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THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION ON PRINCIPAL TRUST

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

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DEDICATION

To Marli, Josh, and my beautiful grandson, Cole - all my love. Mom and Dad, ~~ur~~ra.

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Thank you does not encompass the accolades that Dr. Curt Adams, Chair of my dissertation committee, deserves. He has been patient and uplifting, assertive yet inspiring, and a selfless guide who encouraged me to go down this daunting path, one step at a time. His resolute confidence in my research prevailed.

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION ON PRINCIPAL TRUST

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Within-school climates and culture are predicated on organizational structures, distributions of power, and roles that are highly interactive. Hierarchical structures and uneven power distributions, primarily those of teacher-principal, have been found to challenge levels of trust. School interaction patterns form the basis of much of the school literature. With this premise in mind, the purpose of this study was to examine if instructional supervision behaviors of principals have an effect on teachers' perceptions of the principal's trustworthiness.

Drawing from the instructional supervision literature (Blase & Blase, 1999), a ten-item survey instrument was designed to capture principal direct assistance behaviors in his or her role as an instructional supervisor. Specifically, direct assistance was defined as principal-teacher interactions that promote reflective practice and professional growth (Blase & Blase, 1999). The ten-item survey instrument was assessed by submitting it to an exploratory factor analysis. Concurrent validity was performed through correlational analysis using Enabling School Structure (ESS) (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001) as a control variable. Reliability of the instructional supervision scale was estimated using Cronbach's alpha.

Principal trust was defined as a teacher's willingness to be vulnerable based on the confidence that the principal is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2000). 258 teachers in a large, Midwestern,

urban elementary school district participated in the online survey. Multilevel modeling was utilized to partition variance in principal trust, the dependent variable, to individual and school factors, as well as to explain variation by individual characteristics. Intraclass Correlation Coefficients (ICC) for principal trust, instructional supervision, and enabling school structure indicated that between-school variability for each construct was significant. The results of the instructional supervision measure indicated that of the variables tested, instructional supervision was the strongest predictor of principal trust. Instructional supervision, alone, explained nearly 98 percent of the between-school variability in principal trust. Teacher perceptions of the principal's direct instructional assistance strongly influence principal trust. This research suggests that instructional supervision is an important component of a healthy, well-functioning school. Implications for future research are significant for a principal's leadership role that should include well-defined direct assistance to teachers. A focus on the core function of instructional supervision aimed at improved teacher learning and development should be advocated in schools. Those principals who are accomplished, as demonstrated in this research, and whose teachers have high principal trust can be the model that others emulate. This study defines one mechanism in instructional supervision that can now provide a framework for further study.

CHAPTER I

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION ON PRINCIPAL TRUST

Introduction

Trust is a complex and dynamic phenomenon important in all human relationships. For more than 50 years, private industry scholars and practitioners have asserted that understanding the nature and complexity of trust is important for successful organizations (Cook & Wall, 1980; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Likert, 1967; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Attempts to measure the significance of trust have traditionally been concentrated in economics, political science, sociology, and organizational theory (Blau, 1964; Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Deutsch, 1958; Granovetter, 1985; Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Rotter, 1980; Williamson, 1993; Zucker, 1986). More recently, educational researchers have recognized the growing significance of trust within the social structure of schools (Adams, 2008; Adams, Forsyth, & Mitchell, 2009; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth, Barnes, & Adams, 2006; Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Hoy, Gage, & Tarter, 2006; Hoy, & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2003; Tarter, Bliss, & Hoy, 1989; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995; Tschannen-Moran, 2001, 2003; Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 1998, 2000).

Conceptually, school climates and culture differ from corporations and industrial organizations, however, schools possess many similar structures and normative properties. Because of these similarities, it is not surprising that school trust literature evolved from industrial organizational research (Fukuyama, 1995; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Kramer & Tyler, 1996). Similar to corporate or

industrial organizations, schools have hierarchical structures and uneven distributions of power, which include defined roles for principals and teachers that are influenced by internal (i.e., other school staff) and external factors such as, students, parents, school boards, and the community. The structures, distributions of power, and roles are all components that shape a school's relational network. School trust literature is based primarily on the interaction patterns in schools. Interaction patterns exist between school personnel and parents (Adams, Forsyth, & Mitchell, 2009), among teaching colleagues (Hoy et al., 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999), between teachers and the principal (Hoy et al., 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999), and between teachers, parents, students, and clients (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001).

Relationships among school agents such as parents, teachers, and students shape a school's operational core. Trust is a significant component of these relationships and a critical normative condition that can enhance teaching and learning. Trust violations in social exchanges or a lack of trust in general leave individuals unwilling to take risks, stifle mutual support and information sharing, and have negative effects on organizational citizenship behaviors, job performance, turnover, profits, and most importantly, student achievement (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Orban, 1990; Kramer & Tyler, 1996). Organizations, including schools, do not want to risk diminished trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). In schools, diminished trust can increase the time and energy wasted on self-preservation, resentment, and revenge rather than on the mission of educating students (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2003). In criticism, and

judicious praise comprised supportive principal behavior. Teachers contrast, the presence of trust can facilitate cooperation and collaboration among, teachers, students, parents, and administrators (Adams, 2008; Kochanek, 2005).

An important relational condition to the overall performance of a school is the trust between principals and teachers. Principal trust studies (Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994; Hoy, Tarter, & Witkoskie, 1992; Tarter, Bliss, & Hoy, 1989; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1998) suggest that principals foster trust by openly exhibiting the facets of trustworthiness. Teachers monitor and discern the facets that include benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 1998, 2000). Trust formation, from a relational perspective, is predicated on the everyday social exchanges between principals and teachers, such as informal conversations as well as leadership behaviors of the principal that are viewed as supportive, collegial, and open (Adams, 2008; Bryk & Schneider, 2002). The institutional and contextual nature of principal behavior also shapes teachers' discernments of principal trustworthiness. That is, expectations surrounding principal-teacher interactions at a school social event are qualitatively different from a supervisory meeting. Both have the potential to influence trust. School climate research provides unique illustrations. For example, Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp's (1991) Organizational Climate Description Survey for elementary schools was designed to receive feedback from school staff on six essential, measureable school climate attributes. Three descriptive areas of a principal's behavior included (a) supportive behavior, (b) directive behavior, and (c) restrictive behavior. Supportive principal behavior is demonstrated by true concern for teachers,

constructive feedback, and trust in a teacher's professional competence. Principal trust was confirmed when teachers felt empowered and praise was genuine. School micro-management, similar to transactional leadership, defined directive principal behavior. Trust is thin and oversight of teachers is rigid when principal behavior is perceived as directive. Restrictive principal behavior burdened teachers with paperwork, committee assignments, and other duties, which hampered teachers' professional responsibilities (Hoy & Tarter, 1997).

This study was designed to test the relationship between instructional supervision, characterized by principal behaviors, and principal trust. Contemporary definitions of instructional supervision treat it as a learning and development process shaped by the principal, and not solely limited to teacher-principal interactions. Blase and Blase (2002a) note, "Instructional supervision is often defined as a blend of several leadership tasks such as supervision of classroom instruction, staff development, and curriculum development" (p. 8). Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2007) agree that instructional supervision is a comprehensive process that consists of supervisory tasks including direct assistance, group development, professional development, curriculum development, and action research to improve teaching and learning.

Kochanek (2005) emphasizes that no reform can succeed without trusting relationships. A principal who is unwilling to perform skillful instructional supervision that supports improved teaching and positive interactions risks diminished trust (Adams, 2007). If principals lack proficiencies to develop and implement effective instructional practice, teachers find it difficult to differentiate

between what should be a positive, formative facet of instructional supervision focused on teacher development and learning and summative judgment of performance based on limited information (Danielson, & McGreal, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Pease, 1983).

Because principal trust is based primarily on teachers' perceived intentions of the principal, the quality of interpersonal exchanges can reinforce power asymmetry between teachers and principals; whereas, power symmetry reduces vulnerability. (Blase & Blase, 2002a). Disparities between the two perceived purposes of instructional supervision necessitate measurement to determine the effect on principal trust. To gain a better understanding of the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust, the present study situates the formation of principal trust within the context of the principal's direct instructional assistance.

Statement of the Problem

Research consistently suggests that principals play a critical role in schools. The ideal school climate is open and collegial where teachers share ideas and provide feedback to the principal and the principal reciprocates. Along with meeting state and federal mandates, principals are tasked to help teachers improve their teaching. Teachers and principals working together can improve performance. However, there are situations and interpersonal exchanges where power between principals and teachers becomes unbalanced due to role expectations and responsibilities. One of the primary roles where confusion is prevalent is that of teacher-principal interaction during the principal's role as instructional supervisor. Understanding the complexity

of the principal's role and levels of trust during teacher-principal interaction encompassing instructional supervision requires further study.

The seminal work of Hoy and his colleagues (Goddard et al, 2001; Hoy et al, 2002; Hoy et al, 2006; Hoy, & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2003; Tarter et al, 1989; Tarter et al, 1995; Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 1998, 2000) have contributed to the understanding of the formation and effects of trust in schools. This literature suggests that social exchanges between teachers and principals are the primary mechanism by which teachers discern the trustworthiness of principals (Adams, 2008; Bryk & Schneider, 2002). These exchanges can be informal, such as, meeting and greeting teachers in the hallways or visiting with teachers in the faculty lounge. Exchanges can also be formal as in the context of instructional supervision focused on evaluation, which also influences pay, promotion, and tenure. Discussions of teaching practice and instructional strategies are examples of both formal and informal exchanges that may begin with broad suggestions and conclude with an evaluation conference (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Forsyth et al., 2006). Principals are challenged to find equilibrium during informal and formal interactions with teachers. Hoy et al. (2002) suggest that in one sense "the principal treats teachers as colleagues, is open, egalitarian, and friendly, but at the same time sets clear expectations and standards of performance" (p. 42).

Many principals are required to balance the two roles of colleague and formal supervisor. The two roles intersect within the micropolitical, hierarchical context of instructional supervision where uneven power distribution results (Blase & Blase,

1999, 2000). Direct and effective assistance to teachers requires collaborative and collegial relationships between principals and teachers; however, the formal authority of the principal can affect power symmetry. Finding an effective balance between relational leadership and task-oriented behaviors is tricky and critically important for principals. Nowhere is finding equilibrium between the two leadership styles more important than in the practice of teacher supervision, which minimally includes formal and informal face-to-face discussions, pre- and post-conferencing, and the principal's role as instructional supervisor. The formal authority of principals as supervisor intersects with technical expertise creating a social dynamic that has the potential to influence teacher trust.

This belief, however, has not been empirically tested. A review of the literature indicates there is no study that empirically investigates the direct relationship between the practice of instructional supervision and principal trust. Addressing this problem was the focus of this study.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this research was to study the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust. To do so, an instrument to measure the practice of instructional supervision was developed and tested. The primary research question guiding the study was: what is the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust in the context of urban elementary schools?

The study begins by reviewing the relevant, extant literature on trust and instructional supervision. A conceptual framework was developed that explains the formation of principal trust and the consequences of supervisory practices designed to

improve teaching and learning. From this conceptual framework, a hypothesis on the relationship between principal trust and instructional supervision was advanced. The study concluded with a summary of findings.

Definitions of Terms

Principal Trust is a teacher's willingness to be vulnerable based on the confidence that the principal is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2000).

Instructional Supervision is broadly defined as consisting of five primary tasks: direct assistance to teachers, group development, staff development, curriculum development, and action research. The definition and measure for this study focuses on the principal's direct instructional assistance to teachers. Specifically, instructional supervision is direct assistance of the principal in principal-teacher interactions that promote reflective practice and professional growth (Blase & Blase, 2000).

Limitations

All research is plagued by limitations, and this study is no exception. The first limitation addresses the generalizability of the results. Because data were collected from urban elementary schools, results should only be generalized to this classification of schools. Further, data come from a cross-section of schools within one urban district, not a cross-section of schools from several urban districts. A second limitation is that attitudinal data were collected at one time period, not longitudinally. A third limitation is based on the subjectivity of survey research. Survey research leaves interpretation of the question or statement to the individual

respondent and there is a possibility of misunderstanding or misinterpretation of the survey statements. Causal inferences from these data should not be made.

Research Design

An ex post facto design with cross-sectional data was used to determine whether a relationship existed between teacher perceptions of instructional supervision and principal trust. The hypothesis to be tested was:

Hypothesis 1: The practice of instruction supervision within a school will explain principal trust after accounting for the effects of teacher and school characteristics.

Teachers, similar to employees in any organization, are nested in schools. Although observations were collected from individual teachers, these teachers were nested within schools and variables at one hierarchical level can influence variables at the individual level (Hofmann, 1997). Stated differently, the independence assumption of Ordinary Least Squares regression is often violated with nested data because observations are partly dependent on school membership. The primary analytical tool to assist with nested data structures is Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). HLM allows the researcher to partition variance in the dependent variable to individual and school factors, as well as to explain variation by individual characteristics and group membership.

The primary independent variable of interest was instructional supervision. Instructional supervision has been studied qualitatively but a quantitative survey to capture its manifestation does not exist. A measure of instructional supervision was developed and tested for this study. Data on individual teacher characteristics, such

as gender, educational attainment, years teaching, and years at the school, as well as school demographic information was also collected.

Assumptions

Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) is designed to correct for the ecological fallacy associated with making group level generalizations from individual level data or the atomistic fallacy of making individual inferences from aggregated data (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Like all parametric statistics, HLM analysis is based on several assumptions:

- Teacher and school-level data were collected and measured without error.
- Level one errors were independent and normally distributed with a common variance.
- Residuals across schools were uncorrelated with residuals across teachers.
- Observations across teachers were independent.

Design of Study

Chapter I introduced the significance of trust in schools and established how this study will contribute to the extant trust literature and the lack of instructional supervision research. The definition of trust for purposes of this research was provided and guided by the empirical research of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). Blase and Blase's (1999) definition of instructional supervision followed. The purpose and significance of the research for schools, as well as limitations of the study, were discussed. The hypothesis was introduced.

Chapter II of this study provides a review of the associated literature that more fully discussed the conceptual framework and contributions to the study of trust in

schools. This chapter offered a review of experts', researchers', and theorists' data and findings.

Chapter III provides justification of the choice of methods employed and methodological problems encountered during the research design. Included in this chapter was a description of the choice and use of strategies and tools for data gathering and analysis.

Chapter IV presents an analysis and findings of the data collected. A comparison with results in previous research was discussed, effects of methods used on the data obtained, and an analysis was presented.

Chapter V is a discussion of the findings and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

This chapter contains a review of the relevant trust and instructional supervision literature to identify trust constructs and characteristics of direct instructional supervision behaviors. The review begins with an analysis of trust perspectives across the scholarly literature and traces the evolution of this study's conceptualized trust definition. The different forms of trust found in the literature follow. From here, trust properties are defined and described. Hierarchical, contextual, organizational, and relational trust properties are identified.

A review of the literature for the second construct, instructional supervision, is provided. The literature identifies instructional supervision and for purposes of this study distinguishes supervision from evaluation. Further discussion is given to the relationship between instructional supervision and trust. The literature review concludes with a rationale and hypothesis for the study.

Derivation of the Trust Definition

A review of electronic databases, electronic journals, library searches, and published books provided the initial literature review. Recent studies of trust view the phenomenon as dynamic, complex, and multidimensional that takes on a different character depending on the referent of trust and various stages of interpersonal relationships (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; McAllister, 1995). Trust is often described as a behavior (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998), an attitude

(Luhmann, 1979), a cognitive process (Lewis & Weigert, 1985), or a belief (Sitkin & Roth, 1993; Rotter, 1971). Gambetta (1988) and Fukuyama (1995) described trust as a vital social lubricant, which functions as a precondition to social interaction and cooperation, and an elusive concept that is challenging to define. Empirical trust studies focus on three core contexts where trust manifests: (1) a trusting relationship between two individuals (Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994; Rempel & Holmes, 1986; Zand, 1972), (2) trust between the individual and the organization (Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Zand, 1972); and (3) trust in events or processes (Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975; Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994).

Trust conceptualizations evolved over time and across disciplines. A number of different scientific lenses influence the evolution of empirical trust definitions, such as: (a) the researcher's discipline; (b) the individual, group, or organization analyzed; and (c) the type of trust studied (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995). Trust occurs laterally (e.g., peer relationships), vertically (e.g., supervisor and subordinate relationships) and externally (e.g., organizational relationships between clients or customers), which adds complexity to understanding and conceptualizing the phenomenon (Fox, 1974). Length (Rotter, 1967; Bigley & Pearce, 1998) and history (Boon & Holmes, 1991) of a relationship are also elements that add dimensionality to understanding and defining trust.

In the context of schools, trust may be an individual affective state or more of a collective orientation of role groups that include students, parents, teachers, principals, and the outside school community (Forsyth et al., 2006). The maturation of school trust research began with an exploration of trust as an individual belief

based largely on expected outcomes of a relationship then evolved to a multidimensional organizational property that forms sequentially through intrapersonal discernment, interpersonal exchanges, and collective consequences (Adams, 2008; Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

In spite of trust's complexity, trust definitions have common agreed upon elements (Rousseau et al., 1998). Industrial organization and philosophical studies and theories influenced educational trust perspectives and school trust studies. A brief review of the various social science disciplines and their influence on educational trust conceptualizations follows.

Philosophers, sociologists, psychologists, theologians, poets, military leaders, and politicians have contemplated concepts of trust, betrayal, and distrust for centuries. However, the high levels of suspicion and betrayal during the Cold War are considered major contributors to trust and distrust's empirical study. There was optimism that science could resolve the tense, unpredictable arms race between the United States and the Soviet Union (Deutsch, 1958). Deutsch (1958), funded by the Office of Naval Research, conducted research focused on suspicion, trust, and conditions affecting cooperation. In 1958, Deutsch's definition of trust argued,

> an individual may be said to have trust in the occurrence of an event if he expects its occurrence and his expectation leads to behavior which he perceives to have greater negative motivational consequences if the expectation is not confirmed than positive motivational consequences if it is confirmed. (p. 266)

Although there was much thought given to issues of trust prior to Deutsch's (1958) experiments, his work established an empirical guideline for the studies that followed. Deutsch's (1962) much used definition of trust evolved from the following: (a) Individuals are confronted with ambiguous paths; (b) a path can lead to an event perceived as beneficial or harmful; (b) the benefit or harm is contingent on another's behavior; and (c) the choice a person chooses is based on a perception that the negative outcome is more harmful than the positive outcome is beneficial. Constructs measured were cooperation, mutual gain, and trustworthiness.

In Deutsch's (1958) experimental research, he employed two-person, mixed-motive games adapted from Luce and Raiffa's (1957) Prisoner's Dilemma Game.

> Mixed-motive conflict is characterized by the presence of (a) the possibility of mutually beneficial cooperation, (b) a lack of trust of the other person because of the possibility of his yielding to the temptation to exploit, and (d) the possibility of mutually harmful joint competition arising from both the temptation to compete and the requirement to compete to defend against exploitation. Self-interest (maximization of gains) calls for eventual cooperation because the temptation to exploit the opponent only results in him imposing costs through defensive competition. (Lindskold, 1978, p. 772)

The premise of the game is that two people (i.e., players) are caught during a crime. They are in custody, but separated. Both are identifiably guilty; but there is not enough evidence to convict one or both. The prisoner's dilemma occurs when a decision is necessary to turn over evidence and protect him or herself or be silent,

accept punishment, and trust the other prisoner to remain silent. Each is told that there are four possible outcomes:

1. One can confess, or defect, to the crime and inform on the accomplice, which will reduce the confessor's sentence. The confessor has deviated from the pact made by the two individuals.

2. If the accomplice adheres, or cooperates, to the pact and is incriminated, he or she will receive the maximum ten-year sentence.

3. If both prisoners confess, or defects, to the crime, each receives a reduced, five-year sentence.

4. If neither confesses to the crime, or cooperates, each receives the minimum, six-month sentence. This option may not appeal to either due to the fact he or she will receive a sentence. The prisoners cannot communicate with each other; therefore, each must trust the other not to defect (Deutsch, 1958).

The research, conducted in a laboratory setting, used predictability as one component of the dilemma game. One participant must predict the occurrence of the other's behavior. Deutsch's (1958) research began to identify other trust elements, such as risk. Risk occurs as one assesses the other's expected behavior and anticipates greater negative consequences than positive benefit (Deutsch, 1958, 1962). Manipulation of the game's instructions allowed for measurement of situations for cooperation, mutual gain, and trustworthy choices.

Deutsch's (1958, 1960) research provided empirical insight into the trust phenomenon and proposed measurable elements or facets. For educational theorists, facets such as, confidence, cooperation, communication, mutual gain, and power

evolved to mold subsequent empirical studies. A multitude of theories and experiments from every social science's realm followed.

Rotter (1971) was one of the first of those who responded by stating, "Interpersonal trust does not extend to a willingness to believe in the benvolence of others in competitive situations" (p. 659). Rotter (1971) expressed concern that game situations may not be predictive of interpersonal, trustworthy behavior. The Prisioner's Dilemma game was carried out using strangers or imaginary oponents. Rotter (1971) viewed trust through a moralistic action and general expectancy lens.

Deutsch's (1958, 1962) work opened the empirical world and exploration of trust. Trust became important to every discipline and, today, continues to intrigue theorists, practitioners, and researchers. Both Deutsch (1958, 1962) and Rotter (1967, 1971) contributed to the empirical exploration of dissecting trust and studying its composition.

Philosophical Perspective

A primary theme for philosophers who analyze trust is one based on ethics and morals (Baier, 1986; Hosmer, 1995). Reliance is a key element. "We all depend on one another's psychology in countless ways, but this is not yet to trust them. The trusting can be betrayed, or at least let down, and not just disappointed" (Baier, 1986, p. 235). Trusting an individual who disappoints can result in betrayal; whereas, relying upon an individual who fails you or fails to act as you expected is disappointing.

Hosmer's (1995) definition reflects reliance of one person upon another while the trusted party has some voluntary duty or obligation. His definition states that:

> Trust is the reliance by one person upon another person, group, or firm, upon a voluntary accepted duty on the part of another person, group, or firm, to recognize and protect the interests of all engaged in a joint effort or economic exchange. (Hosmer, 1995, p. 393)

Hosmer's (1995) trust discussion describes the phenomenon as an optimistic expectation of a future event in the hands of another person over which the trustor has no control. Baier (1986) states this expectation as …"accepted vulnerability to another's possible but not expected ill will toward oneself" (p. 235). Overall, the philosophical perspective suggests that trust is important to personality development and is essential for living in complex societies. Similarly, teacher trust of the principal is essential for quality school performance.

Sociological Perspective

The sociological literature is broad in content and diversely encompassing; however, social interactions and relationships are key components. Zand's (1972) model predicted the development of trust through processes of social exchange and mutual risk. Trust is not a feeling but the conscious regulation of one's dependence on another (Zand, 1972). Trust becomes the social lubricant that fosters interdependency and functions to reduce uncertainty (Zand, 1972).

Luhmann (1979) posited that "A theory of trust presupposes a theory of time, and so leads us into territory [that is] difficult and obscure" (p. 10). Trust occurs within a framework of interaction, which is influenced by both personality and social system, and cannot be exclusively associated with either" (Luhmann, 1979, p. 6). According to Luhmann (1979), personal trust has three bases:

1. Trust demands mutual commitment and can only be put to test by the trustor and the trustee becoming involved. This occurs in a fixed order.

2. Initially, the participants must know the exact situation. Trust building depends on easily interpretable situations based on communication.

3. Trust does not just happen, nor can it be ordered or stipulated (Kramer, 1996). Trust builds, matures, and is maintained through repeated interaction.

As Luhmann (1979) demonstrated, sociological definitions discuss reliance on another individual in situation-specific relationships and an expectation or confidence that conventional rules will be followed (Dasgupta, 1988). Lewis and Weigert (1985) indicated that trust evolves from a pattern of careful, rational thinking coupled with an examination of one's feelings, instincts, and intuition. Lewis and Weigert (1985) noted:

> First, trust is based on a cognitive process which discriminates among persons and institutions that are trustworthy, distrusted, and unknown. In this sense, we cognitively choose whom we will trust in which respects and under which circumstances, and we base the choice on what we take to be 'good reasons,' constituting evidence of trustworthiness. (p. 970)

Trust, with regard to social relationships, can lead to collective action (Fukuyama, 1995) and civic engagement (Putnam, 1995). Social integration requires coordination and cooperation between people with a shared set of values and the pursuit of shared objectives (Misztal, 1996; Putnam, 1995). Coleman (1988) viewed a trust relationship as purposeful. "The potential trustor's decision is nearly always

problematic – to decide whether or not to place trust in the potential trustee" (Coleman, 1988, p. 96).

Bryk and Schneider's (2002) integrated relational trust framework was formulated on interpersonal and collective dimensions. Their focus was on the distinctive qualities of interpersonal social exchanges in school communities and they sought to explain how these exchanges culminate in a social property called, relational trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). The researchers suggested that school communities work well when agreed upon role obligations exist. Students, teachers, parents, principals, other staff, and community make up the different role groups in schools. Each role is dependent upon the others to achieve desired outcomes. School relationships evolve from daily, long-term interaction among school members. In terms of principals and teachers, professional and trustworthy behavior creates healthy climates. For example, teachers must rely on the principal's fair assessment of classroom resource allocation. The principal will more than likely notice the teacher who is prudent and uses resources according to the school norms. Principals also need supportive and engaged teachers. Trust is greater between teachers and principals when role expectations and obligations are fulfilled.

Organizational Perspective

The organizational perspective is a blend of the other trust disciplines. Cummings and Bromiley (1996) examined the organizational perspective and argued that trust is a collective judgment that another group will not act opportunistically, is honest in negotiations, and makes a good faith effort to behave in accordance with commitments. "Trust emerges through a variety of mechanisms, such as recurring

interpersonal exchanges" (Creed & Miles, 1996, p. 18). Kramer (1996) emphasized that trust thickens or thins between two or more individuals as the relationship matures or transforms. Organizational trust studies, for the most part, focus on effects of interpersonal and organizational trust outcomes such as higher levels of cooperation, better team processes, higher levels of individual and organizational performance, and overall organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (Dirks, 1999; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler & Martin, 1997; Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975; Mayer et al., 1995; Organ, 1988). Schools, similarly, have mutual dependencies, role distinctions characterized by power and authority, and risky interpersonal exchanges.

Educational Perspective

Educational researchers recognize the growing significance of trust (Adams, 2008; Adams & Forsyth, 2009; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth et al., 1995, 2006; Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Hoy, Gage, & Tarter, 2006; Hoy, & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy et al., 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2003; Tarter, Bliss, & Hoy, 1989; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995; Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 1998). Schools are characterized by a combination of bureaucratic and professional structures that attempt to coexist within the same organization (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Traditional bureaucratic models are based on formalized rules and centralized, top-down structures which are at odds with professional models characterized by a shared sense of service and mission and norms of inquiry and ethical conduct are standard practice (Darling-Hammond, 1988; Seashore Louis, Kruse, & Marks, 1996;

Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Challenged by such structures, internal characteristics of schools vary as does trust (Hoy, 1990).

Halpin and Croft (1963) pioneered conceptualizations and measures of the organizational climate in schools that incorporated trust components. In their study of elementary schools, Halpin and Croft (1963) developed a descriptive questionnaire, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), to identify critical aspects of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions. Although school climate was the focus of the research, data referencing trustworthy behaviors of the principal, such as, *the principal leads by example* or *the principal provides the proper blend of structure, direction, and support*, were collected. For nearly twenty years, Halpin and Croft's (1963) research provided the basic conceptual framework for subsequent teacher-principal relationship studies.

In the early 1980's, Hoy and Kupersmith (1984, 1985), influenced by Rotter's (1967) and Golembiewski and McConkie's (1975) trust research and Halpin and Croft's (1963) school climate research, began conceptualizing and measuring school trust. Their studies focused on teacher trust of three primary targets: the principal, colleagues, and the school. Hoy and Kupersmith (1984, 1985) utilized standard psychometric approaches to develop early trust measures. The significance of Hoy and Kupersmith's (1984, 1985) early trust measures and research was that it: (a) produced empirical evidence of relationships among components of teacher trust; (b) suggested that trust is measureable and responsive to the trustworthiness of different targets (Forsyth, 2008); and, (c) pioneered empirical school trust research.

Synthesis

The result of multidisciplinary studies of trust has been the emergence of common properties of trust. First, trust requires risk. Without risk, trust is not an issue. With risk comes vulnerability. Organizations, by their hierarchical nature and power asymmetry, create situations of risk and vulnerability. Similarly, schools are complex organizations where distinct role relationships create situations of obligations that result in risk and vulnerability. In schools, teachers discern their willingness to take risks based on the principal's behavior.

The principal can be the catalyst for engaged teachers, who in turn impart salient pedagogy to students, who then demonstrate they have learned functional skills and received a comprehensive education when they become a positive influence in their community and society. Each distinct and essential school role leads to effective schools. The driver is the principal. A principal has to balance the role of principal-supervisor, where he or she is the leader, manager, policy maker, teacher, and in many instances, evaluator of teacher performance. Finding this balance is a delicate task. Teachers risk higher levels of vulnerability when the principal's role changes from collaborative partnership to that of supervisor. When the principal engages his or her role as supervisor and the teacher's role as subordinate is clear, trust becomes crucial to relationship maturation. The rigid, directive principal may focus on compliance and criticism producing power asymmetry; whereas, the supportive, empowering principal is informative, open, collaborative, and engenders trust building and sustainability. The evidence that trust is required for well-

functioning schools is empirically cogent and is dependent upon principals and teachers meeting and exceeding role obligations.

Conceptualization: Trust Definition

One, all-encompassing, multidisciplinary definition of trust continues to escape researchers (Bigley & Pearce, 1998; Coleman, 1990; Deutsch, 1958; Gambetta, 1979; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1998; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999, 2000). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) find that …

> Studying trust is like studying a moving target because it changes over the course of a relationship, and 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. 335)

Although practitioners and researchers are challenged to find a singular definition, empirical trust conceptualizations have agreed upon elements and similar foci, which include: (1) trust between two individuals (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994; Rempel & Holmes, 1986; Zand, 1972); (2) trust between the individual and the organization (Fukuyama, 1995; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Zand, 1972); and (3) trust in events or processes (Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975; Hoffman et al., 1994).

Kramer (2006) describes trust in organizations as “hard won and easily lost” (p. 7). This is due to the risk involved in a belief, attitude, or expectation that the actions of an individual, a group, or an organization will benefit or otherwise serve in

the trustor's best interest (Barber, 1983; Kee & Knox, 1970; Lewis & Weiger, 1985; Luhmann, 1979). Risk is an important trust component that plays a significant role in a win-lose trust scenario. Without some risk or negative consequence, there is no need to trust (e.g., Deutsch, 1973; Gambetta, 1988; Zand, 1972). Vulnerability is an element of trust based on interdependence (Baier, 1986; Bigley & Pearce, 1998; Coleman, 1990; Deutsch, 1958; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Mishra, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Zand, 1971). Vulnerability exists when an outcome is a matter of importance or value to the trustor (Baier, 1986; Deutsch, 1958; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Recent trust studies and models focus on characteristics of interpersonal, dyadic relationships (Hosmer, 1995; Mayer et al., 1995) as opposed to definitions that conceptualize trust for generalized others (e.g., Rotter, 1967). The following definitions reflect not only the multidisciplinary trust perspectives but also the multidimensional nature of trust.

Julian Rotter (1967) studied trust and addressed the role of individual differences. Rotter (1967) defined trust as "a generalized expectancy, held by an individual or a group in unfamiliar situations, that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 651). Rotter (1980) viewed trust as a disposition and argued that trust is most predictive when individuals are in situations with others who are unfamiliar. Trust's strength of impact is also situation dependent (Rotter, 1967, 1971, 1980). Zand (1971) viewed trust as a behavior that consists of actions that increase an individual's own vulnerability toward another. Trust is an individual's conscious regulation of one's

dependence on another (Zand, 1971). Golembiewski and McConkie (1975) define trust as "...reliance on, or confidence in, some event, process, or person" (p. 133)

Lewis and Weigert (1985) characterized trust as the "undertaking of a risky course of action on the confident expectation that all persons involved in the action will act competently and dutifully" (p. 971). "Trust, in everyday life, is a mix of feeling and rational thinking" (Lewis and Weigert, 1985, p. 972). Trusting behavior may be motivated by a pattern of careful, rational thinking, or cognition-based trust, or subjective emotions and feelings, which are affect-based trust. Boon and Holmes (1991) explored interpersonal, romantic relationships. The researchers defined trust as "a state involving confident positive expectations about another's motives with respect to oneself in situations entailing risk" (p. 194). Elements, such as: chronic disposition to trust, situational parameters, and history of the relationship, contribute to interpersonal trust (Boon & Holmes, 1991).

McAllister's (1995) research examined the following definition of interpersonal trust between managers and peers, "the extent to which a person is confident in and willing to act on the basis of the words, actions, and decisions of another" (p. 25). McAllister (1995) used a ten-item scale to measure cognition-based trust and affect-based trust. He found that affect-based and cognitive-based trust were distinctly different forms of interpersonal trust. Cognitive-based trust relied on role obligations, reliability, job performance, and cultural similarity. Affect-based trust was identified as citizenship behavior and interaction frequency. Managers' levels of cognition-based trustworthiness of peers were higher than levels of affect-based trust. Role reliability and task-oriented interdependence were more important

than self-disclosure or affect-based trust. Although cognition- and affect-based trust may be causally connected, some level of cognition-based trust is necessary for affect-based trust to develop (McAllister, 1995).

Mayer et al. (1995) developed a model to examine the characteristics of the trustor and trustee and the amount of trust one has for the other. Mayer et al. (1995) defined trust "as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that party" (p. 712). Ability, benevolence, and integrity were three attributes of trustworthiness.

Mishra's (1996) study examined trust during crisis. Mishra's (1996) study extended Mayer et al.'s (1995) definition by adding facets of trustworthiness to explore a willingness to risk. "Trust is 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).

Hoy, Tschannen-Moran, and colleagues over the past twenty years have emerged as leading proponents of school trust studies. Utilizing constructs similar to Mishra (1996) and Mayer et al. (1995), Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) defined trust as "one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open" (p. 189).

Bryk and Schneider's (2002) work in the Chicago Public Schools examined the role of social relationships in schools and the impact on student achievement. Rejecting earlier psychological conceptualizations of trust, yet aligned with Hoy and

Tschannen-Moran (1999) and Mishra (1996), the researchers looked to the work of Putnam (1993) and Fukuyama (1995). Bryk and Schneider (2002) found relational trust based on "criteria for discernment" of trustworthy behavior that included: (a) respect, (b) personal regard, (c) competence, and (d) integrity (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Respect that leads to trust requires a regard for others by allowing them to speak freely. Similar to the definition of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999), Tarter et al. (1989), and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998), Bryk and Schneider (2002) suggested that competence occurred when the teacher assessed the extent to which the principal carried out his or her role obligation. Individuals or teachers within school role groups perceive trustworthy behavior. Individuals who do the right things for the right reasons, which in schools means acting in the best interests of students, he or she demonstrates integrity. Over time, as individuals or groups perceive each other's actions, observations are made, validated, verified, and emerge as shared perceptions about the other's trustworthiness (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). "[High] relational trust creates an environment where individuals share a moral commitment to act in the interests of the collectivity" (Bryk & Schneider, 1996, p. 34).

The conceptual analysis of trust required a search of the multidisciplinary literature and multifaceted definitions. To summarize, ethically and morally justifiable behavior (Baier, 1986; Hosmer, 1995) is a component of the philosophical literature. Coleman (1990 and Williamson (1993), economists, discuss trust as a rational calculation of costs and benefits. Organizational research frames trust as a collective judgment where one group will not act opportunistically towards another group, that negotiations are honest, and good faith efforts are maintained and

behavior corresponds to commitments (Cummings & Bromily, 1996). Important to the present research is the educational research focus that an individual is perceived as trustworthy to the extent that the trustor is willing to rely upon others and make himself or herself vulnerable to others (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2003). Table 2.1 summarizes trust definitions and provides a synthesis of the evolution of the trust facets.

Table 2.1: * Definitions of Trust

Definition	Willingness to risk	Benevolence	Reliability	Competence	Honesty	Openness
Trust is an expectation by an individual in the occurrence of an event such that the expectation leads to behavior which the individual perceived would have greater negative consequences if the expectation was not confirmed than positive consequences if it was confirmed (Deutsch, 1958, p. 266).	X	X				
Interpersonal trust is 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 upon (Rotter, 1967, p. 651).			X		X	
Trust consists of actions that increase one's vulnerability to another whose behavior is not under one's control in a situation in which the penalty (disutility) one suffers if the other abuses that vulnerability is greater than the benefit (utility) one gains if the other does not abuse that vulnerability (Zand, 1971, p. 230).	X	X				
The multidimensionality of trust…include[s] (a) integrity, honesty and truthfulness; (b) competence, technical and interpersonal knowledge and skills required to do one's job; (c) consistency, reliability, predictability, and good judgment in handling situations; (d) loyalty or benevolent motives, willingness to protect and save face for a person; (e) openness or mental accessibility, willingness to share ideas and information freely (Butler & Cantrell, 1984, p. 19).		X	X	X	X	X
"Trust, in everyday life, is a mix of feeling and rational thinking (Lewis and Weigert, 1985, p. 972).		X				

Trust is a work group's generalized expectancy that the words, actions and promises of another individual, group, or organization can be relied upon…and that the trusted person will act in one's best interest (Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985).		**X**	**X**			
Trust…is a particular level of the subjective probability with which an agent assesses that another agent or group of agents will perform a particular action…When we say we trust someone or that someone is trustworthy, we implicitly mean that the probability that he will perform an action that is beneficial or at least not detrimental to us is high enough for us to consider engaging in some form of cooperation with him (Gambetta, 1988, p. 217).		**X**				
A rational actor will place trust if the ratio of *p* (the probability that the trustee is trustworthy) to *p* - 1 is greater than the ratio of potential loss if the trustee is untrustworthy to potential gain if the trustee is trustworthy (Coleman, 1990, p. 99).	**X**					
Trust is a state involving confident positive expectations about another's motives with respect to oneself in situations entailing risk (Boon and Holmes, 1991, p. 94).	**X**	**X**			**X**	
Trust is the expectation by one person, group, or firm of ethically justifiable behavior-that is morally correct decisions and actions based upon ethical principles of analysis-on the part of the other person, group, or firm in a joint endeavor or economic exchange (Hosmer, 1995, p. 399).		**X**			**X**	
Trust is the extent to which a person is confident in and willing to act on the basis of the words, actions, and decisions of another" (McAllister, 1995, p. 25).		**X**	**X**			
Trust is the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest, and cooperative behavior, based on commonly shared norms, on the part of other members of that community (Fukuyama, 1995, p. 26).		**X**	**X**		**X**	
Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that party" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712).	**X**		**X**	**X**		

Trust is an individual's belief or a common belief among a group of individuals that another individual or group (a) makes good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit or implicit, (b) is honest in whatever negotiations preceded such commitments, and (c) does not take excessive advantage of another even when the opportunity is available (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996, p. 4).		**X**	**X**		**X**	
Trust is 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).	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	
Trust is one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran , 1999, p. 189).	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
Relational trust is based on criteria for discernment of trustworthy behavior that includes: (a) respect, (b) personal regard, (c) competence, and (d) integrity (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	

* Adapted from Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, W. K. (2000). A Multidisciplinary Analysis of the Nature, Meaning, and Measurement of Trust. *Review of Educational Research, 70*(4), pp. 547-593 URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1170781

A commonality of trust definitions is that of a trustor or one who trusts and the trustee or a person, an event, or a policy that is the referent. Interpersonal trust is often decided based on social similarity (Zucker, 1986), psychological or tangible contractual obligation (Rousseau, 1989), social symbols or proxies (Zucker, 1986), or social exchanges (Adams, 2008, Blau, 1986; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2000). Over the past two decades, educational trust studies have demonstrated that trusting relationships between a teacher and principal contribute to healthy and positive school climates (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 2003).

Trust Definition

Trust for purposes of this study was defined as the teacher's willingness to be vulnerable to the principal based on the confidence that the principal is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open" (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p. 189). What follows are the types of trust and common trust elements of trust found in the extensive trust literature and as defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999).

Types of Trust

Research also points to different types of trust. Educational research provides disposed school principals with statistical trust data that has insightful implications for their schools. Previously discussed were Rotter's (1967) generalized trust of others and Deutsch's (1958) and game theory and cooperative behavior. Lewicki and Bunker (1996) identified of three types of trust: calculus-based trust, deterrence-based, and identity-based trust. The three bases or levels of trust may emerge at different stages in a relationship. Each level may also be developed or undermined through specific individual exchanges. Calculus-based trust is "sustained to the degree that the deterrent or punishment is clear, possible, and likely to occur if the trust is violated" (Lewicki and Bunker, 1996, p. 119). Knowledge-based trust evolves through a history of successful interactions and is characterized by behavioral predictability. Identification-based trust exists when each of the parties understands and appreciates the other's intentions and a sense of shared values and collective identity exists. Repeated interaction is necessary for the manifestation of each trust

level. Each level of trust serves its own purpose and trust may not persist (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Jones and George (1998) discuss conceptualizations of trust as having conditional and unconditional states. Distrust is one component of the trust experience and each state evolves through interpersonal interaction. Conditional trust, according to Jones and George (1998) exists when parties are willing to interact without risk of personal detriment or long-term commitment. There is little chance of shared value development. Unconditional trust evolves through repeated, trustworthy interactions. Shared values, interdependence, cooperation, and goal synergy are apparent when unconditional trust exists.

Other research finds that trust has cognitive and affective dimensions (Cummings and Bromiley, 1996; Johnson-George and Swap, 1982; Lewis and Weigert, 1985; McAllister, 1995). McAllister's (1995) study differentiated between cognition-based trust and affect-based trust in organizations. Cognition-based trust was dependent on another's competence or reliability and a rational assessment of past behavior. Affect-based trust was grounded in emotion and described as care and concern for another. McAllister's (1995) findings supported research that cognition-based trust preceded affect-based trust and levels of cognition-based trust positively correlated with levels of affect-based trust. Moreover, affect-based trust based on informal relationships between managers was found to "facilitate effective coordinated action" which McAllister (1995) described as essential to the real work of organizations.

Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) developed an organizational model that clarified the role of interpersonal trust in risk taking. The model described interpersonal trust characteristics of both the trustor and the trustee. The researchers' trust conceptualization considered two types of trust antecedents: (a) a propensity to trust, a trait that remains stable across situations, and (b) three perceptions: ability, benevolence, and integrity, regarding the other person's trustworthy attributes. Mayer et al. (1995) focused on trust as a willingness to be vulnerable to another. The researchers suggested, "Trust is not taking risk *per se*. but rather it is a *willingness* to take risk" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 730). Hierarchical relationships create issues of vulnerability when either person feels the other's motives contradict his or her perceptions of trustworthiness. Mayer et al.'s (1995) discussion and trust model proved influential to Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (1999) research, which is demonstratively consequential for educational research.

Mishra's (1996) trust conceptualization referenced crisis management and included three organizational behaviors: (1) decentralized decision-making, (2) undistorted communication, and (3) elaboration within and across organizations. Mishra's (1996) study of corporate managers found that trust in management can predict job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Trust, measured on a seventeen item, seven point scale, consisted of four dimensions and was defined 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). Later, Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) would determine that missing from

Mishra's (1996) definition was the concept of honesty. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) also replaced concern with benevolence and belief with confidence.

Hoy and Kupersmith began their work in 1984 to examine interrelationships of elementary teachers' trust of the principal, colleagues, and the school. Principal or leader authenticity, described earlier by Henderson and Hoy (1982), was defined as "a general and consistent pattern of behavior in which subordinates perceive their leader as demonstrating acceptance of organizational and personal responsibility for actions, outcomes, and mistakes; being non-manipulative of subordinates; and exhibiting a salience of self over role" (p. 81). Hoy and Kupersmith's (1985) research suggested that trust was not a generalized perception or affect-based, but, is referent specific. Other research followed and suggested target variables encompass persons, concepts, or institutions; and, in complex environments, trustors are selective about whom or what they trust (Clark & Payne, 1997; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al, 1995). Hoy and Kupersmith's (1984, 1985) comprehensive factor analytic study of authentic elementary principals' behavior and measure of faculty trust also began a gamut of empirical educational trust studies (Adams, 2008; Adams & Forsyth, 2009; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth et al., 2006; Goddard et al., 2001; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy et al., 1992; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2003; Tarter et al., 1989; Tarter et al., 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 2000; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). A review of the facets of trust, early trust measures, and specifically, principal trust measures follows. The measure for this study is determined.

Components and Facets of Trust

The definition of trust used for this study identifies openness, honesty, reliability, competence, and benevolence as characteristics of trustworthiness (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Each empirically explored facet has been found to be an important element of trusting school-role relationships. The literature iterated that "one's willingness to risk vulnerability is shaped by individual discernments of trust facets" (Adams, 2008, p. 48).

Willingness to Risk Vulnerability

Interdependence and risk are requisite to trust. Without risk, there is no need to trust (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Deutsch, 1958; Gambetta, 1979, 1988, Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1998, 1999, 2000; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Luhmann, 1988; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 2003). Risk involves making oneself vulnerable to another with the confidence that the other will not act in ways that are detrimental to the trusting party even when the opportunity exists (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Deutsch, 1958; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2000; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Luhmann, 1988; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 2003). Interactions or situations that rise to the level of an individual's willingness to risk vulnerability find the trustor assessing if the potential for loss in the relationship exceeds the potential for gain (Deutsch, 1962, 1973; Luhmann, 1979; Mishra, 1996; Zand, 1972).

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (1999, 2003) empirical research indicated a teacher's belief that his or her principal will act in the teacher's best interest determines teacher trust in the principal. In situations of instructional supervision and evaluation, teachers trust principals to supervise fairly and competently. Therefore, a

teacher is confident that a principal will act professionally; and, the principal will treat the teacher not only with fairness but also with respect and collegiality.

Confidence, Interdependence

Cook and Wall (1980) define trust as "the extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of other people" (p. 39). "There is a growing consensus that trust resides in the degree of confidence one holds in the face of risk rather than in the choice or action that increases one's risk" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2000, p. 557). Deutsch's (1958, 1960) studies suggested that individuals may act in ways that places them in situations of vulnerability to another, even if the consequences are potentially negative. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) contend that confidence must build over a period of time. There is a timeframe where a commitment is made and results occur. This period of uncertainty and confidence is the degree to which a person trusts (Kee & Knox, 1970; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). For example, a teacher has some confidence that his or her performance will be assessed fairly and accurately by the principal regardless of the number of informal interactions that have occurred between them over the course of the year.

Benevolence

Benevolence is a widely accepted component of trust (Baier, 1986; Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Deutsch, 1958; Frost, Stimpson, & Maughan, 1978; Gambetta, 1988; Hosmer, 1995; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995; Mishra, 1996; Zand, 1971). Mayer et al. (1995) defined benevolence between a trustee and a trustor. The trustee

has some attachment to the trustor to "the extent [that] a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric profit motive" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 718). Baier (1986) stated that benevolence is the "accepted vulnerability to another's possible but not expected ill will" (p. 236).

Benevolence is a confidence in or an assessment of another party to protect one's best interests and cause without causing harm to the other party (Baier, 1986; Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Deutsch, 1958; Frost, Stimpson, & Maughan, 1978; Gambetta, 1988; Hosmer, 1995; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Mayer et al., 1995; Mishra, 1996). Benevolence is important to organizational interpersonal and hierarchical relationships. Without trust in the benevolence of the other party, organizations suffer costs in productivity and individuals use emotional and physical energy considering alternatives (Kramer, 1999). For instance, if teachers do not perceive principals as benevolent or caring for their well-being and needs, trust is found to be negatively affected (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Reliability

Reliability is said to exist when there is an optimistic belief or confidence that an individual's needs will be addressed or met timely and predictably based on consistency in the words and actions of the other party (Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Gabarro, 1978; Hosmer, 1995; Lewis & Weigert, 1985). In situations of interdependence, reliability refers to the extent to which an individual can depend upon another party to behave consistently, fairly, and follow through (Butler & Cantrell; Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Mishra, 1996). Good principals can be relied upon to engage teachers in instructional dialogue and reflective practice aimed at improved

instructional strategies and student academic improvement (Glanz, 2005). Reliable principals behave consistently with all teachers and do not play favorites.

Competence

Competence is synonymous with ability (Butler, 1991). Competence includes the skills or characteristics an individual possesses based on education, experience, or aptitude "that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain and to perform a task" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 717). In situations of interdependence, competence is the belief in another party's ability to perform the tasks required by his or her position (Gabarro, 1987). Competence presupposes interdependence and a reciprocal exchange relationship (Barber, 1983). For example, teachers expect competent principals and principals rely on competent teachers. Principals and teachers depend on one another to accomplish the teaching and learning goals of the school. Incompetence, if not managed, can diminish school wide trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). If performed effectively and with reciprocity, the instructional supervision of teachers by principals allows acknowledgment of satisfactory competencies as well as those that need improvement.

Honesty

Rotter (1967) defined trust as "the expectancy that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 651). Integrity, character, and authenticity define honesty and are inclusive facets of trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). A correlation between a person's statements and deeds demonstrates integrity. Moreover, acceptance of responsibility for one's actions and not distorting the truth in order to shift blame to another exemplifies

authenticity (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Scholars and researchers continue to define honesty as a pivotal trust characteristic (Baier, 1986; Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Cummings & Bromiley, 1996).

Openness

Openness is the extent to which relevant information is shared (Butler, 1991). The information alone may not be important, but the delivery of the information is. The process of sharing is one of vulnerability. Sharing requires giving of oneself (Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Mishra, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Openness occurs when both the receiver and the sender of information are confident that no advantage is lost or gained between them. Without open and honest communication, suspicion, distrust, or even mistreatment result. "Unfortunately, even small, avoided conflicts, derived, for example, from insensitivity in interpersonal relationships or from mere misunderstandings, often escalate into huge, debilitating crises" (Blase and Blase, 2002b, p. 721). However, if principals must guard every communication or withhold information from teachers or teachers from principals, neither individual nor school goals are achieved (Sweetland & Hoy, 2001). Open, non-threatening communication between teachers and principals allows for collaboration and constructive problem solving (Blase & Blase, 2002a, 2002b).

The combined facets of trust are observable behavior characteristics that lead a party to risk vulnerability (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Each filter and lens for examining trust provides another piece to the complex puzzle of how individuals discern and monitor others in trusting relationships. How does trust develop?

Trust Development

Early attempts to understand trust came from the psychological perspective. Game theory, although a vanguard for trust studies, was one-dimensional often equating cooperation and trust. Rotter's (1967) general expectancy theory faced criticism that his experimental situations were unique and not necessarily predictive. Trust building and maintenance in schools is important and necessary for effective schools. Trust does not just happen, nor is trust commanded in organizations. There are many bases for trust, which include the referent and interdependence of the relationship. In terms of hierarchical trust the referent is the leader, administrator, or in schools, the principal. Teacher-principal trust is hierarchical and when open communication and shared decision-making evolve, school reform results (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Kochanek, 2005). However, interpersonal interactions in organizations challenge employees by the uncertainty of the exchanges (Fukuyama, 1995). Formal structures and contextual conditions, such as regulations and contracts, and informal structures, such as communication, norms, and trust, help moderate interpersonal interactions (Williamson, 1975; Kramer & Tyler, 1996). Kochanek (2005) discussed factors that contribute to trust development in terms of social similarity, contracts, proxies, and repeated exchanges.

Social Similarity

Zucker (1986) proposed three modes of trust building that included: (1) character-based or trust in others with whom a person or persons share homogeneous characteristics such as physical, cultural, and social similarities; (2) institution-based or trust tied to broad based societal institutions; and (3) process-based trust, which is

tied to the past or expected change. Similarly, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) proposed three bases of trust: (1) Calculus-based or the rational calculations of rewards and punishments; (2) knowledge-based or predictability of the other party based on a history of interactions; and, (3) identification-based, which is identity with the other party to the point that one will protect and promote the best interests of the other. Recall, McAllister (1995) proposed cognitive-based and affective-based trust. Mayer et al. (1995) suggested character-based trust in terms of leaders and followers. A leader's authority for decision-making about the follower's pay or promotional opportunities was viewed in terms of impact on the follower's level of vulnerability. Generally, trust development is multidimensional and takes many forms depending upon variable conditions.

Twenty-first century organizations are challenged to build and maintain character-based trust due to issues such as diversity, transience, and socioeconomic differences (Zucker, 1986). In schools, respect, competence, integrity, and personal regard are found to displace social similarity, which does not guarantee higher levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Kochanek, 2005).

Contracts

Research indicates that the absence of a formal contract allows for vulnerability and uneven power distribution (Blau, 1964). Many teachers belong to unions that define work hours, pay, additional duties outside of work hours, and professional development hours. However, teachers spend extra time attending after school events, meeting with parents, working on special projects for classes or keeping abreast of state and federal mandates. Increasingly, meeting school goals

requires shared understanding and mutual respect, which arise from observed behaviors. For example, Bryk and Schneider (2002) discussed how personal regard, which includes integrity and respect, prevailed beyond a contract. Their study, conducted at Holiday Elementary School, a low-income school with an African American population, elicited parent and teacher testimony about the principal's open and caring personal style. The overall conclusion was that the white, male principal's behavior resulted in a similarly conscientious school climate. Bryk & Schneider's (2002) extensive work indicated that trust, based on contracts, does not work well for schools and that respect extends beyond expectations on a piece of paper.

Proxies

Proxies such as, rules, handbooks, contracts, and other documents have been found to influence trust. Trust in a proxy is dependent upon the tustor's expectations or assessment of the trustee's credentials, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, or other similarity or tangible consideration. Individuals become dependent upon and envisage fair or just outcomes based on institutional-based trust (Brockner et al., 1997; McKnight et al, 1998; Sitkin & Roth, 1993; Zucker, 1986). For example, principals supervise teachers. On many levels, teachers may feel equal. However, performance evaluation is a time of power asymmetry. Although teachers may be uncomfortable preparing for or during the evaluation conference, they also feel there are process safeguards or guidelines. Any violation of this proxy-based trust may find a teacher assessing the competence and integrity of not only the principal but also the school.

Successful institutional-based trust enables the development of knowledge-based trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2000; Zucker, 1986). According to Zucker (1986), this type of institutional-based is the least effective structure to maintain complex societies.

Repeated Exchanges

Kochanek (2005) indicates that social similarity, contracts, and proxy types of trust may be short-lived. However, these types of trust are influenced by repeated social exchanges, referred to by Zucker (1986) as knowledge-based trust. Although short-term contracts and proxies prove necessary to achieve immediate outcomes and produce short-lived trust, long-term contracts continue based on repeated, trustworthy interactions. As one individual finds another reliable and dependable, knowledge-based trust emerges (Zucker, 1986). The result is predictability of another's intentions (Creed & Miles, 1996; Zucker, 1986). Through positive communication and benevolent behavior, each party respects the other during repeated exchanges that require risk-taking, prediction of the other's intent, and confidence in outcomes without violating each other's trust (Creed & Miles, 1996; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2000; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Zucker, 1986).

Early Measures of Trust

Understanding previous attempts to measure trust is imperative for formulating the characteristics of a trustor, or teacher in this instance, and trustee, or principal. Prior trust measures are described broadly as (1) surveys, and (2) paper and pencil instruments mixed with role-plays or group exercises. Earlier research focused

on measuring observable interactive behavior (Deutsch, 1958; Rotter, 1967) to more intimate relationships (Johnson, George, & Swap, 1982; Rempel et al, 1985).

Deutsch's (1958) experimental research, conducted in a laboratory setting, utilized game theory. Discussed earlier, trust was structured as a rational choice and emphasized trustor confidence of the trustee. The trustor had to believe that the trustee was reliable. Integrity was shown by the choices the trustee made. Predictability occurred when one participant predicted the occurrence of the other's behavior. Cooperative behavior was dependent upon each participant's trust level. Risk played a pivotal role in the scenarios as one participant could choose to expose or not expose the other participant. Deutsch (1958) measured cooperation, mutual gain, and trustworthy choices. Combined these elements resulted in "mutual trust" (Deutsch, 1958, p. 267).

Rotter's (1967) research focused on generalized trust of others. He countered that Deutsch's (1958) experiments and other game research examined an individual's reaction to competitive scenarios in a laboratory setting; and prisoner dilemma games did not generalize to interpersonal relationships. Using a generalized trust conceptualization, he designed the Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS) to measure individuals in low trust versus individuals in high trust. His research emphasized the confidence aspect of trust, which also differed from Deutsch's (1958) use of cooperation. Rotter (1958) included individual and group demographics, such as socioeconomic status, religion, family status, and sociometrics, including dependence on others, popularity, and credulity, to determine the characteristics of trusting individuals. Rotter (1967) used group exercises and role-plays and introduced paper

and pencil instruments. A Likert format was employed and participants expressed attitudinal trust in social objects such as parents, teachers, peers-classmates, and politicians. A sample of items contained in his scale include, "In dealing with strangers one is better off to be cautious until they have provided evidence that they are trustworthy" and "Parents usually can be relied upon to keep promises." Overall, Rotter (1958, 1967) found positive correlations between trust and trustworthiness and between low trust and untrustworthy behavior. High-trustors were more likely to trust a stranger than were low-trustors (Rotter, 1967). Rotter's (1958, 1967) work spawned a number of empirical research efforts and continues to influence empirical research today.

Educational Measures of Trust

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) indicated that trust plays a pivotal role as America considers twenty-first century schools. Trust is a precious commodity to any organization but twenty-first century schools must engender trust, remain aligned with the values of society, and visibly support diversity and equality (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Darling-Hammond (1997) asserted that successful twenty-first century schools would be grounded on two noteworthy presumptions: (1) teaching and (2) relationships. The United States Department of Education's Comprehensive School Reform Program (CSR) (2009) (http://www2.ed.gov/ programs/compreform/2pager.html) suggested that long-term school reform depends on trustworthy school leaders, specifically teachers and principals.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2000) comprehensive examinations of trust asserted that inconsequential amounts of distrust could be a serious impediment to school reform. Further, research indicated that a lack of trust has been associated with dysfunctional outcomes that include cynicism, low motivation, low commitment and a general lack of confidence in the organization (Bigley & Pearce, 1998; Kramer, 1996; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Distrust is not an option for educational reform.

Hoy and his colleagues' (Goddard et al., 2001; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy et al., 1992; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2003; Tarter et al., 1989; Tarter et al., 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 2000; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998) efforts to conceptualize and measure school trust have proven to be reliable and valid. Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, and Hoy (1994) discussed trust as a "general confidence and overall optimism in occurring events; it is believing in others in the absence of compelling reasons to disbelieve" (p. 486). Further, trust in the principal was "the faculty (having) confidence that the principal will keep his or her word and act in the best interest of the teachers" (Hoffman et al., 1994, p. 486). In this study of middle schools, the authors found a significant relationship between faculty trust in the principal when the principal was open and supportive.

In the development of an organizational climate index for high schools, Hoy et al. (2002) hypothesized that the principal's collegial leadership would be the strongest predictor of faculty trust in the principal. Collegial principal behaviors were defined as the openness of the leader behavior of the principal. Using Hoy & Tschannen-Moran's (1999) Faculty Trust scale, Hoy et al. (2002) found reliabilities were consistently high (.90 to .98 range) and alpha coefficients of reliability ranged

from .93 to .94. The earlier work of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) established construct validity of the scales. Results indicated a strong, positive relationship between faculty trust in the principal and collegial leadership of the principal, ($r = .77$, $p < .01$). An additional assumption also found the more institutional vulnerability, the less faculty trust in the principal ($r = -.33$, $p < .01$).

Bryk and Schneider's (1996, 2002) in-depth work in the Chicago schools gave insight into relational trust and interpersonal relationships. The researchers' relational trust perspective was grounded in role relationships and how those relationships contributed to academic achievement. Over time and through repeated social exchange teachers and principals, as well student, parents, and other school-based social relationships, discerned and monitored each other's behavior and performance. As teachers monitored a principal's behavior and the principal observed teachers' performance, relational trust evolved through understanding and accepted responsibility of role obligations. Four elements, similar to those of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999, 2000), that identify and determine relational trust are respect, competence, personal regard, and integrity (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

Forsyth and his colleagues' (Forsyth et al., 2006; Adams et al., 2009), although focusing on collective teacher efficacy (Adams & Forsyth, 2006) and consequences of relational trust and desirable school outcomes (Forsyth et al., 2006), relied on Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (1999) five-facet principal trust conceptualization. Combined, these empirical educational researchers have examined individual and collective school trust, its referents, antecedents, and multiple faces (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Principal Trust Measures

Common elements considered to foster teacher trust of the principal included open, two-way communication, empowerment, competence, predictability, benevolence or caring, reliability, honesty, and ethical behavior (Blase & Blase, 1998; Greenleaf, 2002; Hallinger, 2003; Hoy et al, 2002; Leithwood et al., 1999; Tschannen-Moran, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Research indicated that teacher trust of the principal was influenced by the principal's benevolence (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994; Tarter, Bliss, & Hoy, 1989), collegiality (Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994; Hoy, Tarter, & Witkoskie, 1992; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995), professionalism (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran, 2009), and interactions with teachers (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). The empirically tested trust definition, for purposes of this study, was a teacher's willingness to be vulnerable to the principal based on the confidence that the principal is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

As previously discussed, Hoy and Kupersmith (1984, 1985) examined principal authenticity. The researchers developed three Likert scales to measure perceived teacher trust of the principal, teacher trust of colleagues, and teacher trust of the school. 944 elementary teachers from forty-six (46) schools responded. Findings were: Trust in principal correlated with trust in colleagues ($r = 0.48$, $p < .01$); trust in principal correlated with trust in organization ($r = 0.69$, $p < .01$); and trust in colleagues correlated with trust in organization ($r = 0.50$, $p < .01$). Principal authenticity was significantly correlated with each facet of trust: Trust in principal (r

= 0.68, $p < .01$); trust in colleagues (r = 0.29, $p < .05$); trust in organization (r = 0.55, $p < .01$). Authentic principal behaviors included non-manipulation, responsibility for role obligations, and ownership of performance and behavior. Missing from Hoy and Kupersmith's (1985) definition were the facets of competence and openness, which would later be identified and supported in the work of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999).

Tarter, Sabo, and Hoy (1995) in a study of 2777 middle school teachers from New Jersey found that teachers who were confident in the principal's leadership to achieve school outcomes were also confident a pervasive atmosphere of trust prevailed. Tschannen-Moran's (2001) study of teachers and principals in 45 elementary schools determined that teacher-principal collaboration was positively and significantly related to principal trust (r = 0.64, $p < 0.01$).

Bryk and Schneider's (2002) interest in social trust is based on the work of Putnam (1993) and Fukuyama (1995) and evolved into a 10-year study of more than 400 Chicago elementary schools. The authors discussed "relational trust" and insisted that if schools do not also focus on the social climate, all other attempts at improvement have little chance of success (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Bryk and Schneider (2002) developed a scale with nine questions to identify the level of trust teachers have for their principal:

1. It's OK in this school to discuss feelings, worries, and frustrations with the principal.
2. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of the faculty members in this school.

3. I take the principal at his or her word.

4. The principal in this school is an effective manager, who makes the school run smoothly.

5. The principal places the needs of the students ahead of his or her political interests.

6. The principal has confidence in the expertise of the teachers.

7. The principal takes a personal interest in the professional development of teachers.

8. I really respect my principal as an educator.

9. I feel respected by the principal. (p. 156)

Bryk and Schneider (2002) also proposed four vital signs for identifying and assessing trust in schools:

1. *Respect* includes dignified and genuine acknowledgement of and listening to others.

2. *Competence* includes a belief that others have abilities and are accountable in fulfilling responsibilities.

3. *Personal regard* refers to caring about others, professionally and personally, and stepping outside formal roles for the good of the school.

4. *Integrity* is saying what you mean and meaning what you say keeping the best interest of the students and the school in focus. Combined, these four components comprise relational trust.

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (2003) collaborative and extensive work in schools resulted in development of the Omnibus Trust Scale. The scale empirically

measured observed behavioral indicators that lead to latent trust constructs, such as, qualities of openness, honesty, reliability, competence, benevolence. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) developed and tested the scale in a number of phases and the result is a reliable and valid instrument useful in both elementary and high schools. Faculty trust in the principal remained stable with Alpha coefficients of (.98). The instrument is comprehensive and allows for examination of the interrelationships of faculty trust in students, teachers, and parents (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). A significant accomplishment of the design of the Omnibus Trust Scale was that it provided a single scale for use in both elementary and secondary schools (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

Moye, Henkin, and Egley (2005) found that teachers, who felt autonomous and who perceived they had influence over their work environment, reported higher levels of principal trust. Their sample of 21 urban, elementary schools and 529 teachers supported teacher interpersonal trust in the principal was higher when teachers felt empowered. Empowerment accounted for 51 percent of the variance in interpersonal trust ($p < 0.001$). Empowerment subscales, including meaning, competence, self-determination and impact, accounted for 52 percent of the variance in interpersonal trust. Moye et al.'s (2005) findings were similar to those of Tschannen-Moran (2001) and Bryk, and Schneider (2002) that higher levels of principal trust occurred when teachers felt they were in a supportive, trusting environment.

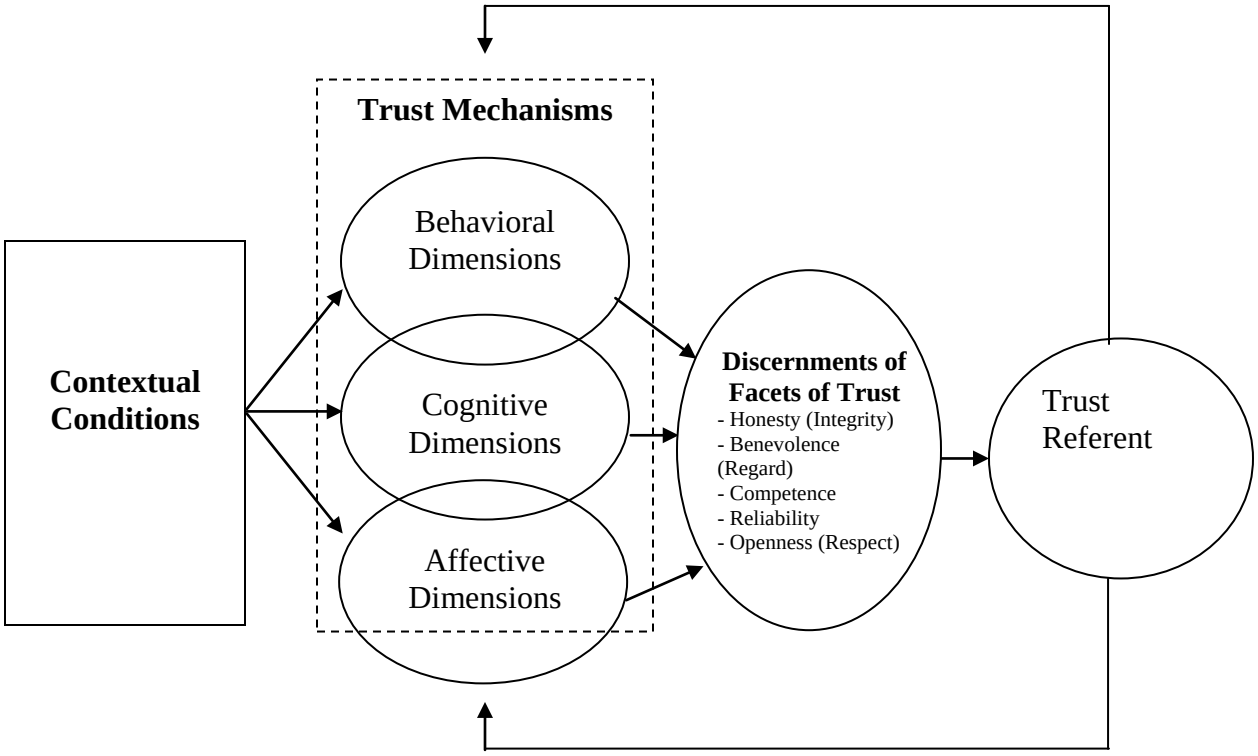
Adams et al., (2006) used similar constructs to those of Bryk and Schneider (2002) to explore the role of parent trust of school and parent trust of principal together with teacher trust of teacher colleagues in predicting school critical school outcomes. Teacher trust of principal was measured using Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (1999) original scale and reducing the number of items from 11 to seven. Adams and Forsyth (2006) in their study of collective teacher efficacy found a positive and significant correlation between enabling school structure and faculty trust in the principal ($r = -0.76$).

Additionally, Adam's (2008) review of 31 studies focused on the empirical evidence of school trust formation and antecedent trust conditions. Eighteen of the 31 studies focused on the formation of principal trust. Six of the eighteen studies used the Faculty Trust Scale developed by Hoy and Kupersmith (1985). The Faculty-Trust Scale, designed for use in elementary schools, is a 34-item instrument. Trust was conceptualized as a unidimensional construct. Nine of the 31 studies reviewed by Adams (2008) utilized a subset of the Omnibus Trust Scale developed by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003).

Adams' (2008) comprehensive review of the educational empirical literature was advanced to better understand how school conditions promote trust discernments. Adams (2008) found specific behaviors, cognitive beliefs, and affective states may differ in various dyadic interactions within and between schools; but the importance of the trust mechanisms, as shown in Figure 2.2, was constant. Figure 2.2 further represents a theoretical and empirical map of trust building in a school's social environment along with cognitive discernments of individual school agents such as,

teachers and principals (Adams, 2008). Of significance was the affirmation across studies that principals who were supportive, collegial, and transformational, had the potential to reduce inherent risks and vulnerabilities associated with hierarchical positions (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994; Hoy et al., 1992; Hoy et al., 2002; Tarter et al., 1989; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

***Figure 2.2: Generalized Model of Trust Formation**



* Permission to reprint from: Adams, C. M. (2008). Building trust in schools: A review of the empirical evidence. In W. Hoy and, M. DiPaola, (Eds.), *Improving Schools: Studies in Leadership and Culture*, Information Age Publishing, p. 37.

The development and continued empirical testing of the scale encapsulated the multidimensional nature of trust and proved useful for the present research in a large,

urban Oklahoma elementary school. The present research endeavored to understand and measure individual teachers' perceptions of principal trust and determined if the practice of instructional supervision influenced teacher trust.

Instructional Supervision: Introduction

Educational reform is the topic of much discussion at the national and state levels as well as locally and individually from parents, students, and faculty. Heightened accountability comes from legislation such as: the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA) in 1965; the *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* in 1975; *A Nation at Risk* in 1983; the *Goals 2000* initiative in the late 1980s; the standards movement of the mid 1990s; and *No Child Left Behind* in 2001; and the recent accountability and high stakes initiatives (online at eric.ed.gov; National Education Association). Principals perform juggling acts to balance the spectrum of job responsibilities and engage teachers, who also feel the pressure to educate tomorrow's leaders. Concepts such as power, influence, control, and conflict on one hand and cooperation, collaboration, and shared values on the other, challenge the complex tasks principals face in expected school restructuring efforts (Blase & Blase, 1999; Glanz & Neville, 1997; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1995). These inexhaustible expectations with limited monetary motivation call for talented and committed educators.

The literature advocated that the principal's role as instructional supervisor ranges from the evaluation of teaching to an effective blend of transformational leadership practices, power symmetry, professional role obligations, daily or routine tasks (i.e., teacher evaluation), and overall trustworthy behavior (Blase & Blase,

2002; Hoy & Miskel, 1996; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Schools are conceptually found to thrive when the focus of administration is on shared responsibilities, distributed decision-making, collective responsibility, and empowerment. Recent literature has focused on schools as professional organizations as opposed to bureaucratic structures (Glanz & Neville, 1997; Glickman et al., 1995; Tscahnnen-Moran, 2009). However, Tschannen-Moran (2009) suggests that it is unlikely that public schools could ever function strictly as professional organizations based on the mission, size, complexity, hierarchy of authority, and funding structures. There is hope. The hierarchical structure of schools, although the prevalent model and perhaps a necessary model, continues to be influenced by research in productive schools, defined by Murphy (1990) as schools where the quality of teaching and learning are robust. This requires principals and teachers trusting each other and working together.

Instructional Supervision: Definition

Instructional supervision has many nemeses. Titles such as, instructional leader, transformational leader, transactional leader, are often used synonymously with instructional supervisor and characterize the principal's role along with expected or perceived behaviors. A considerable body of literature exists that attempts to distinguish the principal as leader without supervisory tasks or skills from the principal as instructional supervisor with leadership abilities. Blase and Blase (1998) indicated that supervision is a subset of instructional leadership and instructional supervision literature has to be examined to "see the connections between the actions a principal takes and the professional growth of teachers" (p. 10). Although a

perplexing role to define, much of the confusion is attributed to the multifaceted nature of instructional supervision.

Definitions of instructional supervision are diverse; however, the role of instructional supervision has common properties identified qualitatively through research. Elemental properties include direct and indirect involvement of the principal (Blase & Blase, 2000). Direct and indirect actions or behaviors of the principals occur in conventional characterizations of the principal's role and in shared or distributed characterizations. In either conceptualization, the principal's role is considered complicated. Basic to the position is knowledge of the principles of quality teaching and curriculum. Accountability is essential to achieve results. Theoretically, either orientation encompasses everything a principal does daily to support teachers in their instruction and assure student achievement (Sebring & Bryk, 2000). These day-to-day activities, intended to support teachers, can overwhelm the principal and draw his or her attention away from the role of instructional supervision and providing direct assistance to teachers. At the end of the day, it is the principal's responsibility to concentrate on the school mission and goals, implement programs, assess and document the school's overall achievements, evaluate teachers, lead improvement efforts, and provide an overall safe and healthy environment (Murphy, 1990).

Principals have authoritative power to manage the school and its resources and therefore are delegated positional authority. This authority can be applied positively or negatively, collaboratively or with coercion. The principal has many opportunities to provide positive, constructive feedback to teachers and emphasize the

school's instructional vision. Bottom line, the onus for school outcomes rests with the principal. As such, principals have to choose between bureaucratic, controlling, and standardized behavioral orientations or transformational, interactive, and flexible orientations. Hoy and Sweetland (2000, 2001) refer to the first orientation as a hindering structure characterized by mistrust and the latter as an enabling structure characterized by trust.

In his or her role as instructional supervisor, effective principals exhibit leadership characteristics that engage teachers and earn their trust. Few empirical studies provide descriptions of the behaviors of effective instructional supervisors and their impact on teacher reflection and professional growth (Blase, 1993; Holland, 1989; Short, 1995). Empirical studies that provide descriptions of the behaviors of effective instructional supervisors and the impact on teacher trust are even more scant. Research that does exist on teacher perceptions of supervisory practices have been less than positive (Hazi, 1994; Waite, 1995; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). For instance, when addressing teacher professionalization, existing models of instructional supervision were viewed as paternalistic, archaic, and reliant on submissive followers (Sheppard, 1996).

The purpose of this research was to define and quantify direct instructional supervision assistance in order to determine if the role had an effect on teacher trust of the principal. Educational researchers and practitioners theoretically agree that the fundamental purpose of instructional supervision should be to improve instruction and improve school success (Blase & Blase, 2001; Glickman, 1985; Glickman et al., 2007; Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1993; McGreal, 1983; Sergiovanni &

Starratt, 1998; Zepeda, 2007). Blase and Blase (1987; 1999; 2000) suggested that although there is much discussion about what instructional supervision is there are no published, comprehensive descriptions and inconsequential data exists of how instructional supervision is actually practiced in schools and how teachers are affected by such supervision. However, research indicates that the supervision of teachers requires the principal's skillful ability to provide an enabling environment through direct instructional assistance while providing some sense of balance during the task of evaluation (Blase & Blase, 1999, 2000).

In the early 1980s, Glickman began his seminal work that describes instructional leadership as an integration of diverse tasks. In later literature, Glickman et al. (2007) defined instructional supervision's purpose as a blend of leadership and supervisory tasks that include supervision of classroom instruction, staff development, and curriculum development through collaborative, democratic work among educators. Instructional supervision's goal was successful schools achieved by improved instruction, enhanced student achievement, and teacher development achieved by candid and direct principal assistance (Glickman, 1985; Glickman et al., 2007).

Pajak (1989) defined supervision in practice as follows:

1. Communication
2. Staff development (professional growth)
3. Instructional program (improvement)
4. Planning and change (collaborative work)
5. Motivating and organizing (shared vision)

6. Observation and conferencing

7. Curriculum

8. Problem solving and decision making

9. Service to teachers (support for teaching and learning)

10. Personal development (reflection on beliefs, abilities, actions)

11. Community relations

12. Research and program evaluation (assessing outcomes and encouraging experimentation. (Pajak, 1989, p. 73)

Schön's (1987) concept of instructional supervision emphasized collegial classroom observations and specifically focused on support, guidance, and encouragement of reflective teaching. Based on Dewey's (1933) pragmatic views, Schön (1987) promoted the application of knowledge to practice, where principals coached the teacher. Reitzug's (1997) examination of ten (10) teacher supervision textbooks published between 1985 and 1995 found the principal portrayed as the expert and teachers were voiceless and dependent upon the principal to share knowledge. Harris (1998) defined supervision quite succinctly as the evaluation of teaching. Sergiovanni (1995) found that,

> Teacher development and supervision go hand and hand. Principals have a responsibility to help teachers improve their practice and to hold them accountable for meeting their commitments to teaching and learning. These responsibilities are usually referred to as supervision. Done well, supervision enhances teacher development (p. 212).

The seminal work of Blase and Blase (1999, 2000) incorporated Glickman et al.'s (2007) and Pajak's (1989) conceptualizations and suggested two primary tasks of principals were promoting teacher growth and talking with teachers to promote reflection. When principals used a reflection and growth model of leadership, teachers reported positive effects on motivation and efficacy (Blase & Blase, 1999). The definition and measures for this study focused on the principal's direct assistance to teachers. Specifically, instructional supervision was defined as a principal's direct assistance interactions with teachers that promote reflective practice and support professional growth (Blase & Blase, 2000).

Instructional Supervision: Background

Gordon (1997) contended that the practice of instructional supervision has not made much progress in the last 150 years and inspection, oversight, and judgment of classroom instruction largely characterizes the principal's role. Change is difficult for any organization and schools are deeply rooted in traditional, bureaucratic, and hierarchical cultures. Contemporary researchers continue to disagree over the word, supervision. Glickman (1992) suggested using the terminology, instructional leadership, instead of supervision. He felt the field of education has no need for "the old words and connotations" (Glickman, 1992, p. 3). However, Glanz (1997) indicated that teachers want supervisors who are knowledgeable and practical. Educational practitioners do not need to change labels given that supervision does occur in a principal's efforts to improve teaching practice (Glanz, 1997).

Supervision is one of the essential skills that comprise a competent leader's core. Reflection on the history of the principal's role finds that, as late as the 1980's

and the effective school's movement, principals were considered the "primary source of educational expertise" (Marks & Printy, 2003, p. 372). Principals were expected to establish and maintain high expectations for teachers and students, supervise classroom instruction, coordinate curriculum, and examine student development (Barth, 1986). A principal's supervisory behavior or style influences teacher perceptions of the principal, which in turn may have an effect on a teacher's instructional practice. Principals who lack the skills to supervise and accomplish the expectations of his or her role may also be deficient providing direct assistance to teachers or providing change management when subsequent reform occurs. The principal may be well liked and approachable during daily interpersonal exchanges and not have the ability to lead or supervise teachers or manage school processes. Conversely, principals focused solely on school administration or oversight of teachers only to prepare for teacher evaluations create an atmosphere of exclusion and distrust. Finding the balance in any supervisor and employee relationship is at best a nebulous task. The dilemma for principals is whether the goal of instructional supervision is to improve teaching and learning (Holland & Adams, 2002; Pajak, 1989; Starratt, 1997) or simply to evaluate teachers (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Pease, 1983; Peterson, 2000; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004).

The background of instructional supervision includes a brief discussion on the methods of supervision, models of supervision, and a distinction between instructional supervision and evaluation. From there, the theoretical framework is identified and the facets of instructional supervision for purposes of this research are discussed.

Methods of Supervision

Early research described the unitary role of the elementary school principal as leader (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982). In many instances, the principal was bestowed the role of leader by default based on his or her role as the person who provided instructional supervision. The title, supervisor, has been shown to sway teacher perceptions of the principal's role to one focused predominantly on coordination, control, supervision, curriculum development, and oversight of instruction (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Principals in the twenty-first century must be energetic, forward thinking, and multitasking individuals who can lead and manage an organization, interact openly and honestly with a community, and balance state and federal mandates to effectively run schools. A brief historical review provides guidance on the complexity of instructional supervision and the conceptualization for this research.

Political trends, mandates, and recommended practice of instructional supervision mirrors United States' social movements. Prior to 1900, most schools were merely one-room, unpretentious facilities. Teachers, who were mostly female, were in charge of every aspect of curriculum design, discipline of his or her choice, activities, and even building maintenance (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). At the turn of the twentieth century, instructional supervision emphasized inspection, teaching efficiency, and bureaucracy (e.g., Cubberly, 1929). The bureaucratic method and summative evaluation were affixed in schools. As a result, teacher inspection was a component of summative evaluations, which often determined teacher retention (Glanz, 1998). Supervision became a part of the infrastructure created during the

bureaucratic method timeframe. Supervisors, who were either principals or superintendents and commonly male, were expected to monitor compliance, provide assistance for instruction, and model high-quality teaching practices for teachers. School reform was a constant with the growth of heterogeneous populations and the migration of rural America to urban hubs. The hierarchy of authority was necessary to manage the increasing population in schools (Glanz, 1998).

Taylor's Scientific Management or mechanistic principles dominated the industrial United States at the turn of and in the early twentieth century. Schools were no exception. Taylor's efficiency model was applied to schools. Rating scales were developed to measure teacher effectiveness, although what comprised effectiveness lacked definition (Glanz, 1998). A teacher's curriculum had strict oversight. By the end of his or her career, a teacher would rarely have deviated from the original curriculum he or she had initially taught (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). Teachers felt professionally assaulted by command and control techniques, where the principal was the expert. Teachers had no voice and little discretion for responsiveness to student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2008; Reitzug, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). As teachers began to speak out, extreme bureaucratic orientation or machine bureaucracy by principals was and still is viewed as archaic (Sheppard, 1996; Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Teachers, then and now, resented rigid authoritarianism that promoted a standardized curriculum designed to "teacher-proof" the work of schools (DiPaola & Hoy, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

The Progressive Movement in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century was the model for Progressive Supervision. Democratic tenets of autonomy and free

will formed the basis for the Progressive Supervision method. Collaboration, inquiry, and interdependence between supervisors and teachers were encouraged (Glanz, 1998). Formative, not summative, evaluation methods began during this timeframe. Reflective thought was introduced and realized through experimentation in the classrooms. Teachers had a voice and their value in the classrooms was evolving.

Scientific and bureaucratic methods recurred throughout the twentieth century and most prevalently in the 1950s. At the turn of the twenty-first century, a blend of methods exists as schools contemplate the high stakes global, techno-savvy paradigms. Recent research indicates that principals with bureaucratic orientations who take rigid positions toward rules suffer the loss of trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Tschannen-Moran's (2009) research focused on inverting the traditional hierarchical organizational pyramid. Using the twelve-item Enabling Structure Scale developed by Hoy and Sweetland (2001), which measures teachers' perceptions of administrative authority, such as centralization, formalization, and standardization, the researcher sought to measure professional orientation. Professional orientation, as opposed to bureaucratic orientation, encompassed teachers' opportunities for collective inquiry, scrutiny, reflection, and decision-making. Professional orientation of principals was strongly related to faculty trust in the principal. Principals who exhibited open communication styles, promoted collaborative efforts, and had high regard for teacher expertise had the potential to invert the bureaucratic pyramid and build trust in the process (Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

Hoy and Sweetland (2001) took a judicious look at the positive and negative consequences of bureaucratic school structures. The result was a reconciliation of the

opposing constructs and the evolution of a new school structure construct they labeled, enabling bureaucracy (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). The researchers argued that schools are bureaucracies and as such, a school can have an alienating, demoralizing, hindering bureaucracy or one that clarifies responsibilities and enables individuals to be involved and more effective. Findings of their study supported the argument that enabling structures are characterized by principals, who encourage openness, support teachers to do their jobs without fear of conflict or punishment, and promote reflective practice. Trust was a significant factor contributing to enabling school structures. Hoy and Sweetland's (2001) view of bureaucratic structures aligns with recent literature that focuses on paradigm shifts away from traditional hierarchical structures, compliance, and control methods toward collegial relationships, overall teacher growth, collaboration, and teacher involvement in ongoing reflective inquiry (Blase & Blase, 2001; Glickman et al., 1998; Glickman et al., 2007).

Models of Supervision

Various models of supervision began to emerge in the mid to late twentieth century that included clinical supervision, developmental supervision, collegial supervision, peer coaching, and action research (Cogan, 1973; Glatthorn, 1984; Glickman et al., 2007; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Each of the models focused on more direct and collaborative efforts by principals to help teachers become more effective in the classroom, to provide teachers a non-threatening atmosphere to practice instructional improvement, and to promote commitment and trust (Cogan, 1973; Glickman et al., 2007; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Major commonalities of the models included principal-teacher conferences, which generally

incorporated evaluation of teacher performance that assessed at least one component of classroom observation (Pajak, 2002). For example, Cogan's (1973) model was clinical supervision, which grew out of dissatisfaction with traditional educational and supervisory practices (as cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). The focus was to improve instruction. The clinical model was designed around eight steps that include relationship building, systematic planning, observation, and intellectual analysis during a feedback conference where renewal is decided (Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 2007; Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993; Pajak, 2001). The clinical cycle introduced by Cogan (1973) suggested collaborative effort between teachers and principals. Other researchers, such as, Garman (1986) affirmed that clinical supervision was "interactionist" and based on the assumption of collegiality, not hierarchy. However, critics like Hunter (1982) argued the clinical supervision approach was directive and evaluative. Hunter (1982) asserted that observations used by the principal underscored oversight, observation, and documenting cause-effect behaviors. Glickman (2007) suggested that clinical supervision presumed pre-determined accountability.

Another prominent model emerged. Glickman et al.'s (2007) developmental supervision followed the situational leadership perspective and included: 1) The principal's diagnosis of the teacher's developmental levels, expertise, commitment, and the nature of the educational situation; 2) The principal's use of an interpersonal approach that matches the teacher's needs; 3) the principal's use of an individualized approach providing the teacher assistance in problem solving; and, 4) the principal's focus on and appropriate change in his or her behavior to promote less supervision

and more teacher autonomy. Specific supervisory tasks that had the potential to affect teacher development included, direct assistance, group development, professional development, curriculum development, and action research (Glickman et al., 2007). Through the process of instructional supervision, outcomes would improve instruction, enhance student achievement, and promote teacher development that would lead to overall school success (Glickman, 1985; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2007). The process and the overall outcomes were based on three possible approaches, directive informational, collaborative, or non-directive (self-directed), the principal could take in his or her role of supervision. The approach the principal took depended upon the developmental level of the teacher (Glickman et al., 2007).

Pajak (1989) used content analysis to review 15 years of textbooks and research literature to identify knowledge, attitudes, and skills that contributed to instructional improvement or professional growth of teachers. Similar to Glickman (2007), Pajak (1989) found that communication was most important to the practitioners, who ranked the knowledge, attitudes, and skills that contributed to instructional improvement or professional growth of teachers, as well as staff development (i.e., professional growth), personal development (i.e., reflection on beliefs, abilities, actions), and observation and conferencing. Pajak's (1989) list included administrative functions such as planning, motivating, and organizing, which differed from Glickman et al.'s (2007) model.

Glanz (2000) suggested that collegiality has "extricated supervision from its bureaucratic heritage" (p. 9). Effective schools research indicates that successful schools use the developmental approach. Fundamental elements include collegial

rather than hierarchical relationships between supervisors and teachers, a focus on teacher growth and development, an environment that promotes collaboration among teachers, and teacher control of his or her professional life through action research and reflective practice (Glickman et al., 2007; Pajak, 1987, 1993). A strong inference in each of the instructional supervision models was the assumption of the principal's degree of power. A principal's ability to balance power and effectively supervise was described by Glickman (1990) and Glickman et al. (2007) as the "glue" that binds individual teacher needs and school goals. If the glue is functioning properly, it is transparent and the outcome is consistency and harmony (Glickman, 1990; Glickman et al., 2007).

The idea that one model of school leadership or one model of classroom instruction is appropriate for all schools is impractical. However, each of the models situates the principal as a key player. Behaviors and interpersonal exchanges between teachers and the principal are major components of the models. Principals who nurture a normative climate and support and encourage innovative professional activity are pivotal in schools (Sergiovanni, 1992). The struggle over the principal as evaluator or collegial collaborator rages on in the twenty-first century.

Instructional Supervision or Evaluation

Although the literature often describes teacher evaluation and instructional supervision synonymously, these concepts have two very different connotations. The generally accepted goal of instructional supervision is improving classroom instruction and student achievement (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1980; Glatthorn, 1990; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005); whereas, evaluation

denotes judgments about a teacher's competence in the classroom (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2007; Glanz & Sullivan, 2005). Evaluation generally perceived as summative or formative. Summative evaluation is used exclusively by administrators and requires the use of a uniform instrument (Holland, 2006). Summative evaluate requires less thought and effort and rating scales akin to a report card. Holland (2006) found that teachers viewed summative evaluation as bureaucratic scrutiny, unpopular, and less acceptable .

In contrast, formative evaluation uses a professional model of teaching and links teacher evaluation with a teacher's interests in and commitment to their professional development (Holland, 2006). Pajak and Glickman's (1989) findings indicated that both teachers and principals discriminate between informational and controlling language in supervisory conferences. Teachers appreciate honest, relevant guidance during evaluation conferences. Supervisors should "consciously plan a strategy for conferences that maximizes information with specific suggestions while allowing the teacher to choose whether or not to act on, adapt, or revise" (Pajak & Glickman, 1989, p. 102). There are standard instruments developed by districts and used by schools. Ratings are a component of the instruments. Although a directive of districts, principal-teacher conferences can be productive, collaborative, engaging, and end with no surprises. This time can be well spent planning future strategies and developmental efforts for both teacher and principal. Waite (1997) indicates, "Evaluation done under the guise of supervision is little better than a poke in the eye with a sharp stick" (p. 57).

Principals have a paradoxical role balancing the purpose of instructional supervision from that of instructional supervision as teacher evaluation. Although both ostensibly serve the same purpose, which is to improve instruction, the line blurs when teachers feel professionally threatened through the evaluation of their teaching. Acheson and Gall (2003) posit that principals have often had a hard time differentiating between instructional supervision and evaluation. Classroom observation and conferencing with teachers are two important components of effective instructional supervision on one hand and judge and jury on the other. Starratt (1997) was one of several scholars who denounced practices that involved supervisor observation of classroom instruction, which resulted in a post-observation conference and a written report placed in a teacher's personnel file (Garman, 1982; Gordon, 1992; Holland, 2006; Waite, 1997). Others argue that legislation is to blame for linking supervision with teacher evaluation (Holland & Garman, 2001). Holland and Garman (2001) suggested that legislation granted supervisors responsibility and authority to enter classrooms, observe, and rate teacher performance based on criteria determined by legislators. Teacher evaluation and ratings affect pay, promotion, tenure, and employment and create disequilibrium for principals who value working with teachers as colleagues. Acheson and Gall (1997) contend that instructional supervision can "become the heart of a good teacher evaluation system" (p. 60).

Suggestions to discriminate between instructional supervision and evaluation have been offered by researchers and scholars. Differentiated supervision described by Glatthorn (1997) as a tiered system of supervision allows concentrated assistance and support to teachers who require it. A number of professional development

options would be recommended to teachers that were more skilled. Glickman et al.'s (2007) developmental model of supervision matches a principal's directive, collaborative, or non-directive supervision style to the teacher's level of professional maturity.

Tschannen-Moran (2009) proposed that trust between principals and teachers deemphasized authoritative oversight and allowed teachers the freedom to exercise judgment in responding to the needs of students. On the other hand, "a bureaucratically oriented leader is likely to argue that such trust is unwarranted and that teachers must be closely supervised to ensure that they do their duty to students" (Tschannen-Moran, 2009, p. 228). The result is that the supervision of teachers and the focus of supervision is well discussed among educators (e.g., Blase & Blase, 1999, 2000; Acheson & Gall, 1997; Cogan, 1973; Duke, 1995; Glickman, 1985; Glickman et al., 2007; Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1993; McGreal, 1983; Peterson, 2000; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998; Zepeda, 2007), but lacks empirical testing.

Theoretical Perspective

The literature identified instructional supervision serving diverse purposes, such as:

1. Improving instruction through reflective practice (Glickman, 1985; Glickman et al., 2007; Nolan 1997; Schön, 1987; Sergiovanni and Starratt 1993; Waite 1997);
2. Promoting effective teacher staff development (Acheson and Gall 1997; Glatthorn 1984; Waite 1997);

3. Providing assistance to facilitate teachers' awareness of teaching that focuses on learner outcomes (Glickman et al., 2007; Nolan, 1997);

4. Empowering teachers to be inventive and experiment with different instructional techniques in a safe, supportive environment (Nolan 1997);

5. Encouraging curriculum development (Glickman, 1985; Glickman et al., 2007);

6. Fostering a collaborative atmosphere and establishing mechanisms for teachers to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with other professionals (Glickman, 1985; Glickman et al., 2007).

Glickman (1990) believed that both instructional supervision and evaluation, in the hands of the right administrator, could be instrumental in maintaining a relationship of trust and credibility with teachers.

According to Blase and Blase (2000), the instructional supervision literature has been classified into four broad categories: (a) prescriptive models associated with the work of Glickman (1985), Gordon, 1997, Reitzug and Cross (1993), and Smyth (1997); (b) studies such as, Short (1995), Blase and Blase (1996), Dungan (1993), Blase and Roberts (1994), and Reitzug (1994) of indirect effects of principal-teacher instructional conferences; (c) studies of direct effects of principal behavior on teachers and classroom instruction (Sheppard, 1996); and (d) studies (e.g., Hallinger & Heck, 1996a, 1996b) of direct and indirect effects of the principal's leadership and decentralized decision making on student achievement (Blase & Blase, 2000). Although the empirical literature is limited, the common theme of direct assistance has been qualitatively researched.

Instructional supervision according to Glickman et al. (2001, 2007) reflects five primary tasks of principals characterized broadly as direct assistance to teachers, group development, staff development, curriculum development, and action research. Pajak's (1989) research on instructional leadership generated similar tasks, but also included planning, organizing, facilitating change, and motivating staff. Based on the Blumer (1969) and Mead (1934) approach to symbolic interaction theory, combined with a derivation of Glickman et al. (2001) and Pajak's (1989) definitions, Blase and Blase (1999) examined a principal's direct assistance behaviors.

Research that contributed to overt, direct assistance behaviors was fundamental to this research. Direct assistance included principal-teacher interaction about instruction, face-to-face conferencing, social interpersonal exchanges, classroom observation, and feedback conferences to give teachers an opportunity to reflect on and improve instruction (Blase and Blase, 1999, 2002b; Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 2007; Pajak, 2001; Sheppard, 1996). Bryk and Schneider (1996) contend that direct assistance behaviors are hard for teachers to discern. Principals are generally isolated from the direct work of teachers, have little insight about the instruction methods teacher use, yet control resources and materials that teachers need. However, trustworthy principals were viewed as overtly helpful, involved, and fair (Bryk & Schneider, 1996).

Blase and Blase's (1999) research focused on overt and covert, formal and informal characteristics of a principal with whom teachers worked. Open-ended questions asked of the teachers included: (1) Give a detailed example of a positive characteristic (overt or covert, formal or informal) that directly improves something

about your classroom teaching; (2) Give a real-life example of the effects (impacts) that the characteristic has on your thoughts (related to teaching) and behavior (related to teaching); (3) How effective is the characteristic in getting you to think or do what the instructional supervisor intends? This item included a nominal scale from ineffective to effective. Teachers were then asked to explain why; and (5) What feelings do you have about the instructional supervisor's characteristics?

The results revealed that direct assistance included two primary tasks (1) talking with teachers to promote reflective practice and (2) promoting professional growth (Blase & Blase, 1999). Principals talking with teachers to promote reflection consisted of five primary talking strategies including:

(1) "making suggestions,

(2) giving feedback,

(3) modeling,

(4) using inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions, and

(5) giving praise" (Blase & Blase, 2000, p. 133).

Six strategies principals used to promote teachers' professional growth were:

(1) emphasizing the study of teaching and learning;

(2) supporting collaboration efforts among educators;

(3) developing coaching relationships among educators;

(4) encouraging and supporting redesign of programs;

(5) applying the principles of adult learning, growth, and development to all phases of staff development; and

(6) implementing action research to inform instructional decision making. (Blase & Blase, 2000, p. 135)

The present study focused on establishing a measure for and investigating what influence the practice of direct instructional supervision assistance had on principal trust.

Direct Assistance: Talking to Promote Reflection

Talking to promote reflection involves principal-teacher conferences but interaction is far more effective than evaluation. Talking to promote reflection encompasses components of action research, growth and collaboration, teaching and learning. Calhoun's (1994) action research for improved equity for students, school-wide problem solving, and collaborative inquiry about curriculum and teaching in every classroom supported Blase and Blase's (2000) research. Teachers are involved in collecting and analyzing data, then taking action (Calhoun, 1994). Joyce and Showers' (1995) growth and collaboration orientation promotes teaching buddies. Partners help each other grow into reflective practice. Both have to be committed and contribute reciprocated time and effort thinking through the analysis of a lesson and deciding outcomes. Teacher assessment of any learning that occurs is important to student success (Joyce and Showers, 1995).

Goldhammer (1969) and Glickman (1985) suggested that teachers perceived differences in direct supervision according to informed language and language that controls. Informed language is what a teacher might do and controlled language is what a teacher must do. Controlling language does little to promote reflection while informed language allows for collaboration, relationship building, and reflection.

Schön's (1983), *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*, conceptualizations of 'reflection' and 'reflective practice' have influenced the literature (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1993; Smyth, 1987; Garman, 1986) regarding the practice of supervision, and the analysis (Blase & Blase, 1999, 2000) of the teacher-principal hierarchical relationship. Based on Dewey's (1933) conceptualizations of reflective practice, Schön (1987) defined two types of reflection, "Reflection on action and Reflecting in action"…Reflection on action [refers to] thinking back on what we have done" (p. 26). Reflection on action occurs after the event has ended and the results of the reflection do not affect what occurred but may affect later events. "Reflection in action [occurs] in the midst of action without interrupting it" (Schön, 1987, p. 26). Reflection, in this instance, may change the course of events as they are happening. Reflection in action consists of "on-the-spot surfacing, criticizing, re-structuring and testing of intuitive understandings of experienced phenomena" (Schön, 1984, p. 42). For teachers, reflection allows them to think on their feet, assess those actions, and learn from them.

Hoy et al.'s. (2002) study of 97 high schools in Ohio suggested that collegial leadership included direct assistance principal behaviors that were friendly, supportive, open, and guided by norms of equality. Using the Faculty Trust Survey, a 35-item Likert instrument, the researchers measured collective perceptions of faculty trust in colleagues, in the principal, students, and parents. A strong, positive relationship between faculty trust in the principal and collegial leadership of the principal resulted ($r = .77$, $p < .01$). Leaders (i.e., principals) who treated teachers as colleagues, set reasonable standards, and were genuinely concerned about the social

needs and task achievement of teachers were accepted by teachers and rewarded with their trust (Hoy et al., 2002).

Action research is a form of instructional supervision found to improve reflective practice and assist teachers to examine pedagogical practices (Danielson, 2002; Glanz, 2005; Zepeda 2003). Glanz (2005) conducted two case studies where high school teachers implemented action research. One teacher assigned cooperative learning as the primary instructional strategy in one class and a more traditional textbook based instruction with another. After six weeks, she compared scores on a posttest. The teacher was able to determine that the use of cooperative groups significantly increased her students' problem solving abilities in math.

The second case study involved a high school with a multicultural alternative educational environment and a team of four teachers who were implementing a new writing program with a diverse group of students. Writing was an integral component throughout the content areas. In a comparative analysis, the teachers found that females did not score as well as well as males. The team was able to chart a program of study and increase students' writing abilities. Overall, the team of teachers found action research to promote development, collaboration, and a sense of empowerment to reflect on implementation strategies and outcomes (Glanz, 2005).

Pajak (2000) posited that teachers are learners. Learning is complex and requires reflective judgment. The goal of instructional supervision should focus on facilitating teachers' discovery and building of professional knowledge and skills as opposed to prescribed conferencing techniques (Pajak, 2000).

Reitzug's (1994) *Developmental Taxonomy of Principal Empowering Behavior* study utilized Prawat's (1991) framework for epistemological and political empowerment to demonstrate that nurturing alternative modes of professional interaction are essential to teacher empowerment and instructional improvement. Reitzug (1994) in agreement with Blase and Blase (2002) asserted that the literature was replete on conceptualizations and theories of empowerment and alternative administrative models and deficient on empirical data that enlightened practice. Reitzug (1994) demonstrated that principal behaviors such as providing staff development, modeling inquiry, asking questions, encouraging risk taking, requiring justification based on personal practice and knowledge were seen as empowering. Reciprocal knowledge sharing and power shifting was necessary for democratic leadership to evolve. More importantly, a principal's support through communication and collaboration (i.e., direct assistance) were important in trust building.

Direct Assistance: Promoting Professional Growth

Effective principal behaviors purported to contribute to a teacher's professional growth include visible, collaborative efforts with teachers, a deliberate focus on power symmetry and not inspection or judgment, and solicited input from teachers about their ideas, insights, and expertise (Blase & Blase, 1999; 2002b; Gordon, 1997; Pajak, 1993; Sheppard, 1996). When the principal enlisted teachers to share responsibility for staff development, curriculum development, and supervision of instructional tasks, teachers felt some ownership for school improvement (Marks & Printy, 2003).

Reitzug's (1994) study of 41 teachers identified three types of empowering principal behaviors: (a) Support, creating a supportive environment; (b) Facilitation, developing the ability for the staff to perform self-critiquing of the school; and (c) Possibility, providing the resources to bring action to their critique. The empowering principal moves from directing subordinates on how to perform a task to facilitating self-examination of practices. Collaborative inquiry encourages teachers to solve instructional problems collectively and allows the principal to serve as consultant (Reitzug, 1997).

As discussed, instructional supervision research has been narrowly defined in terms of what behaviors encompass good instructional leadership (Blase & Blase, 1999; Sheppard, 1996, Smith & Andrews, 1989). The research has also lacked empirical robustness (Sheppard, 1996). Sheppard's (1996) instructional leadership literature synthesis considered interactions between leaders and followers with both perspectives given equal importance. Sheppard (1996) found a strong, positive relationship between effective principal instructional leadership behaviors and teacher commitment, professional involvement, and innovativeness. Principal behaviors included:

- Framing school goals+
- Communicating school goals
- Supervising and evaluating instruction
- Coordinating curriculum
- Monitoring student progress
- Protecting instructional time

- Maintaining high visibility*
- Providing incentives for teachers
- Promoting professional development+*
- Providing incentives for learning

Key: * = Most influential behaviors, elementary school; + = most influential behaviors, high school (Sheppard, 1996, pp. 327, 339).

Promoting professional development was the most influential principal behavior at both the elementary and high school levels. Only three to five principal behaviors accounted for most of the influence on teachers' commitment, involvement, and innovativeness, which suggested that even a small number of critical principal behaviors can result in improved teacher outcomes (Sheppard, 1996).

Blase and Blase's (1999) survey of over 800 teachers focused on the strategies teachers identified with effective instructional leadership. Blase and Blase's (1999), *Principals' Instructional Leadership and Teacher Development: Teachers' Perspectives*, used the terms, instructional leadership and instructional supervision, synonymously. The researchers presented the Reflection-Growth (RG) model, the first inductively derived, data-based model of effective instructional leadership based on a study of teachers. Blase and Blase (1999) introduced The Inventory of Strategies Used by Principals to Influence Classroom Teaching (ISUPICT). The ISUPICT was an open-ended questionnaire "designed to elicit free expression" (p. 356). The data resulted in two primary themes of instructional conferences which include: "talking with teachers to promote reflection and promoting professional growth" (Blase & Blase, 1999, p. 359). Additionally, five primary talking strategies,

(a) making suggestions, (b) giving feedback, (c) modeling, (d) using inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions, and (e) giving praise, used by principals helped teachers to promote reflection. Direct assistance included conferencing, reflection, and feedback. These behaviors were found to be important to teachers; however, results indicated that few teachers actually receive the necessary attention to increase instructional improvement (Blase & Blase, 1999, 2000; 2002a; Glickman et al., 2007; Holland & Adams, 2002).

Ebmeier's (2003) research investigated the relationship between active principal supervision and individual teacher efficacy. Ebmeier's (2003) concern, similar to that of Blase and Blase (1999, 2000), was that "supervision is a commonly practiced activity with little knowledge about its effect on teachers or the mechanism by which supervision affects instruction" (p. 110). Ebmeier (2003) utilized Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, and Hoy's (1998) validated and reliable, *Consequences of Teacher Efficacy* model that included mastery experiences, physiological arousal, vicarious experiences, and persuasion. Two additional variables, support of teaching through active supervision and school organizational influences, were also measured. Ebmeier's (2003) findings indicated that when principals demonstrate an interest in the instructional process, such as frequent classroom visits and conferencing, teachers responded by developing more respect for and confidence in the principal.

In 2000, Blase and Blase published, *Effective Instructional Leadership: Teachers' Perspectives on How Principals Promote Teaching and Learning in Schools*, "a more detailed discussion of how such leadership enhances teachers' classroom teaching" (p. 130). The researchers wanted a comprehensive empirical

report that allowed teachers a voice. Using Blumer (1969) and Mead's (1934) approach to symbolic interaction theory, the researchers again used the ISUPICT to identify strategies and behavioral characteristics of school principals that both positively and negatively influence classroom teaching, and what effects those characteristics have on classroom instruction. Blase and Blase (2000) discovered that direct principal assistance includes, "effective principal-teacher interaction about instruction, processes such as inquiry, reflection, exploration, and experimentation result; and teachers build repertoires of flexible alternatives rather than collecting rigid teaching procedures and methods" (p. 132). A high degree of consistency (0.90) resulted. Lacking from this research is an empirical method to measure instructional supervision.

Instructional Supervision and Trust

Autonomy and trust have significant roles in schools. As discussed, there is the potential when bureaucratic and professional structures, such as instructional supervision, attempt to coexist within the same organization control takes precedence over trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Controlling structures set the tone for teacher perceptions of instructional supervision as evaluative and judgmental, which hinders environments, is detrimental to healthy school environments, and trust suffers (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). Bureaucratic structures have received attention that such structures support the instructional supervision role of the principal as judge and not collaborator (Blumberg, 1980). Blumberg (1980) found that teachers, who described supervision in the context of evaluative and judgmental, also indicated it as manipulative and a waste of time. Blumberg (1980) concluded that "the character of

relationships between teachers as a group and supervisors as a group can be described as a cold war…Neither side trusts the other, and each side is convinced of the correctness of the process " (p. 5). Similar to Blumberg's (1980) *Supervision and Teachers: A Private Cold War,* much of the contemporary instructional supervision literature emphasizes teacher evaluation as the primary task of the principal. It is that focus, which negates positive perceptions of instructional supervision and influences teacher trust of the principal.

Common to reflective models was the identification of trust (Blumberg, 1980; Goldhammer, 1969). Engaging teachers requires risky dialogue with a belief that disclosure of personal beliefs and values will be accepted and supported. Blumberg and Jonas (1987) asked teachers to describe their supervisor's behaviors that created a productive and confident relationship. Three main access-inducing behaviors resulted: (a) task-oriented supervisors were assessed as genuine, collaborative, and allowed teachers an opportunity to be the expert; (b) interpersonal type supervisors were open, listened, and were open to teachers' voices; (c) competent supervisors were knowledgeable and respectful.

Zimmerman's (2003) survey research with 86 teachers in Florida used the "Professional Appraisal Systems Survey". Although the questions were directed at obtaining teacher perceptions of the principal's role specific to teacher evaluation, one question was about feedback and did the principal's feedback help improve the quality of your teaching? Zimmerman and Deckert-Pelton (2003) found that when positive rapport, trust, and respect between teacher and principal existed, there was an increased probability of improved pedagogy and increased student achievement.

Tschannen-Moran (2003) examined the relationships between teacher trust in principal, transformational leadership, and organizational citizenship. She found the relationship between teacher-perceived, principal transformational leadership behaviors and teacher trust of principal was strong (r = .75). Tschannen-Moran (2003) indicated that competence alone does not appear to create conditions that promote organizational citizenship behaviors. All the facets of trust, benevolence, reliability, openness, and honesty must be present.

Trust is a disposition that can be examined by directly asking individuals about their previous observations of the other's behavior or one's judgment of another's trustworthiness (Forsyth, 2008). As previously discussed, Hoy and his colleagues have produced reliable and valid psychometric approaches to school trust. General findings indicated that "trust is not a generalized perception of affective orientation toward others, but rather is responsive to the trustworthiness of different trust targets…Highly associated is teacher trust of principal" (r = .69, p < .01)" (Forsyth, 2008, p. 4).

Hoy, Gage, and Tarter (2006) discussed mindful schools. A number of properties shape school mindfulness. Mindful schools defer to expertise by fluid decision-making regardless of rank and status (Hoy et al., 2006). Other properties include learning from mistakes, leaning on strengths of others instead of demeaning weaknesses, and acceptance of other points of view or embracing diversity. Using the Omnibus T Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) the researchers found faculty trust in principal r = .90, p < .01 was a very strong predictor of principal mindfulness (r = .97, p < .01). Each measure of the Omnibus T Scale is "grounded in the faculty's

willingness to be vulnerable to one group or individual in the confidence that the other party would be benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open" (Hoy et al., 2006). The absence or lack of faculty trust in the principal would indicate real or imagined harm, fear of punitive measures, and an unwillingness to voice an opinion.

The early work of Henderson and Hoy (1982) and Hoy and Kupersmith (1985) was conducted in elementary schools and measured individual teacher trust. Hoy expanded his investigations over the next 20 years. Hoy, Tarter, and Witkoskie (1992) found that teacher trust of principal predicted teacher trust of colleagues (β = .43, $p < .01$). This outcome was based on teachers' perceptions that the principal was supportive. The supportive principal was defined as approachable, helpful, and concerned about the social and professional needs of the staff (Hoy et al., 1992).

In 1995, Tarter, Sabo, and Hoy's research in middle schools found that teacher trust of principal and teacher trust of colleagues predicted school effectiveness, $\beta = .54$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = .44$, $p < .01$. The results indicated that trust function is dependent on the operational structure of the school and that principal trust fosters school improvement and overall student achievement.

Blase and Blase (1997) stated that "the extant studies of principals underscore the salience of a 'power-over' approach to teachers, characterized by the use of power or influence to control teachers' behavior, thoughts or values" (p. 139). Blase and Blase's (1997) study of micropolitical orientations of facilitative principals used grounded theory inquiry. The researchers gathered and analyzed perceptual data from over 285 teachers from eleven (11) select schools. Facilitative leadership was found to consist of seven major micropolitical strategies: demonstrating trust in teachers,

developing shared governance structures, encouraging teacher input, encouraging teacher autonomy, encouraging teacher innovation, giving rewards, providing support and one category of personal characteristics (i.e. caring, enthusiasm, optimism, honesty, friendliness). Results indicated that the mean score for principals' overall influence on teacher empowerment was 6.1 on a scale of 1 to 7. Of significance were issues of shared decision making, governance, and collaborative effort. Trust was a significant theme and appeared as an outcome of the responses, such as, "shared governance principals demonstrated trust in teachers' capacity for responsible involvement in both school-level and classroom-level decision making" (Blase & Blase, 1997, p. 148). The power of the principal in his or her role as instructional supervisor can be benevolent or malevolent.

Rationale and Hypothesis

Adams (2008) advanced a model of trust formation that specifies behavioral, affective, and cognitive conditions as social antecedents of trust in schools. Teacher trust in a principal's supportive, collegial, and open leadership practices were positively related to higher levels of principal trust. In contrast, authoritative leadership behaviors diminish principal trust (Adams, 2008). Effective instructional supervision behaviors are based on a compliance paradigm that relies on soft power in the form of commitment, influence, and identification to support teaching and learning as opposed to hard controls that force compliance to rigid rules and regulations. Because instructional supervision empowers teachers through interactions that are professional and collaborative, it was predicted that:

H_1: The practice of instruction supervision within a school will explain principal trust after accounting for the effects of teacher and school characteristics.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Introduction

The primary purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust within the context of urban elementary schools. This chapter describes the procedures and methods used to address the research question and test the hypothesis formulated for the study. It was hypothesized that a principal's instructional supervision practices of teachers explains significant variance in principal trust after accounting for teacher and school factors. As discussed in the following section, the design allowed for the unique effect of instructional supervision on principal trust to be tested.

Research Design

An ex post facto correlational design was used to determine the strength of relationship between teacher perceptions of the principal's instructional supervision behaviors and principal trust. The reliability of the instructional supervision scale was estimated with Cronbach's alpha. Data were collected at one-time period from a cross-section of elementary schools in an urban district. Both the independent variable of instructional supervision and the dependent variable of principal trust were measured on a continuous scale. Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) was employed to partition an outcome's variability into within-school and between-school components and to test the school-level effects on teacher trust of the principal.

Sample

The study involved multilevel data: teachers nested within schools. Data were collected from 248 teachers representing 56 Title I elementary schools from an urban school district in a Midwestern state. Teachers were treated as the first level unit of analysis to test the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust at the individual teacher level. Schools in the sample had an average size of 395.88, socioeconomic status of 80.57, and an API with a mean of 1175.64.

Because the interest of the researcher was to study the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust within the context of an urban elementary school, criterion sampling was used (Mertens, 1998). Permission (See: Appendix G) to submit an electronic survey to elementary teachers was obtained from the district. After permission was granted by school administration, a link (See: Appendix D) to Survey Monkey was emailed to all elementary teachers. The research purpose was explained. Teachers understood that participation was voluntary and confidentiality was ensured.

Because this study involved nested data, teachers nested within schools, all schools with at least five teacher responses were retained and used for the nested analysis. A power analysis using optimal design 2.0 was conducted to determine the ideal number of schools for the multi-level model. Results suggested that with a sample of fifty-six (56) schools and an average of five respondents per school, and an expected medium effect size, the estimated power of the sample was .88. A power assessment estimates the ability of the sample to detect a statistically significant difference if one exists in the overall population. A strong power controls for making

type two errors (Aron, Aron, & Coups, 2006). The data suggested that there was an 88 percent chance that the sample was capable of detecting a significant relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust.

School demographic data were gathered from the state department of education of the Midwestern state used for the sample. These data are public and accessible through the department of education's website.

Data Collection

Data were collected from elementary teachers in the district during late spring of 2009. Survey dates were May 25 through June 10, 2009. Spring was the preferable time of year to collect instructional supervision data because formal observations and evaluations are required to be completed in the spring. Conducting instructional conferences is a primary element of successful instructional supervisors (Blase & Blase, 1999, 2000). Making suggestions, giving feedback, modeling, using inquiry, and soliciting opinions from teachers are significant and direct contact principals have with teachers during this timeframe (Blase & Blase, 1999, 2000). Recall of these behaviors is fresh in the mind of the teachers; therefore, capturing perceptions during this timeframe is in close proximity to the event.

Data were collected using an online survey instrument approved by the University of Oklahoma Institutional Research Board and the doctoral committee. Teachers associated themselves with a school using a coding method employed by the online survey. The use of the online survey method allowed respondents the freedom to access and respond at a time preferable to his or her schedule. Teachers' responses were anonymous. Two follow-up emails were sent to improve the number of usable

surveys for the analysis. The result was a final sample of 248 teachers and 56 schools.

Measures

One purpose of the study was to develop a valid and reliable measure of instructional supervision that captured teachers' perceptions of the principal's behaviors when providing direct instructional assistance. Results of the instrument and variables are discussed briefly in the following section and in more detail in the "Results" section.

Instructional Supervision

Items for the scale were developed from the theoretical and empirical evidence on effective instructional supervisory practices (Blase and Blase, 1999, 2000; Glickman et al., 2007). Specifically, Blase and Blase's (1999) qualitative identification of effective direct instructional assistance to teachers was the guiding framework for the survey items. Direct assistance consisted of two primary themes, (i.e., principal behaviors), talking strategies and promoting professional development (Blase and Blase, 1999, 2000). Heck's (1992) research also found that the principal's direct assistance behaviors, such as, makes regular classroom visits; minimizes class interruptions; participates in discussion about how instruction affects achievement, influenced teachers' perceptions of the principal as instructional supervisor. Twelve items were initially developed that captured teachers' perceptions of principals' direct instructional assistance to teachers in the context of instructional supervision.

Construct validity was assessed by submitting the 12 items to a group of 11 principals and asking them to critique the items for clarity and alignment with

effective supervisory practices. Two items were removed by the panel of principals for lack of clarity and lack of fit with the practice of instructional supervision. These items were: “The principal offers opportunities for me to implement well-researched ideas” and “The principal encourages teachers to identify and reflect on the relationship between teaching and outcomes”. Based on feedback from the panel, three items, “The principal gives teachers choices in addressing instructional issues during post-observation conferences”, The principal provides helpful feedback in a non-evaluative manner”, and “The principal empowers teachers to identify instructional concerns,” were rewritten to better capture principal behaviors when providing direct instructional assistance. This scale resulted in ten (10) items that measured direct instructional assistance. See Appendix A.

Internal structure validity was assessed by submitting the ten (10) items to an exploratory factor analysis. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to run an exploratory factor analysis with principal axis extraction. Data patterns can be explored among the inter-relationships of the Instructional Supervision Scale items and identify a common factor and determine the fit of the items. A principal axis approach extracts both common and unique variance (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). This approach reduces plausible factor combinations to the factor or factors that explain the most common variance (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Factor loadings were strong with a range of .70 to .89. Item number eight, “The principal provides feedback only when I sign my annual evaluation,” had a factor loading of .247 and as a result, was rewritten. The final

analysis of ten items yielded a one-factor design with loadings ranging from .72 to .93 (See Table 4.3).

Concurrent validity tests for the Instructional Supervision Scale (ISS) were performed through correlational analysis using Enabling School Structure (ESS) (Hoy & Sweetland, 2000). See Tables 4.4, 4.5, and 4.6. ESS is a construct with similar leadership components to ISS.

Principal Trust

Principal trust was measured utilizing the teacher trust of principal subscale of the Omnibus Trust Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Eight questions numbered one, four, seven, nine, eleven, fifteen, eighteen, and twenty-three of the Omnibus T-Scale assess teacher trust of the principal. The principal trust subscale utilizes a six-point Likert response set ranging from "strongly disagree" (coded as 1) to "strongly agree" (coded as 6). Example items include: "Teachers in this school can rely on the principal" and "The teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal". Three of the items are negatively worded and as a result, are reverse-coded. The construct validity of the Principal Trust scales was supported by a factor analytic study and alpha values for principal trust calculated at .98 (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), as well as its repeated use in other research (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth & Adams, 2007; Forsyth et al., 2006; Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Hoy et al., 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Tschannen-Moran, 2001). In the current sample, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of reliability was .96.

Enabling School Structure

The Enabling Structure Scale (ESS) (Hoy & Sweetland, 2000) was used to measure teachers' perceptions of how school leaders exercise administrative authority. The scale ranges on a continuum from enabling formalization and centralization to hindering formalization and centralization (Hoy & Sweetland, 2000, 2001). ESS is a 12-item Likert-type scale that measures the degree to which school structure is enabling. Half the items were negatively worded which requires reverse-scoring. Sample items included, "Administrative rules in this school enable authentic communications between teachers and administrators" and "In this school the authority of the principal is used to undermine teachers" (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001).

The Enabling Structure Scale (ESS) consists of six items that capture formalization and six that measure centralization. Validity is supported by strong factor loadings (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999) and use in other studies (Adams & Forsyth, 2007; Tschannen-Moran, 2009), in addition to the Hoy and Sweetland (2000, 2001) studies. The reliability of the scale is consistently high, usually .90 or higher (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). For purposes of this study, three items were omitted: "The administrative hierarchy obstructs student achievement", "Administrative rules in this school are guides to solutions rather than rigid procedures", and "In this school the authority of the principal is used to undermine teachers". In the current sample, the alpha coefficient of reliability for this subscale was .92.

Demographic Data

Contextual influence on principal-teacher trust was controlled by including several school-level variables empirically shown to influence a school's environment

(Adams, 2008; Adams & Forsyth, 2009). These demographic and performance evaluation data are available online from the state school report cards (http://www.schoolreportcard.org/reports.htm). Prior academic performance was measured by the school's Academic Performance Index (API) score. The API scale variable ranges from 1 to 1500 with a mean of 1176 during the 2008 testing year. Ninety percent of a school's API score is based on academic achievement measures and 10% on attendance (http://www.schoolreportcard.org). Demographic measures are based on the percentage of students within a school classified as being White and the proportion of students in a school not qualifying for the federal lunch subsidy. School size was measured using the October, 2008 online enrollment data. Online data also indicated the number of students who qualified for subsidized lunch programs and these data were used to measure poverty level.

Analytical Technique

This study was designed to test the reliability and validity of an Instructional Supervision Scale as well as to determine if there was any influence of instructional supervision on teacher trust in the principal. Teacher trust is a function of individual cognitive, affective, or contextual experiences and social interactions (Adams, 2008). Because the data were nested, two-level Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) was used. Two advantages of HLM over the use of OLS Regression models include: (1) attitudinal data aggregated to the organizational level can correctly be interpreted at the individual level, and (2) individual data can be used to make inferences about groups (Luke, 2004). Multi-level data analysis allows the analysis of hierarchically structured data simultaneously as opposed to focusing separately on teachers then on

group conditions (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Three different models, Random Effects ANOVA, Random Effects ANCOVA, Random Intercepts Regression Model, were tested. Each model has two levels, Level I and Level II, with the independent variable, instructional supervision, occurring at Level I.

Random Effects ANOVA

The first model used an unconstrained Random Effects ANOVA to examine the variability of teacher perceptions of instructional supervision behaviors, enabling school structures, and teacher trust in the principal at the individual and school levels. This analysis yielded an IntraClass Correlation Coefficient for each construct. The Random Effects ANOVA was modeled as:

Level I: Instructional Supervision = $\beta 0j + rij$

Level II: $\beta 0j = \gamma 0 + u0$

Random Effects ANCOVA

The second model was a Random Effects ANCOVA used to investigate if teacher demographics such as gender and years with principal were related to principal trust. The relationship between the teacher demographic variables and principal trust was allowed to vary at random across schools. No school level variables were included in this model. The Random Effects ANCOVA was modeled as:

Level I: Principal Trust = $\beta 0j + \beta 1j$ (gender) + B2j (years with principal) + rij

Level II: $\beta 0j = \gamma 0 + \gamma 01$ () + $u0$

$\beta 1j = \gamma 01$

Random Intercepts Regression Model

The third model tested the hypothesis that a principal's direct instructional supervision practices explain significant variance in principal trust after accounting for teacher and school factors, such as school size, API, and school SES. Random Intercepts Regression was modeled as:

Level I: Principal Trust = $\beta 0j + rij$

Level II: $\beta 0j = \gamma 00 + \gamma 01$ (SES) + $\gamma 02$ (Size) + $\gamma 03$ (IS) + y04 (X) + y05 (ESS) + $u0$

Summary

The purpose of this research was to study the effect of instructional supervision on principal trust. Valid and reliable trust measures were used. A quantitative measure for instructional supervision was designed and validated. This study included nested data; therefore, HLM was used to test both teacher and school effects on principal trust. Chapter IV discusses the data and provides analysis and findings.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

The primary purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust within the context of urban elementary schools. Results from the HLM analysis tested the hypothesis. It was hypothesized that the practice of instruction supervision within a school explains principal trust after accounting for the effects of teacher and school characteristics. Descriptive statistics of teachers and schools in the study are presented first. The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of the Instructional Supervision Scale follow. The Chapter concludes with findings from the HLM analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were calculated to describe the sample of 248 teachers who were nested within 56 urban, elementary schools. Table 4.1 shows the mean score and standard deviation for instructional supervision, enabling school structure, and principal trust. Contextual and achievement data from the schools in the sample are also included.

The proportion of students with schools participating in subsidized meals (SES) varied from 9 - 98 with a mean of 81 percent. School size varied from 92 to 973 with a mean of 396. In 2008, the average state enrollment was 542 and the schools in the sample averaged 396 students enrolled. The sample API ranged from 603 to 1500. The State average during the same year was 1107. Table 4.2 displays descriptive data on teachers. The sample totaled 248 teachers and consisted of 21

males and 227 female teachers. Degrees earned by the teachers were 106 BA/BS, 45 BA/BS, plus 30 hours, 63 Master, 31 Master, plus 30 hours, and 3 EdD/PhD.

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics

LEVEL I

VARIABLE NAME	N	MEAN	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Instructional Supervision	248	34.88	11.5	10	50
Enabling School Structure	248	29.48	7.91	11	45
Principal Trust	248	26.93	9.73	8	40

LEVEL II

VARIABLE NAME	N	MEAN	SD	Minimum	Maximum
School Size	56	395.88	166.96	92	973
SES	56	80.57	22.66	9	98
API	56	1175.6	214.46	603	1500

Table 4.2: Demographic Information

Education	**Response Count**	**Years of Teaching Experience**	**Response Count**
BA/BS	106	1 - 3 years	30
BA/BS + 30	45	4 - 6 years	24
Master	63	7 - 9 years	19
Master + 30	31	More than 9 years	175
EdD/PhD	3		

Female (*n* = 227)
Male (*n* = 21)
n = 248

Instructional Supervision Scale

Because there was not an existing measure of instructional supervision used in the literature, one purpose of this study was to develop a valid and reliable measure of instructional supervision. The 10-item instructional supervision scale was assessed for its factor stability, validity, and reliability. A principal-axis factoring method was performed on the scale to test the instrument's item structure. The results were encouraging. Factor loadings ranged from .72 to .93. See Table 4.3. One factor explained 73 percent of the variance among all ten (10) items, indicating that the Instructional Supervision (IS) Scale is a one-factor measure. The conceptual identifiers of IS clustered around this one dominant factor. High communalities of the factors indicate the strong relationship among all the items. Item consistency measured by Cronbach's alpha, was strong at .97, which suggests sound internal consistency among the items. In short, the 10-item instructional supervision survey is a valid and reliable measure that incorporates and is representative of instructional supervision.

Table 4.3: Factor Loadings for Instructional Supervision Survey

Item	Statement	Factor Loading	Communalities
1	The principal listens to teachers' instructional problems.	0.88	0.78
2	The principal conducts post-observation conferences.	0.72	0.66
3	The principal gives teachers choices in addressing instructional issues during post-observation conferences.	0.87	0.77
4	The principal encourages creativity in teaching.	0.81	0.71

5	The principal offers professional literature as a resource for instructional improvement.	0.74	0.57
6	The principal provides helpful feedback in a non-evaluative manner.	0.93	0.85
7	The principal provides helpful feedback after instructional observations.	0.92	0.83
8	The principal provides praise that is focused on concrete teacher behaviors.	0.86	0.74
9	The principal visits classrooms on a regular basis.	0.75	0.60
10	The principal empowers teachers to identify instructional concerns.	0.88	0.78

Percentage of Variance = 73%
Alpha = .97

Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) Results

Random Effects ANOVA

A Random Effects ANOVA was run to partition variance in each of the attitudinal constructs to variability at the individual and school levels. Tables 4.4, 4.5, and 4.6 report the results from the Random Effects ANOVA performed on principal trust, instructional supervision, and enabling school structure. Intraclass Correlation Coefficients (ICC) for principal trust (ICC = .30), instructional supervision (ICC = .39), and enabling school structure (ICC= .25) suggest that between-school variability for each construct was significant. All chi-square statistics were significance at the $p < .0001$ level. In particular, with 39 percent of the variability in principal trust existing across schools confirms that principal trust is a school-level condition.

Table 4.4: Random Effects ANOVA

Principal Trust	SD	Variance Component	df	Chi-square	P-value
INTRCPT1	6.05	36.55	55.00	212.97	0.00
LEVEL-1 = PT	7.58	57.53			
ICC = .39					

Note: n = 56 schools.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 4.5: Random Effects ANOVA

Instructional Supervision	SD	Variance Component	df	Chi-square	P-value
INTRCPT1	6.27	39.32	55.00	159.35	0.00
LEVEL-1 = IS	9.63	92.79			
ICC = .30					

Note: n = 56 schools.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 4.6: Random Effects ANOVA

Enabling School Structure	SD	Variance Component	df	Chi-square	P-value
INTRCPT1	3.99	15.95	55.00	133.83	0.00
LEVEL-1 = ESS	6.90	47.55			
ICC = .25					

Note: n = 56 schools.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Random Effects ANCOVA

The Random Effects ANCOVA model was utilized to investigate the relationship between teacher demographics and principal trust. The focus of this model is to measure the effects of teacher characteristics on principal trust. Specifically, gender and years with the principal were not significant predictors of principal trust, suggesting that principal-teacher interactions, more so than teacher demographics, were stronger reasons for variation in principal trust.

Table 4.7: Random Effects ANCOVA

	Standard Deviation	Variance	df	Chi-Square	P-value	
INTRCPT1-UO	6.1	36.70	4	3.90	> .500	NS
Gender	1.7	2.80	4	2.03	> .500	NS
Years w/Principal	6.2	38.40	4	9.40	0.091	NS

Random Intercepts Regression Model

The third model tested the hypothesis that instructional supervision practices would explain significant variance in principal trust after accounting for teacher and school factors, such as school size, API, and school SES (Adams & Forsyth, 2006). Previously, the Random Effects ANOVA indicated that approximately 40 percent of variability in principal trust existed at the school level. The Random Intercepts Regression model, also referred to as means-as-outcomes, tested which school condition had the most effect on school level variability in principal trust. Table 4.8 displays the results of the model. Control variables were included in the model because they are school level factors found in existing research to influence principal trust (Adams, 2008). The results confirm the hypothesis and indicate that

instructional supervision, more so than other school conditions in the model, uniquely explained significant variability in principal trust ($\gamma = 4.4$, $p<.01$). In fact, instructional supervision was the strongest predictor of principal trust.

A second Random Intercepts model with just instructional supervision as a school-level predictor was tested to determine the percent of school level variance explained by instructional supervision. The final estimation of variance was used to determine the amount of variability in principal trust explained solely by instructional supervision. The Random Effects ANOVA model estimated a school-level variance component of 36.5. With instructional supervision entered as the only school-level predictor, the school-level variability dropped to 0.5, instructional supervision was entered as the lone predictor. The variance differential suggested that instructional supervision alone explained nearly 98 percent of the between-school variability in principal trust. See Table 4.9.

Table 4.8: Random Intercepts Regression Model (i.e., Means as Outcomes)

Fixed Effect	Coefficient	SE	t-ratio	df	p-value
INTRCPT2, GOO	27	0.29	95.24	50	0.000
SES	0.44	0.29	1.50	50	0.141
Size	-0.34	0.24	-1.40	50	0.169
API08	-0.11	0.44	-0.25	50	0.807
ESS	3.16*	0.52	6.03	50	0.000
IS	4.44*	0.49	9.14	50	0.000

* significant

Table 4.9: Final Estimation of Variance with Instructional Supervision

Model	SD	Variance Component	df	Chi-square	P-value	
Instructional Supervision	0.13	0.5*	54	32.81	> .500	*
	7.23	52.29				

* significant

Summary

The purpose of this research was to study the effect of instructional supervision on principal trust. The results of the analyses provide support for the use of the instructional supervision scale as an effective measure of instructional supervision. Additionally, the test of the hypothesis was confirmed. The practice of instructional supervision made a difference in principal trust. The effect of instructional supervision was stronger than other school level predictors. In short, the quality of principal-teacher interactions in the context of instructional improvement has consequences for principal trust. Chapter V discusses these results within the conceptual framework and provides suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Similar to other organizations, trust within schools is a subjective condition that influences organizational and school effectiveness (Forsyth, 2008). Trust is no doubt a salient aspect of school life. For this reason, understanding the formation of trust was an important objective of this research.

This study contributes to the literature by providing a reliable and valid instructional supervision measure as well as establishing a relationship between the practice of instructional supervision and principal trust. Results of the study confirmed the hypothesis that instructional supervision would be a strong predictor of principal trust after accounting for other school conditions such as school size, API, and SES. The purpose of this section is to discuss this finding within the context of trust formation and instructional supervision, as well as to provide implications for future research.

Educational researchers and reformers agree that successful twenty-first century schools must have strong instructional leaders who can balance the goal of high-quality instructional improvement and trusting relationships (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Adams, 2008). Effective schools, innovation, and accountability are no longer simply visions of state and federal mandates. These mandates are now reality and form the social environment in which current principals operate. The job of leading schools requires a balanced and collaborative approach to coordinate quality teaching and learning. Added to a principal's responsibilities in recent

decades has been the growing need to facilitate cooperative relationships with parents, community partners, and policymakers. A principal's role obligations are extensive. As such, the principal is expected to be proficient in fiscal knowledge, cultural awareness, facilities management, interpersonal exchanges, and teaching and learning. Balancing a proliferation of rules and regulations with collegial, informative, and supportive behaviors requires highly respected principals who demonstrate the facets of trust.

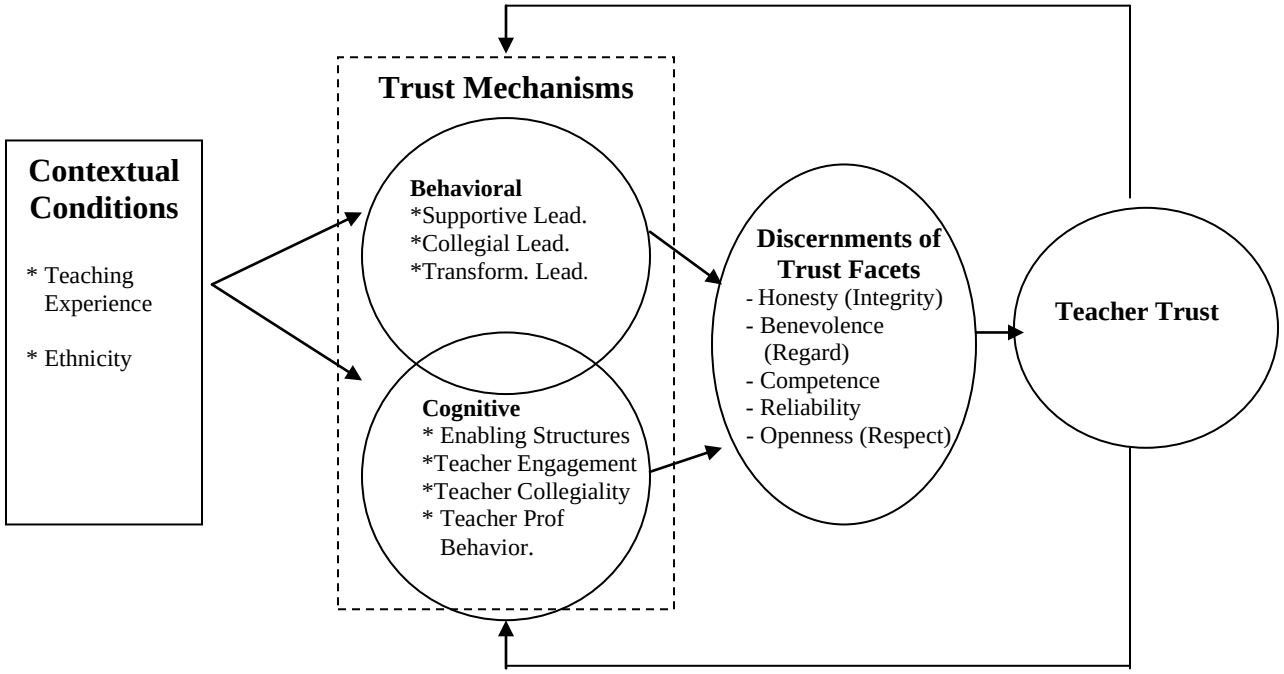
With the growing demands and accountability pressures confronting principals, it is easy to understand how instructional supervision could be neglected for simpler, but less effective, performance management approaches like evaluation (Acheson & Gall, 2003). Results of the present research add to the evidence on the importance of instructional supervision. Without principal trust, it is hard to imagine that a principal would be successful at leading improvement efforts. As the evidence from this study suggests, instructional supervision is an effective mechanism to build principal trust. Literature on trust formation is examined to better understand why this is the case.

Principal Trust Formation

The literature discusses trust building in schools as a function of both normative and contextual school conditions (Adams, 2008). In terms of teacher-principal trust, trust formation is dependent upon a principal's actual behavior aligned with his or her socially defined role expectations and obligations (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Adams (2008) synthesized the trust formation literature to arrive at a model of trust formation (Figure 5.1). Similar to Bandura's (1986) sources of efficacy-

producing information, Adams (2008) argued that trust mechanisms operate in the social environment to influence trust discernments of role groups. From the literature, Adams (2008) identified and classified the sources of trust formation as behaviors, beliefs, and feelings. School size, economic status of students, school level, and prior academic performance were contextual characteristics accounted for in the model "as having an indirect effect on trust through its direct effect on the social environment" (Adams et al., 2009). Figure 5.1 illustrates the overall importance of behavioral, cognitive, and affective norms on trust formation. As Adams (2008) found, organizational conditions, shaped by both formal and informal features, are social mechanisms and components of principal trust.

*** Figure 5.1: Teacher-Principal Trust**



* Permission to reprint from: Adams, C. M. (2008). Building Trust in Schools: A Review of the empirical evidence. In W. Hoy and, M. DiPaola, (Eds.), *Improving Schools: Studies in Leadership and Culture*, Information Age Publishing, p. 37.

Educational researchers have found that schools where policies and practices are based on enabling structures (Hoy & Sweetland, 2000, 2001), supportive leadership (Tarter et al., 1995), collaboration (Tschannen-Moran, 2001), and transparent communication (Smith, Hoy, & Sweetland, 2001) foster greater levels of teacher trust in the principal (Adams et al., 2009). Conversely, hindering school structures characterized by transient populations, low academic achievement, and racial tensions tend to have low levels of internal trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth et al., 2006; Hoy & Sweetland, 2000, 2001). Faculty trust in the principal is determined primarily by the behavior of the principal and how the principal manipulates structures to coordinate teaching and learning. The results of this study found trust was high when the principal was perceived as benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2000) and when his or her behavior exhibited respect, personal regard, competence, and integrity (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). This was reflected in supervisory practices that valued the ability of teachers to improve their own instruction with support and direct assistance coming from the principal.

The complex, highly interactive nature of schools is comprised of distinct role relationships and hierarchical structures that set the framework for risk and vulnerability. Although "teacher trust discernments [are] not solely predicated on principal behavior" (Adams, 2008 p. 36), principal trust building largely depends on a principal's ability to reduce perceived risk and vulnerabilities (Kochanek, 2005). Broken trust is a serious impediment to cognitive and social-emotional development (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). "When trust is broken between the principal and

teacher, the probable consequences are hypervigilance, punishment, and getting even, typically destructive forces that undermine the effectiveness of the school" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p. 349). Supervisory behaviors of principals can serve to build trust when principals work cooperatively with teachers on instructional improvement. In contrast, supervisory behaviors that solely place value judgments on teacher practices without the use of supporting metrics can lessen principal trust.

The principal confronts many forces that challenge his or her relationship with teachers. School structure that includes culture, practices, policies, technology, and inter-role groups have been found to influence trust formation (Adams et al., 2009). Instructional supervisors must balance the political and administrative school functions with the interpersonal expectations and technical mandates. As this study affirmed, instructional supervision is a necessary function in schools that requires reciprocal interdependence among teachers and principals for the goals of the school to be fulfilled.

Important for this study were the behavioral trust mechanisms found in Adams' (2008) model and in the effect on the trust facets. Supportive, collegial, and transformational leadership are trustworthy behaviors that have been found in existing research to promote principal trust. Instructional supervision is a specific context where collegial, supportive, and transformational behaviors have a large effect on principal trust. Direct assistance behaviors that included listening, feedback, instructional improvement, empowerment, and collaborative efforts are behaviors that can enhance trust and promote quality performance. Effective behaviors and practices of instructional supervision are described next.

Instructional Supervision

Successful twenty-first century principals must be willing to accept a multidimensional role that allows them to address myriad external factors that affect teaching and learning. Blase and Blase (2000) found a high degree of consistency (0.90) in their model of instructional supervision that served as the basis for the definition and measure used in this study. Two interdependent components make up the practice of instructional supervision: 1) talking with teachers to promote reflection, and 2) promoting professional growth. Each component consisted of specific principal behaviors that aligned with the needs of teachers. For example, talking with teachers to promote reflection included such behaviors as, providing instructional feedback, listening to teachers concerns and instructional reasoning, modeling humanistic behaviors, conferencing and brainstorming to arrive at new instructional approaches, giving specific praise for instructional practice, and encouraging risk taking (Blase & Blase, 2000). Promoting professional growth emphasized the study of teaching and learning, encouraging collaboration with other faculty members, promoting coaching and peer interaction, developing comprehensive staff development, and applying action research in decision-making processes (Blase & Blase, 2000). Cooperation and vulnerability were fundamental to both constructs, as these conditions are necessary for trust. Trust requires risk, but teachers are less likely to take risks knowing that consequences could be detrimental to their performance when judgment takes precedent over professional growth.

Researchers, such as Holland (2006), Starratt (1997), and Gordon (1992), have expressed concerns that supervision itself has become indistinguishable from

evaluation practices, a reality that has potentially harmful consequences for organizational performance and principal trust. Teacher evaluation and the process of evaluation have been shown to negatively influence trust (Card, 2006; Ginsberg, 2003; Hazi, 1994; Stiggins & Bridgeford, 1985). Sullivan and Glanz (2005) found that evaluation breeds distrust when judgments were based on limited evidence and the focus was on rating capabilities as opposed to improving instruction. Such behaviors were viewed with suspicion by teachers and often did not function to improve teaching (Hazi, 1994). In contrast, findings from this study suggest that the supervisory behaviors of listening to teacher concerns, providing feedback and encouragement, asking questions, and supporting teacher learning and growth were linked to higher levels of principal trust.

The coupling of instructional supervision and evaluation over the years has had harmful consequences on teacher perceptions of supervision. The literature suggested that labeling the principal as instructional supervisor comes with its own set of imagery in teachers' minds. Studies, such as Ponticell and Zepeda (2004), indicated that when the term, instructional supervisor, was used to refer to the principal's formal authority to evaluate teachers, teachers generally perceived the purpose was evaluation, not supervision. This perception can shape the nature of teacher-principal exchanges as well as trust. If teachers guard social exchanges because the teacher feels all words and exchanges lead to evaluation, not only does trust suffer but also the overall functioning of the school is likely to suffer. However, as data from this study indicate, teacher-principal exchanges that align with elements

of instructional supervision can promote positive perceptions of principal trustworthiness.

Direct instructional assistance to teachers included, but was not limited to, behaviors such as making suggestions, pre- and post- conference feedback, reflective discussion, and collaborative decision-making (Blase & Blase, 1999, 2000; Bryk et al., 1999; Hallinger & Heck, 1996a, 1996b; Leithwood et al., 1999). Other functions and purposes of instructional supervision included development of teachers' self-awareness to improve classroom practice (Goldhammer, 1969), development of professionally responsible teachers who understand self-analysis (Cogan, 1973), promotion of interactive and democratic processes aimed at teacher professional development (Acheson & Gall, 1997), facilitation of teachers' self-direction and reflective capacity, and promotion of decision-making competence (Glickman, 1985; Glickman et al., 2007). Each of these processes functioned to enhance professional autonomy and instructional responsibility; two imperative conditions that undergird effective practice and promote trust (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Instructional supervision is a critical component of schools. As this study suggests, higher levels of perceived direct instructional supervision behaviors of the principal are linked to higher levels of principal trust.

Implications for Practice and Research

Implications for Practice

The focus of this research was on the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust. Use of the facets of trust continues to suggest that trust is a vital component in well-functioning organizations and school communities.

There is demonstrated significance that the empirical measure of instructional supervision developed for this research is also a role that has important implications for principals, teachers, and schools and requires further study. Principals are challenged by the inherent hierarchical structure of schools, rules that hinder as well as help him or her to manage, and preparedness, in some instances. Added to the daily routines, principals must motivate teachers, provide support and leadership on one hand, and on the other, discipline or possibly terminate those teachers who cannot or do not succeed. "Clearly, the principal has a critical role to play in establishing an atmosphere of trust within the school, particularly at the elementary school level" (Forsyth & Mitchell, 2004, p. 30). Standards-based and accountability-oriented school reform efforts necessitate hierarchy and principals must also be innovative enough to build an enabling structure. "…adverse consequences of hierarchy are not inherent in structure itself but rather are due to the decisions of administrators in implementing their authority (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 301). Although strong perceptions and practice of the traditional hierarchical bureaucratic school structure exists in some districts, the top-down approach is drawing to a close in this virtual society. This is not to say that principals cannot manage, discipline, and hold teachers accountable. Oddly enough, accountability requires rubrics, structure, and guidelines. However, caution should be highly considered if principals rely on rigid bureaucratic methods of command and control as the only mechanisms to coordinate teaching and learning (Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

Overall in the schools studied, teachers appreciated the visibility of the principal. Teachers welcomed feedback and felt that the practice of instructional

supervision did provide direct assistance and promote professional growth. What do these principals do right? What training did the principal receive that created a positive, trusting environment? Length of the relationship between the principal and the teacher proved to be insignificant. This is an indication that the quality of repeated exchanges was more important than length of the relationship. The implications for leadership roles and how they are perceived, as well as how they function, in schools is essential for effective principal-teacher engagement and success meeting demands for twenty-first century mandates.

Commitment to professional learning communities includes competent principals who are change management specialists and who can guide the top-down culture in a school towards a facilitative, inspired, and transitionally shared vision. Teacher-principal trust leads to collective engagement of teachers, which results in collaborative, healthy school environments. Teachers in the schools surveyed appreciated the principal's direct assistance behaviors. Based on the literature, this is an indication that principals are making strides to promote reflective practice and teacher professional growth. Creating a learning community environment involves action research processes, such as reflection, teacher-teacher interaction, collective discussion, and practice-based learning. Principals must allow teachers time to be involved. Based on this study, the principal's feedback is instrumental and his or her support builds trust. Without allocated time set aside for teacher interaction and sharing of ideas, trust cannot build or be sustained.

The more pessimistic views assert that not much has changed since the late 1800's and many principals cling to supervision by inspection, oversight, command,

and control (Holland & Garman, 2001). The positive end of the continuum indicates that instructional supervision has transitioned into a "school-based activity, practice, or process that engages teachers in meaningful, non-judgmental, and ongoing instructional dialogue for the purpose of improving teaching and learning" (Glanz, 2000, p. 11). Glickman (1985) recognized the impossibility of one person, the principal, to manage all the responsibilities associated with the position and behave as expected by teachers, parents, and the community. Shared and distributed responsibilities increase trust and provide teachers the opportunity to attain self-efficacy as well as feel empowered (Glickman, 1985). Research continues to find that transactional supervisors do not have the successes of transformational supervisors (Blase & Blase, 2001, 2002a, 2002b). Bureaucracies do not have the successes of enabling structures (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). The measure of instructional supervision supports styles that are more person-centered, relationship oriented, supportive (Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994; Hoy et al., 1992; Tarter, Bliss, & Hoy, 1989; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995), collegial (Hoy et al., 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran, 2001), and transformational (Tschannen-Moran, 2003) are found to be powerful independent predictors of principal trust (Adams, 2008).

Implications for Research

The purpose of this research was to study the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust. To do so, the instructional supervision scale was developed and tested to measure the practice of instructional supervision. Results indicate that a principal's practice of instructional supervision has

consequences for principal trust. This finding has implications for both, the practice of and further research on, instructional supervision. The primary research question guiding the study was: what is the relationship between instructional supervision and principal trust in the context of urban elementary schools? An ex post facto design with cross-sectional data was used to determine whether a relationship existed between teacher perceptions of instructional supervision and principal trust. The hypothesis tested was: The practice of instruction supervision within a school will explain principal trust after accounting for the effects of teacher and school characteristics. The results indicate that instructional supervision is a variable important to building and maintaining trust. This finding is significant considering the literature that has negatively aligned supervision with evaluation. For principals to focus on instructional supervision may require deliberate efforts to be visible during the school day and take opportunities to encourage teacher input on decision-making. The high variability of instructional supervision between schools is indicative of the fact that different principals behave distinctively, but are perceived as trustworthy. Why is this so? The teachers perceived their principals to provide necessary and welcomed direct assistance. The principals were not distracted by the task of performance evaluation.

Research indicates it is imperative for teachers to feel empowered. Empowerment has been linked to self-efficacy, collective efficacy, and job satisfaction. The present study did not address other variables, such as these, that have been found to influence principal trust. Would instructional supervision have an effect on variables such as teacher self- or collective efficacy and job satisfaction?

Another implication is that instructional supervision, as defined in this study, is a deviation from the bureaucratic orientation of command and control. Exactly what the difference in instructional supervision and bureaucratic orientation is and whether or not that has implications for principal trust may provide the outline of a model that could be used for new principals taking on a leadership role.

Principal trust of the teacher is also important to well-functioning schools. This study did not give principals the opportunity to respond to perceptions of teacher trust. Teacher reliability, truthfulness, sincerity, honesty, and overall integrity are reciprocally important to the principal. The principal has to feel that his or her teachers are open and honest. Extending the research to include principal trust of the teacher and examine any effect on trust as well as school outcomes may prove beneficial.

Offering this survey to principals as self-examination may assist some principals to enhance understanding of their role as instructional supervisor. Role obligations are important for well-functioning schools. Insight into one's role reminds the person of the significance and duties associated with his or her responsibilities in the organization. Does the principal understand his or her role obligations? More specifically, can the principal recognize if he or she promotes reflective practice and professional growth?

The primary analytical tool to assist with nested data structures, such as teachers nested in schools, is Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). HLM was used to perform the analyses on the teachers nested within the 56 urban elementary schools. This study's measure of instructional supervision

should be tested across all districts in elementary schools across Oklahoma and even other states. Further use of the survey as is or with some modification in middle and high schools may provide important feedback for principals or others who serve as instructional supervisors. Principal data such as, length of service in the school, years as principal, and demographic information could also be collected to determine any effect on principal trust.

The complexity of schools begs for more empirical studies of instructional supervision and its relationship to factors linked to quality teaching and learning. The teachers surveyed may have qualitative messages they would like to share for each question on the survey. Other positions in schools, such as assistant principals, tenured teachers, and others, who serve as instructional supervisors would benefit by extending this survey to those they supervise. The results of this study were encouraging from the perspective that of the teachers surveyed their perceptions were that instructional supervision was a positive force in their school. On average, teachers who responded to the survey had known their principal three years. An analysis with longer-term teacher-principal relationships or entry-level teachers may produce different results.

Distinct role relationships and hierarchical structures set the framework for risk and vulnerability. The literature continues to point out that organizations implement rules and create structures and other mechanisms "to act as substitutes for interpersonal trust and restore damaged trust" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Hierarchy and power play important roles in organizational trust. School structures are bureaucratic, policy-driven, politically complex entities with highly visible goals.

The fact that principals have more authority than teachers is the most basic premise in school structures. The principal in his or her role as instructional supervisor can be perceived as uncaring, rule-driven, evaluative, and untrustworthy; however, the teachers in this study supported the role the principal plays. This is an indication that principals retained their authoritarian role while respecting and working cooperatively with teachers. The rules that drive all schools did not impede relationships. Why is this so? Is this unique to this population? Effective schools' research benefits from understanding how principals manage the delegated role of supervisor.

Principal trust building largely depends on a principal's ability to create a healthy environment. How the principal manages and communicates goals and expectations either creates barriers or reduces vulnerability. The literature suggested that power symmetry was a necessary goal for effective schools (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Kochanek, 2005). This theory holds true for the present study. Although no direct measure of power symmetry was introduced, research indicates that any imbalance of power is quickly demonstrated by distrust of those less empowered (Blase & Blase, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Summary

The results of this study support prior research, which examines behaviors and conditions that affect interpersonal trust (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975; McAllister, 1995). The contribution of this research was to utilize the empirically tested facets of trust relative to instructional supervision to gain a better understanding of the evolving concept of principal trust and any influence instructional supervision may have. By framing the survey candidly as an

examination of instructional supervision and allowing teachers to respond based on individual perceptions provided a glimpse into this district's teacher-principal interactions. This study would also have benefited from a larger teacher response rate. Perhaps sending the survey earlier in the year would also prove important. This study, similar to other empirical studies, narrowly focused on the facets of instructional supervision. Schools are dynamic, multifarious, heterogeneous organizations, and this thin instructional supervision conceptualization based on direct assistance needs expansive study considering its significance.

Schools are multifaceted entities that must address issues of transience, multiculturalism, and shifting populations while attempting to meet the demands of producing graduates who can compete globally (Tschannen-Moran, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Faced with mounting pressure to improve urban schools, results from this study suggested that instructional supervision was one of many responsibilities that should not be neglected by school leaders. Improving teacher effectiveness in schools will not result from external policies but instead internal processes like instructional supervision that enhance social and human capacity. Greater trust between principals and teachers has consequences for successful school reform, school improvement, student achievement, and school effectiveness (Forsyth, 2008). This study provided a modicum of evidence that suggested instructional supervision is one mechanism that builds principal trust and requires a more thorough investigation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION SURVEY

Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (6) that the following supervisory practices occur during formal observations or conferences as well as informally in daily interactions with your principal.

1. The principal listens to teachers' instructional problems.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

2. The principal conducts post-observation conferences.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

3. The principal gives teachers choices in addressing instructional issues during post-observation conferences.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

4. The principal encourages creativity in teaching.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

5. The principal offers professional literature as a resource for instructional improvement.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

6. The principal provides helpful feedback in a non-evaluative manner.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

7. The principal provides helpful feedback after instructional observations.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

8. *The principal provides feedback only when I sign my annual evaluation.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
   Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

9. The principal provides praise that is focused on concrete teacher behaviors.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|

Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

10. The principal visits classrooms on a regular basis.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

11. The principal empowers teachers to identify instructional concerns.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**
12. Other, please specify.

* Item Number 8 was omitted as a result of the factor analysis.

APPENDIX B

PRINCIPAL TRUST SURVEY

The following are statements about your principal. Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (6) that the following behaviors occur during formal observations or conferences as well as informally in daily interactions with your principal.

12. Teachers in this school trust the principal.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
13. The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the principal's actions.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
14. The teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
15. The principal in this school typically acts in the best interests of teachers.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
16. The principal of this school does not show concern for the teachers.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
17. Teachers in this school can rely on the principal.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
18. The principal in this school is competent in doing his or her job.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6---------
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
19. The principal doesn't tell teachers what is really going on.
|----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------|
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

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APPENDIX C

ENABLING SCHOOL STRUCTURE SURVEY

The following statements are descriptions of the way your school is structured. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes behavior in your school.

Never Once in a While Sometimes Fairly Often Always
1 2 3 4 5

Record your response by circling the appropriate number beside the statement.

1. Administrative rules in this school enable authentic communication between teachers and administrators.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
2. In this school red tape is problem.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
3. The administrative hierarchy of this school enables teachers to do their job.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
4. *The administrative hierarchy obstructs student achievement.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
5. Administrative rules help rather than hinder.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
6. The administrative hierarchy of this school facilitates the mission of this school.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
7. Administrative rules in this school are used to punish teachers.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
8. The administrative hierarchy of this school obstructs innovation.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
9. Administrative rules in this school are substitutes for professional judgment.
   |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
   Never Always
10. *Administrative rules in this school are guides to solutions rather than rigid procedures.
    |----------1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------|
    Never Always
11. *In this school the authority of the principal is used to undermine teachers.

|----------**1**----------**2**----------**3**----------**4**----------**5**----------|

Never **Always**

12. The administrators in this school use their authority to enable teachers to do their job.

|----------**1**----------**2**----------**3**----------**4**----------**5**----------|

Never **Always**

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* For purposes of this study, items number 4. The administrative hierarchy obstructs student achievement; number 10. Administrative rules in this school are guides to solutions rather than rigid procedures, and number 11. In this school the authority of the principal is used to undermine teachers, were omitted.

APPENDIX D

MEMO TO TEACHERS

This message is intended for all OKCPS <u>Elementary</u> Teachers:

Oklahoma City public schools has approved an outside research study by Ms. Robbie Wahnee titled, "**The Effect of Instructional Supervision on Principal Trust**".

Her research involves answering a short on-line survey. If you are an ELEMENTARY teacher and would like to participate, clicking on the link below will take you to the survey:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=ruzXO10vtXLzAF0LErY3Tg_3d_3d

OKCPS Elementary teachers who participate will be entered into a drawing. First prize will be 2 OU-OSU home-game football tickets and second prize will be a $25 gift certificate to Target.

Participation is entirely voluntary. This email is being sent via the district server simply as a courtesy to the researcher. If you have any questions about the research, please contact Ms. Wahnee at rwahnee@ou.edu.

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(405) 297-6776

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT FOR INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION STUDY

Instructional Supervision Survey
Informed Consent for Instructional Supervision Study

Dear Teacher:

My name is Robbie Wahnee, and I am a doctoral student in the Jeannine Rainbolt College of Education, Educational and Leadership Studies at the University of the Oklahoma.

I am requesting that you volunteer to participate in a research study titled The Effects of Instructional Supervision on Principal Trust. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a teacher. Please read this information sheet and contact me to ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to take part in this study.

The purpose of this study is to examine the consequences of principal-teacher interactions within the context of instructional supervision. Teacher perceptions of the principals' behaviors in social exchanges and the principal's role as instructional supervisor will be measured.

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following things: Using your own personal computer, you will use Survey Monkey and complete an online survey addressing principal trust, principal supervision, and enabling school structure that will take no more than 30 minutes of your time.

This research poses no risk to you. Responses are completely confidential and not identifiable. No personal data is gathered. Data are reported in aggregate form. The benefits to participation are: none. There is an opportunity for participants to be selected for 2 OU football tickets and/or 1 $25 gift card upon completing the study.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not result in penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private and your supervisor nor the school will not have access to your responses. In published reports, there will be no information included that will make it possible to identify you as a research participant. Research records will be stored securely. The data is maintained on Survey Monkey, a reliable and validated survey service which allows your information to remain de-identified (email addresses). Incentive data is separate from

the statistical data per Survey Monkey resource. Only approved researchers will have access to the records.

If you have concerns or complaints about the research, the researcher(s) conducting this study can be contacted at Robbie Wahnee at 405-325-5594, or email at rwahnee@ou.edu. You may also contact Dr. Curt Adams at, 918-660-3891 or email at cadams@ou.edu. Questions about rights as a research participant or concerns about the study should be directed to:

Institutional Review Board
The University of Oklahoma-
Norman Campus at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

In the event of a research-related injury, contact the researcher(s). You are encouraged to contact the researcher(s) if you have any questions. If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than the individuals on the research team, or if you cannot reach the research team, you may contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB) at (405) 325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

Please print or keep this information sheet for your records. By completing and submitting, I am agreeing to participate in this study.
Statement of Consent

I have read the above information. I understand I may ask questions and feel that I have received satisfactory answers. By exiting the survey, I have chosen not to participate and understand there is no record of my accessing the survey.

I consent to participate in the study by clicking the “Next” button to continue on to the online survey.

The University of Oklahoma is an equal opportunity institution

APPENDIX F

INFORMATION SHEET FOR CONSENT
TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

My name is Robbie Wahnee, and I am a doctoral student in the Jeannine Rainbolt College of Education, Educational and Leadership Studies at the University of the Oklahoma. I am requesting that you volunteer to participate in a research study titled The Effects of Instructional Supervision on Principal Trust. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a teacher. Please read this information sheet and contact me to ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to take part in this study.

Purpose of the Research Study: The purpose of this study is to study the consequences of principal-teacher interactions within the context of instructional supervision. Teacher perceptions of the principals' behaviors in social exchanges and the principal's role as instructional supervisor will be measured.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following things: Using your own personal computer, you will complete an online survey addressing principal trust, principal supervision, and enabling school structure using Survey Monkey that will take no more than 30 minutes of your time.
Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study: The study has the following risks This research poses no risk to you. Responses are completely confidential and not identifiable. No personal data is gathered. Data are reported in aggregate form. The benefits to participation are: none. **Compensation:** There is an opportunity for participants to be selected for 2 OU football tickets and/or 1 $25 gift card upon completing the study.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not result in penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Length of Participation: The survey will take no more than 30 minutes of your time. Participation is completely voluntary. If you withdraw or decline participation, you will not be penalized or lose benefits or services unrelated to the study. If you decide to participate, you may decline to answer any question and may choose to withdraw at any time.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private and your supervisor will not have access to your responses. In published reports, there will be no information included that will make it possible to identify you as a research

participant. Research records will be stored securely. The data is maintained on Survey Monkey, a reliable and validated survey service which allows your information to remain de-identified (email addresses). Incentive data is separate from the statistical data per Survey Monkey resource. Only approved researchers will have access to the records.

Contacts and Questions: If you have concerns or complaints about the research, the researcher(s) conducting this study can be contacted at Robbie Wahnee at 405-325-5594, or email at rwahnee@ou.edu. You may also contact Dr. Curt Adams at, 918-660-3891 or email at cadams@ou.edu. Questions about rights as a research participant or concerns about the study should be directed to:
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Norman Campus at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

In the event of a research-related injury, contact the researcher(s). You are encouraged to contact the researcher(s) if you have any questions. If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than the individuals on the research team, or if you cannot reach the research team, you may contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB) at (405) 325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

Please keep this information sheet for your records. By completing and submitting, I am agreeing to participate in this study.

The University of Oklahoma is an equal opportunity institution.

APPENDIX G

OKLAHOMA CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS APPROVAL TO DO RESEARCH

Oklahoma City Public Schools
Planning Research and Evaluation Department
413 NW 12th Street, Oklahoma City, OK 73103
Phone: (405) 297-6776 Fax: (405) 297-6723

Richard Weeter, Ph.D. email: rdweeter@okcps.org

Friday, May 22, 2009

Ms. Robbie Wahnee
University of Oklahoma
905 Asp Avenue NEL 258
Norman, Oklahoma 73019

Dear Ms. Wahnee:

I am pleased to be able to inform you that your application to conduct your research project, **"The Effects of Instructional Supervision on Teacher-Principal Trust"** has been has been reviewed and approved. On the basis of this district level approval, you have permission to contact Elementary level teachers and ask them to participate.

All data collected must follow the general guidelines, conditions, and timelines described in your proposal and be conducted under conditions of informed consent. Should you determine that you require any substantive changes in these procedures, please contact me.

I will be glad to forward your invitation to participate to all Oklahoma City Public School Elementary teachers through the district email server so they will know it has been approved by the district. Good luck in collecting your data!

Sincerely,

Richard Weeter

Richard Weeter, Ph.D.

APPENDIX H

IRB APPROVAL

The University of Oklahoma

OFFICE FOR HUMAN RESEARCH PARTICIPANT PROTECTION

IRB Number: 12560
Category: 2
Approval Date: May 28, 2009

May 28, 2009

Robbie Wahnee
Educational Leadership and Policy Studies
905 Asp Avenue, NEL 258
Norman, OK 73019

Dear Ms. Wahnee:

RE: Effect of Instructional Supervision on Principal Trust

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), I have reviewed the above-referenced research project and determined that it meets the criteria in 45 CFR 46, as amended, for exemption from IRB review. You may proceed with the research as proposed. Please note that any changes in the protocol will need to be submitted to the IRB for review as changes could affect this determination of exempt status. Also note that you should notify the IRB office when this project is completed, so we can remove it from our files.

If you have any questions or need additional information, please do not hesitate to call the IRB office at (405) 325-8110 or send an email to irb@ou.edu.

Cordially,

Lynn Devenport, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Review Board

Ltr_Prot_Fappv_X

660 Parrington Oval, Suite 316, Norman, Oklahoma 73019-3085 PHONE: (405) 325-8110 FAX:(405) 325-2373