THE EFFECTS OF TRUST ON STUDENT

IDENTIFICATION AND ACADEMIC

PERFORMANCE

By

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Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
July 2004

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PREFACE

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of faculty and parental trust upon student identification with school and academic performance. Identification with school has been posited as an explanation of why some students become withdrawn emotionally and physically from school and thus demonstrate decreased academic performance. Current empirical research on this subject has neglected to look at the antecedent conditions of school level variables such as trust that could be vital to the formation of identification with school. Extant theoretical knowledge and current empirical research in the area of trust as a school level variable suggested the plausibility of relationships between trust, student identification with school, and academic performance. As a result, this research study investigated those relationships using survey data collected from 74 schools in 26 contiguous counties across northeastern Oklahoma. Ordinary Least Squares Multiple Regression was used to perform a Path analysis of the data.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Failure to identify with school has been posited as an explanation for why some

students persistently perform below expectations (Osborne, 1999; Steele, 1992; Voelkl,

1997). However, recent legislation such as "No Child Left Behind" has forced educators

to take a more serious look at issues of accountability and the need to provide an

appropriate education to all students and to assure that no student falls between the

cracks. With increased emphasis on educational standards and high-stakes testing

educators are being forced to look for ways to reach even the most difficult students and

those persistently identified as underachievers.

The push for increased accountability has prompted educators to look for reasons

why students fail to achieve success in school and to identify ways of addressing those

problems.   Lack of identification with school is one such explanation. Identification

with school has been conceptualized as involving a sense of belonging and a valuing of

school and school related outcomes (Voelkl, 1997). Students who fail to identify with

school and who are emotionally and physically withdrawn from school often evidence

loss of motivation, lack of participation, failure to do assignments, disruption of class,

absenteeism, truancy, behavior problems, delinquency, drug use, school crime, violence,

and potentially even dropping out (Finn, 1989; Finn & Voelkl, 1993; Voelkl, 1997).

Empirical research thus far has attempted to explain this failure to identify with school as

being the result of cultural expectations, prior experience with success in school, the

structural environment of the school, the regulatory environment of the school, stereotype

threat, poverty, and peer-pressure (Finn, 1989; Finn & Voelkl; 1993, Fordham, 1996;

Ogbu & Simons, 1998; Osborne, 1999; Steele, 1992; Voelkl, 1997). However, none of

the studies reported thus far has looked at school level contextual variables such as trust

that may be influential in promoting the development of student identification with

school.

There is some recent empirical evidence that would support the notion that trust is

vital and fundamental to the operation of schools, to the establishment of healthy school

climates and to the implementation of reform initiatives, being an essential element when

focusing on creating an atmosphere that is conducive to the education of students who

have traditionally failed to perform at expected levels academically (Bryk & Schneider,

2002; Fuller, 1994; Smith, Hoy, & Sweetland, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999).

Faculty trust of students and parents has been shown to be positively correlated with and

predictive of academic achievement (Goddard et al., 2001). While it is clear that trust has

a strong influence on academic performance, the effect of trust upon student

identification with school is not known.

<div align="center">**Problem Statement**</div>

Identification refers to the sense of attachment one has with an individual or with

an institution such as a school (Voelkl, 1997). Empirical research in the area of student

identification with school has focused on antecedent conditions necessary for the

development of identification such as prior academic achievement, student's prior

experience of participation in school and school related activities, the structural

environment of the school (school size and racial/ethnic composition of the school), and

<div align="center">2</div>

the regulatory environment of the school (degree of rigidity of school rules and disciplinary putativeness) (Finn, 1989; Finn & Voelkl, 1993; Voelkl, 1997). The findings from these studies have shown that most of these factors do matter and do have a significant effect not only on student identification with school but also on academic performance. Interestingly enough Finn and Voelkl (1993) found that disciplinary putativeness did not have an effect upon student identification. However the degree of structure and rigidity of school rules did have a significant effect upon student identification. Of the things that Finn and Voelkl term as a part of the structural and regulatory environment of the school, only rigidity of school rules can be manipulated to create a school level contextual environment that is conducive to increased identification with school.

Recent empirical work in the area of trust seems to be more promising (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Smith, Hoy, & Sweetland, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). Trust, which has been defined as "one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the later party is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999, p. 189) has been shown to have a significant effect on student outcome variables such as academic performance. Waning trust in public education is a key problem for educators as evidenced by the emergence of parent choice initiatives such as vouchers, home schools and charter schools, increased legislation, and the use of high stakes testing. Moreover, trust has significant implications for all the parties connected with schools and can be a vital resource in establishing a healthy school climate (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999).

Prior investigation into student identification with school has demonstrated that identification with school has significant implications for student outcomes such as, participation, academic performance and can even have major life consequences for those who fail to identify with school   Current research in the area of trust has also demonstrated that trust is a vital resource, one that is very important to the establishment of healthy school environments that foster increased academic performance. Current theoretical knowledge and empirical findings would support the notion that there is a relationship between trust, student identification with school, and academic performance. However, no study has investigated empirically the relationship between trust and student identification with school.

Purpose of the Study

In a day when educators are burdened with the task of confronting the existing underachievement of a large percentage of our school population, it is important to understand how the contextual environment of the school can foster academic success for all students. While no known study has investigated the relationship between trust and identification, current theoretical knowledge and existing empirical evidence suggest the possibility of a relationship between trust and identification with school. Therefore, the current study sought to investigate this relationship and its effects on student outcomes such as academic performance. More specifically, this study sought to add to the knowledge base in the literature on trust as defined by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1999) and to add to the understanding of student identification with school and the role that these constructs play in enhancing academic performance.

Limitations of the Study

As with all research, the current study has its limitations. The sample for this study was taken from schools in the Northeastern quadrant of Oklahoma. While this sample was considered to be representative of the student population within this region, it does not necessarily represent the entire student population throughout the state of Oklahoma. Therefore, the relevance of the findings from this study may not be applicable to areas within Oklahoma that are outside of this region. Likewise, the findings also may not be generalizable beyond the borders of Oklahoma.

The unit of analysis for this study was the school, and demographic information was available for each school represented within this sample. However, individual student, parent, and teacher demographic information was not collected. This is a major limitation of this study in that specific conclusions regarding ethnicity or gender and the relationship they have with the variables in this study cannot be made. Low student and parental return rates at some of the schools in this sample are also a limiting factor in this study. Correlational analyses and least squares multiple regression were used to assess the relationships between the variables in this study. However the sample size of 74 schools prohibited the use of higher-level statistical analysis such as, structural equation modeling and the absence of individual demographic data prevented the use of hierarchical linear modeling.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The focus of this chapter will be on identifying the theoretical perspectives, which underlie the relationships that are being investigated in this research study and on reviewing the research base and current literature on each construct under consideration. Several theoretical models will be used to explain the construct of identification with school. The theoretical perspectives that will be represented here are rooted in the social psychology literature and will include social identity theory, self-system processes, and school membership theory. Trust theory, which derives both from social psychology and organizational theory, will be used to explain how trust develops and is maintained in organizations such as schools. Finally, the research findings and literature will be used to establish a theoretical base for the predictions, made in this research study.

Part I – Identification with School

The purpose of this section is to review the literature on *Identification with School*, to provide a conceptual definition of identification with school and to discuss how this concept has evolved in the literature as well as its connection with related constructs that have fostered an understanding of the meaning of this concept. The process by which students come to identify with school will be explored. Social identity theory, self-system processes and school membership theory will be reviewed and their explanatory utility for the present research study will be discussed.

Conceptual Definition

The definition for identification with school that was used for this research study is taken from work done by Voelkl (1997). Voelkl defined identification with school as having two components: (1) feelings of belongingness and (2) valuing of school and school related outcomes. According to her, *belongingness* involves a sense that the student is an integral part of the school, a feeling of being accepted, valued, and included, a feeling of being proud of being a part of the school, and a sense that this has extreme consequences for the student's perception of self. This self-perception involves the way in which a student incorporates his/her sense of belonging to the school into the way they view and define themselves. Valuing involves considering that the school is important as a social institution and is personally important to the student and being seen as an avenue for accomplishing future life goals. Voelkl's definition of identification is an expanded definition taken from work done earlier by Finn (1989).

Part of the difficulty surrounding the concept of identification with school has to do with inconsistencies in the definition. This construct has been dealt with in the literature under a variety of terms such as "affiliation, involvement, attachment, commitment and bonding and in negative terms such as alienation and withdrawal" (Finn, 1989). It has also been discussed as the psychological perception of school membership (Goodenow, 1992, 1993; Wehlage, 1989) and relatedness (Connell, 1990, Connell & Wellborn, 1991, Furrer & Skinner, 2003).

Psychological Sense of School Membership

Wehlage (1989) stated that school membership takes place when "students have established a social bond between themselves, the adults in the school, and the norms governing the institution" (p. 10). According to Wehlage, the students' psychological sense of school membership or belonging is in a large part dependent on the extent to which the student is able to bond with significant others in the school. It is these links, he posits, that will help schools to be successful in deterring the risk of dropping out of school for students identified as being at-risk. The strength of the bonds that the student develops with school personnel is dependent upon the extent to which the student feels supported and able to experience positive interactions and to establish on-going positive relationships with key significant others in the school environment.

Goodenow (1992) defined the student's sense of psychological school membership as "the extent to which they feel personally accepted, respected, included and supported by others in the school social environment" (p.3). She also emphasized that while this sense of school membership is important for all students it is extremely vital for those students, who are described as being at-risk for school failure and dropout.

This psychological sense of belonging has also been referred to in the literature as a sense of relatedness (Connell, 1990; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Furrer & Skinner, 2003). The focus of these theorists is on the development of the self in relationship to others. This view, known as self-system processes, states that "interactions with specific social partners leads children to construct generalized expectations about the nature of the self in relationships" (Furrer & Skinner, 2003, p. 148). Because of these relationships,

the child begins to view her/himself as loveable or unlovable and sees others as trustworthy or untrustworthy.

Alienation

The concept of student alienation has also been an important one, in that it has shaped our understanding of student identification with school. Brown et al. (2003) defined alienation as "a separation or distance among two or more entities and involves a sense of anguish or loss, resulting in a student viewing life and school as fragmentary and incomplete" (p.4). Brown et al. point out that alienation has been linked in the literature to "gang activity, violence, vandalism, absenteeism, truancy, and other forms of deviant behavior" (2003, p.4) ultimately leading to dropping out of school and a life long pattern of social alienation as adults.

Alienation has been described as having four dimensions that apply to students and schooling, namely, powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, and social estrangement. The four dimensions are defined as follows: (Brown et. al., 2003; Mau, 1992; Seeman, 1959 cited in Newman, 1981)

a.) Powerlessness – the degree to which a student has high academic expectations and goals but has low expectation of achieving them.

b.) Meaninglessness – when students feel disconnected from schooling in that they do not envision school as contributing significantly to their future success as adults.

c.) Normlessness – when students do not accept the social norms being presented to them by school personnel and instead adopt deviant norms

or feel that they must engage in socially unacceptable behavior in order to be successful.

d.)   Social Estrangement – when students, unable to feel like they belong and are a significant part of the school environment, withdraw and do not actively participate in school, thus isolating themselves either physically or emotionally from the school environment.

These four dimensions provide a framework for understanding the concept of alienation, which is akin to disidentification or failure to identify with school.

Disidentification with School

Osborne (1997) defined identification with school as "the extent to which academic pursuits and outcomes form the basis for global self-evaluation" (p.728). While this definition is similar to that of Finn (1989) and Voelkl (1996) it does not include the full notion of belongingness and valuing ascribed by Voelkl. Steele (1997) defined identification with school as "forming a relationship between oneself and the domains of schooling such that one's self-regard significantly depends on achievement in those domains" (p.616). Adding more confusion to this matter is the concept of *disidentification,* which was coined by Steele (1992).

Steele (1992) presented his *Stereotype Threat Model*, which claims that stereotype threat causes some African American students as well as other minority groups to de-value the role of academics and, therefore to *disidentify* with school and to disassociate personal success with academic achievement. When confronted by long-term stereotype threat many of these students disengage themselves from the academic domain so that it no longer holds specific relevance or significance to the way in which they view

themselves. Disidentification could then be characterized as an emotional and physical

withdrawal from school, leading to a host of negative behaviors, to poor academic

performance, and to potentially even complete withdrawal or dropping out of school and

delinquency.

Much of the literature on identification with school and on disidentification has

focused on differences in the academic performance of minority groups, particularly

African Americans, as compared with the dominant group – Caucasian Americans.

While this research study was not designed to address racial differences in identification

or academic performance, the literature on that subject has contributed significantly to

our understanding and confusion regarding the notion of identification with school. Not

only have many different theories been espoused in the effort to explain these differences

in performances but the research base is also plagued by inconsistencies in findings, a

multiplicity of operational measures, and ambiguous conceptual definitions. It is quite

probable that the inconsistencies in conceptual definitions and language may be a primary

problem that has led to inconsistencies in the findings.

Identification with School and Minorities

As mentioned earlier, *Steele's Stereotype Treat Model* (Steele, 1992, 1997) is one

of the theoretical models that has been presented to explain the differences in the

performance between African American students and Caucasian students. This theory

holds that sustained success in school is related to how identified a student is with school

achievement. If the student believes that success in school is related to how they feel

about themselves, then the student will be motivated to succeed in school and will be

self-accountable for such success. Secondly, the student must believe that success in

school is possible, that he/she is an integral part of the school environment and that he/she is accepted, valued, and respected in the school community. However, for many African American students, this theory holds that the threat of confirming negative stereotypes, limitations that have been imposed on them by inequitable societal practices, ill-conceived cultural expectations and social disadvantage forces many of these students to disidentify with academics.

Ogbu's Cultural-Ecological Perspective (1998) states that involuntary minorities or non-immigrant minorities have developed a shared cultural identity that resists the adoption of the primary culture's norms and values. Therefore, African American students see schooling as being part of an oppressive culture and thus do not identify with school. Those students who do achieve academic success are often ostracized and looked down upon by members of their own culture. This approach focuses on the societal, cultural and school factors that are involved with student success in school.

In this model Ogbu and Simons (1998) state that minorities are treated differently and that this occurs at three different levels, instrumental, relational, and symbolic expressive, respectively. The instrumental level includes the inability of minorities to negotiate the system successfully due to job ceilings and other societal measures excluding them from economic advantage, political and legal barriers, and discriminatory educational and policy practices. The relational level involves the way that minorities are treated and their exclusion from being able to assimilate into the mainstream due to threats and violence or lack of trust of the mainstream society. Finally, the symbolic expressive level refers to the denigration and stereotyping experienced by these minority

groups. These things all have a direct effect on the way in which schools operate, on the

way minority students adjust to educational demands and on their academic performance.

Ogbu and Simons (1998) further point out that due to the long history of

discrimination and racism, involuntary minorities tend to distrust mainstream institutions

such as schools. They state "the schools are treated with suspicion because the

minorities, with justification, believe that the public schools will not educate their

children like they educate white children" (Ogbu & Simons, 1998, p. 174). As a way to

preserve their sense of self-dignity minority students look down upon those who try to

assimilate to the mainstream way of doing things as "acting white". That would explain

why many involuntary minority students fail to identify with school.

Majors and Billson's "Cool Pose" Theory (1992) states that African American

males learn at an early age to act aloof as a way to defend against the onslaught of insults

to their pride and self-confidence. These "cool pose" behaviors put them at odds with

school personnel, which leads to a downward spiral of school-related problems resulting

in disidentification with academics. External peer pressure and the need to assert their

masculinity prevent them from conforming to social standards of behavior and from

experiencing success in academics.

According to Majors and Billson (1992) the African American male finds himself

in a difficult dilemma. If he chooses to conform to the expectations of a white-dominated

system, he runs the risk of being ostracized by his peers and accused of "acting white."

On the other hand, if he adopts these cool pose behaviors he is relegated to conflicts with

school authorities that often result in disciplinary actions, suspensions and can ultimately

lead to complete disengagement and dropping out.   Given the lack of hope that

conformity to an oppressive system can lead to any realistic hope of future rewards, these males choose to disidentify with school and develop an oppositional social identity.

Osborne's Disidentification Theory (1995, 1997) is an extension of Steele's Stereotype Threat Model (1992). In this theory, Osborne proposed that, African American students begin their academic career strongly identified with school and then detach their self-esteem from success in academics at some time during their education. Osborne defines disidentification with school as the process by which African American students disengage from school, in order to defend against the threat of confirming negative stereotypes that depict African American students as being intellectually and academically inferior. Therefore, academic success does not hold the same rewards for them, thus undermining their intrinsic motivation to succeed.

The underlying tenet of this theory is that how students perform academically has a major effect on their global self-esteem. Moreover, the student's self-esteem is reflective of his/her experiences of efficacy in school and of how others evaluate him/her. Therefore, success in school will only affect the student's self-esteem to the extent that academic pursuits are seen as important or relevant (Osborne & Rausch, 2001).

Students who are highly identified with academics will demonstrate increased motivation to succeed, whereas students who are disidentified with academics will evidence lack of motivation, decreased participation, and the likelihood of withdrawing emotionally or physically from school (Osborne & Rausch, 2001). Stereotype threat forces some students to de-value the role that academics play in their lives and, as a result, to disconnect their sense of self-esteem from that domain. In so doing success in school does not hold the same intrinsic rewards for them and, as a result, they disidentify

with academics (Osborne, 1995). This theory also asserts that, conversely, some African American students evidence a paradox. Students who are the most identified with school may have the highest likelihood of dropping out of school and disidentifying with academics because of the fear of failure and of confirming negative stereotypes (Osborne et. al., 2002).

Fordham's Raceless Identity Theory (1996), which, was based on Ogbu's Cultural Ecological perspective, concluded that peer pressure could also be seen as an explanation for why African American students disidentify with school and could explain the discrepancy in their academic performance as compared to their Caucasian peers. In an ethnographic study conducted in a school in a poor Black community that she calls Capital High, Fordham found that African American students who are high achievers often experience isolation from their own community. African American students who are generally raised in communities that emphasize collective success find it difficult to fit into school systems that focus on individual success.

In order to succeed in this type of environment, African American adolescents are forced to develop what Fordham (1996) calls a *raceless identity*. That is, they are forced to adopt mainstream ways of acting and thinking in order to circumvent the racial stigma associated with being an African American and in order to be successful. Fordham's study explains the success of those high achievers who do not disidentify with school. Instead of disidentifying with school, these African American students develop a raceless identity in order to experience academic success. However, they are confronted with peer pressure *not* to succeed, and they experience social isolation from their peer group and community.

Despite the heavy preponderance of focus in the literature upon identification with school relating to minority groups, the topic of identification with school is one that has important implications for all students. Understanding the process by which students come to identify with school and further understanding the contextual and normative features of the school environment that promote identification with school may help to alleviate some of the confusion that surrounds this topic.

While there is confusion surrounding the conceptualization of identification with school, there has been consensus in the literature both that students who identify with school tend to be more academically successful than students who do not identify with school and that identification involves the two components identified by Finn (1989) and Voelkl (1997) namely, feelings of belongingness and valuing of school and school related outcomes.

Identification with School and Engagement

Akin to the topic of identification is the concept of *engagement with school*, the two concepts being used interchangeably in the literature. Writings on the topic of school engagement and disengagement are more prolific but they are nonetheless plagued by similar problems of conceptualization as found with the concept of identification with school. However, Finn (1989) offers a more concise definition of engagement, which helps to explain the difference between the two concepts. He defined engagement as having both a behavioral and affective components where the former entails active participation in school and classroom activities, and the later identification with school. As noted by Finn (1993) "at the most basic level, participation involves the youngster's

attending school and class, paying attention to the teacher, and taking part in curricular activities" (p. 249).

These participative behaviors have been linked to academic success repeatedly in the literature (Finn, 1993; Voelkl, 1996, 1997). Expanding the work done by Finn, Voelkl (1996,1997) shows that identification with school is not a mere component of engagement but a necessary precursor for engagement to take place. Due to definitional non-convergence the research on school engagement is very intertwined with the research on identification with school. Therefore, a review of the findings in the literature would be incomplete with out considering both notions.

Empirical Study of Identification with School and Engagement

In a correlational study conducted in two urban junior high schools, Goodenow (1992) found that students' psychological sense of school membership outweighed the influence of peer values and that it was significantly correlated with student motivation and engagement even when students were faced with difficult academic tasks. Extending the research done by Wehlage (1989) and Goodenow (1992), Hagborg (1998) found that the psychological sense of school membership was positively correlated with the student's sense of internal locus of control, that is, students with a higher sense of school membership were more likely to take responsibility for academic outcomes. That supported one of the major tenets of Wehlage's (1989) theory of school membership.

Finn (1993) conducted a nationwide study of 6,488 eighth grade students who had been identified as at-risk for school failure and dropping out of school. In this study he investigated characteristics of the school environment that he considered to be related to student engagement. The specific indicators that he was concerned with involved the

structural environment of the school, which included school size, racial composition of students and faculty and student teacher ratio; and the regulatory environment, which consisted of rigidity of rules, severity of punishment and the degree of structure or emphasis upon discipline. Finn found that students were more engaged in school in smaller schools, engagement levels were lower in schools with higher proportions of minority students, and that engagement was lower in schools that fostered a rigid regulatory environment. However, he noted that the effects of the racial composition of the school outweighed the effects of a rigid regulatory environment and that there was a tendency for the structural environment to nullify the effects of the regulatory environment.

Empirical studies conducted by Osborne (1995, 1997) supported the notion of disidentification coined by Steele (1992). This sample was drawn from the National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS), a large database, sponsored by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), which began collecting data in 1988, on eighth grade students throughout the country. Osborne found that while African American students had weaker academic performance, their global self-esteem was higher than that of Caucasian students. Furthermore, the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement weakened over time, thus giving credence to the notion of disidentification. The greatest support for this theory was found among African American males (Osborne, 1995, 1997).

Voelkl (1996, 1997) developed an instrument to test student identification with school, which she entitled *Identification with School Questionnaire.* This 17-item Likert-type scale was administered to students to test their valuing of school and school related

18

outcomes and their sense of belonging to school. Contrary to other studies done on this topic, Voelkl found that African American males were the most identified with school and Caucasian males were the least identified with school. In line with previous research, she found that females were more identified with school than males. She concluded, based on this study that African American males do not disidentify with school. Voelkl explained the discrepancy between her findings and those of other researchers as possibly being the result of her instrument testing abstract notions of valuing and belonging rather than more concrete ones. She also suggested that perhaps students do not disidentify with school as much as schools disidentify with students.

Voelkl (1997) found that identification with school is related to prior academic success and active participation in school. Students who have experienced academic success and are actively involved in academics are much more likely to identify with school. She proposed that both prior academic success and active participation are areas in which schools can intervene to minimize the likelihood of students disidentifying with school.

In another empirical study, Osborne et al. (2002) found what they term a racial paradox: African American students who were more highly identified with academics were at an increased risk for dropping out of school and for disidentifying with academics. In contrast, the risk of dropping out of school and disidentifying with academics decreased for Caucasian students who were more identified with school. Osborne et al. concluded that anxiety related to negative stereotypes and efforts to avoid an aversive environment made some African American students more likely to withdraw from school.

Ryan and Patrick's (2001) longitudinal and empirical study utilizing survey data investigated the effects of the school social environment of eighth grade math classes on changes in student motivation and classroom engagement for students transitioning from seventh grade to eighth grade. Their sample consisted of 236 eighth-grade students in three middles schools located within two Midwestern school districts. The aspects of the social environment under consideration were the students' perceptions of teacher support, teacher promotion of interaction between the students, teacher promotion of mutual respect among classmates, and the promotion of academic goals. The dependent variables involved changes in student motivation and engagement in learning, (defined as student's academic and social efficacy), student's self-regulated learning, and disruptive behavior. Ryan and Patrick found that students' perception of support and the teachers' promotion of mutual respect was positively correlated with increased engagement and motivation, whereas the teachers' promotion of academic goals was negatively correlated with engagement and motivation.

Hagborg (2003) compared students identified as having a specific learning disability with students who did not have an identified learning disability. He found that whereas school belonging for learning disabled students was closely associated with parental and peer support, school belonging for students who had not been identified as learning disabled was more closely associated with teacher support.

Furrer and Skinner (2003) investigated relatedness, which has been used interchangeably with the concept of identification with school, as a predictor of student engagement. The sample for their study included 641 third – sixth grade students in a suburban-rural school district. Furrer and Skinner found that students who experienced a

higher degree of relatedness also demonstrated a significantly higher degree of emotional and behavioral engagement in school. While girls experienced a higher degree of relatedness, relatedness was a more significant predictor of engagement for boys. Likewise, younger children experienced a greater degree of relatedness but again relatedness was a more salient predictor of engagement for older children. Relatedness was shown to have a temporal effect, in that students who had higher levels of relatedness early on tended to have higher levels of engagement over time, as well. Moreover, relatedness to teachers had a more significant effect on engagement than peer relatedness, and it seemed to act as a buffer against the deleterious effects of negative peer relations and influences.

Summary of Findings on Identification with School and Engagement

Overall, the findings suggest that identification with school is temporally defined, that is, students are more identified with school at the elementary level, and this identification tending to decrease over time and being particularly influenced at the transitional points between elementary/middle school and the middle school/high school stages (Finn, 1993; Furrer & Skinner, 2203;Voelkl, 1997,). Students who experience a stronger emotional bonding/relatedness/belongingness/school membership are more engaged in school and motivated to succeed in the face of difficult academic challenges (Finn, 1993; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Goodenow, 1992; Hagborg, 2003; Voelkl, 1997).

Identification with school is positively related to prior academic performance and active participation in school (Osborne, 2001, 2002;Voelkl, 1997). Students' perception of teacher support is positively correlated with academic engagement and feelings of belongingness and identification with school (Hagborg, 2003; Ryan & Patrick, 2001).

21

The sense of relatedness/identification with school while higher among girls, is more significant for boys, and it can even outweigh the deleterious effects of negative peer pressure (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Students who do not identify with school are highly likely to experience academic problems, emotional withdrawal, behavioral problems and potentially even dropping out of school (Finn, 1989, 1993; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Goodenow, 1992; Hagborg, 2003; Ryan & Patrick, 2001; Voelkl, 1996, 1997; Wehlage, 1989).

While the findings concerning minority student identification with school are confusing, most of the studies done on this subject suggest that minority students and in particular African American students begin their academic career strongly identified with school but then display a significant decrease in identification with school as they grow older a trend more noticeable for males than for females (Fordham, 1996; Majors & Billson, 1992; Ogbu, 1998; Osborne, 1995. 1997; Steele, 1992, 1997). Some African American students experience a racial paradox that is, the more identified they are with academics, the more likely they are to withdraw from school (Osborne et al, 2002). The controversy as to whether or not African American students disidentify with school is less troubling than the lack of consistency and precision in the explanations as to why this occurs not only for minority students, but also for students in general.

Identity and the Identification Process

In order to understand the term *identification with school*, it is necessary to understand the words *identity* and *identification* from which this term draws its meaning. While the words identity and identification have taken on a common connotation in everyday parlance their actual meaning is both illusive and ambiguous. The word

identity, which derives from the Latin word *idem*, has only become part of our social-psychological discussion since the 1950's (Gleason, 1983). The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, (http://www.m-w.com/) defines *identity* as: "(a) sameness of essential or generic character in different instances; (b) sameness in all that constitutes the objective reality of a thing." As for, *identification* it is defined as " psychological orientation of the self in regard to something (as a person or group) with a resulting feeling of close emotional association" (The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, http://www.m-w.com/).

Gleason's (1983) seminal article that traces the semantic origins and use of the term *identity* discusses both the many ways in which this term has been used throughout history in philosophy and in the social sciences and the way it has worked its way into the common vernacular. According to Gleason, this word had become so popular and so commonly used that by the late 1970's it had lost all clarity and distinction of meaning. He credits Erik Erikson as being one of the primary figures that popularized this word with his coining of the term *identity crisis.* For Erikson, the formation of identity refers to both an internal process and a sense of self that evolves as one interacts and participates in the world around him.   As the child grows and matures, he/she passes through eight life cycles that are both biologically and socially determined. Each stage is accompanied by a major psychosocial crisis. In the fifth stage, which takes place between the ages of 12 and 18, the developing adolescent experiences an identity crisis. Here the major challenge is between developing a strong sense of self or ego identity and role confusion.   An *identity crisis*, while a normal part of adolescence, can also be a major climactic event that is precipitated by unusual challenges and life difficulties.

In contrast to this view of identity as being the result of internal processes that take place within the individual throughout his/her life, the symbolic interactionist view sees identity as being the result of interactions between the individual and his/her environment (Gleason, 1983). The environment provides feedback to the individual, which, if accepted, can be incorporated into the individuals self-view (Osborne, 2002). Therefore, identity is seen not as a constant but as something that is dynamic and ever changing based upon the social situation that an individual finds himself/herself in (Gleason, 1983).

Freud and Allport (cited in Gleason, 1983) are responsible for our understanding of the word *identification*. They used this word to characterize the way in which the child assimilates himself to objects in the external environment. In so doing, the child begins to make an association between himself and significant others and begins to formulate and accept attitudes, beliefs, and values that are common to the reference group to which he/she identifies. Thus we can begin to discuss identification with school as the process by which the child begins to acquire a common acceptance of the importance of school for his/her life and begins to assimilate and to interact in a meaningful way that allows him/her to experience a sense of belongingness or a feeling of school as being an essential part of the way he/she views himself/herself.

Collective Identity

How children come to accept common beliefs about the importance of schooling and how they incorporate this into their self-view has to do with the development of collective identity or shared identity, also referred to in the literature as social identity. Collective identity can be thought of "first and foremost as a statement about categorical

membership" (Ashmore et al., 2004, p.81). It is a common identity that is shared among a group of people surrounding some specific attribute which they share and which they acknowledge as being important to them. Ethnic identity, religious identity and gender identity are prime examples of this type of collective identification (Ashmore et al., 2004). It also implies the unification of beliefs, goals, and ideological positions that are shared by group members, as well as the value and emotional significance that they place on their shared beliefs and membership in this particular group.   Identification with organizations such as schools is another form of collective identity. It might be worth noting here that individuals may place themselves in more than one group at a time.

Ashmore et al. (2004) identified nine specific elements of collective identity, namely:

(1)   Self-categorization – whether or not one identifies with a particular social group.

(2)   Evaluation – the positive regard one has concerning a membership in a particular group and the view of how this group is evaluated by others.

(3)   Importance – how significant group membership is to one's self-concept.

(4)   Attachment and sense of interdependence – the emotional bonding or sense of belongingness that one has towards a group.

(5)   Social embeddedness – how embedded one's sense of membership is in his/her daily life experiences.

(6)   Behavioral involvement – how actively involved an individual is in activities that are connected with his/her sense of belonging in a particular group.

(7)   Content and meaning – whether an individual incorporates stereotypical assumptions concerning their group into their sense of who they are as a group member

(8)   Ideology – how one feels about the experiences of the group over time.

(9)   Narrative – the story of the individual as a member of the identified group.

Furthermore, the specific aspects of the context in which the individual finds himself/herself can influence each of these elements. The context acts to moderate the effects of collective identification. Elements of the context of schooling that could exert an influential effect on collective identity could include how representative the school is perceived to be by individual subgroups; if sub-groups are evaluated in a favorable light, if members of specific sub-groups are included in positions of authority, and if there are friendly interactions across sub-groups (Ashmore et. al., 2004). Therefore, how students come to identify with school is not only a function of their collective identity but is also largely influenced by the context of schooling itself.

It follows then that a student might find his ethnic or gender identity to be in conflict with school identification due to specific aspects of the contextual environment of the school. If the school contextual environment is deemed to be threatening to his/her sense of self-esteem and/or if the school faculty are considered to be untrustworthy, the

student's ability to adopt mainstream beliefs regarding schooling could be significantly impaired; hence an impairment of the student's ability to identify with school, fostering what some authors have termed academic disidentification (Osborne, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2001, 2003; Steele, 1992).

Social Identity Theory (SIT)

While social identity theory is not one of the theories that will be used to predict and interpret the relationships under investigation in this study, it has been central to the discussion of identity formation, and hence is worthy of some commentary and recognition. Tajfel (1978) defined social identity as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (p.63).

Social identity theory posits that social identity plays a major role in the formation of individual identity and that membership in a group is central to defining one's place in society (Edwards & Harwood, 2003; Hogg & Williams, 2000). Moreover, individuals strive to be a part of groups that are perceived in a positive way (in-groups) and to view the groups that they are a part of in a positive light, in an effort to enhance their self-esteem (Edwards & Harwood, 2003; Nesdale & Flesser, 2001). In-group inclusion is particularly pertinent if inclusion in the desired group is of great personal value to the individual (Hogg & Williams, 2000). Furthermore, groups strive to achieve both for distinctiveness and a positive identity (Jeeten et al., 2004).

Social identity theory is very useful in explaining inter-group conflict and relations, stereotyping, and in-group exclusion and inclusion (Hogg & Williams, 2000;

Houlette et. al., 2004; Nesdale & Flesser, 2001). The struggle for distinctiveness and acceptance can force some students to adopt a raceless identity strategy such as the one described by Fordham (1996). Additionally, students who do not feel that they are a significant part of school and do not view school as being important to them or see it as threatening will be inclined to withdraw from school and disassociate their sense of self-esteem from academic pursuits (Osborne, 2001, 2002). However, the focus of the present research study is not on explaining inter-group conflicts. Rather, it is on understanding the process by which students come to identify with school and the antecedent conditions necessary within the contextual environment that make this identification with school possible. Therefore, self-system processes and school membership theory are deemed more appropriate for this study.

Self System Processes (SSP)

Self-System Processes asserts that "interpersonal contexts shape individuals' beliefs about themselves within particular cultural endeavors, such as school" (Connell et. al., 1994, p. 494). Individuals strive to meet three fundamental psychological needs: namely, the need for *competence*, the need for *autonomy*, and the need for *relatedness*. These three "psychological needs are universal and innate" (Skinner & Wellborn, 1994). The result of how well these three needs are met explains how engaged a student is in academics. Furthermore, the extent to which these needs are met predicts how well children will be able to cope with stressful events (Skinner & Wellborn, cited in Featherman et al., 1994). This process is explained in detail in Connell and Wellborn (1991), where the assertion is made that;

Social interactions that either enhance or inhibit the experience of competence,

autonomy, and relatedness are the aspects of the social context of most relevance

to the development of self…. When psychological needs are being met within

 particular cultural enterprises such as family, school or work, engagement will

occur and be manifested in affect, behavior, and cognition (p. 52).

Students who are unable to experience *competence, autonomy,* and *relatedness*

would fail to identify with school. *Competence* has been defined as "the need to

experience oneself as capable of producing desired outcomes and avoiding negative

outcomes" (Connell & Wellborn, 1991, p. 51). Those students who experience

competence would feel as though they are academically effective. *Autonomy* is defined

as "the experience of choice in the initiation, maintenance and regulation of activity and

the experience of connectedness between one's actions and personal goals and values"

(Connell &Wellborn, 1991, p. 51). Autonomy involves then the ability of the individual

to determine his/her own course of action. *Relatedness* is defined as "the need to feel

securely connected to the social surround and the need to experience oneself as worthy

and capable of love and respect" (Connell & Wellborn, 1991, p. 51). It follows than that

relatedness describes the need of the student to have close personal relationships with

teachers and adults within the school setting.

Teachers' behavior towards students is a major predictor of whether or not

students will experience feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Skinner et.

al., 1990). Thus the role of the teacher and the school then becomes vital in assisting the

student to develop the internal resources needed to cope with stressful situations and the

fulfillment of these needs serves as an internal buffer against stressful events. Students

will be more motivated to be actively engaged in academics if these psychological needs

for autonomy, competence and relatedness are met consistently (Pierson & Connell, 1992). In contrast, if these psychological needs are not met on a consistent basis, students will become disaffected, withdrawn, and will disidentify with school. Furthermore, these psychological self-system processes function as internal resources that can predict school success (Guay et al., 1999).

The extent to which a student is able to experience competence and autonomy determines the extent to which a student believes that school is of value to him/her. According to this theoretical perspective, schools that are able to create an environment that fosters a sense of relatedness/belongingness/school membership and allows the student to experience competence and autonomy would promote increased identification with school.

Feelings of autonomy, competence and relatedness are progressive in nature, that is, they are built up over time as a result of the quality of the interactions that the student has with significant others within his social context (Guay et al., 1999). Therefore, autonomy-supportive environments that allow for a high degree of relatedness and opportunities for the student to experience himself as competent, self-determined, and in control will foster emotional, behavioral, and cognitive engagement and identification with school (Guay et al., 1999). According to this theoretical approach, "involvement, structure, and autonomy support, taken together, are the backbone for any context wishing to promote psychological development" (Skinner & Wellborn, 1994, p. 106).

School Membership Theory (SMT)

In this theory Wehlage (1989) proposes ways for schools to promote social bonding with the school and individuals within the school. Borrowing from Hirschi (1969, cited in Wehlage, 1989) Wehlage posits that in order for student to experience social bonding within schools it is necessary to cultivate a sense of:

(1) attachment – when student feel a sense of bonding and relatedness towards teachers;

(2) commitment – when students make a conscious decision to strive to meet personal and academic goals;

(3) involvement – when students actively participate in school activities and in academics; and

(4) belief – when students trust the school and accord legitimacy to its governance policies.

According to Wehlage, all schools are capable of reducing the risk of student withdrawal and disidentification if they (1) promote academic engagement and (2) foster school membership. He defines school membership as the situation where "students have established a social bond between themselves, the adults in the school, and the norms governing the institution" (Wehlage, 1989, p. 10). The relationship that students have with the adults within the school is considered to be of utmost importance. Positive reciprocal relationships between the faculty and student body foster a sense of legitimacy towards the governance of the school, and resulting in enhanced student acceptance, compliance and cooperation with expected norms and regulations. Students who have a strong sense of school membership are actively involved in school activities and are

engaged in academics. This engagement is manifest even in the face of challenges and difficulty. In contrast, students who do not have a strong sense of school membership are disengaged in academics and disidentified with school.

Wehlage (1989) suggests four practices that schools can utilize in order to promote school membership among the student body: They are as follows:

(1) fostering respectful relationships between the faculty and the students;

(2) becoming involved with students and assisting them to solve personal difficulties and thereby expressing concern and caring;

(3) assisting students to meet educational standards and competencies;

(4) establishing linkages between the school and the community such that students are able to visualize the role that school plays in their future aspirations (Wehlage, 1989).

In exchange for the school establishing a culture that fosters school membership students are expected to engage in positive and respectful behaviors and to be actively involved in school and academic endeavors. Within this reciprocal community of respect and caring, teachers are encouraged to continue to put forth extra efforts, and students are assisted in developing the bonding so vital to their academic success.

Summary

The purpose of this section was to give an overview of identification with school and to describe the difficulty in providing a concise conceptual definition thereof due to the imprecision, the lack of clarity and the many related terms that have been used interchangeably. The definition decided upon for this research study was taken from work done by Voelkl (1997) and Finn (1989). A brief overview of selected concepts

believed to encompass the notions of (1) valuing school and school related outcomes and of (2) student psychological sense of belonging, and that were believed to have contributed significantly to the understanding of identification with school was given. These terms included psychological sense of school membership, alienation, disidentification, relatedness and engagement.

The literature involving identification with school and minorities was included because it has contributed significantly to the theoretical and empirical understandings of this concept. While some of the literature regarding minority identification with school lacked consensus, most of the literature and empirical findings suggested that minority students begin their academic career highly identified with school but, for varied reasons, tend to disidentify with academics at some point in their academic career.

The concepts engagement with school, school membership, disidentification, and relatedness were believed to be so intertwined with the concept of identification with school that a review of the empirical findings on identification with school included a review of the findings involving these concepts as well. A summary of the findings supported by this review was provided.

The process of identity formation, identification, and collective identification was discussed in order to provide an explanation for how students come to identify with school. Ashmore et al.'s (2004) *Nine Elements of Collective Identity* were reviewed. Identification with school was described as a function of both the development of a collective identity and the contextual environment of the school. Finally, a review of three theories that have had a significant impact on our understanding of student identification with school was presented. Of those three theories Self-System Processes

and School Membership Theory were believed to be most appropriate and useful for explaining this concept in the light of the present research study.

Through the lens of Self-system Processes and School Membership Theory, it is clear that, the social context of the school is very important and figures greatly into the academic success and developmental maturation of students. Schools that promote a sense of relatedness, provide an environment that fosters bonding between students and the adults in the school, and allow students to experience autonomy and demonstrate competence will minimize the risk of students withdrawing and disidentifying with academics. Furthermore, in order for students to accept the norms of the school as legitimate and to be actively engaged in schooling, there must be an atmosphere of mutual trust, respect, and pedagogical caring between faculty and students (Arriaza, 2003; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Voelkl, 1995; Wentzel, 1997).

Part II – Trust

The definition for trust used in this study is taken from recent work done by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). This multidimensional conception views trust as "an individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable competent, honest and open" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p.189). Recent legislation and the renewed interest in parent choice initiatives, on the one hand, and alternatives to public school education such as home schooling, charter schools, and voucher programs, on the other hand, are evidence of the waning trust of public school institutions.

The fact that there has been a decline in societal trust of public school education is not exclusively related to schooling. Tyler and Kramer (1996) describe this phenomenon

as follows: "American society is moving away from supporting long-term social connections between individuals and between individuals and organizations" (p.3). According to Tyler and Kramer this decline in trust is the result of a shift in the structure of society away from hierarchies with their formal controls and sanctions towards lateral alliances and groupings around temporary projects. It is also due to significant changes in the level of expectations regarding equality, a more informed general public, and an insistence upon accountability (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). In regard to the decline of trust in public institutions Hargreaves (2002) writes:

> In the past, trust was based in and grew out of traditional relationships of village ties, family loyalty and religious obligation. It was taken for granted in the familiarity and mutual dependence of tradition and routine, in tightly bounded communities and village life. In today's more complex societies and organizations, however, trust cannot be presumed. It must be built and won (p. 394-395).

In addition, Tyler and Kramer (1996) state that "trusting is linked to social context, and trusting behavior changes as social context changes (p.4)." The notion of trust is one that is vital to organizations because trust is closely linked with cooperative behavior, without which the organization's effectiveness and efficiency is severely hampered (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001).

Furthermore, with the recent push in education for teachers to adopt more inclusive and collaborative forms of teaching, educators have also been placed in the position of having to risk vulnerability and having to trust students and parents to participate meaningfully in decision-making. The following discussion will focus on the

evolution of the concept of trust in the literature and on its theoretical importance to organizations such as schools, and also on a reviewing of the empirical findings regarding trust in schools.

The Evolution of the Conceptual Definition of Trust

Like the definition of identification with school, the definition of trust is complex and has been ever changing, somewhat illusive, and difficult to comprehend. Furthermore, different disciplines have focused on different aspects of trust. Trust has been looked at in the literature from a variety of different perspectives and disciplines such as economics, organizational science, psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, history, and sociobiology (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1997). Lewicki and Bunker (1996) break this down into three major categories, namely: (1) personality theories – which have focused on individual differences in trust; (2) sociological and economic theories – which have emphasized institutional characteristics; and (3) social-psychological theories which have focused on interpersonal relationships that either foster or diminish trust. The last two categories are the ones that are of most interest in this research study in that they are the ones that are most applicable to an understanding of trust in schools and of the effect that it has on student identification with school.

Trust has been described as ubiquitous, in that its presence is all around us yet it goes unnoticed until something happens to threaten its survival (Baier, 1986; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). Baier (1986) states, "we come to realize what trust involves retrospectively and posthumously, once our vulnerability is brought home to us by actual wounds" (p.235). All relationships are based on some form of trust. Moreover, trust is

dynamic in nature, in that there are varying degrees of trust and varying levels of trust depending on the context and situation and this changes over time (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Thus trust has been described as an essential element for organizational health, an element that functions as a lubricant and a glue both facilitating and solidifying relationships within organizations (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999).

In a cardinal article on trust, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1999) trace the empirical study of trust in the literature and the evolution of the concept of trust over the past four decades, noting that the emergence of focus on trust in empirical research began in the 1950's as a response to the Cold War era, and continued to evolve as new occurrences threatened the stability of major institutions within society such as during the Viet Nam era, the disillusionment with the establishment among youth in America, the ever rising divorce rates, and/or the changes in technology and in information dissemination. This focus on trust continues today with the emphasis on accountability in business, government, and educational arenas and the looming global concerns regarding international terrorism in the wake of September 11th.

Since trust has been looked at in so many divergent ways, it becomes quite difficult to trace the evolution of the concept. Rotter (1971) defined interpersonal 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). Reacting to this notion that trust is an individual trait, Lewis and Weigert (1985) stated:

> From a sociological perspective, trust must be conceived as a property of collective units (ongoing dyads, groups, and collectives), not of isolated individuals. Being a collective attribute, trust is applicable to the relations among

people rather than to their psychological states taken individually. Therefore, we may say that trust exists in a social system….It is the mutual "faithfulness" on which all relationships ultimately depend. Consequently, trust may be thought of as a functional prerequisite for the possibility of society in that the only alternatives to appropriate trust are chaos and paralyzing fear (p.968).

There has even been confusion as to whether or not trust can be defined as a psychological or a sociological construct. Regarding this controversy, Lewis and Weigert (1985) stated that, "the primary function of trust is sociological rather than psychological, since individuals would have no occasion or need to trust apart from social relationships. In addition, the bases on which trust rests are primarily social" (p.969). On the other hand, Rousseau et al. (1998) stated quite the opposite, "trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (p. 295).

Baier (1986) defined trust as "letting other persons (natural or artificial, such as firms, nations, etc.) take care of something the truster cares about, where such 'caring for' involves some exercise of discretionary powers" (p.240). Coleman (1990) conceived of trust as a calculation of the probability that the trustee would not disappoint the truster. He stated that "individuals will rationally place trust if the ratio of the probability that the trustee will keep the trust to the probability that he will not is greater than the ratio of the potential loss to the potential gain" (p. 104). While clearly divergent, all these definitions of trust emphasize the notion of vulnerability of the truster. Baier (1986) describes this sense of vulnerability:

When one depends on another's good will, one is necessarily vulnerable to the

limits of that good will. One leaves others an opportunity to harm one when one

trusts, and also shows one's confidence that they will not take it. Reasonable trust

will require good grounds for such confidence in another's good will, or at least

the absence of good grounds for expecting their ill will or indifference. Trust

then….is accepted vulnerability to another's possible but not expected ill will (or

lack of good will) toward one (p. 235).

As can be seen from these earlier definitions of trust, they all focused on a

different aspect of trust; and thus, trust was conceived of as being unidimensional based

on the perspective that one took or the context in which one attempted to describe it.

While helping us to understand some of the dynamics of trust, these definitions prove to

be terribly inadequate, and later attempts to define trust have pointed out its

multidimensional nature.

Sheppard and Sherman (1998) stated with reference to this aspect of vulnerability

and trust, that:

> risk is at the heart of how people do and should think about trust but that risk
>
> varies distinctly as the form of a relationship varies… We argue therefore that
>
> trust is accepting the risks associated with the type and depth of the
>
> interdependence inherent in a given relationship (p. 422).

This points not only to the vulnerability factor that is involved in trust but also to the

dynamic nature of trust. Sheppard and Sherman (1998) conceptualized trust as having

four forms or relational depths, namely, (1) shallow dependence, (2) deep dependence,

(3) shallow interdependence, and (4) deep interdependence. These relational levels were

associated with different types of risks and different qualities of trustworthiness. Table I

below shows the levels of dependence as well as the risks and qualities identified at each

stage by Sheppard and Sherman (1998, p. 427).

Table I: Form of Dependence, Risks, and Qualities of Trustworthiness

Form of Dependence	*Risks*	*Qualities of trustworthiness*
Shallow dependence	Indiscretion Unreliability	Discretion Reliability Competence
Deep dependence	Cheating Abuse Neglect Self-esteem	Integrity Concern Benevolence
Shallow Interdependence	Poor Coordination	Predictability Consistency
Deep Interdependence	Misanticipation	Foresight Intuition Empathy

In discussing how trust relates to crisis management, Mishra (1996)

conceptualized trust as being an essential component involved with three organizational

behaviors: (1) decentralized decision-making, (2) undistorted communication, and (3)

elaboration within and across organizations. Continuing to establish the growing

tradition that trust is multidimensional in nature, Mishra argued that trust is made up of

four dimensions. He defined trust as "one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another

party based on the belief that the latter party is (a) competent, (b) open, (c) concerned,

and (d) reliable" (Mishra, 1996, p. 265).

Adding to Mishra's (1996) definition Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999)

described trust as having five dimensions, and they further defined trust as, "an

individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the

confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest and open"

(p.189). Hoy and Tschannen-Moran added *honesty* to Mishra's (1996) definition also

replacing *concerned* with *benevolent*. This later definition of trust is the one that has been used for this research study. In addition to these five facets of trust, there are two other components inherent in this definition, willingness to risk vulnerability, and confidence respectively, suggesting that trusting involves an attitude that one chooses in the presence of potential risk and uncertainty. The following will describe the five dimensions of trust:

(1) Benevolence – which refers to confidence resting on the good-will of another and that the trusted person will not violate or harm that which has been entrusted into his/her care.

(2) Reliability – which involves confidence in the ability to predict another's favorable action.

(3) Competence – which involves confidence in the level of skill, expertise or professionalism of another person.

(4) Honesty – which is confidence in the person's character and integrity.

(5) Openness – which is confidence that another person will not withhold or distort information.

To these five dimensions of trust Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) add several conditions which tend to act as precursors for trust, namely:

(1) Disposition to trust – which refers to one's predisposition towards trusting, possibly resulting from childhood experiences. One's tendency to risk trusting differs from person to person, from culture to culture, and from one ethnic group to another ethnic group.

(2) Moods and emotions – people experience a range of affective states that can greatly influence their willingness to risk trusting; can result from whether or not one likes the trustee but is not dependent upon this.

(3) Values and attitudes – people trust those who they believe share their attitudes and values. This is often the case in organizations and professional groups.

(4) Trust and diversity – people are inclined to trust those who are socially similar to themselves and tend to distrust those whom they perceive as dissimilar.

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) further state that there are six types of trust

(1) Calculative trust – which is trust based on an analysis of the costs of violating trust versus the benefits of maintaining trust.

(2) Institution-based trust – which is trust conferred because an agency or organization is perceived as having the necessary structures in place to ensure smooth and successful operation.

(3) Knowledge-based trust – which is trust generated due to repeated experiences with another party that have confirmed that the other person is reliable, predictable and dependable.

(4) Uneven trust – which describes the variation in the level of trust one has for another person; it may be different based on situational contexts and areas such that one may not trust the other person equally in all areas.

(5) Unconditional trust – which is trust that results from identification with another party to the extent that the other party is viewed as sharing one's own values and beliefs and therefore is able to act on behalf of the truster.

(6) Optimal trust – in terms of which there is a delicate balance between trusting too much and trusting too little.

More recently Bryk and Schneider (2002) used the term *relational trust* to refer to trust in educational settings, which they state involves the fulfillment of specific reciprocal expectations regarding role relationships between all the parties associated within schools. Bryk and Schneider state that this trust is based on expectations regarding respect, competence, personal regard for others, and integrity. They assert that trust is vital and fundamental to the operation of schools and to the implementation of reform initiatives, being an essential element when it comes to creating an atmosphere conducive to the education of disadvantaged and minority students.

The purpose of this section has been to show the progression of the conception of trust in the literature and to come to a conclusion regarding what is meant by this term. While the evolution of the concept of trust has been at times conflicting, and even contradictory, the recent trend towards conceptualizing trust as multidimensional is proving to be more promising. Although there has been a history of divergent views and explanations of trust, certain common elements have emerged. Trust involves vulnerability on the part of the truster without which it would not be necessary to trust in the first place (Baier, 1986; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). Trust is dynamic and has identifiable stages (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1997, 1999). Furthermore, even trust of an individual can vary

from situation to situation and differ from referent to referent. Trust involves psychological attitudes, social interactions and behavioral actions (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). There are several contextual conditions that pave the way for the development of trust, such as one's disposition to trust and the tendency to trust others who are similar to oneself (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1997). There are several different types of trust, which vary based on the context such that trust can be conceived of as involving individuals, groups, or entire organizations. Moreover, trust is a vital resource and a necessary element in all forms of relationships that are perceived of as valuable (Baier, 1986; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1997, 1999).

Trust in Organizations

The study of trust in organizational theory has taken two general directions. On the one hand, trust has been viewed as a choice behavior, involving rational choice; on the other hand it has been viewed as relational, involving one's social orientation (Kramer, 1999). The *rational choice* approach comes mainly from political, economic, and sociological theory. Trust is conceived of as resulting from calculated gains and losses. According to Kramer (1999) "individuals are presumed to be motivated to make rational, efficient choices (i.e. to maximize expected gains or minimize expected losses from their transactions)" (p. 572). These choices are based on calculations regarding the similarity of value systems between the negotiators and "a sophisticated understanding of the other party's interests" (Kramer, 1999, p.572). Thus, one can anticipate cooperation based on the knowledge that it is in the other party's best interest to cooperate and based on the knowledge of the value system by which the other person is operating. This is simply a calculation of risks and benefits.

Some of the criticism of this perspective points out that it is too narrowly focused and does not include emotional, affective, and situational elements that a person may be operating under (Kramer, 1999). While this model is prescriptive in nature, it is not necessarily predictive of how decisions regarding trust are actually made. Kramer (1999) states "the extent to which decisions about trust, or any other risky decision for that matter, are products of conscious calculation and internally consistent value systems is suspect" (p. 573).

As for the *relational models*, they focus on the social and contextual elements that foster trust-related decisions. This approach stems from sociological theories such as social identity theory and the group-value model (Kramer, 1999). According to Kramer (1999) a common thread through these theories "is their broader emphasis on social rather than purely instrumental (resource-based) motives driving trust behavior, including consideration of how actors' self-presentational concerns and identity-related needs and motives influence trust-related cognition and choice" (p. 574).

Kramer proposes that despite the disparity between these two perspectives it is possible to combine elements of both views such that one can develop;

> A conception of organizational trust that incorporates calculative processes as part
> of the fundamental "arithmetic" of trust, but that also articulates how social and
> situational factors influence the salience and relative weight afforded to various
> instrumental and noninstrumental concerns in such calculations (p. 574).

Kramer quotes Hardin (1992, cited in Kramer, 1999) as proposing that trust within organizations be conceptualized as having three parts: characteristics of the truster, characteristics of the trustee, and situational characteristics, respectively.

Antecedent Conditions of Trust within Organizations

Kramer (1999) asserts that there are at least six antecedent conditions that promote the establishment of trusting relationships within organizations and predispose individuals to engage in trusting behavior. He states that these six conditions are dispositional trust, history-based trust, third parties as conduits of trust, category-based trust, role-based trust, and rule-based trust. The six conditions are defined as follows:

(1) Dispositional trust – an individual's predisposition towards trust, possibly resulting from childhood experiences and their general beliefs and orientations regarding human nature.

(2) History-based trust – trust that is built up over time due to repeated interactions with another person that prove that the person is reliable and that their behavior is predictable. This is based both on (a) a priori expectations and (b) subsequent experiences that either validate or negate these expectations.

(3) Third parties as conduits of trust – second hand information passed on via other people who have had experiences with the other individual. This information can be unreliable because people tend to communicate only part of the information or may communicate either a skewed version or information that they believe the person wants to hear. Never the less, third parties act as go-betweens to help in the transition of building new relationships when inadequate knowledge of the other person and an insufficient history of transactions have occurred whereby precise judgments can be made.

(4) Category-based trust – trust that is built upon expectations of another individual based upon his/her membership in a particular group. This view derives from social identity theory, which posits that individuals tend to view other in-group members in a favorable light and to see them as similar to themselves (Tajfel, 1978). This is presumptive trust that is not built on direct knowledge of the individual.

(5) Role-based trust – trust that is accorded to an individual based upon his/her role in a company or his/her position; the person is perceived as trustworthy despite lack of knowledge of his/her personal attributes and without a substantive history of interactions to confirm these notions.

(6) Rule-based trust – trust based on the role of explicit rules and tacit knowledge regarding the normative practices that can be expected in a particular context, involving confidence in the socialization of the individual within the given context. This type of trust can be thought of as having a "taken-for –granted" quality.

Creed and Miles (1996) state that there are three central mechanisms of trust development within organizations. Those three sources of trust production are process-based, characteristic-based, and institutional based. These are enumerated as follows:

(1) Process-based trust– "arises either through the personal experience of recurring exchanges, such as gift exchanges, or in expectations based on reputation" (Creed & Miles, 1996, p.18).

(2) Characteristic-based trust – "is based on norms of obligation and cooperation rooted in social similarity" (p.18). This would be similar to the category-based trust posited by Kramer (1999). "Common characteristics may provide an inclination to trust and trust begets trust" (Creed & Miles, 1996, p.18).

(3) Institutional-based trust – trust that is "tied to formal societal structures, depending on individual or firm-specific attributes" (Creed & Miles, 1996, p.18). According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1999) institutional-based trust involves the willingness of parents, students, and school personnel to engage in trusting relationships based on the notion that the structures necessary to ensure a successful outcome are in place.

Trust in organizations can be seen as an essential element that promotes smooth and efficient operation and is "a critical success element to most business, professional, and employment relationships" (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996, p.117). Lack of trust has been shown to be very costly; it can even result in complete severing of relationships (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Collective Trust

Collective trust has been referred to as *institution-based trust* (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999) or as *identification-based trust* (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Collective trust refers to trust that is accorded to an institution, group, collective, or profession based on membership in that group and the assumption of shared ideas, values, and practices. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1999) define this kind of trust as being the result of individuals having the confidence that the necessary structures within the organization are in place to ensure a successful outcome. For schools, this is a very important idea.

Indeed, trust within schools involves reciprocal relationships between the faculty and the principal, between the faculty and the students/parents, and between the parents/students and the school. Bryk and Schneider (2002) refer to it as *relational trust*; it is trust that is not confined to individual relationships but trust that evolves within an agency, group, or organization as a collective. One would suspect that when the faculty of the school demonstrates high levels of trust as a collective group, they would be more efficacious and indeed recent research in the area of collective teacher efficacy has supported this notion (Tschannen-Moran & Goddard, 1999).

In regards to collective trust, Kramer et al. (1996) note that "the willingness of individuals to engage in trust behavior in situations requiring collective action is tied to the salience and strength of their identification with an organization and its members" (p. 359). Collective trust is a pertinent topic to consider when thinking about schooling because it involves a collective effort on the part of the principal, teachers, students, and parents. How identified each of these groups is with the school could have important consequence for the mission of the school. It is also pertinent to this discussion of the relationship between trust and student identification with school. It is interesting to note that trust, as relating to schools involves collective identification. Thus, it makes sense to assume, although no known empirical studies to date have addressed this issue, that collective trust within schools could have an effect on how identified with academics students are.

Unfortunately, Kramer et al. (1996) point out that this type of trust is one of the most difficult to foster, mainly because of the size of the organization, the complexity of organizational life, and the tendency towards competitiveness. Schools add another

feature to this problem given the tendency of teaching to focus on individual creativity rather than collective action and collective identification. However, recent trends that have encouraged a focus on more collaborative and inclusive teaching methods, shared decision-making, and accountability may provide an impetus towards rethinking this orientation towards pedagogy.

Kramer et al. (1996) argue that collective trust or identity-based trust rests on "(a) expectations of reciprocity, (b) perceptions of efficacy, and (c) expectations regarding the hedonic reinforcement of consequences" (p. 371), and they identify four types of motives for engaging in collective trust. The four motive types are enumerated here as follows:

(1) Reciprocity-based trust – trust that evolves based on common expectations of behavior within an organization

(2) Elicitative trust – trust that evolves based on the expectation that if you behave in a certain way others within the organization will be prompted to do so also.

(3) Compensatory trust – trust that one engages in the hopes of off-setting other potentially harmful behavior within the organization.

(4) Moralistic trust – trust based on one's moral values of what is right and what is wrong.

The development of collective or group-based trust has the potential to enhance trust levels between individuals within the organization. In the case of schools, fostering a high sense of trust in the organization can lead individuals to confer trust upon the members by virtue of the fact that they are a part of the same organization. In a school that fosters a high sense of trust among faculty, students, and parents, teachers would be

50

expected to act in a trustworthy manner. Fostering an atmosphere of institution-based

trust could conceivably help to rebuild relationships with families and the community.

Kramer et al. (1996) even argue that collective trust enhances an organization's ability to

take collective action and to solve problems collectively, which is something that can

only improve efforts to reform schooling.

Schools and Trust

The subject of the importance of trust in schools has been a much-neglected topic

until recently. However, for the past decade, some scholars such as Hoy and colleagues

have established a consistent line of inquiry into the importance of trust and its

consequences for schools (Goddard et. al., 2001; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1984, 1985; Hoy &

Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Hoy et. al., 1992; Tarter et. al., 1989, 1995; Tschannen-Moran

& Hoy; 1997). Together this distinguished group of researchers has made significant

progress towards understanding the effects of trust in school environments. While they

are not the only ones to take an interest in this subject they have certainly assisted in

paving the way for future researchers and assisted substantially in providing a common

ground from which further research on trust in schools can grow.

It is a commonly held belief that public trust in schools has diminished

significantly over the past several decades. This is made evident by recent legislation and

mandates regarding parent choice initiatives such as home schooling, charter schools,

and/or voucher programs on the one hand, and the increasing emphasis on high-stakes

testing, mandated state standards and accountability, on the other hand. Bryk and

Schneider (1996) state, "this distrust reflects a belief that schools are inadequately

fulfilling their responsibilities to educate the nation's children to be productive citizens"

(p. 1), and they also indicate that this increasing distrust of schools is partly due to the erosion of social relationships between school personnel and families due to legislation to promote desegregation, which in turn removed children from the communities that they lived in and separated teachers from the communities that they served. Increasing urbanization can also be seen as one of the culprits in this demise.

It can be argued that schools are organizations, and a significant amount of research has been done in the area of the effect of trust in organizations. Some of the findings of such research may be applied to schools. However, schools have the peculiar feature of being organizations that are grounded in relational ties. As Bryk and Schneider (1996) put it, "the academic work of school rests on a foundation of social relations among local school professionals and the parents and community the school is supposed to serve" (p. 2). The kind of trust associated with school has been referred to as *relational trust* (Bryk & Schneider, 1996) or *institution-based trust* (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Bryk and Schneider (1996) define relational trust as trust that "is formed through the mutual understandings that arise out of the sustained associations among individuals and institutions, each of which is expected to behave in a normative appropriate manner" (p. 6). This type of trust involves personal judgments about individuals' intentions and behavior relative to normative expectations of what should take place within schools. Bryk and Schneider explain their understanding of relational trust as follows:

> In sum, relational trust entails a dynamic interplay of actual behavior and a
> discernment of the intentions in the context of the obligations shared by various
> parties. Trust is diminished when individuals perceive that others are not acting

in ways that manifest these common commitments. Thus, the fulfillment of obligations on which relational trust rests entails not only 'doing the right thing', but also doing it for what is perceived to be the 'right reasons'"(p. 7).

Bryk and Schneider (1996) argue that there are at least three major consequences of developing a strong sense of relational trust between all parties within the school. They are; a high level of trust fosters increased cooperation between all parties, normative values within high trust organizations act as a social control mechanism, and relational trust acts as a resource during times of transition and change, respectively. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1997) concur with this idea of the positive consequences of trust within schools stating that "as trust declines the costs of doing business increase" (p. 334). To the notion of trust as providing a social control mechanism, they state, "the social network of relationships within an organization can exert both formal and informal control that encourages people to act in a trustworthy manner" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1997, p. 334). Trust therefore can be seen as a vital resource for school effectiveness. It has, in fact, been shown that teacher trust in the principal and in colleagues has been linked to school effectiveness (Hoy et al., 1992; Tarter et al., 1995), teacher trust in students and parents has been linked to academic success of students (Goddard et al., 2000), and trust in schools has been linked to teacher efficacy (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

A high level of trust improves effectiveness, has consequences for academic outcomes, and significantly effects collaboration among all the parties within schools. In this respect, Tschannen-Moran (2001) states:

Principals who do not trust their teachers will not share authority and

responsibility. Teachers who do not trust one another will not give over a

measure of their autonomy in order to collaborate with others. School personnel

who do not trust parents will guard against giving them a real voice in decisions

affecting the school. Inversely as principals, teachers, and parents have

opportunities for greater genuine participation, this may fuel a spiral of trust that

generates more trust. Collaboration and trust are reciprocal processes; they

depend upon and foster one another (pp. 314-315).

Adams and Christenson (2000) discussed certain elements of collaboration that

they believe to be essential, namely, mutual respect, honest communication, open sharing

of information, mutually agreed upon goals, shared planning, and shared decision-

making. In regards to these elements, they state, "trust between families and school is

implicit in these elements of collaboration; in fact, we contend these elements are

predicated on trust between partners" (Adams & Christenson, 2000, p. 479). Since

school effectiveness is so closely tied with cooperation, collaboration, and positive social

relationships, and since trust seems to provide a foundation upon which these things rest,

the conclusion can be arrived at that trust is an essential element and a vital resource for

enhancing school effectiveness.

School Structure, School Leadership, and Trust

A discussion of trust in schools would not be complete without adding a comment

regarding school structure and school leadership. It has been argued earlier in this

section on *Trust* that schools are organizations and, as such, many of the characteristics of

organizations apply to schooling. As with other organizations, the structure of schools

matters. Hoy and Sweetland (unpublished manuscript) write, "structure can either hinder

or enable the effective operation of schools" (p.4). Schools can also be considered to be

bureaucracies. Hoy and Sweetland (2001) argue that bureaucracies are made up of two

primary features: formalization, and centralization. Formalization refers to "the degree to

which the organization has written rules, regulations, procedures, and policies" (Hoy &

Sweetland, 2001, p.297). Furthermore, they argue that there are two types of

formalizations: coercive formalization and enabling formalization. Here is how the two

types of formalization are defined:

> (a) Coercive formalization – refers to rules and procedures that are used to punish
>
> subordinates when they do not comply; such rules tend to hinder productive work
>
> practices and more often than not alienate.
>
> (b) Enabling formalization helps individuals solve work problems. Such
>
> procedures are flexible guides that reflect "best practices" and help subordinates
>
> deal with difficulties and dilemmas. (Hoy & Sweetland, unpublished manuscript,
>
> p. 5)
>
> In addition to formalization, bureaucracies are characterized by centralization.

Hoy and Sweetland (unpublished manuscript) describe centralization as:

> the extent to which employees participate in decision-making. High-
>
> centralization concentrates decision-making at the top in the hands of a few elites
>
> whereas; low centralization diffuses decision-making among many participants
>
> (p. 6).

Furthermore, Hoy and Sweetland identify two types of centralization: hindering

centralization and enabling centralization, which they define as follows:

(a) Hindering centralization – refers to an administrative hierarchy that impedes rather than helps solve problems.

(b) Enabling centralization – in contrast helps participants solve problems rather than getting in the way. (Hoy & Sweetland, unpublished manuscript, p. 6)

The structure of schooling has been shown to be related to school outcomes and to levels of trust within schools (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). Schools that have enabling school structures, that value professional judgment, that have flexible guidelines based on best practices, and that encourage collaboration and cooperation could also be expected to foster increased identification with school and positive academic performance.

Thus, the principal is a critical person in establishing enabling school structures. Empirical evidence has demonstrated that the behavior of the principal matters in that "supportive leadership on the part of the principal influenced the degree of trust teachers felt for the principal" ((Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1997, p. 341). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1999) write, "if organizations hope to garner the benefits of a trusting work environment it is management's responsibility to initiate trusting relationships through trustworthy behavior" (p. 18). Willingness on the part of leadership to engage in behavior that allows open and honest communication and shared decision-making and consistent concern for the needs and wishes of the faculty and staff can be a key factor in establishing a culture of trust within the school (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999).

Empirical Study of Trust

Hoy, Tarter, and Witkoskie (1992) examined the role of the principal in predicting school effectiveness. In a study conducted in 44 elementary schools in New Jersey, they found that the principal's leadership style was a positive predictor of teacher collegiality

and teacher trust of principal. When the principal engaged in supportive leadership that reflected concern, praise, and respect teachers in turn responded by demonstrating an increased collegiality and increased trust for the principal. Also, while supportive leadership style was not directly related to effectiveness it did promote teacher collegiality and teacher behavior was linked to school effectiveness.

In a five-year study conducted in the Chicago schools, Bryk and Schneider (1996) investigated the effects of role relationships upon school change efforts. They focused specifically on teacher-teacher relationships, teacher-principal relationships, and teacher-parent relationships. In their study combing survey data, interviews and direct observation they found that positive reciprocal relationships between teachers, principal, and parents served to create a necessary resource to initiate and sustain reform efforts. More specifically Bryk and Schneider found the following:

(1) "Principal leadership was associated with positive trust relations." (p.28)

(2) Teachers are more trusting in smaller schools.

(3) Student achievement was found to be a predictor of teacher-parent trust, with. teachers tending to trust mainly parents of students who have a history of higher academic performance.

(4) Schools with lower trust levels had significantly more racial/ethnic tension.

(5) "Teacher-teacher, teacher-parent, and teacher-principal relationships were positively related to…school commitment, orientation to innovation, outreach to parents, and collective responsibility." (p. 30)

Overall Bryk and Schneider's findings suggest that trusting relationships within schools serve as a positive resource to assist in school reform efforts.

Kratzer (1997) conducted an ethnographic study in an urban elementary school in Los Angeles described as having "a positive climate and sense of community, effective site-based management, teacher collaboration and collegiality, significant parent involvement and enthusiasm, and student centered curricular and instructional approaches" (p. 2). Kratzer was interested in understanding what type of relationships between the school personnel, parents, and students predicted this kind of school culture. She found that respect, caring, and trust were central to the relationships involving the parties in that school.

Young (1998) conducted an ethnographic study in an urban elementary school in Texas that served a large population of Mexican-American students. She was interested in understanding the effects of trust upon family involvement among low-income Mexican American families, and she found that it is important for school personnel to clearly understand the cultural dynamics of the communities that they serve. Some of these families had a tendency, due to the cultural bias of respecting authority, to defer too much authority to the school. In order to foster trusting relationships with families, Young found that it was important to focus on communication with such families, in order to encourage involvement and collaboration and shared decision-making. She suggested that it is also important to assist such families in learning how to appropriately participate in their children's' education.

In an empirical study meant to validate an instrument to measure teacher trust in principal, teacher trust in teacher, and teacher trust in clients, Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) found that faculty trust was significantly related to parental collaboration with the school. Trust in the principal was related to trust in colleagues and trust in clients and

teacher trust in clients was found to be the most salient predictor of parental collaboration with the school. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran note that approximately two-thirds of the variation in parental collaboration was explained by faculty trust. This study resulted in the validation of an instrument to measure the five-fold dimensional nature of trust that Hoy and Tschannen-Moran had theorized. Thus, a set of trust scales was developed to measure three dimensions of faculty trust, namely teacher trust of principal, teacher trust of teacher, and teacher trust of clients.

In an empirical study conducted by Tschannen-Moran (2000) that investigated the relationship between collaboration and trust it was found that there is a significant relationship between collaboration and trust in schools. Tschannen-Moran's sample consisted of 45 schools in an urban school district. Using school as the unit of analysis Tschannen-Moran predicted that the level of trust in a school would be related to the level of collaboration therein. She found that for principals, teachers and parents, alike, the level of collaboration was related to the level of trust. Trust in clients was the most salient predictor of the overall trust within the school and collaboration with parents was the most potent of the collaboration variables: in the schools where there was a high level of trust in parents and students, there was a high degree of collaboration with parents.

Adams and Christenson (2000) conducted a study with "1,234 parents and 209 teachers in a first-ring suburban school district in a large Midwestern metropolitan area" (p.483), which included six schools. Using survey data they found that parents and teachers demonstrate higher levels of trust at elementary school level, that parental trust wanes as students move up to the high school level that parents trust teachers

significantly more than teachers trust parents, and that communication is a key factor involved with improving trust levels between teachers and parents.

Goddard et al.'s (2001) research supports the notion that the establishment of a trusting environment can assist in fostering academic achievement among disadvantaged students. More specifically it was found that the level of teacher trust in students and parents is positively correlated with, and predictive of, academic achievement. Goddard et al. also found that the establishment of a trusting relationship with students and parents is vital to the academic success of disadvantaged students. In their study conducted in 47 urban elementary schools, involving 452 teachers and 2,536 fourth-grade students they found that teacher trust in students and parents was positively correlated with academic achievement and could be used as a predictor of academic success. Schools with high teacher trust in students and parents had significantly higher academic performance across the board. The study offers some compelling findings. When race, gender and SES were controlled for, the results indicated that,

> The amount of trust teachers have in students and in parents outweighs the effects of poverty, because school SES is not a significant predictor of differences between schools in student achievement when the effect of trust is considered. Trust seems to foster a context that supports student achievement, even in the face of poverty. (Goddard et al., 2001, p. 14)

Summary of Findings on Trust in Schools

The purpose of this section was to review the empirical findings on trust in schools. This review clearly shows that trust is a vital element in creating the type of environment that will promote efficient and effective outcomes. These findings reviewed

above suggest that supportive leadership is related to increased levels of trust and collaboration. Higher levels of trust were found to be significantly associated with increased collaboration and collegiality between faculty, which in turn was associated with increased academic performance. Higher levels of trust were predictive of increased levels of commitment to reform initiatives. Schools that demonstrated a strong positive climate were found to have high levels of respect, caring, and trust. Parents are more trusting of teachers at the elementary school level, and their trust tends to decrease as students move to higher grades. Communication is a key to increasing relationships of trust between teachers and parents. Finally, teacher trust in clients proved to be the most salient predictor of overall levels of school trust, being highly associated with academic performance and seemingly outweighing the deleterious effects of poverty.

Theoretical Explanation for Trust Development and Trust Repair

Transitional Stages of Trust Theory

Lewicki and Bunker describe three stages of trust development within organizations. The three stages of trust as defined by Lewicki and Bunker (1996) are:

(1) Calculus-based trust – which is trust at the initial stage and at its most basic level. It is based both on a fear of the consequences of violating trust and the knowledge of perceived rewards as a result of maintaining trust.

(2) Knowledge-based trust – which develops over time, after repeated interactions with another party, allowing one to be able to predict one's partner's course of action based on the history of interactions that has developed between the two. The predictable nature of this type of relationship adds to the level of credibility and trust in and of itself.

(3) Identification-based trust – which is the highest level of trust, being based on identification with another's wants and intentions. It can be the result of identification with a particular group such as the collective identification discussed earlier in this chapter. "Identification-based trust thus permits a party to serve as the other's agent and substitute for the other in interpersonal transactions (Deutsch, 1949, cited in Lewicki and Bunker, 1996)."

Lewicki and Bunker's description of the stages of trust, which grew out of work done by Boone and Holmes (1991, cited in Lewicki & Bunker, 1996) focusing on the development of trust in intimate relationships, makes it clear that trust develops over time and that the characteristics of trust are different at each stage. Furthermore, this framework of trust allows for the specification of how trust is developed in organizations, how it is broken, and how it may be repaired at the different stages of transitional development.

In keeping with the literature on collective identity Lewicki and Bunker (1996) present four suggestions for fostering identification based trust. Their suggestions are the following: developing a collective identity; collocation in the same building or neighborhood; creating joint products or goals; and committing to commonly shared values. Thus trust moves from one stage to the other in a progression requiring different kinds of interactions at the different stages of transitional trust development. The movement from one stage to another may require a change in one's frame of reference or "dominant perceptual paradigm" (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996, p.125). Lewicki and Bunker explain this process as follows:

In this first case (movement from calculus-based to knowledge-based trust), the

frame change is a shift from a perceptual sensitivity to *contrasts* (differences)

between self and the other to a perceptual sensitivity to *assimilation* (similarities)

between self and the other. A similar frame change (shift) occurs in the evolution

from knowledge-based to identification-based trust. In this case the shift is from

simply extending one's *knowledge* about the other to a more personal

identification with the other (p. 125).

Violations of Trust

It is important to add to the understanding of the development and maintenance of

trust in relationships an understanding of how and why trust violations occur and what

the potential effect of violations is on a relationship. Trust is a very fragile commodity: it

is easily destroyed and once broken is very difficult to repair. Furthermore, it is easier to

engender distrust than to engender trust. Lewicki and Bunker (1996) state, "sometimes

the decline occurs in a single violation that is so severe that it effectively eliminates all

trust; other times, the decline is more gradual erosion of trust" (p. 125).

Because trusting involves the notion of placing oneself or something that one

cares about in position of vulnerability, violations of that trust can be devastating. Hoy

and Tschannen-Moran (2000) write, "the nature of a trusting relationship can be altered

instantaneously with a simple comment, a betrayed confidence, or a decision that violates

the sense of care one has expected of another" (p. 26). That type of violation is often

referred to as a betrayal. According to Elangovan and Shapiro (1998) betrayal is defined

as "a voluntary violation of mutually known pivotal expectations of the truster by the

trusted party (trustee), which has the potential to threaten the well-being of the truster" (p.

548). Elangovan and Shapiro add that there are two types of betrayal: accidental betrayal, which is unintentional betrayal of another, and intentional betrayal, which they categorize further as either premeditated or opportunistic, respectively.

Lewicki and Bunker (1996) proposed that trust violations occur at all the three stages of trust. As a result there exist violations of calculus-based trust, violations of knowledge-based trust and, violations of identification-based trust. Identification-based trust violations are by far the most serious and damaging, in that they can often be experienced as "major relationship-transforming events" (p. 127).

Lewicki et al. (1998) defined distrust in terms of "confident negative expectations regarding another's conduct" (p. 439). They further argued that although they conceptualized as bi-polar terms, trust and distrust, are distinctly separate constructs, such that low trust is not the same as high distrust. To clarify this further they state, "our thesis rests on the contention that trust and distrust are not opposite ends of a single trust-distrust continuum – the opposite of trust is not distrust (p. 448). " They warn that:

It would be extremely misleading to assume either that the positive predictors of trust would necessarily be negative predictors of distrust or that the positive consequences of trust would necessarily be influenced negatively by increased distrust. (Lewicki et al., 1998, p. 448)

In describing the dynamics of trust and suspicion within organizations Kramer (1999) argues that there are a number of factors which can contribute to distrust within organizations, such as:

(1) Evaluative scrutiny – which is moderated by one's disposition to trust or distrust.

(2) Social categorization – which is the tendency to distrust those who are dissimilar.

(3) Breaches in the psychological contract – which are unmet expectations on the part of the employee regarding the employer.

(4) Technology – which is the use of monitoring devices such as surveillance systems and other forms of electronic monitoring.

(5) Structural position in an organization – e.g. middle management or third parties.

Trust violations involve the disappointment of one's confidence that has been placed in another person or entity and can have significant, enduring, and differing effects at different stages of the relationship (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Specifically, "the more developed the relationship, the more the parties have the capacity to handle violations, especially at lower (earlier) stages" (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996, p.128).

Repairing Broken Trust

It is essential to add to the topic of the theoretical development and maintenance of trust and the process by which trust is broken, a discussion of how trust can be repaired. Lewicki and Bunker (1996) in line with their theoretical development of the transitional stages of trust provide a nice framework from which to consider this topic. There are three assumptions that Lewicki and Bunker present before they begin the discussion of trust repair. The three assumptions are as follows:

(1) Trust has a cognitive and emotional basis.

(2) Trust violations affect the interpersonal system and hence have an impact on the parties and the fundamental relationship between them.

(3) Trust repair is a bi-lateral process.

Figure I represents a conceptual diagram of the dynamics of trust violations and the repair process as presented by Lewicki and Bunker (1996, p. 126).

Figure I: The Dynamics of Trust Violation (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996, p. 126)

TRUST VIOLATION

RESPONSE OF VIOLATOR

- GUILTY AS CHARGED
- asks forgiveness
- restorative behaviors
- ambivalent re: relationship
- withdrawn, hostile to relationship

NOT GUILTY (OR) DISAGREEMENT
- depends on importance of relationship
- Depends on perceived responsibility for action

TRUST RELATIONSHIP

IN BALANCE

STATE OF:
- Insatiability
- Negative affect
- Uncertainty
- Negative affect

COGNITIVE ACTIVITY
to determine
- Degree of Violation
- Assignment of responsibility
- Degree of negative affects

EMOTIONAL ACTIVITY
- Deal with hurt, anger
- Assess feelings for other

OUTCOME

RELATIONSHIP RUPTURE
or
RELATIONSHIP RECALIBRATION
or
RELATIONSHIP RESTORATION

Repairing trust is not a simple process. In order for the trust repair process to begin both the violator and the victim must acknowledge that trust has been broken and they must both make a commitment to begin the trust repair process. As Lewicki and Bunker (1996) put it,

> In order for parties to engage in a trust repair process, each must be willing to invest time and energy into the repair process, perceive that the short – and/or long-term benefits to be derived from the relationship are highly valued – that is, the payoff is "worth" the investment of additional energy, perceive that the benefits to be derived are preferred relative to options for having those needs satisfied in an alternative manner (p. 129).

The nature of the relationship will determine the parties' willingness to commit to the trust repair process. Below is the list of the four steps, which according to Lewicki and

Bunker (1996), both the victim and the violator must go through in order to begin the process of trust repair:

Step 1.   Recognize and acknowledge that a violation has occurred.

Step 2.   Determine the nature of the violation – that is, what "caused" the violation – and that one's actions caused it.

Step 3.   Admit that the event was destructive of trust.

Step 4.   Be willing to accept responsibility for the violation (p. 132)

According to Lewicki and Bunker (1996) the next step requires "the victim to request, or the violator to offer, some form of forgiveness, atonement, or action designed to undo the violation and rebuild the trust" (p. 133). There are several courses of action that can result from this initial stage of trust repair. Specifically, they can either result in the actual repairing of the broken trust or can make it impossible for this process to be completed. At this point, the decision rests with the victim. If the violator of the trust was not willing to commit to trust repair, the process would not have been initiated in the first place. According to Lewicki and Bunker (1996), the victim must now decide which of the following steps to take:

1. The victim refuses to accept any actions, terms, or conditions for reestablishing the relationship.

2. The victim acknowledges forgiveness and specifies "unreasonable" acts of reparation and/or trust restoration that must be fulfilled by the violator.

3. The victim acknowledges forgiveness and indicates that no further acts of reparation are necessary.

4. The victim acknowledges forgiveness and specifies "reasonable" acts of

reparation and /or trust restoration that must be fulfilled by the violator (pp. 134-

135).

Many factors contribute to whether or not the trust is repairable. For instance, one's

disposition towards forgiveness, the extent of the violation, and the stage at which the

violation occurred will all have a significant effect on the outcome of this process

(Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

The purpose of this section was to identify the theoretical perspective that is being

used for this study to explain the trust process. How trust is established, maintained,

broken, and repaired has been discussed. Lewicki and Bunker's (1996) *Transitional

Stages of Trust Development* is the model that was chosen to explain this process. This

model lends itself readily to the explanation of how trust is established, the stages of

trust, how trust is violated and the courses of action necessary to initiate trust repair.

Overall from this analysis it is clear that trust is a very complex phenomenon to explain,

and it involves not only identifiable stages but is greatly influenced by other factors, such

as one's disposition to trust and the context in which the trust exchange takes place. How

committed one is to establishing, maintaining, and repairing broken trust has to do with

the value ascribed to the relationship.

Summary

The purpose of this section of the paper was to review the literature on trust and to

reach a conceptual understanding of this concept. As can be seen from the review of

literature, trust is a complex concept, which makes it difficult to define. The emphasis on

trust in the literature is relatively new, but it has become a topic of interest and discussion

in a wide array of disciplines, each of which has looked at trust through its specific lens and has at times only attempted to explain one aspect thereof. However, as shown by this review, trust is multidimensional and recent definitions have tried to capture this aspect of trust (Blair & Sheppard, 1998; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Mishra, 1996). The definition that was adopted for this research study comes from Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999), who defined trust as having five faces: openness, honesty, reliability, competence, and benevolence. While there has been some disagreement as to whether or not trust is a psychological or sociological construct, recent research has tended to emphasize that trust has psychological, sociological, and behavioral features alike (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Mishra, 1996). Also most researchers agree that trust involves a willingness to risk vulnerability without which there would be no reason to trust (Baier, 1986; Hargreaves, 2002; Hoy &Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Mishra, 1996; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998).

Since much of the research that has been done surrounding this topic stems from organizational theory, a review of that literature was done as well. As may have become apparent, there are several kinds of trust as well as certain contextual situations that act as antecedents for the development of trust in organizations (Creed & Miles, 1996; Kramer, 1999). In this line, Kramer's (1999) six antecedent conditions were reviewed. In addition to that this review showed that trust has a collective aspect, occasionally referred to as institution-based trust, identification-based trust, or relational trust in the literature (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). Such trust that is accorded to an institution by virtue of the knowledge that members within this organization have shared ideas, values and practices, and because the organization is believed to have the

necessary structures in place to insure successful operation (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). It is this type of trust that has been applied to the study of schools.

Of late several researchers in the area of education have begun to look at trust as an attribute vital to the functioning of schools; hence the thorough investigation of the dynamics and consequences of trust in schools (Bryk & Schneider, 1996; Goddard et. al, 2001; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1984,1985; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Hoy et. al., 1992; Tarter et. al., 1989, 1995). Part of this interest has been spurred because of an emergent distrust of public schools, leading to an increased interest in alternatives such as charters, vouchers, and home-schooling alternatives. What has been found in the empirical research on trust in schools suggests that trust is a vital resource, greatly improving effectiveness, cooperation, collegiality, and academic outcomes (Goddard et al., 2001; Hoy et al. 1992; Kratzer, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, 2000;). Schools that have supportive leadership and have established enabling school structures tend to have much higher levels of trust, which makes them tend to operate more effectively and efficiently (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1997).

Lewicki and Bunker's (1996) transitional stages of trust theory was used to explain both how trust develops and is maintained and how trust is broken and repaired. As this theoretical analysis shows trust has several identifiable stages and represents a fragile commodity, which is easier to destroy than to build. Repairing trust is a complex process which depends on the willingness of the victim and violator to engage in trust repair. The value placed on maintaining and repairing trust in the particular context will determine whether or not individuals will be committed to this process.

While trust in schools has been viewed as an important resource between all the parties involved, having been shown to have positive consequences for student outcomes, no literature seems to have addressed the relationship between trust and student identification with school. Both trust and student identification with school have been shown to involve a collective identification process (Ashmore et. al., 2004; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). Students who disidentify with school have somehow been excluded from this process. Since trust is a vital resource, which serves to solidify relationships within organizations, it is not difficult to imagine that trust might be a significant factor involved with student identification. It seems reasonable to predict here that schools with high levels of trust would also have high levels of student identification with school. It is in fact this very relationship that the present study attempts to emphasize. Thus, this study is designed to replicate findings with respect to faculty trust (internal trust) and to investigate the relationship between both faculty trust and parental/student trust (external trust) and student identification with school and academic performance.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL RATIONALE

The purpose of this section is to state the theoretical rationale of the relationships hypothesized in this study. Figure II below presents the hypothesized direct and indirect relationships between the predictor variables and the criterion variables in this study. While several of these relationships have not been investigated before, the review of literature suggested the probability of these hypothesized relationships. The purpose of this study was to determine the direct and indirect effects of internal trust and external trust, which are conceived of as predictor variables, upon the criterion variables of student identification with school and academic performance. Since the literature concerning identification with school and trust suggest that school level, and socio-economic status are also significantly related to identification with school and academic performance they have been included in this theoretical model, as well.

Bryk and Schneider (1996) assert that relational trust acts as a resource to sustain reform initiatives and to increase cooperation between all parties connected with schools, representing a social control mechanism assuring that all parties are in compliance with normative expectations. When trust levels are high within the school, students would also be expected to be more cooperative and willing to comply with normative expectations. While no study has directly investigated the relationship between faculty

Academic Performance

Student Identification with School

Socioeconomic Status

School Level

Internal Trust

External Trust
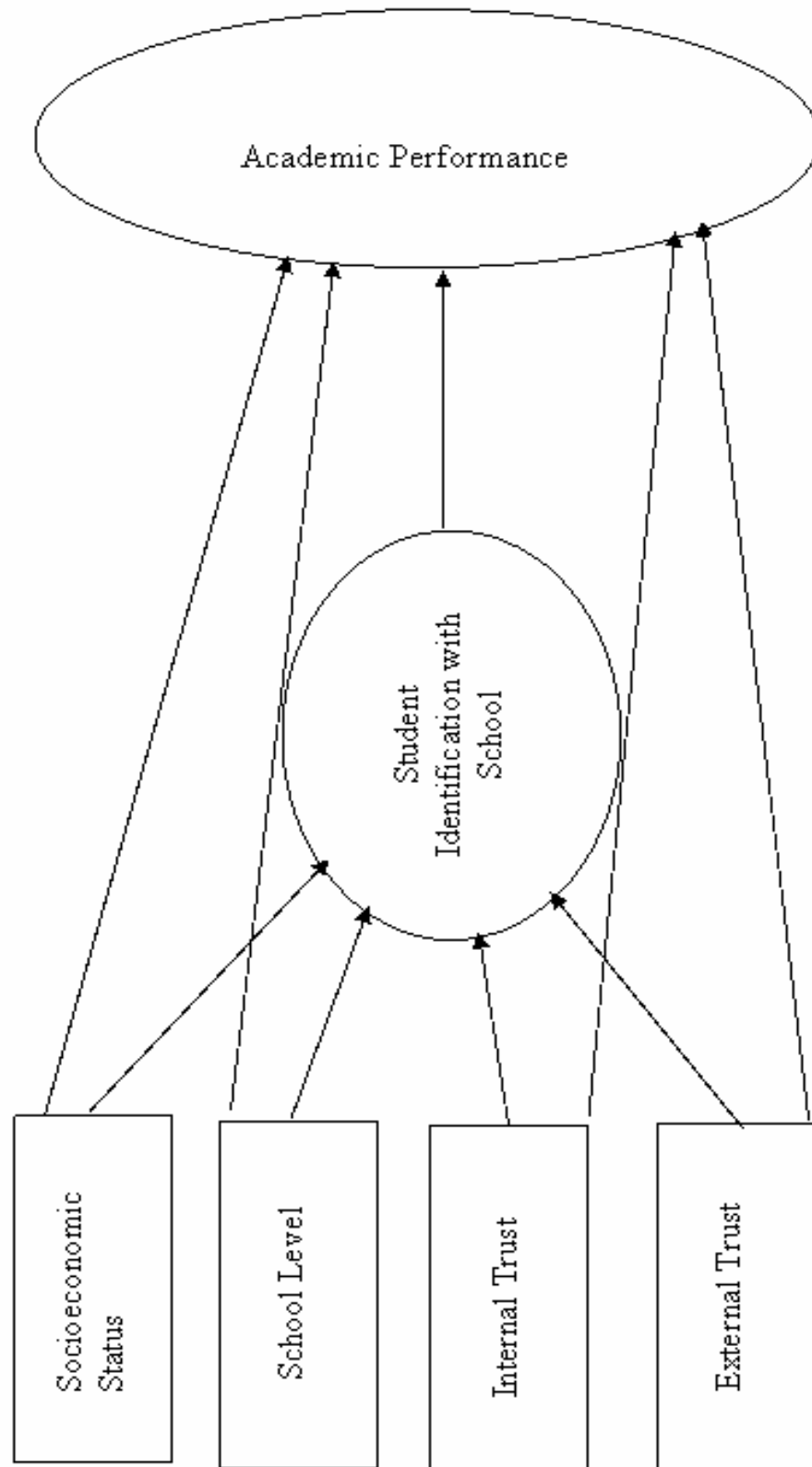
Figure II: Conceptual Diagram of Hypothesized Relationships

trust and student identification it seems reasonable to suspect that high levels of faculty

trust would also predict higher levels of student identification with school.

Thus:

H1: Internal trust will have a direct effect on student identification with school.

Empirical evidence supports the notion of a relationship between faculty

trust and academic performance. Goddard et al. (2000) found that teacher trust in clients

was a predictor of academic performance. This study hopes to confirm this relationship.

Thus:

H2: Internal trust will have a direct effect upon academic performance.

Trust is also believed to have an indirect effect or mediated effect on academic

performance because of its effect on identification with school. There is evidence that

identification with school is related to academic performance (Fordham, 1996; Osborne,

1995, 1997, 1999; Steele, 1992) and that trust is related to academic performance (Bryk

& Schneider, 2002; Goddard et al., 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 1999).

However, no study has looked at the role that identification with school plays in

mediating the effect of trust on academic performance.

Thus:

H3: Internal trust will have an indirect effect on academic performance.

The importance of parental and student involvement in the governance of schools

is the main engine behind the push for shared decision-making and more collaborative

forms of teaching.   Goddard et al. (2001) showed that strong school-family relations are

vital to student academic success. According to the National Education Goals Panel

(1995, cited in Goddard et al., 2001, p. 3), "If the National Education Goals are to be

achieved, families, schools and communities must work collaboratively to form strong family-school-community partnerships." Moreover, establishing a trusting relationship with parents is important when considering initiating and sustaining effective change within schools. The relationships between parents and teachers and students and teachers are critical for establishing relational trust (Bryk & Schneider, 1996). In Bryk and Schneider's (1996) own words,

> Relational trust creates an environment where individuals share a moral commitment to act in the interests of collectivity, and this ethical basis for individual action constitutes a moral resource that the institution can draw upon to initiate and sustain change (p. 1).

Furthermore, the establishment of trusting relationships is essential for eliciting cooperation from both students and parents, being likely to have an impact on academic performance. Students and parents must perceive the school as a legitimate source of authority in order to cooperate with the task of learning. Indeed, "If parents and students do not perceive the school as trustworthy, then students would be unlikely to assent to the exercise of authority. Consequently, little if any significant academic learning would occur" (Fuller, 1994, p. 8).

The close and trusting relationships that once existed between teachers and parents and between teachers and students has continued to be eroded and replaced by a general mistrust of school (Adams & Christenson, 2000). According to Adams and Christenson, the task of improving schools can be greatly enhanced by establishing open communication, coordination and collaboration between teachers and parents and

between teachers and students. Therefore, trust is believed to be implicit and necessary in establishing these types of relationships.

Thus:

H4: External trust will have a direct effect on student identification with school.

H5: External trust will have a direct effect on academic performance.

External trust is also believed to have a significant indirect effect on academic performance via its effect upon student identification with school. While, the particular relationship under investigation has not been examined, the literature does indicate a relationship between parental attitudes and school involvement and student academic performance. Additionally, student identification is known to be related to academic performance (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Hagborg, 1998; Osborne, 1995, 1997; Voelkl, 1996, 1997). Given that there is evidence that parental attitudes are connected with both student identification and academic performance it seems reasonable to suspect that parental attitudes would also have an indirect effect on academic performance via the effect on student identification.

Thus:

H6: External trust will have an indirect effect on academic performance.

This study also hopes to confirm previous research on the relationship between student identification with school and academic performance. Evidence has supported the claim of a relationship between student identification and academic performance (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Hagborg, 1998; Osborne, 1995, 1997; Voelkl, 1996, 1997). Students who are highly identified with school, have a strong sense of belonging to school, and believe that school has value to their life and future will be motivated to be

actively involved in school and will demonstrate higher academic performance than students who are not identified with school. Likewise, schools that foster a high sense of student identification with school will also be expected to have higher academic performance. Therefore, student identification with school is also hypothesized to be a predictor of academic performance being expected to have a direct effect upon academic performance.

Therefore:

H7: Student Identification with School will have a direct effect on academic performance.

Empirical evidence and the review of the literature suggest that socio-economic status is significantly related to academic performance. This study hopes to confirm prior research in this area.

Thus:

H8: Socioeconomic status will have a direct effect on academic performance.

While there is no evidence in the literature to support the notion of a relationship between socioeconomic status and identification with school, some of the research done thus far suggested that minority students tended to disidentify with academics (Osborne, 1995, 1997) and this could imply a connection between socioeconomic status and identification with school.

Thus:

H9: Socioeconomic will have a direct effect on student identification with school.

The literature and findings support the notion that school level is directly related to student identification, such that students will be more identified with school at the

elementary level and this identification will diminish as they move on to middle school and to high school (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Voelkl, 1997).

Thus:

H10: School level will have a direct and negative effect on student identification with school.

There was no literature supporting a relationship between school level and academic performance. Current knowledge regarding school level and academic performance would suggest that while there is a relationship between prior academic performance and academic performance that this is not associated with school level. Thus:

H11: School level will have no effect on academic performance.

The focus of this study is on measuring the direct and indirect effects of internal trust and external trust upon student identification with school and academic performance. This is the first study known to test the relationships between internal and external trust and student identification with school. Some empirical work has supported the claim of a relationship between internal or faculty trust and academic performance (see, Goddard et al., 2001). No study appears to have investigated the relationship between external trust and student identification with school. There is some evidence to support the notion that parental attitudes toward school are significantly related to academic performance (Adams & Christenson, 2000). However, no study has tested the relationship between external trust as defined in this study and academic performance.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

Research Design

The focus of this study is on identifying the effects of internal and external trust as defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) on student identification with school and on academic performance. Internal trust can be defined as the willingness of faculty to risk vulnerability based on the confidence that the principal, their colleagues and the parents and students are open, honest, reliable, competent, and benevolent. External trust can be defined as the willingness of parents and students to risk vulnerability based on the confidence that the principal, faculty, and staff at the school are open, honest, reliable competent, and benevolent. It is predicted that internal and external trust will have a direct effect both upon student identification with school and upon student academic performance.

It is also predicted that trust will prove to be a vital resource for increasing identification with school and academic performance. Identification with school has been defined as the sense of attachment one has with school based on (1) feelings of belongingness and (2) valuing of school and school related outcomes (Voelkl, 1997). The contextual and normative factors involved with fostering identification with school, have never been clearly identified in the literature. However, it is predicted that trust will

prove to be a major factor involved with fostering a sense of belonging and valuing of school and school related outcomes.

Sample and Procedures

Trust in schools and student identification with school were treated as institutional variables. Therefore, the unit of analysis was the school. The sample for this study consisted of 180 randomly selected schools (out of the 836 public schools) in the northeastern quadrant of Oklahoma. The initial sample included 60 elementary schools, 60 middle schools, and 60 high schools. These 180 schools represented 101 school districts. Of the 101 school districts that were randomly selected to participate in this sample 34 school districts declined participation leaving a total sample of 67 participating school districts or 91 schools. Another twelve principals declined participation citing time constraints and busy schedules, which made the final sample, consist of 79 schools. This included 22 elementary schools, 30 middle schools, and 27 high schools. The participants at each site included the principal, ten teachers who were randomly selected from the entire pool of teachers at the school, 15 randomly selected students in the fifth grade, seventh grade or eleventh grade, respectively, and 15 parents of students randomly selected in the fifth grade, seventh grade or eleventh grade. The 15 parents were chosen separately from the 15 students and were not necessarily parents of the students who had been randomly selected to participate in this sample. The reason why fifth, seventh, and eleventh grades were chosen was to ensure that the students would not be new to the school having had at least one year to build some level of trust with the school. In addition, at the elementary level, fifth graders were chosen because the surveys being used were deemed appropriate for the fifth grade reading level.

Instrumentation

Internal Trust Operational Measures

The Trust Scales

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) developed the *Trust Scales*. The development of these scales was based on their multi-dimensional definition of trust. They defined trust as "an individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable competent, honest and open" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p.189). This scale is a 37-item, six-point Likert type scale, and it consists of three sub-scales, teacher trust in principal (eleven items), teacher trust in students and parents (15 items) and teacher trust in colleagues (eight items) along with three filler items that are not scored. Response choices range from "strongly agree" (coded as one) to "strongly disagree" (coded as six). The reliability of the three sub-scales has been shown to range from .90 to .98. This scale was given to the teachers. Sample items include, "Teachers in this school trust the principal," "Teachers in this school trust each other," and "Teachers in this school trust their students."

External Trust Operational Measures

Parental Trust of School Scale

The *Parental Trust of School Scale* (Forsyth, Adams, & Barnes, 2002) was developed to test how trusting parents are of the school in keeping with the multi-dimensional definition of trust espoused earlier by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). In keeping with Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's definition of trust, parental trust has been defined as "an individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable competent, honest and open"

(Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p.189). The short version of this scale was used for this study. The *Parental Trust of School Scale* is a ten-item, eight-point Likert type scale with an alpha coefficient reliability of .95. Sample items include, "This school is always honest with me," "This school does what it is supposed to do," "This school has high standards for all kids," and "I never worry about my child when he/she is there." The scale was administered to the parents.

Parental Trust of Principal Scale

The *Parental Trust of Principal Scale* was developed by Forsyth et al. (Forsyth et al., 2002) to test parental trust of the principal. Like the scale described in the previous subsection, this scale was developed in light of the multi-dimensional definition of trust espoused by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). Therefore, the definition of parental trust of principal is, "an individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable competent, honest and open" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p.189). This is an eight-point, 15 item Likert-type scale with a response set that ranges from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The scale was tested on a sample of ten schools and has an internal consistency alpha coefficient of .95 as well as a strong parallel between item construction on the other trust scales, which were developed and validated by Forsyth et al. (2002). A sample of the items includes, "The principal of this school is good at his/her job," "The principal of this school can be counted on to do his/her job," "The principal of this school is well intentioned," and "The principal of this school is always honest."

Student Trust of Principal Scale

The *Student Trust of Principal Scale* was developed by Forsyth et al. (Forsyth et al., 2002) to test the students' trust of the principal. Like the scales described above, it was developed to test the five facets of trust espoused by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). Therefore, student trust of principal was defined as, "an individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest and open" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p.189). This scale is a four-point, 21-item Likert type scale with a response range from "always" to "never." Sample items on this scale include, "The principal at my school is nice," "The principal at my school is fair," "The principal at my school is there for students when needed," and "The principal at my school tells the truth to students." This measure was determined to have high validity, having an internal consistency alpha coefficient of .97.

<center>**Identification with School Operational Measure**</center>

The Identification with School Questionnaire (ISQ)

Identification with school has been defined as the sense of attachment one has with school based on (1) feelings of belongingness and (2) valuing of school and school related outcomes (Voelkl, 1997). The *Identification with School Questionnaire*, which was developed by Voelkl (1997), is a sixteen-item, four-point Likert-type scale that was given to the students. Voelkl (1996) developed this questionnaire. It has a coefficient-alpha reliability of .84. This scale was developed to test students' valuing of school and sense of belonging to school. Sample items include, "School is one of the most important things in my life," "I am treated with as much respect as other students in my class," and

"Most of what I learn in school will be useful when I get a job." The response set ranges from strongly agree to strongly disagree. It might be noted here that some items are reverse scored. Some sample items of that type are "The only time I get attention in school is when I cause trouble," and "Many of the things we learn in class are useless."

Academic Performance Operational Measures

Academic Performance Index (API)

The *Academic Performance Index (API)* for the school year-2001 –2002 was used to assess the schools' academic performance. This score includes an assessment of students' performance on the Oklahoma State mandated criterion referenced tests as well as an assessment of student attendance. For elementary and middle school, the third, fifth and eighth grades are used to determine this score. Ninety percent of the score is based on performance on the criterion-referenced tests, while the other ten percent is based on attendance. Eighty percent of the high school API scores are based on the *End of Instruction* exams given in U.S. History and English II, ten-percent is based on school completion rates (which includes a measure of attendance, graduation, and drop out rates), and the final ten percent is based on measures of academic excellence, which include ACT scores, ACT participation rates, advanced placement credits, and college remediation rates per each high school. The score for each school ranges from zero to1500. The larger the value of the score, the higher the performance is considered to be.

Control Variables

Information concerning school level and socioeconomic status of the student body was obtained from the school report card. Information concerning socioeconomic status (SES) was determined based on the percentage of students who are on the schools' free

and reduced lunch program. This information was collected in order to determine the effect of SES and school level on identification with school and academic performance. These variables were included because they were perceived as possibly being confounding variables that could influence student identification with school and academic performance.

Data Collection

The data for this research study were collected through a collaborative effort by a group of seven graduate students in the Oklahoma State University Educational Administration program, supervised by two faculty members. The researchers in this collaborative trust project were investigating various aspects of school trust; its causes and consequences. The collaboration was restricted only to the sampling and collection of the data. The overall focus of this research project was on collecting information regarding the nature, meaning, and significance of school trust. The data collection began in Spring 2002 and was finalized in Spring of 2003.

The 180 schools included in this research study were divided among the seven graduate students. Permission to contact the schools, which were randomly selected, was obtained from the district superintendents involved. Of the 180 schools randomly selected to participate in this project 91 schools granted permission to participate. The graduate student assigned to each school then made contact with the principal of that school, delivering him/her a packet of information. That packet of information consisted of a written description of the project, a copy of the district consent, a copy of the Internal Review Board (IRB) approval, and a sample of each of the surveys. Although the district

superintendent had already granted permission, each principal had the option of accepting or declining to participate.

Principals were requested to provide the researchers with alphabetical lists of teacher names and alpha lists of student names by grade level, including student addresses. From those lists ten teachers from the entire student body were randomly selected using a table of random numbers. Fifteen students in the fifth grade, seventh grade, or eleventh grade were randomly selected, depending on the school configuration, using the table of random numbers. Fifteen parents of students in the fifth, seventh, or eleventh grade were also randomly selected using the same procedure. The parents selected via this procedure were not necessarily related to the students who had been randomly selected to participate in this study. The researchers solicited the cooperation and assistance of each principal in distributing the teacher and student surveys and in encouraging their expeditious returns. A self-addressed postage paid envelope was included with each survey. Students were given an informed consent form to take home to their parents and to return with the surveys. Parent surveys were mailed to the home addresses. Subjects were assigned a numerical code in order to protect confidentiality and to track the returns. The researcher assigned to each school was responsible for following up with each school and participant until at least fifty percent of all surveys were returned or until three follow-ups had been done with non-respondents.

Data Analysis

The independent variables for this study are "internal trust" and "external trust." Internal trust consists of the following components "teacher trust in principal," "teacher trust in colleagues," and "teacher trust in clients." As for external trust, it consists of the

following components, "parental trust of school," parental trust of principal," and "student trust of principal." The dependent variables are "identification with school" which was measured by the *Identification with school questionnaire,* and "academic performance," which was assessed via the *Academic Performance Index* (*API)* for the 2002 – 2003 school year. Two control variables were also included in this model. They included school level and socioeconomic status (which was measured by the percent of students who were on the free and reduced lunch program).

The unit of analysis for this study was the school; therefore, individual subject scores were aggregated to the school level for all variables in this study. In this way, aggregated scores for the mean and standard deviation for Teacher Trust of Teacher, Teacher Trust of Principal, Teacher Trust of Clients, Parent trust of School, Parent Trust of Principal, Student Trust of Principal, and Identification with school were obtained for each school within the sample. Socioeconomic status and academic performance were school level variables obtained from the State Department of Education web site for each school. As a result these variables did not require aggregation.

The first level of investigation involved obtaining descriptive statistics for each of the variables in the study. Next, bivariate correlations of all the variables that were included in the study were obtained. There was a concern that the ratio of predictors to number of cases was too high. Stevens (2002) recommended that this ratio should reflect around fifteen subjects per predictor. There was also a concern that there was a high degree of collinearity between the predictor variables in this study. These two concerns led to the consideration of conducting a factor analysis. Since multicollinearity between the predictor variables in the study can cause the regression equation to be unstable, thus

rendering the statistics highly misleading (see Pedhazur, 1997), a principal components analysis was performed. While principal components analysis is not unproblematic, it is one of the ways recommended by Pedhazur for dealing with problems of multicollinearity between a set of predictor variables.

The scree plot was examined, as well, and the minimum eigenvalue of 1:00 criterion for selection of factors to remain was taken into consideration (Pedhazur, 1997). The factors were rotated using the Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization extraction method to allow some correlation between the predictors in the model to remain. This analysis confirmed the clustering of the predictors into three factors. However, these factors were not theoretically meaningful which led to an attempt to combine these variables into theoretically meaningful and useful factors by creating internal and external trust scales.

The faculty trust scales were believed to represent the internal attitudes and perception of trust among the faculty, likewise, the parental and student trust scales were believed to conceptually represent the external attitudes of trust of the school. The scale scores were converted to z-scores in order to combine them into internally consistent scales. Cronbach's Alpha was obtained to test the reliability of these scales. Once these new scales of *internal* and *external trust* had been created a series of multiple regression equations was run between each scale and the dependent variables of identification with school and academic performance.

Internal and external trust were hypothesized to be independent variables, which would have direct effects on student identification with school as well as direct effects upon academic performance. Student identification with school and academic

performance were considered to be dependent variables. The control variables of school level and socioeconomic status (SES) were also included in this analysis. A net suppression effect was suspected, due to a change and sign on the one hand, and a cooperative suppression effect was suspected, because the control variables of SES and school level seemed to be mutually enhancing and accounting for a greater proportion of the Y variance together than they had in the zero order correlation separately, on the other hand. This led to a post hoc exploration using a hierarchical regression analysis in order to uncover the suppression effects that were suspected. SPSS 12.0 was used to analyze this data.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

The purpose of this section is to present the results of the statistical analyses of

the data of this study and to compare them with the hypotheses that were made based on

theoretical arguments and extant empirical knowledge. The first level of investigation

involved obtaining descriptive statistics for each of the variables in this study. These

values are presented in Table II below.

Descriptive Statistics

Table II: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Student Identification	74	41.43	58.55	51.32	3.94
Teacher Trust of Teacher	74	23.50	44.00	37.65	4.32
Teacher trust of Principal	74	31.00	64.50	50.93	8.44
Teacher Trust of Client	74	42.17	76.60	59.53	7.24
Student Trust of Principal	74	37.43	57.73	50.63	5.04
Parent Trust of School	74	33.67	80.00	57.60	9.48
Parent Trust of Principal	74	49.52	120.00	92.10	15.67
School Level	74	1	3	2.05	.79
Socioeconomic Status	74	7	97	45.68	23.49
Academic Performance	74	394	1500	1005.03	209.74
Valid N (listwise)	74				

The unit of analysis for this study was the school; therefore, individual subject

scores were aggregated to the school level. The mean and standard deviation were

calculated for each school. Academic performance was operationalized as the school's API score for the school year 2000-2001. The API score for 2001 was used instead of the API score for 2002 because five schools were missing API 2002 scores from the State Department of Education's website due to low enrollment status. There was a concern that this would further limit this study by reducing the total number of subjects from 74 schools to 69. Five schools had been removed earlier due to fewer than five-student responses per school, dropping the sample from 79 schools to 74 schools. Since these scores were highly correlated ($r = .81$) and API was a stable score that did not vary much from year to year the API score for 2001 – 2002 was selected over the API score for 2002-2003 to represent the schools academic performance. API is a scaled score, which ranges from 0 to 1500. Socioeconomic status was operationalized as the percentage of students within the school who were on the school's free and reduced lunch program. Finally, school level was coded "one" for elementary schools, "two" for middle schools, and "three" for high schools.

Correlational Analysis

Bivariate correlations of all the variables that were included in the study were obtained. They are depicted in Table III below. The Pearson correlation coefficients indicate the strength of the relationships among the variables in this study. This study is the first study known to test some of these relationships. Indeed, no study known to date has investigated the relationship between the trust variables included in this study and student identification with school. As can be seen from this table student identification with school was correlated with all of the variables in this study other than socioeconomic status and teacher trust of teacher.

Table III: Zero Order Correlations Matrix among all Variables

	TTTAG	TTPAG	TTC	STP	PTS	PTP	School level	SES	Student Identification	Academic Performance
Teacher Trust of Teacher	1.0	.76**	.52**	.27*	.34**	.48**	-.18	-.19	.17	.20
Teacher Trust of Principal		1.0	.44**	.37**	.41**	.66**	-.17	-.14	.26*	.15
Teacher Trust of Clients			1.0	.30**	.58**	.42**	-.31**	-.57	.31**	.73**
Student Trust of Principal				1.0	.37**	.50**	-.60**	-.02	.68**	.25*
Parent Trust of School					1.0	.68**	-.48**	-.24*	.52**	.41**
Parent Trust of Principal						1.0	-.40**	-.11	.42**	.30**
School Level							1.0	-.12	-.62**	-.20
SES								1.0	.11	-.69**
Student Identification									1.0	.23*
Academic Performance										1.0

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There was a significant inverse correlation between school level and student identification with school (r = -.62) as was expected, in light of Furrer and Skinner (2003). This would indicate that students are more identified with school at the elementary level and that identification with school significantly decreases by the time students reach high school age. There was no relationship between socioeconomic status and student identification with school (r = .11). There was no relationship between teacher trust of teacher and student identification with school (r = .17). Note that this was the only trust variable that was not correlated with student identification with school. As mentioned earlier, this is the first study known to investigate the relationship between faculty trust and student identification. These results show a positive and significant correlation between teacher trust in principal and student identification (r = .26) and teacher trust in clients and student identification (r = .31), respectively. At the same time, this is the first study known to test the relationships between parent trust of school and student identification (r = .52), parent trust of principal and student identification (r = .42), and student trust of principal and student identification (r = .68), respectively.

Academic performance, which was also a dependent variable in this study, was correlated with all variables except teacher trust of teacher, teacher trust of principal and school level. There was a significant and negative correlation between academic performance and SES (operationalized as the percent of students on the free and reduced lunch program and which would explain the negative correlation of $r = -.69$). This indicates that as SES increases academic performance increases. This is consistent with previous research that indicated a relationship between academic performance and socio-economic status (Finn, 1989; Goddard et al., 2001).

Teacher trust of clients was significantly and positively correlated with academic performance ($r = .73$). This supports findings by Goddard et al. (2001) and Bryk and Schneider (1996). However, this is the first study to investigate the relationship between parental trust of school, parental trust of principal, student trust of principal and academic performance. These findings suggest that there is a significant and positive correlation between parental trust of school and academic performance ($r = .41$), parental trust of principal and academic performance ($r = .30$), and student trust of the principal and academic performance ($r = .41$), respectively.

Factor Analysis of the Predictors

A moderate degree of intercollinearity between the predictor variables was noted. Since multicollinearity between the predictor variables in the study can cause the regression equation to be unstable, thus rendering the statistics highly misleading (see Pedhazur, 1997), a principal components analysis was performed using Direct Oblimin rotation with Kaiser normalization to allow for some correlation to remain between the predictors. The total number of subjects in this study was 79 schools. However, five of

these schools were removed due to low student response rates of fewer than five per school leaving the final number of cases as 74 schools. There was also a concern that the ratio of predictors to cases was too large and by factoring the predictors this ratio could be reduced. In regards to this problem, Stevens (2002) stated, "about 15 subjects per predictor are needed for a reliable equation (p. 88)."

While principal component analysis is not unproblematic, it is one way which Pedhazur (1997) recommends for dealing with problems of multicollinearity between a set of predictor variables. The scree plot was examined and the minimum eigenvalue of 1:00 criterion for selection of factors to remain was taken into consideration (Pedhazur, 1997). The factors were rotated using the Direct Oblimin with Kaiser normalization approach. The results of the Scree plot can be seen in Figure III.

Figure III: Scree Plot of Predictors
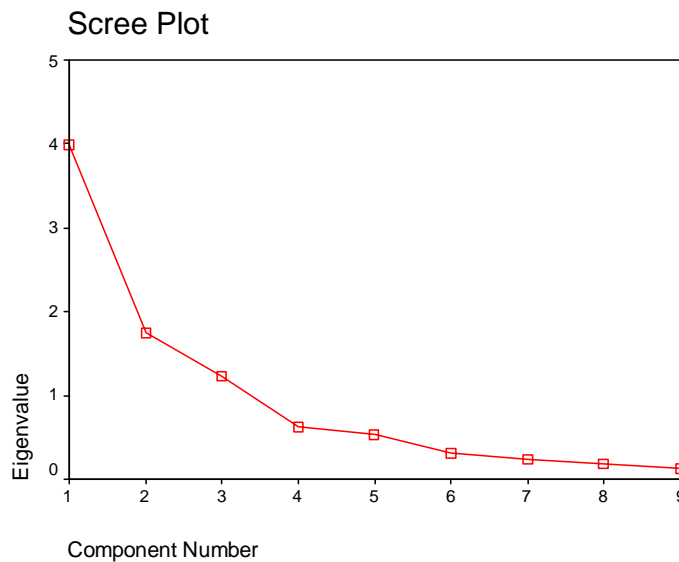
This rotational method produced results, which indicated the clustering of the predictors into three factors. Table IV below includes the results of the Structure Matrix.

Table IV: Structure Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
Teacher Trust of Teacher	.25	-.34	.89
Teacher Trust of Principal	.34	-.26	.95
Teacher Trust of Client	.42	-.84	.52
Student Trust of Principal	.80	-.07	.38
Parent Trust of School	.71	-.52	.48
Parent Trust of Principal	.67	-.27	.73
School Level	-.88	.04	-.18
Socioeconomic Status	.06	.91	-.16

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis
Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

Factor One included the factors referred to as External Trust Variables: Parent trust of

school, Parent trust of Principal, and Student Trust of School, respectively. School level

also loaded very highly negative on this factor, which is in line with theoretical

assumptions that students and parents are more trusting of schools at the elementary

school level and that this level of trust wanes as students move through middle school

and high school (Adams & Christenson, 2000).

Factor two was comprised of socioeconomic status, and teacher trust of clients.

The fact that teacher trust of clients was highly correlated with socioeconomic status is

not surprising in that it stands to reason that teachers are more trusting of clients in

schools that have a higher socioeconomic status. This also substantiated previous

findings by Bryk and Schneider (1996). Factor three was comprised of the three-

internal/faculty trust variables: teacher trust of teacher, teacher trust of clients, and

teacher trust of principal. Parent trust of principal scored very highly on this factor, as

well. While it made sense to try and factor analyze these predictors, the end result was

not useful theoretically because these factors represented a mixture of variables that were not conceptually meaningful. Additionally due to the sample size of 74 schools there was a concern that factoring could also result in unstable beta weights. The next step in the analysis was an attempt to break these predictors into theoretically intelligible factors that would reduce the ratio of predictors to cases.

Standardization of Variables

In order to create internally consistent *internal* and *external trust scales* the aggregated variables included in this study were converted to z-scores. It was necessary to standardize the scales to combine them because the scales contained different numbers of items and response categories. In addition combining variables is another way that Lewis-Beck (1980) recommends for dealing with suspected intercollinearity between predictor variables. Specifically, Lewis-Beck (1980) states:

> Assuming the sample size is fixed, other strategies have to be implemented. One is to combine those independent variables that are highly intercorrelated into a single indicator. If this approach makes conceptual sense, then it can work well. (p. 61)

The *faculty trust* scales were conceptually believed to represent internal dynamics of trust within schools. Therefore, the sum of the z-scores for these variables was used to provide an aggregated standardized score for internal trust. Internal trust refers to how willing the faculty is to risk vulnerability because they have confidence that the principal, their colleagues, and their clients (students and parents) are open, honest, competent, reliable, and benevolent (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

The sum of the aggregated z-scores for parental trust of school, parental trust of principal, and student trust of principal was also obtained in order to represent *external trust*. *External trust* refers to how willing parents and students are to risk vulnerability because they have the confidence that the faculty and principal are open, honest, competent, reliable, and benevolent (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Cronbach's Alpha reliability scores for the three subscales that comprised the internal trust scale are listed in Table V below, and Cronbach's alpha reliability score for the three subscales that comprised the external trust scale are listed in Table VI below.

Reliability Statistics

Table V: Cronbach's Alpha for the Internal Trust Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.80	3

As can be seen form Table V above, the *internal trust scale* has a Cronbach's alpha reliability score of .80. Such a score would indicate that this scale is internally consistent.

Table VI: Cronbach's Alpha for the External Trust Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.76	3

As seen in Table VI above, Cronbach's alpha reliability score for the *external trust scale* is .76, which indicates that this scale too is internally consistent. The bivariate correlations between the standardized scores and the new external and internal trust variables are presented in Table VII below.

Table VII: Bivariate Correlations of Zscores and Internal and External Trust

	Internal Trust	External Trust	School Level	SES	Student Identification	Academic Performance
Internal Trust	1.0	.61**	-.26*	-.36**	.29*	.42**
External Trust		1.0	-.60**	-.15	.66**	.39**
School Level			1.0	-.12	-.62**	-.20
SES				1.0	.11	-.69**
Student Identification					1.0	.23*
Academic Performance						1.0

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen from Table VII above, internal trust was positively and significantly correlated with student identification with school (r = .29) and academic performance (r = .42) but was significantly and inversely correlated with school level (r = -.26) and SES, (r = -.36). Thus, internal trust could be expected to be stronger in elementary school but decrease significantly in middle school and high school, and it would be higher in high SES schools. These results support earlier findings of Bryk and Schneider (1996) and Goddard et al., (2001). External trust was positively and significantly related to student identification with school (r = .66) and academic performance (r = .39) but was inversely and significantly related to school level (r = -.60). The negative relationship with school level confirms prior research regarding this relationship (see for instance, Furrer & Skinner, 2003). On the other hand external trust was not significantly related to SES (r = -.15). Finally, internal and external trust were significantly and positively correlated with each other (r = .61). No study to date appears to have investigated the relationship between *external trust* and *internal trust* as defined in this study or the relationship between *external trust* and the criterion variables of student identification with school and academic performance.

Path Analysis

A path analysis using ordinary least squares multiple regression was used to test the relationships between the pairs of variables in this study. Given that the purpose of path analysis was to test the direct and indirect effects of the hypothesized exogenous variables on the criterion variables in this study (Pedhazur, 1997). This investigation was expected to shed light on the tenability of the hypothesized relationships. Path coefficients for each of the independent variables were generated, to examine the amount of expected change in the criterion as a result of a unit of change in the predictor variables (Pedhazur, 1997). The path coefficients are the Beta weight for that variable. A series of regressions were executed to test the relationships among the variables. Student identification with school, which is a criterion variable, was regressed on internal trust, external trust, and each of the control variables in a step-wise procedure that entered the control variables into the equation first to examine their effects. Next, academic performance was regressed on internal trust, external trust, and the control variables. Again, the control variables were entered into the equation first. Additionally the relationship between identification with school and academic performance was assessed using the zero order correlation coefficient, because identification with school is a single variable, which was also treated as an exogenous variable with respect to academic performance.

The indirect effects on academic performance hypothesized in this study were eventually assessed by multiplying the path coefficients of the direct relationships of the exogenous variables on student identification by the zero order correlation coefficient between identification with school and academic performance. Cohen (1983) states,

"indirect effects are estimated by products of direct effects (p. 356)" or "the product of the sequence of causal estimates from a cause to an effect, that is, of all estimates that form a causal pathway from one variable to another (p. 358)."

The first step in the regression analysis involved regressing student identification on internal trust and external trust. The control factors of school level and socio-economic status were included in this model in a stepwise regression analysis. The control variables were entered first as step one and internal trust and external trust were entered together in the next step. Table VIII below presents the results of this regression.

Table VIII: Student Identification Regressed on Internal Trust, External Trust, School Level and Socioeconomic Status

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-9.338E-16	.092		.000	1.000
	School level	-.618	.093	-.62	-6.617	.000
	SES	.035	.093	.04	.373	.710
2	(Constant)	-1.371E-15	.081		.000	1.00
	School level	-.301	.106	-.30	-2.835	.006
	SES	.128	.090	.13	1.419	.161
	internal trust	-.029	.043	-.07	-.659	.512
	external trust	.220	.051	.54	4.297	.000

a Dependent Variable: Zscore(student identification)

As seen in Table VIII above, school level was an important predictor of student identification as expected (Beta = -.62, p<.01). Socioeconomic status was not a significant predictor of identification with school. After the effects of school level and socioeconomic status were accounted for *internal trust* of the school (faculty trust) did not significantly explain student identification. In fact, it had a negative effect (Beta= -.07, p >,05). Table IX below displays the R^2 change for this model.

Table IX: R ^{2} Change – Model Summary – Student Identification Regressed on SES, School level, Internal Trust, and External Trust

Model	R	R ^{2}	Adjusted R ^{2}	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R ^{2} Change	F Change	df1	Df2	Sig. F Change
1	.62(a)	.39	.37	.79278412	.39	22.574	2	71	.000
2	.73(b)	.54	.51	.69897307	.15	11.169	2	69	.000

a Predictors: (Constant), SES: School level
b Predictors: (Constant), SES: School level, internal trust, external trust

After school level and socioeconomic status were accounted for *external trust* explained

approximately 15 percent of the variance ($R^2 = .54$, p<.01) in student identification. The

fact that internal trust had a negative and insignificant effect when the bivariate

correlation between internal trust and student identification was significant and positive,

(r = .29) coupled with the fact that external trust had exerted such a large effect on

student identification, led to the consideration of a suppression effect as well as the

results of statistical control. This will be discussed later in this section.

Next, academic performance was regressed on internal trust, external trust, school

level, and socioeconomic status. Table X below displays the results of this regression.

Table X: Academic Performance Regressed on Internal Trust, External Trust, School Level, and Socio-economic status

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.504E-15	.079		.000	1.000
	School level	-.289	.080	-.29	-3.605	.001
	SES	-.719	.080	-.72	-8.985	.000
2	(Constant)	1.301E-15	.078		.000	1.000
	School level	-.182	.102	-.18	-1.777	.080
	SES	-.668	.087	-.67	-7.680	.000
	internal trust	.019	.042	.05	.444	.659
	external trust	.060	.049	.15	1.211	.230

a Dependent Variable: Zscore: Academic Performance

The results displayed in Table X above indicated that school level was a negative and significant predictor of academic performance (Beta = -.29, p<.01). This finding is curious, given that the bivariate correlation between school level and academic performance was not significant (r = -.20). Table XI below, displays the R-Square change for this model.

Table XI: R^2 Change – Model Summary – Academic Performance Regressed on School level, SES, Internal Trust, and External Trust

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.74(a)	.55	.54	.67917740	.55	43.63	2	71	.000
2	.76(b)	.57	.55	.67367745	.02	1.58	2	69	.213

a Predictors: (Constant), SES, School level
b Predictors: (Constant), SES, School level, internal trust, external trust

Together SES and school level explained 55 percent of the variance in academic performance (R^2 = .55, p<.01). SES negatively predicted academic performance with (Beta = -.72, p<.01). This result was also stronger than the bivariate correlation between SES and academic performance, which was (r = -.69). Together the increase in the beta weights for both school level and SES appeared to indicate the possibility of a suppression effect. Cohen (1975) refers to this as a *cooperative suppression effect.*

> The independent variables are mutually enhancing under conditions of cooperative suppression and each variable accounts for a larger proportion of the Y variance in the presence of the other then it does alone (p. 91).

This result suggests that low SES schools had significantly lower academic performance. This finding, while possibly exaggerated by the presence of a suppression effect, was in line with previous findings (see Goddard et al., 2002), which also indicated that academic performance was significantly related to SES.

After the variation in academic performance accounted for by school level was accounted for, neither internal trust (Beta = .05, p>.05) nor external trust (Beta = .15, p>.05) significantly predicted academic performance, despite the fact that the bivariate correlations showed that they were both highly correlated with academic performance, (r = .42, p<.01) and (r = .39, p<.01) respectively. This finding suggested that school level and SES might be suppressing the effect of internal trust and external trust on academic performance. Additionally, problems of statistical control also seemed to be having an effect on the equation, because the trust variables were highly correlated with both SES and school level (see Table VII).

Hierarchical Regression

A suppression effect was suspected between external and internal trust when student identification was regressed on internal trust, external trust, socioeconomic status and school level. Cohen (1983) described suppression as follows:

> The term suppression can be understood to indicate that the relationship between the independent or causal variables is hiding or suppressing their real relationships with Y, which would be larger or possibly of opposite sign were they not correlated. (p. 95)

According to Cohen (1975) the fact that the beta weight is of an opposite sign from the zero order correlation with the criterion is an indication of a *net suppression effect*. The zero order correlation between internal trust and student identification was positive and significant (r = .29); however when student identification was regressed on internal trust, the beta weight was negative (Beta = -.07, p>.05). Given that internal and external trust were positively correlated, it was conceivable that a large portion of the

variance in student identification was being shared between internal and external trust,

making the beta weights difficult to interpret. In regards to this problem, Cohen (1975)

states:

> The partial coefficients of highly correlated IVs analyzed simultaneously are
>
> reduced. Since the IVs involved lay claim to largely the same portion of the Y
>
> variance, by definition, they can not make much by way of unique contributions.
>
> Interpretation of the partial coefficients of IVs from the results of a simultaneous
>
> regression of such a set of variables which ignores their multicollinearity will
>
> necessarily be misleading. Attention to the R_i^2 of the variables may help, but these
>
> do not indicate the source of redundancy of each X_i. A superior solution to this
>
> problem is the use of the hierarchical rather than the simultaneous model of MRC
>
> (Multiple Regression Correlation). p. 116

Thus, in order to test for the suppression effect that was suspected when student

identification was regressed on internal trust, external trust, and the control variables, a

hierarchical regression analysis was conducted in which the control variables of school

level and socioeconomic status were entered into the equation first. Internal trust was

entered next, and external trust was entered last. Table XII below shows the results of

this hierarchical regression.

Table XII: Hierarchical Regression of Student Identification regressed on Internal and External Trust

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-9.338E-16	.092		.000	1.000
	School level	-.618	.093	-.62	-6.617	.000
	SES	.035	.093	.04	.373	.710
2	(Constant)	-1.163E-15	.091		.000	1.000
	School level	-.562	.097	-.56	-5.772	.000
	SES	.107	.101	.12	1.058	.294
	internal trust	.072	.041	.18	1.761	.083
3	(Constant)	-1.371E-15	.081		.000	1.000
	School Level	-.301	.106	-.30	-2.835	.006
	SES	.128	.090	.13	1.419	.161
	internal trust	-.029	.043	-.07	-.659	.512
	external trust	.220	.051	.54	4.297	.000

Dependent Variable: Zscore (student identification with school)

As can be seen in Table XII above, when internal trust was entered into the equation separately from external trust the Beta weight was (Beta = .18, p>.05). While this was not significant, it was more in line with theoretical assumptions, since it no longer indicated that internal trust was inversely related to student identification with school. The change in the squared multiple regression correlation (R^2) denotes the unique effect of each variable. Table XIII below presents the R^2 changes for this model.

Table XIII: R^2 Change – Model Summary – Student Identification regressed on School level, academic performance, Internal Trust, and External Trust

Model	R	R^2	Change Statistics				
Model	R	R^2	R^2 Change	Beta Weight	df1	df2	Significance
1 School level SES	.62(a)	.39**	.39**	-.62 .04	2	71	.000
2 School level SES Internal Trust	.64(b)	.42	.03	.56 .10 .18	1	70	.083
3 School level SES Internal Trust External Trust	.73(c)	.54**	.12**	-.30 .13 -.07 .54	1	69	.000

 * p<.05
**p<.01

As can be seen in Table XIII above, the control variables of School level and socioeconomic status were entered first. These variables accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in student identification (R^2 = .39, p<.01). Internal trust was entered into the model at step two and increased the explained variability in student identification by .03 taking the R^2 to .42 (p>.05). In model three, external trust was entered, which increased the explained variability in student identification by .12, to an R^2 of .54 (p<.01). It follows, therefore, that most of the variance in student identification was explained by school level and external trust.

These results indicate the need to control for the influence of school level when assessing student identification with school. As can be seen from the both Table XII and Table XIII, SES did not contribute significantly to the explanation of the variability in identification with school. This finding was expected because the zero order correlation between SES and identification with school was (r = -.15, p>.05). However, school level accounted for approximately 40 percent in the variance of student identification with school. Additionally, when external trust was accounted for, internal trust did make a

small contribution to the equation, increasing the value by approximately three percent. While this was not significant, the Beta weights in the model illustrate the suppression effect that took place when external trust was added to the model. The intercorrelation between internal and external trust made it difficult to assess the individual contribution of each variable. This would indicate that while there is a correlation between internal trust and student identification of $(r = .29, p > .05)$ external trust has a far more significant influence on student identification. In other words, how trusting parents and students are of the school is a good predictor of how identified students are with school.

The next step involved doing a hierarchical regression with academic performance regressed on the trust variables and the control variables. Since the control variables seemed to be suppressing the effect of the trust variables, the control variables were last to be entered into the equation. This involved a four step hierarchical regression in which external trust was entered into the equation first and internal trust was entered next, followed by school level and SES, which was entered into the equation last. Tables XIV and XV below contain the results of this analysis.

Table XIV: Hierarchical Regression of Academic Performance Reg. on External and Internal Trust

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	8.850E-16	.108		.000	1.000
	external trust	.156	.044	.39	3.540	.001
2	(Constant)	6.647E-16	.105		.000	1.000
	external trust	.082	.054	.20	1.522	.132
	internal trust	.118	.053	.30	2.238	.028
3	(Constant)	6.739E-16	.106		.000	1.000
	external trust	.081	.067	.20	1.212	.230
	internal trust	.118	.054	.30	2.199	.031
	School level	-.006	.135	-.01	-.043	.966
4	(Constant)	1.301E-15	.078		.000	1.000
	external trust	.060	.049	.15	1.211	.230
	internal trust	.019	.042	.05	.444	.659
	School level	-.182	.102	-.18	-1.777	.080
	SES	-.668	.087	-.67	-7.680	.000

a Dependent Variable: Academic Performance

As can be seen from Table XIV above, the hierarchical regression allowed the unique contribution of each of the predictor variables on the total variance in academic performance to be assessed while accounting for the influence of the control variables which appeared to be suppressing the effect of external and internal trust on academic performance. Table XV below displays the change in squared multiple regression correlation (R^2) at each step.

Table XV: R^2 Change - Model Summary - Academic Performance

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	Beta Weight	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1 External Trust	.39(a)	.15	.14	.15	.39	1	72	.001**
2 External Trust Internal Trust	.45(b)	.20	.18	.06	.20 .30	1	71	.028*
3 External Trust Internal Trust School level	.45(c)	.20	.17	.00	.20 .30 .01	1	70	.966 NS
4 External Trust Internal Trust School level SES	.76(d)	.57	.55	.37	.15 .05 -.18 -.67	1	69	.000**

* p<.05   **p<.01   NS – not significant

Table XV shows that when SES and school level were controlled for external trust and internal trust exerted a significant direct effect upon student identification with school with (R^2 = .15, p < .01) and (R^2 = .20, p < .05). As expected, the addition of school level did not contribute significantly to the explanation of the variability in academic performance. On the other hand, SES had a significant direct effect upon academic performance (R^2 = .57, p < .01). This finding confirmed prior research, see, for instance, Goddard et al.(2001). The Beta weights indicated the suppression effect that occurred when SES was entered into the equation. Thus, the significant effect of SES on academic performance made it difficult to assess the predictive power of the other predictors when they were entered simultaneously.

Figure IV below displays the path coefficients for this theoretical model. This is based on the regression analyses of (1) student identification regressed on the trust variables and the control variables and (2) academic performance regressed on the trust variables and the control variables. The Beta weights represent the direct effect of the predictors on student identification and academic performance.
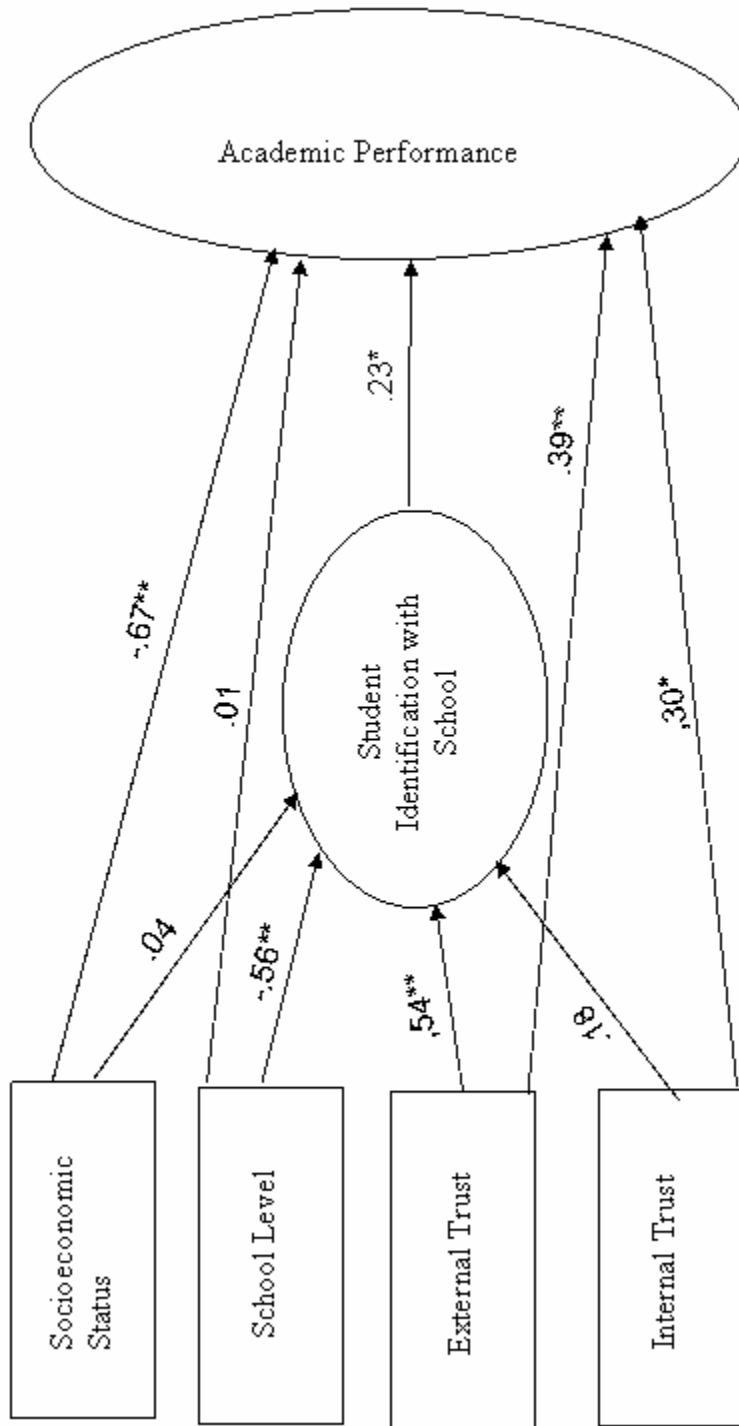
Figure IV: Conceptual Diagram with Path Coefficients

Indirect effect of SES on Academic Performance = .01
Indirect effect of School level on Academic Performance = -.13
Indirect effect of External Trust on Academic Performance = .12
Indirect effect of Internal Trust on Academic Performance = .04

As can be seen from this model all of the hypothesized direct relationships were supported except for hypothesis 1, which stated the internal trust will have a direct effect upon student identification with school and hypothesis 9, which stated, SES will have a direct effect upon student identification with school. While there was a significant and positive zero order correlation between internal trust and student identification (r = .29), this was not supported when student identification was regressed on internal trust and external trust. It appears that external trust had a preponderant effect upon student identification, an effect that outweighed the effect of internal trust (Beta = .54, p<.01).

As expected, school level had a negative and significant effect upon student identification (Beta = -.56, p < .01). SES had no effect on student identification. On the other hand, SES had very strong and negative effect on academic performance (Beta = -.67, p<.01) which was in line with prior research. In contrast, as expected, school level was not associated with academic performance. As hypothesized, both internal and external trust had a significant and positive effect on academic performance (Beta = .30, p<.05) and (Beta = .39, p<.01) respectively. The indirect effects of the predictors on academic performance seemed to be very small. Thus student identification does not appear to be a moderator of these effects on academic performance. Figure V presents the modified version of the conceptual model with the insignificant paths removed from the model.
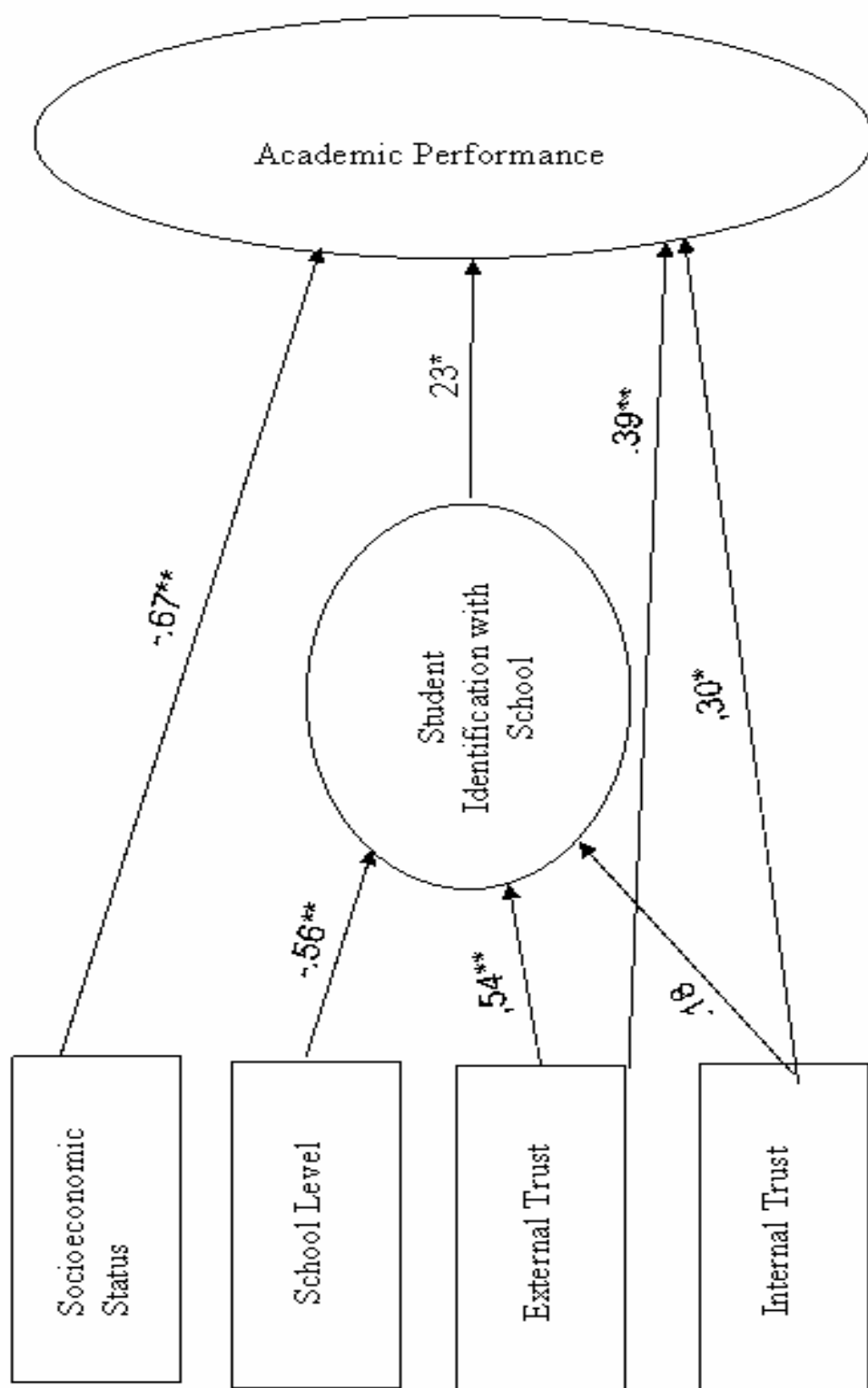
Figure V: Modified Conceptual Diagram with Path Coefficients

As can be seen in Figure V above, the insignificant paths between SES and student identification and between school level and academic performance have been removed from the model. The path between internal trust and student identification while insignificant (Beta = .18, p>.05) has been kept in the model because of the significant zero order correlation between internal trust and student identification (r = .29, p<.05).

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the effects of internal trust and external trust on student identification with school and academic performance. Internal trust was defined as faculty trust, being operationalized as teacher trust of teacher, teacher trust of principal, and teacher trust of clients. As for, external trust, it was defined as the trust that students and parents have of the school and this was operationalized as student trust of principal, parental trust of school, and parental trust of principal, respectively. To the best of my knowledge, mine is the first study to investigate the relationships between trust and student identification, which was defined as the sense of attachment one has with school based on (1) feelings of belongingness and (2) valuing of school and school related outcomes (Voelkl, 1996, 1997). Prior empirical investigations analyzed the relationships between faculty trust and academic performance and between student identification with school and academic performance, but they never discussed the relationship between parental and student trust and academic performance or between parental and student trust and identification with school. As a result this appears to be the first study to investigate the relationship between parental and student trust and student identification, as well as, the relationship between parental and student trust and academic performance. The present study sought to add to the empirical

findings and theoretical understanding regarding trust, identification with school and academic performance.

Extant theoretical knowledge and prior empirical research on these constructs led to the prediction of eleven hypothesized relationships between the paired variables in this study. Specifically, this study identified as follows: (1) the direct effects of internal and external trust, as well as the control variables of SES and school level on student identification with school; (2) the direct effects of internal and external trust, as well as the control variables of SES and school level on academic performance; (3) the direct effects of student identification on academic performance; and (4) the indirect effects of the trust variables and control variables as mediated by student identification on academic performance. The results showed that while both internal and external trust are related to student identification with school, external trust has more predictive power and exerts a stronger influence on identification with school than does internal trust. In contrast, SES was not related to identification with school and school level was significantly inversely related to identification with school. This later finding was in line with prior research, see Ryan and Patrick (2001). Finally my results indicated that, students tend to be more identified with school at the elementary school level, and that identification wanes as students move on to higher levels of school.

Both internal and external trust significantly predicted academic performance when controlling for the effect of SES. SES was inversely related to academic performance and a very strong predictor of academic performance. The inverse relationship was due to the operationalization of SES as the percent of students eligible

for the free and reduced lunch program. As SES goes up, academic performance increases as well. As predicted, school level was not related to academic performance.

Student identification with school was found to be a positive predictor of academic performance confirming previous research (Goodenow, 1992; Hagborg, 1998; Osborne, 1995, 1997; Voelkl, 1996, 1997). Schools that had a higher aggregated student identification score demonstrated a significantly higher academic performance. While student identification with school was a positive predictor of academic performance, it did not seem to moderate the effects of the other predictor variables in the study. The Beta coefficients that measured the indirect effects of internal trust, external trust, SES, and school level on academic performance were all very small.

When student identification was regressed on internal trust, external trust, and the control variables, a suppression effect was evident. There was an inverse relationship between internal trust and student identification when internal trust and external trust were entered into the equation simultaneously. Further exploration via a hierarchical regression analysis allowed the unique effects of each of the predictors to be discovered. When the effects of external trust were removed from the equation, internal trust was no longer inversely related to student identification. However, internal trust was not found to be a significant predictor of student identification, as was hypothesized in this study. The effects of external trust on student identification proved to be far more salient.

A suppression effect was also identified when academic performance was regressed on internal trust, external trust, school level, and SES. Together school level, which was not significantly related to academic performance in the zero order correlations, and SES, combined to exert a cooperative suppression on the model. It

initially appeared that the trust variables were not significantly related to academic

performance, which was contrary to prior empirical research (Goddard et al., 2001). A

hierarchical regression was executed in order to test the unique influences of each

predictor. When the effects of SES were controlled, both internal trust and external trust

proved to be positive predictors of academic performance.

The results of this study indicate that the way parents and students trust the school

and the principal is a significant predictor of student identification with school and

academic performance. Prior research had investigated the effects of faculty trust on

academic performance and had demonstrated that faculty trust and in particular teacher

trust of clients was a strong positive predictor of academic outcomes (Goddard et al.,

2001). However, no previous study has investigated the effect of parental and student

trust of principal and the school. The current study expands knowledge on the

relationship between trust and academic outcomes, confirming the findings of Goddard et

al. (2001) and adding to the empirical understanding of the effects of parental and student

trust on identification with school and academic performance. Specifically this study

indicates that, when parents and students trust the school, students are more likely to be

identified with academics and to achieve higher academic performance.

Implications

Trust is central to the discussion of social capital, which can be defined as

"individual and group capacity to negotiate social borders and institutional barriers

(Arriaza, 2003, p. 72) or according to Forsyth and Adams (2004) "the social structure and

cognitive dispositions that act as a resource for collective action" (p. 272). For students

facing school failure, delinquency, and dropping out, trust can serve as a vital resource by

which they can negotiate boundaries that otherwise would be too imposing (Bryk &

Schneider, 1996; Goddard et al., 2001). Positive relationships with teachers, the

principal and the staff can act as a measure of social capital, which can have an effect on

student academic outcomes. With regards to this idea, Goddard (2003) states:

> Without question, the academic success of individual students is influenced by
>
> their personal characteristics and dispositions. Equally true, however, is that as
>
> members of schools, families, and communities, students may have access to
>
> various forms of social support that can facilitate their success in school. (p. 59)

Teachers are a vital resource in the acquisition of trust and in the establishment of

social capital within schools. According to Arriaza (2003), "youth and children see their

life chances seriously increased or diminished depending on the degree of support

'protective agents' provide" (p.73). Not only is the establishment of healthy school

environments fostering trust essential to the bonding that students experience with school

and their emotional and academic engagement, but schools also assist at a crucial time of

development of student identity. As stated by Arriaza "schools become settings where

students and adults shape one another's social identity" (2003, p.75).

Students perceive their ability to control academic outcomes when they

experience relatedness, bonding, and involvement in a setting that fosters mutual trust

and respect. The relationship between teachers and students is vital for the formation of

this sense of autonomy and control. Indeed, "teachers' behavior toward students is a

major determinant of children's perceived control in the academic domain" (Skinner et

al., 1999, p. 23). How students perceive their relationship with teachers has to do with

trust and pedagogical caring (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Wentzel, 1997). When students

have strong positive relationships with adults within the school, these relationships affect how emotionally engaged and identified with school they are, hence potentially having a significant effect upon academic performance.

In a day when there is increased focus on accountability and high-stakes testing, the discussion of trust as a way to increase social capital within a school becomes vitally important. Goddard (2003) found that students performed significantly better on high stakes testing in schools that were characterized by high levels of social capital. For disadvantaged students and students who are at risk for dropping out of school and for school failure building trusting relationships can serve as the catalyst that facilitates academic success. In this train of thought, Croninger and Lee (2001) state:

> From the perspective of social capital, differences in the probability of dropping out can be explained by differences in the quality of the social networks that comprise a student's interactions with teachers. (p. 554)

Adding to this notion that trust is an essential element in establishing social capital and a vital resource to assist in preventing students from dropping out of school, Driscoll and Kerchner (1999) state, "trust… is the *sine qua non* of the relationships in which social capital resides" (p. 390). They suggest a number of things schools can do in order to build social capital. Specifically, schools can do the following things:

(1) they can assist in building partnerships with families through increased communication, encouragement of families to become actively involved in the school, assisting families to be involved in their children's learning at home, and collaboration in decision-making that affects their child's education;

(2) they can initiate site-based management councils, thus encouraging families to take an active role in the governance of the school;

(3) and they can coordinate social services for at-risk children (e.g., nutrition, healthcare, housing, etc.), acting as the site from which these services are coordinated.

The present study has confirmed that students identify with school at the elementary school level and that this identification tends to wane as students move on to higher levels. It follows that, elementary school is the time to intervene and develop strong positive relationships between parents, students and the school. Everett, Bass, Steele, and McWilliams (1997) point out that:

Waiting until the high school student demonstrates his or her drop potential through low and or falling grades may be too late to rescue the student form dropping out. Drop out prevention programs should begin treatment for the student prior to his or her having the opportunity to fail academically. (p. 25)

This study has also shown that parental and student trust predicts both student identification with school and academic performance. Involving parents in the school and establishing strong, healthy, and trusting relationships with parents and students are essential. Fuller (1994) suggests that when working with disadvantaged populations and at-risk students, schools focus on the following strategies:

(1) enhance communication between the school and the parents;

(2) involve parents and students in decision-making; and

(3) teach parents how to interact within the school bureaucratic context and how to negotiate networks and boundaries.

Finally, in order for schools to improve student identification they must be willing to address impediments that stand in the way of identification with school such as, inappropriate and uninteresting curriculum, lack of parental and student involvement, and old fashioned pedagogical styles that minimize active student participation in learning (Taylor-Dunlop & Norton, 1995).

Recommendations for Future Research

This study investigated the relationship among school contextual characteristics: trust, student identification with school, and academic performance. The results of this investigation are promising. However, much more attention to this topic is needed. The results of this study suggest that parental and student attitudes regarding trust may prove to be vital in understanding why students identify or fail to identify with academics. Future studies might also include gender and ethnicity as predictors of identification with school.

Much confusion abounds surrounding the topic of minority identification with school. Some have suggested that minority students disidentify with school early on as a way to guard against the threat of negative stereotypes (Ogbu & Simons, 1998; Osborne, 1997; Steele, 1992). Others have argued that minority students do not disidentify and are in fact more identified with academics than the dominant culture (Voelkl, 1997). Still others have argued that minorities experience a racial paradox and that because they are more identified with school but, fearful of confirming negative stereotypes, they withdraw from school (Osborne, 2002). The lack of consensus surrounding this issue is very disturbing.

Future studies are needed to not only compare school levels of identification with school, but also to investigate within school differences and between school differences. The sample size for this study did not accommodate nested statistical analyses such as hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) or structural equation modeling (SEM). Future studies designed to investigate the relationships between trust, identification with school and academic performance that will allow for such analyses could prove to be very beneficial.

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APPENDIX A

Sample Copies of the Research Instruments

Parent Trust of School Survey

The items below permit a range of response from one extreme on the left (strongly disagree) to the other extreme on the right (strongly agree). By circling one number in each row, please indicate how you feel about your child's school. Circled numbers close to the "1" or "8" suggest more intense feelings.

Think about your child's school and respond to the following items.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree	
1. This school always does what it is supposed to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2. This school keeps me well informed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3. I really trust this school.............................	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
4. Kids at this school are well cared for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5. This school is always honest with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
6. This school does a terrific job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
7. This school has high standards for all kids.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
8. This school is always ready to help...........	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. I never worry about my child when he/she's there.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10. At this school, I know I'll be listened to..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Parental Trust of Principal Survey

The items below permit a range of response from one extreme on the left (strongly disagree) to the other extreme on the right (strongly agree). By circling one number in each row, please indicate how you feel about your child's principal. Circled numbers close to the "1" or "8" suggest more intense feeling.

Think about your principal and respond to the following items.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree

The principal of this school…

1. is good at his/her job……………………	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2. can be counted on to do his/her job……..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3. is well intentioned……………………….	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
4. is always honest…………………………	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5. invites both criticism and praise from parents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
6. is very reliable…………………………...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
7. has high standards for all kids…………...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
8. is always ready to help………………….	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. treats everyone with respect…………….	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10. keeps an open door…………………….	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
11. owns up to his/her mistakes…………….	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
12. knows how to make learning happen…...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
13. is always there when you need him/her...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
14. is trustworthy……………………………	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
15. likes to talk to parents…………………...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Student Survey

Student Trust of Principal Survey

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Place an "X" next to the word that is closest to how you feel or what you think. Please answer all items, even if you are not sure.

1. The principal at my school is nice.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
2. The principal at my school likes students.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
3. The principal at my school is fair.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
4. The principal at my school makes me feel safe at school.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
5. The principal at my school is helpful.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
6. The principal at my school does what he/she says he/she will do.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
7. The principal at my school is there for students when needed.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
8. The principal at my school tells the truth to students.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
9. The principal at my school makes time to talk to students.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
10. The principal at my school is smart.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
11. The principal at my school expects me to work hard.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
12. The principal at my school believes all students can learn.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
13. The principal at my school expects students to behave.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
14. The principal at my school knows all students by name.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
15. The principal at my school can be trusted.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
16. The principal at my school does the right thing.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
17. The principal at my school likes to talk to me.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
18. The principal at my school does his or her job well.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
19. The principal at my school treats all students with respect.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
20. The principal at my school can be seen around the halls.

_____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree

21. The principal at my school is helpful.

_____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree

Identification with School Questionnaire

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Place an "X" next to the word that is closest to how you feel or what you think. Please answer all items, even if you are not sure.

1. I feel proud of being a part of my school.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
2. I am treated with as much respect as other students in my class.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
3. I can get a good job even if my grades are bad.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
4. The only time I get attention in school is when I cause trouble.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
5. I like to participate in a lot of school activities (for example, sports, clubs, plays).
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
6. School is one of the most important things in my life.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
7. Many of the things we learn in class are useless.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
8. Most of my teachers _don't_ really care about me.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
9. Most of the time I would like to be any place other than in school.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
10. There are teachers or other adults in my school that I can talk I can talk to if I have a problem.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
11. Most of what I learn in school will be useful when I get a job.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
12. School is one of my favorite places to be.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
13. People at school are interested in what I have to say.
    _____Strongly agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
14. School is one of my favorite places to be.
    _____Strongly Agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
15. Dropping out of school would be a huge mistake for me.
    _____Strongly Agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree
16. School is more important than most people think.
    _____Strongly Agree   _____Agree   _____Disagree   _____Strongly Disagree

Teacher Survey – The Trust Scales

Directions: The following are statements about your school. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement along a scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree by circling one number for each question.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
1. Teachers in this school trust the principal	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Teachers in this school trust each other...........................	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Teachers in this school trust their students	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the principal's actions...	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Teachers in this school typically look out for each other ..	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Teachers in this school trust the parents..........................	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. The teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Teachers in this school are suspicious of each other.........	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. The students in this school have to be closely supervised .	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The principal in this school typically acts with the best interests of the teachers in mind....................................	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Teachers in this school believe in each other..................	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Students in this school care about each other	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The principal of this school does not show concern........	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Students in this school are reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The principal in this school is unresponsive to teachers' concerns	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Teachers in this school do their jobs well.......................	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Parents in this school are reliable in their commitments .	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Teachers in this school can rely on the principal	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues...	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Students in this school can be counted on to do their work	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. The principal in this school is competent in doing his or her job	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Teachers in this school are open with each other............	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Teachers can count on parental support...........................	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. The principal in this school keeps his or her word..........	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. When teachers in this school tell you something you can believe it	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Teachers here believe students are competent learners ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. The principal doesn't tell teachers what is really going on	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Teachers think most of the parents do a good job...........	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. The principal openly shares personal information with teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Teachers in this school believe what students say	1	2	3	4	5	6

32. Students in this school cheat if they have the chance......   1 2 3 4 5 6

33. Teachers can believe what parents tell them...................   1 2 3 4 5 6

34. Students here are secretive…………………………..   1 2 3 4 5 6

35. The students in this school talk freely about their lives
    outside of school..   1 2 3 4 5 6

36. Parents of students in this school encourage good
    habits of schooling...   1 2 3 4 5 6

37. Teachers in this school show concern for their students .   1 2 3 4 5 6

APPENDIX B

Letters Explaining the Research Process and Directions for Participation

Dear Principal

We, and several colleagues from Oklahoma State University, are conducting research on the causes and consequences of public trust in schools, especially as related to academic performance of children. Your school has been randomly selected from the 836 public school population in the North Eastern quadrant of Oklahoma. Your district has given us permission to approach you with our proposal to collect data in your school (see attached permission). You have our sincere assurance that these procedures will not be disruptive or in any way cause the school embarrassment. Ultimately we are hoping for more than 120 schools to participate.

A brief description of the study, instruments, and approval of the OSU Instituti8onal Review Board are enclosed for your information. Since the study focuses on schools, no individual data will be analyzed or reported. No schools or districts will be named or identified in our reports. Our interest is in the broad relationships between perceptions and characteristics of schools and the trust parents have for them and their principals.

As you can see from the attached materials, we will collect data from the school principal, a small sample of parents (15 households) from one grade in each selected school, a small sample of students (15) in one grade, and a sample of classroom teachers (up to 10). It will be made clear that participation is voluntary and that the most stringent protections of participant confidentiality will be observed. In the case of the student participants, informed assent/consent forms will be required from the student and parent/guardian. Adult subjects will be provided with a brief statement about the purpose for the research and given the option of participating. It will be made clear to all participants that this research is being conducted by researchers from OSU who have received appropriate permissions to conduct the research in your school.

In a few days, a member of our research team will be calling you to encourage your cooperation with this project. We look forward to working with members of your school community to better understand the importance of community trust of school and its causes. Thank you7 in advance for your careful review and consideration of our request.

Sincerely,

Patrick B. Forsyth   Laura Barnes
Williams Professor of Educational Leadership   Associate Professor
forsytp@okstate.edu
Enclosures: District Permission Form
                IRB report and approval

Dear Colleague:

Oklahoma State University is conducting research on the causes and consequences of public trust in schools, especially as related to children's academic success. This important work could help improve public schools in Oklahoma. Your school has been randomly selected as one of the 836 in NE Oklahoma for study. Your principal and school district have given us permission to seek your cooperation and we genuinely need your help. About 10 classroom teachers from your school have been randomly selected to participate.

Participation will take only a few minutes of your time. We ask that you complete the survey and mail it directly to OSU in the postage-free envelope provided. Your name will never be attached to this survey and once we have received your survey, all evidence that you participated (or declined to participate) will be destroyed. No one at your school, district, or anywhere will have access to your responses or research findings that could be connected to you.

Thank you, most sincerely, for your cooperation. We know you share our belief that Oklahoma's schools should be the best they can be. If you complete the survey, it is important that you answer *all* questions. If you choose not to participate, simply return the incomplete survey and we will not send you another mailing. Any questions may be directed to the e-mail address below. Thank you again.

Sincerely,

Patrick B. Forsyth   Laura Barnes
Williams Professor of Educational Leadership   Associate Professor
forsytp@okstate.edu
Enclosures: Return Envelope

Dear Parent or Guardian:

Oklahoma State University is conducting research on the causes and consequences of public trust in schools, especially as related to children's success in school. This important work can help improve public schools in Oklahoma. Your child's school has been selected as one of the 836 in NE Oklahoma for study. Your school district and principal have given us permission to seek your cooperation and we genuinely need your help. Yours is one of fifteen randomly selected school households.

Participation will take only a few moments of your time. We ask that you complete this 46-item survey and mail it directly to OSU in the postage-free envelope provided. Your name will never be attached to this questionnaire and once we have received your survey, all evidence that you participated will be destroyed. No one at the school will be shown your responses.

Thank you, most sincerely, for your help. We know you share our belief that Oklahoma's schools should be the best they can be. If you complete the survey, it is important that you answer *all* questions. If you do not want to participate, please return the blank survey and we won't send you another mailing. Any questions you might have may be directed to the researchers below.   Thank you.

Sincerely,

Patrick B. Forsyth   Laura Barnes
Williams Professor of Educational Leadership   Associate Professor
Phone: 918-594-8192
E-mail: forsytp@okstate.edu
Enclosure: Return Envelope

Dear Student:

     We need your help! Oklahoma State University is doing school research on how important trust is. Your school has been chosen to participate, and you have been selected as one of 15 students in your grade and school to participate.

     Please bring this survey home with you tonight and show it to your parents. Because you are probably not yet 18 years old, to participate you must sign the separate form saying you agree to participate and have a parent or guardian sign it as well. Then, **place BOTH of these items in the enclosed, postage-free envelope and mail it directly to OSU.** Your answers will never be made public or shown to anyone at your school. If you decide not to participate, please return the consent form anyway so we won't think you lost it and keep sending you another. If you complete the survey, it is important that you answer *all* questions. Thank you again for your help. You may keep a copy of the consent form.

Sincerely,

Patrick B. Forsyth   Laura Barnes
Williams Professor of Educational Leadership   Associate Professor

Enclosures: two copies of the assent/consent form (one for you; one for us)
                    a postage-free return envelope

APPENDIX C

Follow-up Letter

January/February 2003

A few weeks ago you received a research instrument from Oklahoma State University. If you still have this instrument please complete it and send it back to OSU-Tulsa via the return envelope. If you misplaced the instrument, please complete the accompanying instrument and return it to OSU-Tulsa. If you choose not to participate in the research, please return the instrument with a statement indicting that you do not desire to participate. Upon receiving your returned instrument, or response indicating that you choose not to participate, we will stop contacting you for follow-up purposes. We thank you in advance for your time and support of this important research study over the causes, consequences, and effects of trust in schools.

Sincerely,

Roxanne M. Mitchell

APPENDIX D
IRB Approval

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 2/3/03

Date: Monday, February 04, 2002

IRB Application No ED0267

Proposal Title: SCHOOL TRUST PROJECT

Principal
Investigator(s):

Patrick Forsyth
2444 Main Hall, OSU
Tulsa, OK 74106

Laura Barnes
2436 Main Hall
Tulsa, OK 74145

Reviewed and
Processed as: Expedited (Spec Pop)

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Dear PI :

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the
expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals
who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a
manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol
   must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year.
   This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are
   unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. If you have questions about the IRB
procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Sharon Bacher, the Executive Secretary to
the IRB, in 203 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, sbacher@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX E
Student Response Rate

Frequency of Student Response

School	Student Response Rate
1	10
2	9
3	7
4	10
5	7
6	8
7	6
8	8
9	8
10	8
11	10
12	8
13	7
14	8
15	8
16	8
17	8
18	11
19	9
20	6
21	5
22	8
23	12
24	6
25	11
26	7
27	11
28	9
29	8
30	7
31	8
32	9
33	9

34		10
35		11
36		9
37		11
38		6
39		7
40		11
41		9
42		11
43		8
44		10
45		7
46		10
47		5
48		9
49		8
50		6
51		8
52		8
53		8
54		11
55		11
56		8
57		6
58		6
59		8
60		8
61		8
62		9
63		8
64		8
65		8
66		5
67		5
68		7
69		9
70		8
71		9
72		9
73		8
74		6
Total	N	74

VITA

Roxanne M. Mitchell

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Dissertation THE EFFECTS OF TRUST ON STUDENT IDENTIFICATION AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Major Field Education Administration

Biographical

Personal Data: Born in Long Island, New York, on April 7, 1957, the daughter of Royce Carol Mitchell and Ramon Rodriguez. Currently divorced and the mother of three lovely children, Nicole, Natalie and Jonathan.

Education:

Graduated from Amityville Memorial High School, Amityville, New York in June 1975. Received a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology from Oral Roberts University, Tulsa, Oklahoma in May 1982. Received a Master of Science in Counseling Psychology from Northeastern State University in August 1991. Received a Doctor of Education Degree from Oklahoma State University in July 2004.

Experience:

Employed as a School Counselor with Tulsa Public School for the past five years. Twenty years of experience in mental health as a mental health therapist and administrator of day treatment programs. Currently assisting to teach an Educational Leadership class as graduate assistant for Oklahoma State University.

Professional Affiliations

American Educational Research Association
Oklahoma Counseling Association
Tulsa Counseling Association
National Educational Association
Oklahoma Educational Association
Tulsa Classroom Teachers Association
Tulsa Area Alliance of Black School Educators

Name: Roxanne M. Mitchell   Date of Degree: July 2004

Institution: Oklahoma State University   Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: THE EFFECTS OF TRUST ON STUDENT IDENTIFICATION
                AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Pages in Study: <u>149</u>   Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Education

Major Field: Education Administration

Scope and Method of Study:

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between internal (faculty) and external (parental/student) trust and student identification with school and academic performance. There was an absence of prior empirical evidence in the area of the relationship between trust, student identification with school, and academic performance. However existing empirical evidence and extant theoretical knowledge regarding trust led to the hypothesis that trust could be a vital resource in fostering student identification with school and in improving academic performance.   This research study investigated these relationships using survey data collected from 74 schools in 26 contiguous counties across northeastern Oklahoma. Ordinary Least Squares Multiple Regression was used to perform a path analysis of this data.

Findings and Conclusions:

The results of this study indicated that both internal and external trust are positively correlated with student identification with school. However, external trust proved to be a more salient predictor of student identification with school. The findings of this study suggest that SES is not related to student identification with school but is highly correlated with academic performance. Both internal and external trust were found to have a significant and positive effect upon academic performance when controlling for the effect of SES. Furthermore, students are more identified with school at the elementary school level and this identification tends to wane as students move on to higher levels of school.

ADVISORS APPROVAL: Patrick Forsyth