaching and learning conditions (Daly, 2009). Therefore, additional research is needed to understand how enabling school structures or hindering school structures influence teacher/student relationships.

Implications for Research and Practice

Implications for Research

Further research could work to determine if this study would have had a different outcome if findings among elementary schools were compared to those of secondary schools. It would be beneficial to determine the effects of enbling school structures (ESS) on elementary

schools and the variance among secondary schools in relation to the schools' level of collective student trust (CST). Additionally, school leaders could benefit from more research evidence on specific trust forming practices, as findings indicate that improved student trust does lead to improved student achievement (Casper, 2012). Teacher interviews could be used to glean additional insight into these relationships. For instance, a qualitative study might be conducted using teacher interviews to explore their perspective regarding what factors do influence teachers' trust of students. Further evidence on school structures, conditions, or characteristics that influence student trust will provide important implications for school leaders and policy makers who seek to reform the modern schoolhouse.

Implications for Practice

The finding that the relationship between ESS and CST is not statistically significant may simply be caused by the analysis of a relationship between a teacher perception and a student perception. However, there is a practical application of the finding that leads the researcher to believe that it may also simply be caused by an innate spirit and heart of a teacher. These results may suggest a commitment from teachers to build trusting relationships with students regardless of the rule-binding or hindering structures. Empirical evidence (Casper, 2012; Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011), suggests that while structures and conditions may make it either more conducive or more difficult for student trust in teachers to form, that teachers go above and beyond conditions in order to form relationships with their students.

Understanding ESS through the lens of SDT indicates that schools with enabling school structure have the potential to promote teacher perceptions of autonomy, competence, and relatedness that can lead to the promotion and encouragement of authentic and trusting relationships between teachers and their students. These understandings are important to the development of the environments in which students learn across the nation. Therefore, educational leaders should continue to develop school conditions and structures that allow positive relatedness and encourage autonomy for students and teachers.

Summary

These findings add to a body of research on collective student trust offering a differing lens through which to understand the formation of student trust dependent upon how helpful or hindering the school functions through its structures. The study further finds that external factors such as minority status and economic status can impact the development of student-teacher trust. It is the hope of the researcher that there will continue to be research efforts seeking to identify internal factors that can mediate the effect of these external factors while leading to the extremely important development and formation of collective student trust.

Previous empirical research does contend that environmental structure created to facilitate shared student perceptions concerning the trustworthiness of the teacher, occasioned by multiple social exchanges over time, will create a sense of collective student trust (Casper, 2012; Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Self-Determination theory suggests that structure is important, and more specifically, that structures are the way in which autonomy and self-regulated behavior can be communicated to students (Pelletier & Sharp, 2009). Furthermore, SDT holds that all students regardless of background, ability, or starting point possess the inner motivational resources to engage constructively and proactively in learning. When the context is supportive, positive functioning and greater autonomy flourish. Excessive controls that hinder autonomy, thwart relatedness, diminish competence and block authentic and open relationships between students and teachers (Reeve et al., 2008).

As the nation continues to design improvements for schools in America, it is important to view social conditions such as collective trust as resources that are valuable in these efforts of enhancing student learning. If educators practice the treatment of schools as social systems in which collective student trust is a significant part, then schools are more likely to reach their achievement goals. School and classroom conditions that foster student achievement are likely conducive to the formation of collective student trust in teachers.

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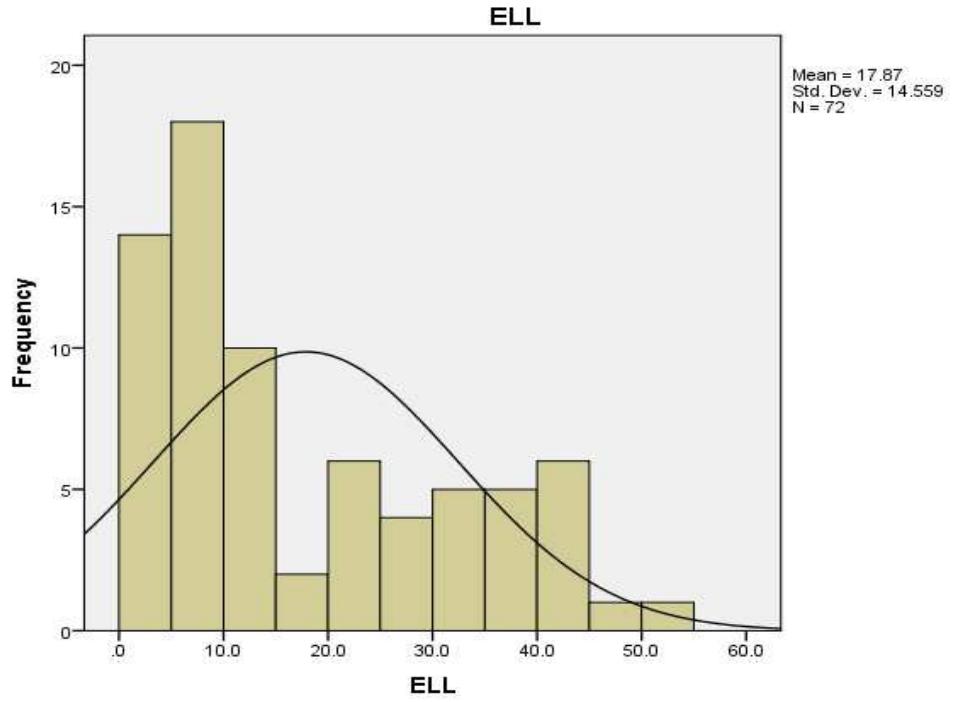
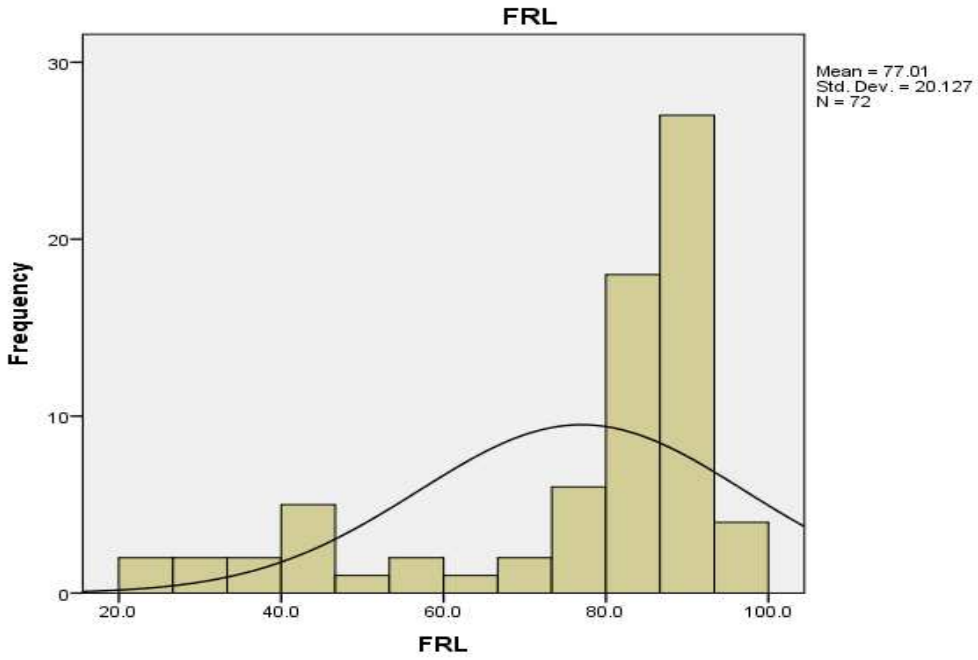
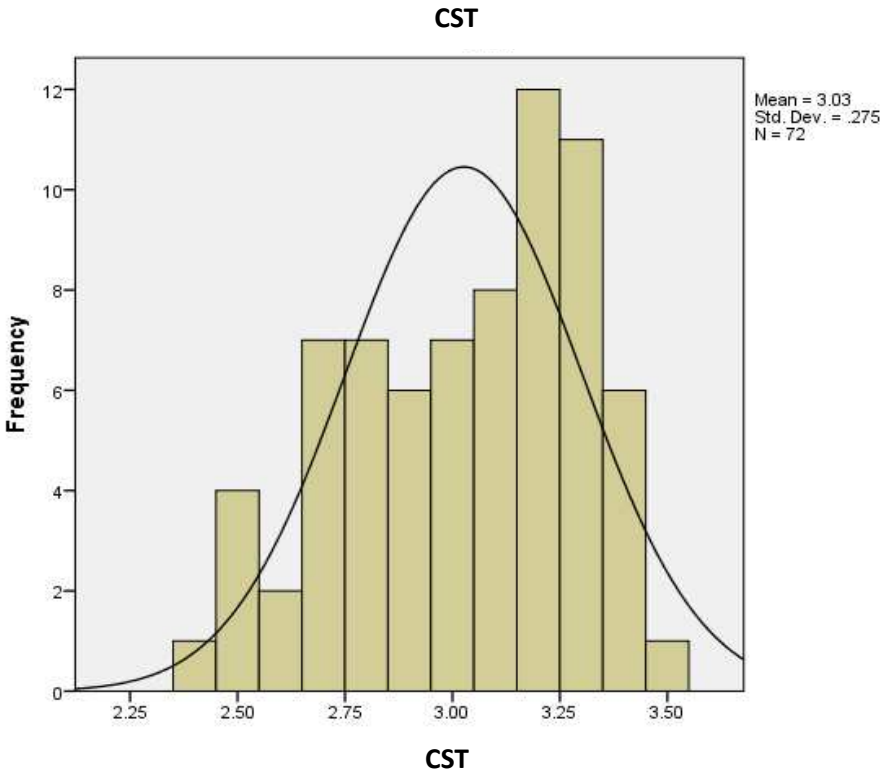
Appendices

APPENDIX A: DISTRIBUTION



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Std. Dev. = .275
N = 72
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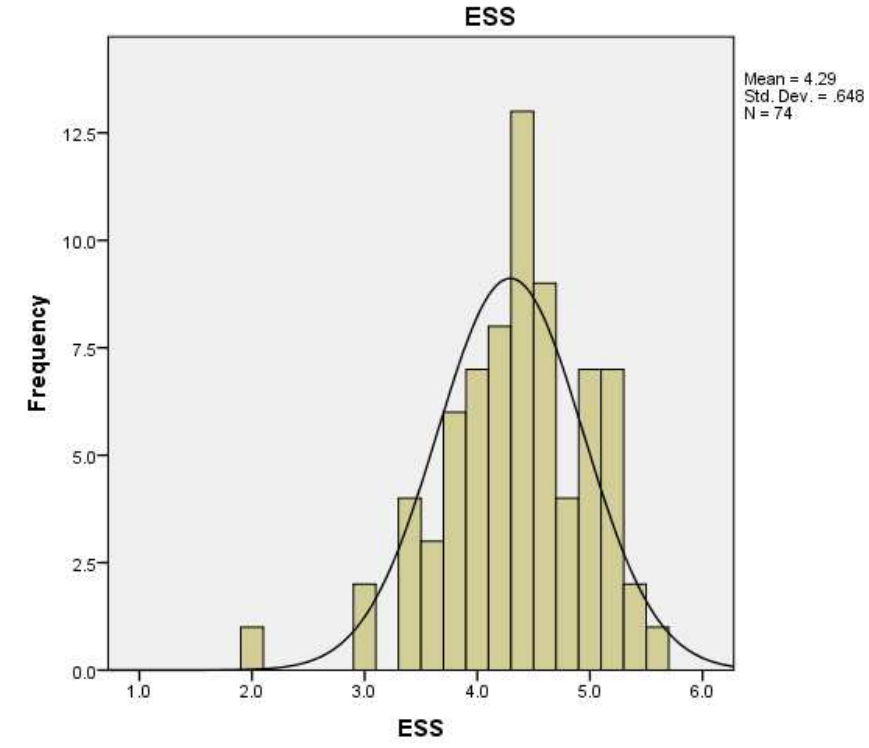
6
8
10
12
2.25
2.50
2.75
3.00
3.25
3.50
CST


ESS
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Std. Dev. = .648
N = 74
Frequency
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12.5
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2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
6.0
ESS

APPENDIX B: INSTRUMENTS

Collective Student Trust In Teachers (CST)

STF Scale

Directions: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Please choose the answer that is closest to how you feel or what you think by filling in one circled number in each row. Please answer all items, even if you are not sure.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Teachers are always ready to help at this school.	1	2	3	4
2. Teachers at this school are easy to talk to.	1	2	3	4
3. Students are well cared for at this school.	1	2	3	4
4. Teachers at this school always do what they are supposed to.	1	2	3	4
5. Teachers at this school really listen to students.	1	2	3	4
6. Teachers at this school are always honest with me.	1	2	3	4
7. Teachers at this school do a terrific job.	1	2	3	4
8. Teachers at this school are good at teaching.	1	2	3	4
9. Teachers at this school have high expectations for all students.	1	2	3	4
10. Teachers at this school DO NOT care about students.	1	2	3	4
11. Students at this school can believe what teachers tell them.	1	2	3	4
12. Students learn a lot from teachers at this school.	1	2	3	4
13. Students at this school can depend on teachers for help.	1	2	3	4

Enabling School Structures (ESS)

Form ESS

Directions: The following statements are descriptions of the way your school is structured. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes behavior in your school from **never** to **always**.	Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Always
1. Administrative rules in this school enable authentic communication between teachers and administrators.	•	•	•	•	•
2. In this school red tape is problem.	•	•	•	•	•
3. The administrative hierarchy of this school enables teachers to do their job.	•	•	•	•	•
4. The administrative hierarchy obstructs student achievement.	•	•	•	•	•
5. Administrative rules help rather than hinder.	•	•	•	•	•
6. The administrative hierarchy of this school facilitates the mission of this school.	•	•	•	•	•
7. Administrative rules in this school are used to punish teachers.	•	•	•	•	•
8. The administrative hierarchy of this school obstructs innovation.	•	•	•	•	•
9. Administrative rules in this school are substitutes for professional judgment.	•	•	•	•	•
10. Administrative rules in this school are guides to solutions rather than rigid procedures.	•	•	•	•	•
11. In this school the authority of the principal is used to undermine teachers.	•	•	•	•	•
12. The administrators in this school use their authority to enable teachers to do their job.	•	•	•	•	•

VITA

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