JIMMA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIOURAL SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT STUDIES

Status and Challenges of Trust between Principals and Teachers in Government Secondary Schools of Mojo City Administration
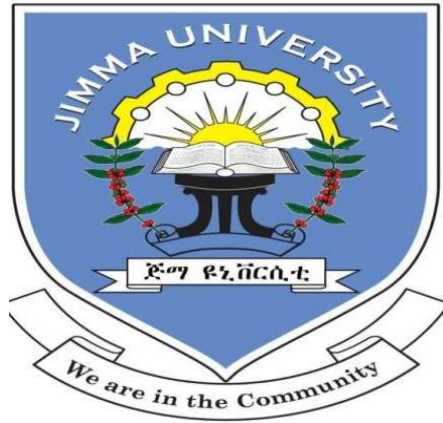
By: Mekonnen Negash

Advisor: Mebratu Tafesse (PhD)

November, 2020

Jimma, Ethiopia

Status and Challenges of Trust between Principals and Teachers in Government Secondary Schools of Mojo City Administration

A Thesis Submitted to The Department of Educational Planning and Management, College cf Education and Behavioral Sciences, Jimma University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of arts Degree in Educational Leadership

By: Mekonnen Negash

Advisor: Mebratu Tafesse (PhD)

November, 2020

Jimma, Ethiopia

LETTER OF APPROVAL

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Mekonnen Negash Shawul entitled "Status and Challenges of Trust between Principals and Teachers in Government Secondary Schools of Mojo City Administration'' and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Educational Leadership and Management, complies with the regulation of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS:

_____   _____   _____

  Department Head Name   Signature   Date

_____   _____   _____

        Advisor Name   Signature   Date

_____   _____   _____

Internal Examiner Name   Signature   Date

_____   _____   _____

External Examiner Name   Signature   Date

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis entitled, "Status and Challenges of Trust between Principals and Teachers in Government Secondary Schools of Mojo City Administration is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all source or materials used for the thesis have been dully acknowledged.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as university advisor.

Advisor

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Co-advisor

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Acknowledgements

First I would like to express my deepest gratitude from the core of my heart to God, who has given me the strength to carry on in my hard times and for his invaluable gift being with me throughout in my study as the research comes to end with his will. I feel the deepest sense of gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Mebratu Tafesse for his professional guidance and valuable advice without which I could not have completed my thesis. His consideration and encouragement have inspired me to put my best efforts in the study. I would like to extend my genuine thanks to my best friend Sentayewu Abbu for his genuine support, dead sure, without that the study would not have been realized. Moreover, I would also like to extend my deep gratitude to all my Respondents who gave responses for questionnaire and shown the commitment in giving authentic information. I would also like to express my appreciations for Mojo City Administration Education office and selected School principals, department heads, and teachers I have met during my study and those who gave me appreciable and accurate information during interviews. Last but not least, my special thanks go to my much loved wife W/o Meskerem Hailu whose support was so great.

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

CIA   Community Impact Assessment

CL   Collegial Leadership

FTC   Faculty Trust in Colleagues

FTP   Faculty Trust in the Principal

FTS   Faculty Trust Scale

PrTS   Principal Trust Scale

PrTT   Principal Trust in Teachers

UNDP   United Nations Development Program

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the status and challenges of trust between principals and teachers focusing on government secondary schools of Mojo city administration. The study has objectives such as, determining the status of trust between principals and teachers, illustrating the major barriers that hinder trust between principals and teachers, and assessing the role of school leaders and teacher behavior on teaching and school effectiveness. Methodologically, the research followed a descriptive design. Data were collected by means of standardized questionnaires; such as, The Omnibus T-Scale (The leaders Trust Scale and the Faculty Trust Scale. Accordingly, trust in schools was measured as the trust perceptions' of leaders and teachers. Surveys were used to collect the perceptions of leaders group and teachers from a purposive sample of two (2) secondary schools in Mojo city administration. A total of twenty nine (29) leaders (100%) and 33 teachers out of 110 (30%) were participants in the study. All data were aggregated to the school level using the means of completed survey items. The major findings of the study indicated that the level of trust between principals and teachers was low. However, the overall mean score for principals' trust on teachers is relatively better than the trust of colleagues each other and teachers trust on principals. Collegial leadership as measured by principals' friendly approach, putting suggestions of faculty into operation, exploring all sides of topics, treatment of all faculty members equal, willingness to make changes, letting faculty know what is expected of them and maintaining definite standards of performance is found to be at low performance showing a challenge to trust. Similarly, teachers' professionalism was found to be a factor hindering trust. Consequently, the teaching and learning process in the schools where the study has been taken was not effective. As to the role of teachers and leaders behavior on school and teachers effectiveness perceived by respondents, leaders are weak in meeting job related needs, representing teachers, meeting organizational requirements and leading a group that is effective. This affects school and teachers effectiveness. The study recommended that leaders need to spend time listening to their teachers, encouraging them provide feedback; such as, allowing teachers to evaluate the leaders, having group meetings with faculty where teachers and leaders discuss and usage of school communities are desirable to develop strong social support among teachers.

KEY WORDS: *Trust, Interpersonal trust, principal-teacher relationship*

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter dealt with the problem of the study. It consisted of background of the problem, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitations of the study, definition of key terms and organization of the study.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Trusting relationship between principals and teachers in this context refers to the extent to which school principals are able to establish a climate of mutual trust and respect which in the end will enable all members of the learning community to seek and attain excellence in the school. Principals-teachers trusting relationship go beyond reliance of teachers on principals or involvement and assistance of each other. It also encompasses collegial leadership and teacher professionalism. In other words, trusting relationship between principal-teacher refers to the trust built into relationships that is based on many factors such as respect, personal regard, competence, and personal integrity. Trusting relationship between principal and teachers does not directly affect student learning, but higher levels of principal-teacher trust support the conditions in which student learning and outcomes improve

According to Bryk and Schneider (2004), schools with higher levels of principals-teachers trust are more likely to implement changes that contribute to improved student achievement. Trust research started in the mid 1950s by Deutsch; (Maele and Houtte, 2009) in the United States. Since then, organizational trust concepts were investigated in different dimensions such as (1) Multi-level: Result of interaction among colleagues, individuals, teams and organizations; (2) Culture-Rooted:Connected with organization's own beliefs, values and norms; (3) Based on communication: Result of communication behavior like true information and decisions for making it clear; (4) Dynamic: Trust changes constantly in its forming process; and (5) Multi-dimensioned: Individual's perceptions are affected and formed by intellectual, emotional and behavioral factors (Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis & Winogard, 2000 cited in Tüzün Kalemci, 2007).

It must be noted; therefore, that most of trust research in educational institutions have traditionally come from USA, UK, and some continental European countries, in particular, the Turkey Republic. Much is yet to be examined on how the relationship between school principal and teachers and among teachers affects teachers'class activities.

There was a very diverse of surveys undertaken by governmental and non-governmental organizations in order to measure levels of trust in developing and developed countries. As an illustration, BBC and Gallup International as cited in (Blind, Peri K. 2007), have conducted surveys and confirmed the decline in trust in developing and developed countries. These surveys have found that in Africa the level of trust people have in government leaders was 61%. According to these studies, trust level in the institutions of the European Union seems to be higher than in Africa (73% versus 61%) respectively.

The literature on principal stresses that trust plays a vital role in binding agent in organizations. Shea (1984) proclaims, Trust is the miracle ingredient in organizational life a lubricant that reduces friction, a bonding agent that glues together disparate parts, a catalyst that facilitates action. No substitute, neither threat nor promise, will do the job as well. For this reason, we could see that cultivating a climate of trust has several benefits and appears to be foundational in realizing organizational effectiveness.

Ethiopia as a nation, strives to experience real growth and development in education. This requires a creation of enabling conditions at an individual level and an organizational level. Individual conditions that are important to fostering principal-teacher trusting relationships include respect, personal regard, competence in core role responsibilities, and personal integrity. On the other hand, organizational factors that foster principal-teacher trusting relationships include principal leadership, small school size, stable school communities, and voluntary association. Principal leadership is important for establishing both respect and personal regard through acknowledgement of personal and others vulnerabilities and modelling active listening. The consequences of distrust have also been noted in the literature.

In developing countries, there are several reasons behind for people not to trust individuals or governments. One example of this is that, people trust more governments that can bring about economic growth, create jobs, provide access to education, and deliver services in an easy and transparent manner. Accordingly, Leigh (2006) writes that higher levels of trust are associated with wealthier areas. In contrast, lower degrees of trust go hand in hand with poorer areas such as developing countries. For this reason, well formulated educational plans by the developing countries 'governments to provide better and more relevant education for students seem to be easily failed. The effects of these factors; therefore, in providing education need to be identified first. Otherwise, the implementation of the plans and policies will remain superficial and may not ultimately contribute to reach the national objectives.

Simmel (1978) writes that very few relationships are based entirely upon what is known with certainly about another person, and very few relationships would endure if trust were not as strong, or stronger than, rational proof or personal observation. Thus, the educational leaders need to give attention on how to create a sense of community and connection among educators or increase the level of trust that has already available in their schools in order to better run a school system.

In conclusion, it is helpful to identify common roadblocks to trust building and formulate specific steps that educators can take to increase the level of trust in the schools. This would provide an insight into the basic nature of the problems that exist in the government secondary schools of Mojo city administration.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Studies of trust related to professionals in schools, strongly support the fact that when principals and teachers build trust with each other, they can improve their productivity, operation, communication, decision making and student achievement. Moreover, when principals and teachers engage in trusting relationships, they can develop a common vision for school reform and work together to implement necessary changes in the schools (Bryk and Schneider, 2002; Goddard et al., 2001; and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2000). In line with this, McKnight and Kretzmann (1993) also observe that an intersecting set of relationships

among adults (Parents, Teachers, and Service providers) can provide a holistic environment in which children are raised with unified set of expectations and behaviors.

Principal-teacher relationships vary greatly among schools and even among teachers at the same school. Studies have found that trusting relationship between principals and teachers increases teachers' sense of vulnerability, facilitates public problem solving skill, supports the highly efficient system of social control, and sustains an ethical imperative among the school communities. In addition, it makes students feel safe, sense that teachers care about them, and experience greater academic challenges.

Interpersonal relationships built between individuals across these institutions can provide the glue for innovative collaborations on the institutional level. These partnerships strengthen relationships among people in the entire community. In short, building the collective capacity for school to thrive in this way has a direct impact on students' achievement. Contrary to the above view, currently a problem has been opened between principals and teachers in government secondary schools of Mojo city administration. Teachers-Teachers and principals-teachers regarded each other with a great deal of distrust. Each had developed a sharp eye for the weaknesses of the other. The schools rules, regulations, policies, procedures, and processes were often appeared to be complex and cumbersome to them. Principals and teachers put in enough effort with leaders of the city education office and core process owners to avoid problems but later they did not contribute to their talent, creativity, energy, or passion.

This distrust was, of course, a two way street. Firstly, principals when they wanted teachers to cooperate with them, they used to coerce them with threats of punishment. Principals were likely to coerce, control, direct, or threaten teachers with punishment to get them put forth adequate effort to achieve organizational/school objectives. However, their attempts at threatening professionals from the top had been stuck in real operations. Baier (1986) described trust as a, mortar that binds leaders to followers.Secondly was the teachers-teachers interaction that also confounded the trusting relationships among themselves. Teachers had often regarded their co-workers (colleagues) as the ones who committed frauds.

4

This situation; in which all political institutions, other government institutions, and the professionals in schools do not make wise professional decisions, do not use time effectively, do not collaborate with others, and see each other as strangers to be feared could lead to the kinds of government institutions and schools violence that would cause so much damage. , increases of workplace stress, increases of organizational costs of employment and training, doing worse economically, and hindering communication and collaboration between organizations. What would be a heaven of safety for young people had already become a frightening and harmful environment. Hence, building trusting relationships between educators; that is, whether between teachers to teachers or administrators to teachers is essential.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the statement of the problem, the study was expected to give answers to the following basic questions:

1. What is the status of trust between principals and teachers in government secondary schools of Mojo city administration?
2. What are the major barriers that hinder trust between principals and teachers in government secondary schools of Mojo city administration?
3. What roles does the behavior of the principals and teachers contribute to teaching and school effectiveness?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 General Objectives

The general objective of this study is to assess the status and challenges of trust between principals and teachers in government secondary schools of Mojo city administration.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

In order to address the general objective, the following specific objectives were drawn:

a. To identify the current status of trust between principals and teachers in government secondary schools of Mojo city administration
b. To identify the major barriers that hinder trust between principals and teachers

c. To assess the role of leader and teacher behaviors' on teaching and school effectiveness

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study was significant to the field of education in that it allowed leaders and teachers to understand what trust is as it relates to school culture. Besides that, the result of this study would provide leaders and teachers a better understanding of what behaviors must the school leaders possess that would create trust between leaders and teachers as well as among teachers. Moreover, the study would provide leaders and teachers a better understanding of what behaviors must the faculty possess that would create trust with the school administrators. This study would also allow leaders and teachers to understand what is needed in order to develop a mutual trust between leaders and teachers. This is because; in the very beginning, teachers need to be able to trust that the leaders would support them in their work, and leaders need to be able to trust teachers to teach. Furthermore, this study would contribute to the available body of knowledge relating leaders-teacher and teacher-teacher trusting relationship.

In addition to the significance of the study to educational field in general, the study was also important to the school system where the study was performed. The study could lead to improvements in the leader-teacher and teacher-teacher trusting relationship which later raise the level of mutual cooperation and makes social interactions possible. With the demands on this growing trusting relationship in the school systems, where the outcomes professionals seek could not be accomplished without the involvement and assistance of other, this sort of study could be very beneficial.

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Conceptually, the study is delimited to the analysis of trust between school leaders and teachers. Specifically, it studies status of trust, barriers affecting trust and teaching/school effectiveness as a result of the trust relationship. Geographically, the study focused on Mojo City administration of two secondary schools out of the existing four schools.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of this study were two in number. First, there was a possibility of low-level responses from the respondents. The length of the surveys could lead some teachers to quickly and thoughtlessly answer questions to complete the survey. Second, respondents could answer more or less survey questionnaires positively due to the knowledge that the data they gave were used in the study. Some respondents (principals or teachers), might have answered more positively due to believing their principal or their school or their relationship with each other (teacher-to-teacher) or their relationship with principal (principal-to-teacher) was being judged; some might have answered less positively for the same reason.

1.8 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

- **Trust**: the extent to which one perceives one's willingness to be vulnerable to another based on confidence that the other is benevolent, honest, open, reliable and competent.
- **Principal-teacher relationship:** an arrangement in which one entity legally appoints another to act on its behalf. In a principal-teacher relationship, the teacher acts on behalf of the principal and should not have a conflict of interest in carrying out the act.
- **Interpersonal trust**: an individual's belief in, and willingness to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another.

1.9 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The thesis was organized into five chapters. Chapter one provided the readers with background of the problem, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitations of the study, operational definition of key terms and organization of the study. Chapter two, which was the literature review, covered definition of leadership, the concept of trust, foundation of trust, components of trust, levels of trust, approaches to organizational trust, principal as builder of trust, building trust between principals and teachers, building trust among teachers, and obstacles to building and maintaining trust. Chapter three focused on the research methodology that a researcher used to resolve the problem that he had already identified. Chapter four provided the result of the survey that a researcher conducted with an analysis comprising of different graphs and tables. Chapter five presented the summery, the conclusions, and the recommendations for the research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Chapter two of this study explored several types of works that had been done in the topic before. It started by discussing the concept of leadership in general. Then, it briefly discussed the concept of trust. After that, it explained the key components of trust: benevolence, competence, honesty, openness and reliability. Next, basic levels of trust and forms of trust were revised. Having discussing the relational and reciprocal of trust in a brief manner, approaches that quantify and measure the relational trust between teachers-teachers and principals-teachers in school were displayed. To make it very interesting, the school principal as builder of trust was later on verified. Consequently, building trust between principals and teachers and among teachers was explored. Finally, a brief discussion on obstacles to building and maintaining trust between and among school educators was analyzed.

2.1 CONCEPT OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

Leadership, a highly valued phenomenon in human society, has been defined in a variety of ways (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004; DuBrin, 1995; Cuban, 1988). It has been described in terms of traits, behaviors, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupations of an administrative position (Yukl, 2002). An early definition of leadership by Tannenbuam and Massarik (1957) captured the essence of all its subsequent explanations; they described it as interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed through the communicative process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals. The authors further noted that leadership involves attempts on the part of a leader to affect the behavior of a follower or followers in a situation.

Several definitions of leadership have been specifically related to the field of education. For example, in School Leadership: Concepts and Evidence, citing others, Bush and Glover (2003) placed educational leadership in four domains. They first noted that leadership entails a process of influence where leaders exert intentional authority over the people or

8

organization under their direction (Yulk, 2002). Secondly, they saw leadership as grounded in firm personal and professional values. In relation to school, those core values should (a) be concerned that all members of the school community are learners, (b) be to serve students and the school community, (c) value every member of the school, and (d) focus holistically on persons in the school community (Wasserberg, 1999). Citing Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989), Bush and Glover (2003) noted that leaders have a vision that is institutionalized and communicated meaningfully. The fourth way in which they defined leadership was through management (Bush & Glover, 2003). Similarly, Cuban (1998) defined effective leadership as efficiently running schools'organizational arrangements.

Burns (1978) defined leadership as the ability to motivate followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations they want and needs, the aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers. From a social perspective, Bryk and Schneider (2000) defined good leaders as persons who are competent in their field, have integrity, as well as have respect and regard for their constituents. Also looking at leadership socially, Lipham and Hoeh (1974) defined it as, behavior of an individual which initiates a change in the goals, objectives, configurations, procedures, inputs, processes, and ultimately the outputs of social systems.

Moreover, Blum, Butler, and Olsen (1987) posited that effective school leaders, monitor school performance, communicate with staff, create safe environments, have a clear vision, and know quality instruction. Similarly, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) identified quality school leaders as those who frame and communicate goals, evaluate instruction, coordinate curriculum, monitor progress, protect instructional time, maintain high visibility, provide incentives for teachers, select and participate in professional development, as well as establish explicit instructional goals.

2.2 DEFINITIONS OF TRUST

Although humans know intuitively what it means to trust, the act of articulating an exact definition is not simple (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Gambetta (2000) noted that scholars mention trust in passing as a major ingredient of social interaction, but those same

scholars tend to move past trust to deal with matters more easily definable. Indeed, Mayer et al. (1995) say clarity is lacking in most definitions of trust. While definitions may be difficult, defining trust is imperative. Rotter (1967) identified trust as a necessary ingredient to human learning.Trust is complex and multifaceted (J. Jones, 2007). Because of this complexity and the need to establish common ground, it is important to find a general definition and an agreement on the constructs of trust. Trust is an emotionally charged topic meaning different things in different situations (Reina & Reina, 2006). Making the definition more concrete is one of the necessary challenges of such an elusive concept. Trust relationships are based upon interdependence (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), which is amutual respect and need for another person. This mutual reliance is only possible if there are no negative outstanding underpinnings existing in the relationship, thus paving the way for risk taking. Feltman (2009) defines trust as choosing to risk making something you value vulnerable to another person's actions. When one individual trusts another person, what the individual makes vulnerable could be something tangible such as money or a goal, but it could be less tangible such as a belief or even the individual's well-being. Allowing vulnerability is the true key to trust. Trust is rooted in the ongoing and day-to day social interactions among teachers and principals and is not defined by a one-time event or occurrence. Trust must be built, maintained, and preserved, which takes extensive work and a willingness by both parties. Turner (2010) said trust is an individual's assurance in another intention and motives as well as the belief in the authenticity of communication through another words.

2.3 KEY COMPONENTS OF TRUST

2.3.1 BENEVOLENCE

Benevolence is defined as confidence that one's well-being will be protected by the trusted party (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). If someone is benevolent, their actions will be in the best interest of others, will be protective of other's interests and will indicate care not only for the current situation, but also care about the relationship. Having confidence in the benevolence of another means believing that the thing one cares about will be protected and not harmed. In school, for example, parents who trust educators to care for their children are confident that teachers will be consistently fair, compassionate, and benevolent. Likewise,teachers who trust students and parents believe that neither will undermine the

teaching-learning process nor do them harm. Benevolence often is associated with a person's reputation and can be negatively impacted by a single harmful act, since word of such acts seems to travel faster than those of positive ones (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

2.3.2 COMPETENCE

Competence is defined as the ability to perform a task as expected, according to appropriate standards (Tschannen-Moran, 2004) and is an essential facet of trust and trustworthiness (Butler & Canterll, 1984; Solomon & Flores, 2001).When someone is dependent on another and some skill is involved in fulfilling an expectation, an individual who means well may nonetheless not be trusted (Baier, 1994; Mishra, 1996). For instance in schools, parents depend upon the principal's competence to accomplish teaching and the learning goals of the school. If the principal lacks knowledge that will enable him to function and carry his duties as the principal in the school, or cannot adequately communicate with the teachers, students and the community on his plans for the school, the community may lose trust in the principal (Tschannen-Moran, 2004)

2.3.3 HONESTY

Honesty is also a critical component of trust. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) defined it as the character, integrity, and authenticity of the trusted party. Here, again, a person's reputation can play a key role, since beliefs about a person's character; integrity and authenticity are often based on prior acts. To believe that someone is honest, one believes that the person will be truthful and can be relied upon to keep his or her promises. Honesty also encompasses the belief that another person has integrity, meaning that a person's purported beliefs and values match his or her actions. This implies that a consistency between words and actions is the heart of truthfulness and integrity. Do they walk the talk and talk the walk (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

2.3.4 OPENNESS

Openness is defined as the extent to which there is no withholding of information from others (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). When information is shared openly, it is because one party believes the other will not use it in a harmful way and demonstrates one party's trust in another, thus breeding reciprocal trust. Likewise, the act of withholding information

11

communicates a lack of trust in others and often breeds distrust and promotes miscommunication. Particularly in schools, the open sharing of influence and control is a key to building trust relationships, as the more a person is trusted with power and authority, the more they feel trusted and respected (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). According to Weick and Sutcliffe (2005), productive organizations have cultures of openness in which mistakes are freely admitted and addressed rather than hidden and ignored (Weick and Sutcliffe, 2001).

2.3.5 RELIABILITY

Reliability, as defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) is the extent to which one can count on another person or group and means that one can be consistently counted on to do the right thing. Predictability and reliability is not the same thing, for predictability can be either positive or negative, while reliability implies that the person delivers as expected repeatedly. Trusting that someone will be reliable means that, one is confident that the other can be relied upon to come through each and every time. So, reliability is confidence that others will consistently act in ways that are beneficial to the trustee (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

2.4 LEVELS OF TRUST

Not all relationships are constructed at the same levels. Hence, based on the context of the given relationship professional, personal, family, social each one can experience a deterrence-based trust / calculus-based trust, or knowledge-based trust, or identification based trust. These three levels of trust are assumed to be organized in a hierarchical manner.

According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998), deterrence-based trust is the trust that is assumed when two or more people enter a relationship at the very beginning. It is the most fundamental and base level of trust in all relationships. Trusting in deterrence means that there are rules in place that prevent one person from taking advantage of or harming another person. In society, people have laws that govern their behavior in personal and business settings. When they engage in business, they have contracts that ensure one party can trust another to hold up their end of the bargain. In organizations such as schools, we have policies and procedures that provide boundaries for how professionals interact, treat each other, and if they violate those rules, usually there will be consequences involved.

A second level of trust according to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) is knowledge based trust. This level of trust relies on information and ability to predict the other'sbehavior. In other words, trust at knowledge-based means that I have had enough experience with you and knowledge of your behavior that I have a pretty good idea of how you will react and behave in relationship with me. We have had enough interactions over time where there has been a consistent display of trustworthy behavior that I believe I can trust you with the everyday type issues we experience together. This is the level of trust that most of our day-to-day professional relationships experience. People usually come to this level of trust assuming that nothing has occurred to hamper the deterrence based trust, because they feel safe in the relationship.

The third and most intimate level of trust we experience in relationships according to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) is called identity-based trust. This level of trust means that the tractor fully internalizes the preferences of the other party (trustee), and identify with him/her on that ground. In other words, this level of trust means that you know my hopes, dreams, goals, ambitions, fears and doubts. Therefore, I trust you at this level because over the course of time, I have increased my level of transparency and vulnerability with you and you have not taken advantage of me. Here, you have proven yourself to be loyal, understanding, and accepting.

Identity-based trust is not appropriate for every relationship. This level of trust is usually reserved for the most important people in our lives such as our spouse, children, family and close friends. Yet, with the proper boundaries in place, this level of trust can unlock higher levels of productivity, creativity, and performance in organizations.

In line to the above view, and more specifically, trust is also expressed at three levels within an organization: individual level trust, group/team level trust and organizational level trust. At the individual level, trust is based on interpersonal interaction (Atkinson & Butcher, 2003). Trust can be defined 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 trustier, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. Different definitions

and models of trust focus on features such as integrity, competence, openness, vulnerability, reliability and positive expectations (Appelbaum et al., 2004; Bhattacharya et al., 1998; Kramer, 1999; Rousseau et al., 1998; Jones & George, 1998; Huemer, 1998). These features refer to trust as a positive expectation, that another person will not through words, actions, or decisions act opportunistically. At the group / team level, trust is a collective phenomenon. Teams represent collective values and identities (Shamir & Lapidot, 2003).

Interactional histories give information that is useful in assessing dispositions, intentions and motives of others. Individuals' judgements about others 'trustworthiness are anchored, at least in part, on their priori System / Organizational Level Trust Individual Level Trust Group / Team Level Trust experiences about the others behavior (Kramer, 1999). As values are commonly believed to guide behavior, sharing common values helps team members to predict each other's and leaders 'behavior in the future. Shared values and shared goals reduce uncertainty, but also determine which types of behaviors, situations or people are desirable or undesirable (Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Jones & George, 1998).

Teams also have rule based trust. Rules, both formal and informal, include the knowledge that members have about tacit understandings. Rule-based trust is predominantly shared understandings relating to the system of rules regarding appropriate behavior. By institutionalizing trust through practices at the collective level, trust becomes internalized at the individual level (Kramer, 1999. At the organization / system level, trust is institutional and based on roles, systems or reputation, from which inferences are drawn about the trustworthiness of an individual (Atkinson & Butcher, 2003). Trust can be seen as given, based on the role that an individual acts. Trust is tied to formal structures, depending on individual or firm-specific attributes, e.g., certification as an accountant, doctor or engineer (Atkinson & Butcher, 2003; Creed & Miles, 1996; Ilmonen & Jokinen, 2002).

Trust in organization refers to the global evaluation of an organization's trustworthiness as perceived by the employee. Employees continually observe the organizational environment when they consider whether or not to trust their organization. Organizational processes

communicate the organization's views of its employees and their roles, and employees will respond to trust relations communicated by the organization (Tan & Tan, 2000).

Employee's trust in an organization is also affected by organizational justice and perceived organizational support. Procedural justice is the degree to which those affected by allocation decisions perceive that those decisions were made according to fair methods and guidelines. Distributive justice refers to employee's perceptions of fairness in the allocation of resources and outcomes. Perceived organizational support is the general belief of employee that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Good treatment by the organization creates an obligation in employees that they should treat the organization well in return (Tan & Tan, 2000). Organizational commitment and turnover intentions are the salient outcomes of trust in organization. Commitment has commonly been characterized as the psychological strength of an individual's attachment to the organization (Maranto & Skelly, 2003) or as the relative strength of an individual's identification with the organization and involvement in a particular organization (Lahiry, 1994). Employees who trust the organization will most likely enjoy working in the organization. They also will likely be interested in pursuing a long-term career in the organization. Therefore, such employees are less tending to leave the organization.

2.5 FORMS OF TRUST

While Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998, 2000) discuss levels or faces of trust, Bryk and Schneider (2002) refer to forms of trust. These forms relate to the theme of their research, as it focused on the individual role obligations. These include organic trust, contractual trust and relation trust. One of the forms of trust, as explained by Bryk and Schneider (2002) is organic trust. In this form of trust, the members of the social group trust unconditionally. Bryk and Schneider (2002) believe that this form of trust is not evidenced in modern institutions because membership is not life-long and diversity among people prevents automatically assumed core beliefs.

The second form of trust is contractual. In relationships where trust is contractual, actions are based on contractual agreements. Unions work to establish contracts to protect teachers from

such things as salary, schedules, and work demands but it does not ensure quality instruction (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Kochanek, 2005). Bryk and Schneider (2002) provide three reasons why contractual trust is ineffective in schools. First, contractual trust is not effective in schools due to the multileveled goals that exist in schools. Second, contractual trust does nothing to identify good instructional practices. Finally, contractual trust cannot ensure that behind closed doors best instructional practice is occurring day after day, year after year (Bryk & Schneider, 2002, 2003).

The third form of trust identified by Bryk and Schneider (2002) is relational. In relational trust, each party has a specific role expectation, and there is an expectation that the other parties will perform based on their role expectations. Further, these judgments in expectations are based on an individual's perspective on the institution, personal and cultural beliefs rooted in his or her family and community of origin, and prior workplace socialization experiences. Bryk and Schneider (2002) propose a three-level theory when describing relational trust. The levels are intrapersonal, interpersonal, and organizational. At the initial level, people are involved in a complex cognitive activity of discerning the intentions of others. At the second level, these perceptions occur based on role expectations as defined by the institution and the individuals. Interpersonal trust deepens as individuals perceive that others care about them and are willing to extend themselves beyond what their role might formally require in any given situation (Bryk & Schneder, 2002). Finally, the results of these trust relations have important consequences at the organizational level (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

Actions should all promote the primary mission of the organization; in the case of schools, all actions should be in the best interest of the students. Schools are different from businesses in their power distribution. Schools are asymmetric in their power distribution, but there is not a role that has absolute power. This is quite different from the more absolute power exercised in a patron-client arrangement (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). If there is a high level of trust at the organizational level, close supervision of one's work should not be needed.

2.6 RELATIONAL AND RECIPROCAL TRUST

These instruments provide tools to examine trust uni-directionally and multi-directionally in schools between the various role groups, including parents and teachers, students and teachers, parents and principals, students and principals, and teachers and principals. The majority of studies thus far have concentrated on trust from the perspective of faculty members (Goddard et al., 2001; Hoy, Sabo, et al., 1996; Hoy et al., 2002; TschannenMoran & Hoy, 2000). In recent years, Forsyth, Adams and their colleagues began a series of investigations evaluating, assessing, or exploring trust from the parent and student perspectives (Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Mitchell & Forsyth, 2004) including those specifically investigating relational and reciprocal trust, particularly that between parents and teachers (Forsyth & Adams, 2004; Forsyth et al., 2006).

Forsyth and Adams (2004) argued that readiness and potential for collective action reside in reciprocated, high trust relationships between constituent role groups, such as principals, faculty, parents, and students, in schools. In an effort to distinguish between relational trust and reciprocal trust, they built upon Bryk and Schneider's (2002) relational trust theory, which viewed trust as a web of social exchanges intertwined with the operations of the school. Increasing and maintaining relational trust in and between role groups, argued Bryk and Schneider (2002), requires synchrony in mutual expectations and obligations. When this synchrony is achieved within all of the major role sets that comprise a school community, schools function well as organizations.

Relational trust does not imply that synchrony exists in the levels of trust between groups, nor does it refer to the specific level of trust (e.g. low or high) between groups. Therefore, Forsyth and Adams (2004) began using the term reciprocal trust, meaning that two criteria were satisfied: proximity and level. For example, reciprocal parent-teacher trust means that parents have a high level of trust for teachers and teachers have a high level of trust for parents. Both levels are high and thus proximate to each other. On the other hand, reciprocal parent-teacher distrust would be present if the opposite were true, such as if parents had a low level of trust for teachers and teachers had a low level of trust for parents. The difficulty came when Forsyth and Adams (2004) tried to create a variable to measure the term reciprocal trust,

specifically parent-teacher reciprocal trust, so they devised a three-step process. First, they measured various levels of trust by surveying 15 parents, 10 teachers, and 15 students at each of 79 schools (22 elementary, 30 middle, and 27 high) using the Parent Trust Scale, the Faculty Trust Scale, and the Student Trust Scale.

Second, each school was assigned classifications of low, medium or high for both parent trust of school and teacher trust of parents. The difficulty came when Forsyth and Adams (2004) tried to create a variable to measure the term reciprocal trust, specifically parent-teacher reciprocal trust, so they devised a three-step process. First, they measured various levels of trust by surveying 15 parents, 10 teachers, and 15 students at each of 79 schools (22 elementary, 30 middle, and 27 high) using the Parent Trust Scale, the Faculty Trust Scale, and the Student Trust Scale. Second, each school was assigned classifications of low, medium or high for both parent trust of school and teacher trust of parents. Last, those two classifications were compared to judge their proximity to each other and a value of low, medium, or high was assigned for reciprocal parent-teacher trust.

Forsyth and Adams (2004) investigated the relationship between these reciprocal parent teacher trust values and several other variables, including social structure, which was measured using the Collaboration Survey (Tschannen-Moran, 2001), school performance, a variable combining student test scores, attendance rates, and academic excellence rates, and socio-economic status (SES), based on free and reduced lunch rates. They found a significant positive relationship between reciprocal parent-teacher trust and school performance ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), suggesting, Multi-directional trust perceptions are associated with higher school performance. Reciprocal parent-teacher trust also correlated highly and significantly with all of the other variables investigated including school performance ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), SES ($r = -.41$, $p < .01$), parent collaboration ($r = 46$, $p < .01$), teacher-principal collaboration ($r = .43$, $p < .01$), and teacher-to-teacher collaboration ($r = .52$, $p < .01$). These analyses led them to question the ways in which trust is discerned by one role group of another (Forsyth, 2008; Adams, 2008; Adams et al., 2009).

2.7 MEASURE OF TRUST

As it can be seen from the above elaboration, the quality of trust varies according to the stage of progress in the relationship. Williams (2001) hypothesizes that trust varies by the extent of familiarity (in-group and out-group membership) between the parties. Wicks et al. (1999) concept of optimal trust implies that parties' trust levels can assume different degrees as appropriate for the demands and quality of the relationship.

Based on such aspects of the relationship and comprehensive definition of trust, surveys were developed to measure the levels of trust in schools from multiple viewpoints. These included surveys for teachers (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and surveys for principals (Gareis & Tschannen-Moran, 2004) to measure their trust perceptions for each of the other groups. Each of these surveys measures trust indirectly by asking participants to report the degree to which they view others as being benevolent, honest, open, reliable, and competent. When used together, these surveys allow trust in schools to be examined multi-directionally, meaning a comparison can be made, for example, of the level of trust teachers have in other colleagues and the level of trust teachers have in principals. This comparison results in a way to examine relational and reciprocal trust in schools, including the two types of reciprocal trust the researcher will investigate in this study- reciprocal teacher-teacher trust and reciprocal teacher-principal trust. Each of these instruments was assessed for its reliability and validity. However, the focus was more on the internal consistency of the instrument and on its content and construct analysis rather than on stability. Therefore, while the Chronbach's alpha coefficient and factor analysis results were reported fairly consistently throughout references to these instruments, there is very little information reported about how stable the instrument is over time.

2.8 THE PRINCIPAL AS BUILDER OF TRUST

Literature on school principals'roles in initiating trusting relationships stresses that, best administrators spend an intense amount of time on developing, improving, and investing in relationships. Positive relationships are the heart of what makes a school to be extraordinary. Connors (2000) pointed out that the best school principals build environments of trust, respect, professionalism, nurturing, teaming, advising, caring, compassion, and collaboration.

More interestingly still, Rieg (2007) added that in order for a school principal to build relationships with school community and positively shape the school culture, it is necessary for the school principal to be visible in the school and community. Fullan (1997) wrote that, Principals are either overloaded with what they are doing or overloaded with all the things they think they should be doing.

According to Shieds (2006), relationships are not merely the beginning but indeed the foundation of the educative endeavor. She stressed that teaching must be based on relationships of respect and absolute regard and therefore principals should be built on that same foundation modeling, encouraging, and demonstrating the importance of relationships and positive interactions.

Another factor on principal side, which Dinham (2007) mentioned was the influence principals had to foster educational achievement. He said that the school principals had positive attitudes that are contagious and they could motivate other people through example. The leaders realized negativity can be ―handicapping, demonstrated a high degree of intellectual capacity and imagination, and are good judges of people. The author continued explaining that school principals should be warm, supportive, and sensitive to the individuals and the collective needs within the school and community and should work with a wide range of individuals. The principals should balance the big picture with finer detail (Dinham 2007) and should multi-task. Dinham described such school principals as authentic leaders who knew when to consult and when to be courageous, and exhibited the values, professionalism, and behaviors they expected of others.

School principals should be good communicators and listeners in order to create trust. They should also provide both good and bad feedback. They should challenge people, insist that teaching and learning are the core purpose of the school, and set a vision for the future of the organization. These leaders are typically liked, respected, and trusted. They demonstrate a sense of humor, empathy, and compassion and are seen to work for the betterment of the school, teachers, and students rather than themselves.

2.9 BUILDING TRUST BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

Some studies conducted so far revealed that principals' actions play a large part in building trust between principals and teachers. As an illustration, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) found that climate and actions of the principal do influence trust. Then, Kochanek (2005) developed a model that shows how trust is developed in a school between principals and teachers by the climate established by the principal. As a way to set the stage, a principal should offer opportunities that Kochanek refers to as easing the level of vulnerability. This act can be accomplished by putting forward a belief system where children are the primary concern. Reshaping the faculty to eliminate incompetent or oppositional staff also sets the stage. Kochanek further suggests that there must be opportunities for low-risk exchanges. These low risk exchanges include many of the trust building strategies proposed by other researchers, as shown below.

Brewster and Railsback (2003) suggest that the most important way for a principal to build trust is by demonstrating personal integrity. They suggest that the principal is setting the stage when he / she exhibit honesty and commitment in all actions. Tschannen-Moran (2004) also connects modeling hard work and commitment to caring. Personal integrity would also include authenticity and professionalism, two additional ways to build trust suggested by Hoy and Kupersmith (1985) and Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (1998).

Dependability is considered to be a behavior that represents reliability. When a principal's behavior is predictable, that is also seen as a form of reliability. Consistent behaviors and fairness will inspire trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Teachers need to feel that they can go to their principal, knowing that the principal will be there to listen, guide, and support them (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

According to Brewster and Railsback (2003), actions that demonstrate a principal cares also build trust. Showing consideration, being sensitive to the needs of the faculty, and showing appreciation will help bolster trust between the principal and faculty. Caring is also demonstrated when a principal listens to the professional and personal needs of the teachers (Tschannen- Moran, 2004).

Brewster and Railsback (2003) also name accessibility as a way to enhance the development of trust. Tschannen-Moran (2004) agrees that visibility and accessibility promote trust. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) proposed openness as a way to encourage trust. Principals, who regularly visit classrooms; are available to discuss concerns, are willing to listen openly to new ideas, and are more likely to create an environment of trust than those who stay behind their desk. Whitaker, et al. (2000) also encourage high principal visibility in the class-rooms, followed by written positive feedback. This not only demonstrates openness; it helps to build credibility.

Actions that demonstrate competence build trust, as suggested by Tschannen-Moran (2004). Accepting responsibility for actions, good and bad, is a way for faculty to see the principal as competent and authentic. Accuracy in information and maintaining confidentiality are also important. The ability to serve as a buffer between upset parents and the teachers is one way to show competence. Effectively handling problems between the staff and difficult students are other ways. An atmosphere of collegiality fosters trust, as suggested by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998). Principals need to be open to ideas, sharing information, and delegating authority, (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Whitaker, et al. (2000) suggests that principals teach classes for teachers. This affords teachers the freedom in their schedule to participate in peer observations; however, it also builds credibility that the principal knows what it is like to be in the classroom.

Brewster and Railsback (2003) propose that principals should involve staff in decision making. Louis (2007) also found that when people are involved in the decision making process, they believe the decisions are sound. Conversely, when teachers are not involved in the decision making process, they believe there is an in-group and an out-group (Louis, 2007). Cosner (2009) identified the need for principals to provide more interaction time for colleagues. Through increased department meeting time and teacher interaction time during faculty meetings, teachers are able to contribute more to the decision-making process. Whitaker, et al. (2000) also stresses the importance of teacher leadership. Suggestions are presented by Whitaker, et al. (2000) that will encourage staff ownership in decisions; among

them are having staff build the agenda for the monthly faculty meeting, building committees to solve specific problems, developing a shared vision and group goals.

Disposition to trust also influences the level of trust a person is able to develop. A person's background will affect whether they are able to trust easily or not. When a person has a disposition to trust, they will have an overall faith in humanity and will believe that others are well-intentioned (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Kochanek (2005) suggests that a person's propensity to trust also describes the vulnerability that a person will feel as he or she enters a relationship. This would mean that principals should be aware of the staff's individual needs based on the individual dispositions to trust. One person may need more interactions that will ease vulnerability, while another is ready for interactions that involve low or high risks.

To summarize, when principal trusted the faculty, the relationship would be more equitable, democratic, and receptive to innovation arising from the teachers. Often this meant that teachers felt more empowered to affect changes in the school's policies within a climate which would be positive, supportive, cohesive, and harmonious. In contrast, when principals did not trust faculty, they were often over-managed, overly vigilant, and controlling. This created an atmosphere that would be negative, discordant, doubtful, and more fragmented. Internal competition and lack of cooperative spirit can also characterize the school's culture.

2.10 BUILDING TRUST AMONG TEACHERS

It is also believed that principals play an important role in creating the context for trust to develop among teachers. Brewster and Railsback (2003) emphasizes that the responsibility for building trust among teachers falls on the shoulders of principals and teachers alike. Principals can and should take an active role in creating the necessary conditions for teachers' relationships that are both collegial and congenial (Sergiovanni, 1992). According to Tschannen-Moran and, Hoy (1998); however, "the behavior of teachers is the primary influence on trust in colleagues".) If relationships between teachers are to change significantly, teachers themselves must work to identify barriers to trust within the faculty and take the initiative to improve, repair, and maintain relationships.

In referring to faculty involvement, Brewster and Railsback (2003) discuss that full faculty engagement in activities and discussions that are related to the school's vision, mission, goals, and core values increases levels of trust among teachers. In addition to this, Bryk and Schneider (2002) note that trust within a faculty is grounded in common understandings about what students should learn, how instruction should be conducted, and how teachers and students should behave with one another. For teachers to sense integrity among colleagues, a faculty must not only share these views but also perceive that the actions taken by other teachers are consistent with them.

In connection to the above view, Brewster and Railsback (2003) emphasize the value of induction and mentoring as a means to building trust among teachers. Gordon (1991) explained that in the busy first few weeks of a school year, it is common for new teachers to be overlooked. Developing a friendly and supportive relationship with newcomers from the beginning by inviting them to lunch, introducing them to others in the school, offering to help locate supplies, and so on goes a long way toward reducing patterns of isolation and building teacher-teacher trust. Principals can support such relationship building between new and returning Faculty by creating opportunities throughout the school year for teachers to meet and get to know one another.

Collaboration among teachers creates a climate of trust, as suggested by Brewster and Railsback (2003). Blank stein (2004) identifies that schools that collaborate are characterized by a culture of trust and respect that encourages open and willing sharing of ideas and thoughts. Too often, schools are structured in ways that prevent teachers from working together closely. Authentic relationships; however, as explains by Lambert (1998), "are fostered by personal conversations, frequent dialogue, shared work, and shared responsibilities. The author continued explaining that, as individuals interact with one another, they tend to listen across boundaries boundaries erected by disciplines, grade levels, expertise, authority position, race, and gender". Principals can support collaboration by making time in the schedule for teachers to work together.

Providing training on effective strategies for team-building, and offering incentives for teachers to collaborate (Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Uline, Hoy, & Mackley, 2003). Teachers can also seek out opportunities to work with or simply get to know each other in other buildings, content areas, and grades.

Brewster and Railsback (2003) discuss that successful communication among teachers builds trust. They illustrate that one possibility that requires little additional time for teachers is to set up a faculty Web site. Depending on teachers' interests, the site could be used to host a discussion board about areas of common interest or concern, to report on the work of different school committees, to post invitations to social gatherings, to share lesson ideas, to post articles and Web links that may be of interest to other teachers, or simply to exchange information about upcoming activities at school. Providing teachers and other staff training on effective communication skills may be useful, too.

Prioritizing mutual trust among teachers has a positive effect on school climate and learning environment, as described by Brewster and Railsback (2003). Lindsey, Robins, &Terrell, (2003) state that, when you walk into a school building for the first time, you immediately get a sense of what type of school it is whether it is a positive or healthy place for children. As a faculty, select a small but diverse group of teachers to do some initial legwork; such as, locating an assessment tool, measuring teacher-teacher trust in the school, talking to faculty about perceived strengths and areas of concern, and investigating relevant professional development strategies. This information can then be presented to the whole faculty and used to set goals and identify appropriate next steps. The effective leader is one who values shared leadership through dialogue, modeling, encouraging, and supporting (Senge, 2000).

2.11 OBSTACLES TO BUILDING AND MAINTAING TRUST

There are numerous actions that will compromise the level of trust. In Trust in Schools; a Conceptual and Empirical Analysis, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) present betrayal and revenge as behaviors that will compromise the quality of trust. Broken promises, shirking responsibilities, abusing authority, sharing confidential information, and lying are examples of betrayal. Moreover, in Building Trusting Relationships for School Improvement: Implications

for Principals and Teachers, Brewster and Railsback (2003) write that teacher isolation, high teacher turnover, frequent turnover in school leadership, failure to remove teachers / principals who are widely viewed to be ineffective, unstable /or inadequate school funding, lack of follow-through on /or support for school projects, ineffective communication, and top-down decision-making that is perceived as arbitrary, misinformed, or not in the best interests of the school as other road blocks for building and maintaining trust in schools. When individuals feel that they have been betrayed, they are likely to seek support for their feelings of confusion and anger, sometimes to the point of seeking revenge. Revenge can be in the form of withdrawal, confrontation, and feuding. When a principal does not follow through on a threat of consequence, trust is damaged (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Bryk and Schneider (2002) found that when a principal says one thing and then does another, trust is compromised.

Perceptions of lack of authenticity will also inhibit the development of trust. In Trust Matters, Tschannen-Moran (2004) suggests that a principal is perceived as not being authentic when the faculty feels that the principal is exploiting them for his or her own benefit. When recognizing staff members, it is important that the recognition is authentic (Whitaker, 1999). Whitaker (2003) suggests that authentic praise, even for small acts, is an effective technique to build a positive environment. Additionally, principals are seen as authentic when they are willing to accept responsibility for their poor decisions.

Principals create an atmosphere of distrust if they are not open to suggestions of the staff or take credit for ideas that were not theirs (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). The perception of being guarded with information breeds suspicion, and ultimately distrust. Bryk and Schneider (2002) suggest that a feeling of vulnerability also threatens the level of trust. Vulnerability is eased when teachers feel that the principal is willing to stand up for the faculty. It is also helpful for teachers to know what the principal's beliefs and expectations are. Teachers may also feel vulnerable if the principal shows favoritism.

2.12. EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Evidence from Louis (2007) study shows that fear, emotional distance, and anger is correlated with a low-trust environment. Fear is associated with the discomfort of change and other power shifts in the organization. When distrust prevails, any change is viewed with increased suspicion and fear. Emotional distance is any-more produced resulting in a lack of identification with the organization, burnout, and even a feeling of loss. Still, anger results because employees in low trust environments operate under high levels of stress. They spend a great deal of effort covering their backsides, justifying past decisions, or looking for scapegoats when something doesnot work out (Sonneberg, 1994). As trust decreases, individuals become angry about changes in goals and expectations, often resulting in a perception of differential sacrifice by the participants in the organization. Finally, when there is little trust people are increasingly unwilling to take risks and demand greater protections against the possibility of betrayal (Tyler & Kramer, 1996). Hence, a climate of distrust is inefficient and less productive because individuals are unwilling to collaborate with each other or to follow their leader.

In connection to the above view, The World Economic Forum, the Euro-barometer, the Asia Barometer, Latino-barometer, Australian Government Information Management Office (AGIMO), Accenture, MORI, BBC and Gallup International, United Nations Online Network in Public Administration and Finance (UNPAN), the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the Transparency International and many other national and international organizations have conducted surveys since January 2004, and concluded that trust in various parts of the world is declining for three reasons the declining voter turnout (Gray and Caul 2000; Eagles 1999), youth disinterested in organizational politics (Adsett 2003), and decreasing levels of civic involvement (Saul 1995; Putnam 2000).

Hoy and Kupersmith (1985) write that the way in which the faculty perceives a principal's actions is essential in schools. Teacher's trust in the principal is the filter through which teachers determine the principal's support efforts (Fullan, 1994; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1984; Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991). On the other hand, a principal's trust in teachers is a key in determining whether teachers will choose to change their practices and engage in school

activities (Murphy & Louis, 1994; Nanus1989) argues that, Trust is seen as a vital element in well functioning organizations. It is the mortar that binds leader to follower and forms the basis for leaders'legitimacy. In the same way, Block (1993) concludes, the fire and intensity of self-interest seem to burn all around us. We search, so often in vain to find leaders we can have faith in. Our doubts are not about our leaders'talents, but about their trustworthiness. We are unsure whether they are serving their institutions or themselves.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presented the appropriate research method that was suitable for the topic under this study. It also described sources of data, instruments and data collection methods, sample and sampling techniques, and method of data analysis.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Claire, et al (2002) a research design is an arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the purpose with economy in procedure. In line with this, the study followed the descriptive research design to collect and analysis the information that describes the results of the study as it exists and explicate the relationships. Within the quantitative research realm, the study adopted survey design which employed sample questionnaires to ask principals and teachers to provide real information about their relationships within two government secondary Schools of Mojo city administration.

3.2 SOURCE OF DATA

This study employed only primary source of data collected through survey questionnaires from principals and teachers. This data helped in the completion of the study by providing full and direct information which needs interpretation and analysis to attain the objectives of the study.

3.3 INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

3.3.1 INSTRUMENT OF DATA COLLECTION

In this study, three sets of survey instruments were used. The first one was the Faculty Trust Scale (FTS) (Tschannen-Moran, 2004) and the Principal Trust Scale (PrTS) (Tschannen-Moran, 2004); the second one was sub-scale of School Climate Index (SCI) (Tschannen-

Moran,2009) and the third one was the sub-scale of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio, Bruce and Bass, Bernard, 2004) were used in order to collect data to answer the research questions. Each instrument was explained in the following sections, including its content, reliability and validity.

3.3.1.1 Faculty Trust Scale

The faculty trust scale developed by Tschannen-Moran (2004) was used in order to collect data for teachers'perceptions in the research. The scale consisted of three sub-scales and 26 items. It used a five point Likert response set ranging from strongly disagrees to strongly agree with some items reverse scored. The sub-scales of the faculty trust scale were: (1) Faculty trust in the principal (8 items), (2) Faculty trust in colleagues (8 items), and (3) Faculty trust in clients (students and parents) (10 items). However, for the purpose of this study, faculty trust in clients (students and parents) 10 items was not included. Because, the focus was only on faculty trust in the principal and faculty trust in colleagues (See Table in the appendix for all 16 items sorted by sub-scale).

The Faculty Trust Scale (FTS) (Tschannen-Moran, 2004) was self-administered by faculty members. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) tested the reliability and validity of each sub-scale. Internal consistency was assessed using Chronbach's alpha coefficient. Each of the two sub-scales demonstrated strong internal consistency: (1) Faculty trust in the principal (.98) and (2) Faculty trust in colleagues (.93).

3.3.1.2 Principal Trust Scale

The principal trust scale developed by Tschannen-Moran (2004) was used in order to collect data for school principals 'perceptions. The scale also consisted of three subscales and 20 items. Moreover, it used a five point Likert response set ranging from strongly disagrees to strongly agree with some items reverse scored. The sub-scales of principal trust scale were: (1) Principal Trust in Teachers (9 items), (2) Principal Trust in Clients (students) (6 items), and (3) Principal Trust in Parents (5 items).

However, for the purpose of this study, principal trust in clients (students) 6 items and principal trust in parents 5 items were not included. This was because the focus was only on principal trust in the teachers. (See Table in the appendix for all 9 items). The Principal Trust Scale (PrTS) (Tschannen-Moran, 2004) was administered to each principal by the researcher. Tschannen-Moran (2004) tested the reliability and validity of the scale. Internal consistency was assessed using Chronbach's alpha coefficient. The scale demonstrated strong internal consistency: (1) Principal trust in teachers (Construct validity was evaluated using factor analysis, with items loading from .45 to .84 for principal trust in teachers.

3.3.3.2 PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

To answer the research questions raised, the researcher goes through a series of data gathering procedures. Data were gathered from the sample units after having letters of authorization from Jimma University College of education and behavioral sciences and Mojo Education office (for additional letters towards schools) for ethical clearance.

After making agreement with the concerned participants, the researchers were introducing his objectives and purposes. Then, the final questionnaires were administered to sample teachers in the selected schools. The participants were allow to give their own answers to each item independently and the data collectors were closely assist and supervise them to solve any confusion regarding to the instrument. Finally, the questionnaires were collected and make it ready for data analysis. The interview was conducted after the participants' individual consent was obtained. During the process of interview the researchers were attempt to select free and clam environment to lessen communication barriers that disturb the interviewing process.

3.4 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

For the case of this study, probability-sampling technique was used to obtain the representative sample units for this research. In order to obtain reliable data for the study, from four secondary schools in the city administration, two (50%) were taken by using simple random sampling technique by applying lottery method.

The total populations of teachers in the city administration secondary schools were 110. Using the reference of Gay and Airasian (2000), 30% of them are included in the study, which is numbered 33 sample respondents. The need for sampling such small number is necessitated because the researcher considered the possible challenge of getting respondent teachers in the time of COVID-19.

As to principals, all of them (29) were purposefully selected. These groups include principals, unit leaders, and department heads.

3.5 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Once data were collected, analysis was made using the statistical analysis method. Data were aggregated at the school level by averaging the scores for each item within each instrument. The mean scores for each variable and factor were then determined by averaging the scores for all survey items within each instrument and/or sub-scale. Reciprocal trust level was determined by comparing the mean trust scores of the two different role groups and assigning an ordinal value ranging from low reciprocal trust (one) to high reciprocal trust (five). Descriptive statistics, that is, the mean was calculated and were used to answer the research questions.

3.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability

The study used questionnaire as the main data collection tool. For this matter, the reliability of the prepared questionnaires were checked. To ensure reliability, the method used in this research carried out the same steps in the same way for each measurement.

Validity

Validity is measure of how well a test measure what it is supposed to measure (Kothari, 2004). To make the questionnaire more valid and also to avoid ambiguity and unclear statements, the questionnaire was first examined by educational officials and experts and after some amendment was made distributed to respondents in order to obtain necessary information from them.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher presented, analysed and interpreted the results of the survey. Moreover, the researcher gave an account of the findings and discussions of the findings using tables and graphs. The response rate from the questionnaires distributed is 100% with 33 questionnaires returned out of 33.

4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERIZATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

In the following section, the researcher gave a general demographic characterization of the respondents that participated in this study. Understanding about the overview of the respondents characteristics was important for further analysis of their responses. Hence, attempts were made to describe the background of the respondents, which directly or indirectly related to the objectives of the study. Accordingly, the general demographic characteristics of the respondents in sex, age, educational qualification and work experience were analyzed and discussed in terms of frequencies and percentage as follows.

Table 4.1 below, showed the respondents'gender distribution. As the table showed, the respondents were classified based on sex. Among leaders group and 33 sample teachers who filled the questionnaires 24 (72.7 percent) respondents were male teachers and 9 (27.3%) was females. In contrast, Leaders 22 (75.8 percent) respondents were male and 7 (24.2%) was females. From the table; thus, it can be deduced that the managerial positions of the secondary schools in general were occupied by males. Since this is so, it is clear that the participation rate of females in the decision making process in these schools was very low. This might be probably an indicator of which portray as women do not apply to be leaders, even when they are as well qualified as the male applicants, at least in part, because they have negative self-perceptions and lack confidence in their qualifications and experience. Brown (2005) and Oplatka (2006). Moreover, such background could be one factor that affected trust relationship between female teachers and principals. Because the earlier study by Zucker (1986) indicated that trust can be built and fostered between members of an organization

sharing similar characteristics such as ethnicity, family background, gender, and national origin.

Table 4.1:- Personal data of workers

No	Demographics		Leaders		Teachers	
			Frequency	percentage	Frequency	percentage
1	Gender	Male	22	75.8	24	72.2
		Female	7	24.2	9	27.3
		Total	29	100	33	100
2	Age	20-25			16	48.4
		26-30	29	100	12	36.4
		Above 30			5	15.2
		Total	29	100	33	100
3	Experience	< 5	22	75	4	12.1
		6-10	7	25	29	87.9
		Total	29	100	33	100
4	Education Level	BA Degree	27	93.1	30	91
		MA/MSc	2	6.9	3	9
		Above MA	-	-	-	-
		Total	29	100	33	100

Source: Own survey data, 2020

In referring to the age of the respondents; all of the leaders (29 or 100 percent) were within the age group 26-30 years, on the contrary, majority of the teachers (16 or 48.4 percent) were within the age group 20-25 years, followed by those teachers whose age group failed above 30 years (5 or 15.2 percent),

From these data, it might be concluded that the majority of the teachers were between 26 to-30 years old. Hence, in order to lead these safely and to secure the teaching-learning process, the school principals should be well experienced not only in the understanding of their own

schools in the educational ladders but also in the understanding clearly what they and their staff are going to accomplish in the schools for which they are responsible.

As far as the work experience of the respondents was concerned, (22 or 75. percent) of the leaders and (4 or 12 percent) of the teachers had work experience less than 5 years in Likewise, (29 or 87.9 percent) of the teachers had work experience between 6-to-10 years.

From these data, it might be concluded that 75.8percent of the leaders had inadequate work experience in the current schools. With leaders, they might lack necessary power to influence teachers'trust in their schools. Moreover, there is research by Zucker (1986) that connects the frequency of interaction between the trustor and the trustee. She found out that trust deepens and becomes more authentic as individuals interact with one another and get to know one another over time. Relationships mature as the frequency and duration of interactions increases, and with the variety of challenges that relationship partners face together.

In discussing the educational level of the respondents, 27 or 93.1 percent) of the Leaders has first degree only 6.9 % of the leader has second degree (30 or 91 percent) of the teachers has first degree holders and in addition to these, (3 or 9 percent) of the teacher was master graduates.

This finding is similar to the findings of earlier studies by Bryk and Schneider (2002), who also found that to build strong principal-teacher trust, teachers and principals must view themselves as competent, honest, and reliable. Failure to remove staff members who are widely viewed to be ineffective quickly leads to low levels of trust in the school and its leadership.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF LEVEL OF TRUST

Leaders' and teachers' responses to items written to investigate the current level of trust between principals and teachers in the schools were collected on five (5) points; three likert scales, consisting of eight (8) items for Faculty Trust in the Principals, eight (8) items for Faculty Trust in Colleagues and nine (9) items for Principal Trust in the Teachers. The

responses were converted into a numerical scale. The numerical value assigned to each response was given as (1= strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Undecided; 4= Agree and 5= strongly agree). Then, the frequency distribution of each variable was calculated as well as the mean scores. Later, data were aggregated at the school level by averaging the scores for each item within each instrument. The mean scores for each variable and factor were then determined by averaging the scores for all survey items within each instrument and/or sub-scale. Finally, reciprocal trust level was determined by comparing the mean trust scores of the leader and teachers and assigning an ordinal value ranging from (1= low reciprocal trust; 2= medium low reciprocal trust; 3= medium reciprocal trust; 4= medium high reciprocal trust and 5= high reciprocal trust). Accordingly, descriptive statistics using was presented in the following tables.

Table 4.2: Mean of the three sub-scales

| No | Variable | Sample Size | | Mean |
		Teacher	leader	
1.	Faculty trust in the principals	33	-	1.87
2.	Faculty trust in the colleagues	33	-	1.79
3.	Principals trust in teachers	-	29	3.93

Source: Own survey data, 2020

Table 4.2 shows the means of the survey on each of the three sub-scales. Accordingly, mean score for faculty trust in the leaders was 1.87. On the other hand, the overall mean score for faculty trust in the colleagues was 1.8. Another important point to note is that leaders trust in teachers has a mean score of 3.93. The result of this calculation has shown that the high mean score of 1.87 for leaders trust in the teachers indicates that most leaders agree that they trust their teachers. As a result, this may give birth to increase in bad relationships. On the other hand, it appears that the average score of 3.93 for leaders trust in the teachers is somewhat good. When leaders reported that they trust their teachers, it implies that leaders controlled their own destiny by acting in ways that create trust on teachers.

Faculty trust in the leaders is much worse than leaders 'trust in the teachers. This is evidenced with the result that while the mean scores for leaders trust in the teachers is 3.93; it is only 1.87 for faculty trust in the leaders. An example of faculty trust in the leaders, "The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the leaders ''action" has a mean score of 2.7, which means that teachers tend to suspect most of the leaders 'actions. Teachers also reported with a mean score of 3.6 that leaders do not show concern for them.

The low mean score of 1.87 for faculty trust in the leaders could contribute to the overall level of trust in the schools. This is because, when faculty perceived that the leaders do not treat them as professionals with flexibility and a high rigid stance toward rules, then, they would not more likely to trust in the leaders. In addition, teachers would not more likely to take their work seriously. Besides that, they would not demonstrate a very high level of commitment, and perform below average to meet the needs of students. In such schools, teachers do not respect their principals' competence and expertise. Furthermore, they do not really engage in the teaching process. In conclusion, what seems clear about the school leaders is that, the leaders ' impact in generating trust in colleagues seem quite limited; that is, leaders ' behaviors have little influence on the trust that teachers have with each other and on the leaders.

The faculty trust in colleagues with a mean score of 1.8 was the lowest result from the three trusts in the schools. Mean scores of 1.42 and 1.5 respectively on the behaviors, teachers in this school are suspicious of each other and when teachers in this school tell you something you can believe it indicate that teachers frequently do not know what their colleagues are thinking or feeling. This coupled with the low mean scores on the faculty trust in the leaders and leaders ' trust in the teachers could lead to a situation where both teachers and leaders are in the dark regarding what each really thinks about what is happening in the school settings.

Table 4.3: Trust Level Categorization

Variable	Low (≤ 350)	Medium-low (350-450)	Medium (450—550)	Medium high (550-650)	High (≥ 650)
Faculty trust in the principal	-	367.90	-	-	-
Faculty trust in the colleagues	246.78	-	-	-	-
Principal trust in the teachers	-	-	-	555.5	-

Source: Own survey data, 2020

Table 4.3 showed the results of a computed standardized score for faculty trust in the principals, faculty trust in the colleagues and principals' trust in the teachers. Accordingly, the standardized score on faculty trust in the principals was 367.90. This standardized score indicates that the level of faculty trust in the principals was presented in medium-low. Thus, it is possible to conclude that faculty trust in the principals was not based upon the identity-based trust where teachers could effectively act for the principals. Rather, it seems that it was based upon assumptions, institutional structure and deterrents in which movement of trust from teachers to principals was blocked by rigid school policies and procedures.

The amount of standardized scores of faculty trust in colleagues and principals' trust in the teachers were much more decreased. While the standardized scores of principals' trust in the teachers is 555.5; it is only 246.78 for faculty trust in the colleagues. These standardized scores indicate that the level of principals' trust in the teachers is at medium high level and the level of faculty trust in the colleagues is at low status level. Thus, it is possible to conclude that principals'trust in the teachers and faculty trust in the colleagues were not based upon the identity-based trust where teachers and principals could effectively act for each other. Rather, it seems that it was based upon assumptions, institutional structure and deterrents in which movement of trust from teachers to teachers as well as from principals to teachers was blocked by rigid school policies and procedures.

The overall finding indicates that of the three types of faculty trust examined; only faculty trust in the principal was medium low. Results indicated that none of the schools in the study had a high level of trust. Since the two role groups (faculty trust in colleagues and principal trust in teachers) were at low levels, there appeared to be a general lack of trust between principals and teachers in participating schools.

4.3 BARRIERS HINDERING TRUST BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

Teachers' responses to items written to investigate the major barriers that destroy trust between principals and teachers in the schools were collected on four (4) points likert scale consisting of seven (7) items for collegial leadership in the school and eight (8) items for teacher professionalism. The responses were converted into a numerical scale. The numerical value assigned to each response was given as (1= never occur; 2= rarely occur; 3= sometimes occur; 4= often occur and 5= very frequently occur). Hence, the frequency distribution of each variable was calculated as well as the mean scores. What is more, data were aggregated at the school level by averaging the scores for each item within each instrument. The mean scores for each variable and factor were then determined by averaging the scores for all survey items within each instrument. Moreover, barriers that destroyed trust between teachers and principals in the schools were determined by comparing the mean scores of teachers on collegial leadership and teacher professionalism that were experienced by members. Descriptive statistics using the mean score was presented in the following table.

Table 4.4 below presented findings on the teachers' perception about the school principals in enhancing collegial leadership of the school. It can be noted from the table that (13 or 19.7 percent) of the teachers had depicted that the principals' behavior of being friendly and approachable was rarely occurred. Other (8 or 12.1 percent) of the teachers showed that the principals 'behavior of being friendly and approachable was sometimes occurred. Moreover, there were other groups the researcher suspected their views were the same though they were not on the same frequencies; that is, (5 or 7.6 percent) and (5 or 7.6 percent) respectively, who reported that principals' behavior of being friendly and approachable never occurred and often occurred respectively. Yet, (2or 3.7percent) of the teachers gave other different

opinions. In an important sense, this small group of teachers viewed principals 'behavior of being friendly and approachable as ever very frequently occurred.

Table 4.4: Teachers' perception about enhancing collegial leadership by leaders

Item	No	Never occurs	Rarely occurs	Sometimes occurs	Often occurs	Very frequently occurs
The principal is friendly and approachable	33	5(7.6 %)	13 (19.7%)	8(12.1%)	5 (7.6%)	2(3%)
The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation	33	2(3.7%)	11 (16.7%)	9 (12.9%)	8 (12.1%)	3(4.5%)
The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist	33	1(1.5%)	7(10.6%)	7 (11.3%)	12 (17.4%)	6 (9%)
The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal	33	1(1.5%)	6(10%)	6(9%)	12 (19%)	8(10%)
The principal is willing to make changes	33	2(1.2%)	6 (10%)	6 (9%)	12 (18.8%)	7 (11.3%)
The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them	33	1(1.5%)	4(6%)	6(9%)	12 (18.1%)	9(13.6%)
The principal maintains definite standards of performance	33	2(2.2%)	8(11%)	5(8.3%)	12 (18.6%)	6(9.8%)

Source: Own survey data, 2020

In item two, the principal behavior of being putting suggestions made by the faculty into operation was presented. Concerning the principals 'behavior of being genuinely and exploring all sides of topics and admit that other opinions exist the overwhelming majority of the teachers (11 or 17.4 percent) reported that often the principals explore all sides of the topics and admit that other opinions exist. On the other hand, (7 or 10.6 percent) of the teachers viewed principals' behavior of being genuine and explore all sides of topics and admit that other opinions exist as occurred rarely. Other (7 or 11.3 percent) of the teachers showed that it was sometimes that the principals explore all sides of topics and admit that other opinions exist possible. Moreover, (6 or 9 percent) of the teachers indicated that very frequently, the principals explore all sides of the topics and admit that other opinions exist.

The other remaining (1 or 1.5 percent) of the teachers replied that principals never explore any side of topic and nor admit any other opinion exist.

The data presented in item four showed that (1 or 1.5percent) of the teachers stated that their principal never treats all faculty members as his or her equal. Other group of teachers; that is, (6 or 10 percent) of the teachers reported that principal rarely treats all faculty members as his or her equal. In contrast, while (6 or 9percent) of the teachers claimed that sometimes principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal; (12 or 19 percent) of the teachers pointed out that their principal often treats all faculty members as his or her equal. Towards the end, (7 or 10.5 percent) of the teachers suggested that their principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal very frequently.

The principal's behavior of being flexible in making changes in the school was given in item five. The teachers 'responses regarding to this behavior showed that (6 or 10 percent) of the teachers reported that their principal was very frequently willing to make change in the school. On the other hand, (12.5 or 18.8 percent) of the teachers replied that their principal was often willing to make changes. Yet, (6 or 9 percent) of the teachers claimed that it was sometimes that principal was willing to make change in the school. The other more teachers, (6.5 or 10 percent) of the teachers, said that rarely the principal was willing to make changes in the school. Finally, (1 or almost 1.5percent) of the teachers suggested that their principal never made and accepted changes in their school.

As indicated in item six, (9 or 13.6 percent) of the teachers entrusted that their principal let faculty knew what was expected of them very frequently. On the other hand, (12 or 18.1 percent) of the teachers argued that often the principal let faculty knew what was expected of them. Moreover, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teachers said that sometimes the principal let faculty knew what was expected of them. Besides that, (4 or 6.8 percent) of the teachers claimed that rarely the principal let faculty knew what was expected of them. The other remaining (1 or 1.5 percent) of the teachers pointed out that their principal never let faculty knew what was expected of them.

Item seven, which was the final one, told us the quality of principal's behavior that maintained definite standard of performance in the school. Hence, (1 or 2.2 percent) of the teachers reported that the common practices of the principal in maintaining definite standard of performance never occurred. On the other hand, other (7 or 11 percent) of the teachers said that the quality of principal's behavior in maintaining definite standard of performance as being rarely occurred in the school. Besides that, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers rated the quality of principal's behavior in maintaining definite standard of performance as being sometimes occurred. Moreover, there were other group of teachers the researcher suspected it was the majority, that was, (12 or 18.6 percent) of the teachers who reported that the principal's behavior in maintaining definite standard of performance as occurred often. Yet, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teachers gave other different option. This group of teachers rated the quality of principal's behavior in maintaining definite standard of performance as being occurred very frequently in their school.

Table 4.5: Mean of each of the Collegial Leadership items

Items	N	Mean
The principal is friendly and approachable	33	1.27
The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation	33	1.49
The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist	33	1.66
The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal	33	1.77
The principal is willing to make changes	33	1.85
The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them	33	1.85
The principal maintains definite standards of performance	33	1.74
Collegial leadership	33	1.66

Source: Own survey data, 2020

Although the mean score for all seven items of collegial leadership did not reach 5.0 for very frequency occurrence response, there was some moderate agreement on the occurrence of collegial leadership behavior of the principals on some items. For example, teachers gave same responses on two items that principals were somewhat willing to make changes and letting faculty know what was expected of them with mean score of 1.85 and 1.85

respectively. On close analysis; however, it appeared that the average score on this aspect of school climate was somewhat distorted by the medium and medium high mean scores teachers have given on this aspect of school climate. As an illustration, teachers expressed some disagreement with very frequently occurrence of principals'behavior of being friendly and approachable with a mean score of 1.27. A similar pattern was also found for the other four behaviors that comprised this dimension of school climate. On closer examination; consequently, it appeared that teachers were unwilling to trust that collegial leadership was existed, as principals were not treating all faculty members as their equals. Principals were not maintaining definite standards of performance, principals were not exploring all sides of topics and admitting that other opinions existed, and principals were not putting suggestions made by the faculty into operation.

The character dimension with a mean score of 1.27 in teachers'response was the lowest mean score of the seven collegial leadership items. Next to this, teachers reported that principals were not willing to put suggestions made by the faculty into operation with a mean score of 1.49. Besides that, teachers had also reported that principals were not exploring all sides of topics and admitting that other opinions existed with a mean score of 1.66. Teachers also reported with a mean score of 1.74 that principals were not maintaining definite standards of performance. Another example of a behavior with a medium high mean score (1.77) was, the principal treats all faculty members as his/her equal.

These medium and medium high mean scores of (1.77, 1.74, 1.66 and 1.49) respectively on the behaviors of the principal: treatment of all faculty members as his/her equal, maintenance of definite standards of performance, exploration of all sides of topics and admitting that other opinions exist and putting suggestions made by the faculty into operation indicate that principals frequently do not know what their teachers are thinking or feeling. This coupled with the lowest mean score of 1.27 on the behavior, the principal is friendly, and approachable could lead to a situation where teachers do not trust principals. These researchers found that organizations treating employees unfairly, not appreciating their contributions, can decrease employees'trust, commitment and job satisfaction, causing

turnover. Drawing on the above analysis, one can understand that collegial leadership was not practiced in the schools where this study had been taken.

Table 4.6: Teachers'Feelings about their Professionalism

Items	No	Never occurs	Rarely occurs	Sometimes occurs	Often occurs	Very frequently occurs
The interaction between faculty members is cooperative	33	2(1.5%)	6(9.8%)	5(8.3%)	13(20.4%)	7(9.8%)
Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.	33	2(2.3%)	6 (8.3%)	7 (9.8%)	12 (19.6%)	6(9.8%)
Teachers help and support each other.	33	2(3%)	6 (9%)	4(6%)	16 (24.2%)	5(7.5%)
Teachers in this school exercise professional judgement.	33	3(3.7%)	6 (8.3%)	5(7.5%)	15(23.4%)	4 (6.8%)
Teachers are committed to helping students.	33	2(3%)	6(9.8%)	5 (6.8%)	13 (21.2%)	7(10.6%)
Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.	33	1(1.5%)	6 (8.3%)	5(7.5%)	16(25%)	5 (8.3%)
Teachers go the extra mile with their students.	33	2(3%)	6 (8.3%)	6(9.8%)	14 (21.2%)	5(7.6%)
Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.	33	5 (8.3%)	8(12.1%)	7(9.8%)	10(15.2%)	3(4.5%)

Source: Own survey data, 2020

In table 4.6, teachers' feeling about their professionalism was presented. Accordingly, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teacher replied that the interaction between them was very frequently mutual cooperation. In addition to this, (13 or 20.4 percent) of the teachers argued that it was often that they interacted and felt good about each other. Moreover, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teacher reported that it was sometimes that they interacted and felt good about each other. On top of that, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teacher stated that it was rarely that the interaction

between them occurred mutually cooperation. What was more, (2 or 1.5percent) of the teacher said that mutual cooperation and positive interaction between teacher never occurred at all in the school.

The considerable medium high mean score of 1.8 showed that almost medium high of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that most of the teachers moderately felt good with the occurrence of the teachers' professionalism behavior indicated in the item. In other words, most of the teachers agreed that professional teachers were moderately acting as friends and felt good about each other. Moreover, teachers moderately engaged in finding meaning and focusing in their professional activities. This finding implied that professional teachers perceived their contribution as they were moderately getting along with each other, moderately listening to each other and were moderately accepting of one another was significant in facilitating trust among teachers, which in return would moderately enhanced a sense of professionalism; as a result, they moderately trusted their professionalism.

Information in item two showed that (2 or 2.3 percent) of the teachers believed that they never respected the expertise of their colleagues. On the contrary, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers believed that teachers respected the professional competence of their colleagues rarely. Furthermore, (6. or 9.8 percent) of the teachers said that teachers respected the professional competence of their colleagues sometimes. Not only had that, (13 or 19.6 percent) of the teachers claimed that they often respected the expertise of their colleagues. Another group of teachers pointed out that teachers respected the professional competence of their colleagues very frequently. The considerable medium high mean score of 1.8 showed that almost medium high of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. In other words, most of the teachers agreed that professional teachers were respecting the expertise of their colleagues. This finding implied that professional teachers perceived their contribution as they were committed to students, respecting the competence of one another, and taking their work seriously as important as significant in facilitating trust among teachers, which in return enhanced a sense of professionalism; as a result, they moderately trusted their professionalism.

As it was indicated in item three, (2 or 3 percent) of the teachers replied that they never provide strong social support for one another and never help each other with professional problems. However, (6 or 9 percent) of the teachers argued that they help and support each other rarely. Besides that, (4 or 6 percent) of the teachers responded that they sometimes provide strong social support for one another and help each other with professional problems. Conversely, (16 or 24.2 percent) of the teachers said that they often help and support each other. Some more teachers; that is, (5 or 7.5 percent) of the teachers suggested that very frequently they help and support each other.

Item four showed teachers 'professional behavior of being autonomous in decision making. Approximately (4 or 6.8 percent) of the teachers revealed that very frequently they exercised professional judgement. Other teachers, that was to say, (15 or 23.4 percent) of the teachers indicated that it was often that teachers 'professional behavior of being autonomous in decision making occurred. Yet, (5or 7.8 percent) of the teachers responded that sometimes teachers exercise professional judgement. In the same way, (5or 8.3 percent) of the teachers said that teachers 'professional behavior of being autonomous in decision making occurred in the school rarely. Then, the remaining (2 or 3.7 percent) of the teachers revealed that teachers never exercise professional judgement at all in the school.

Item five presented the commitment of teachers at helping students develop both socially and intellectually. Among 33 respondent teachers, only (1 or 1.5 percent) of the teachers said that they never committed to help students. In contrast, the majority of teachers, that was, (14 or 21.2 percent) of the teachers responded that they often committed to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually. In addition, (7 or 10.6 percent) of the teachers replied that teachers 'commitment to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually at school very frequently occurred. Besides that, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teachers argued that teachers 'commitment to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually at school rarely occurred. Moreover, (4 or 6.8percent) of the teachers indicated that teachers 'commitment to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually at school sometimes occurred. The medium high mean score of 1.8 showed that most of the teachers

agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that most of the teachers moderately felt good with the occurrence of the teachers 'behavior indicated in the item. In other words, most of the teachers agreed that their behavior; that was, teachers 'commitment to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually was often occurred in the school. This finding implied that professional teachers 'commitment to helping students develop both socially and intellectually was significant in facilitating trust among teachers, which in turn enhanced a sense of teachers 'professionalism; as a result, they trust their professional commitment to help students. In other words, teachers 'commitment in helping students develop both socially and intellectually made a significant independent contribution in the explanation of school organizational trust.

Teachers 'accomplishment of their jobs with enthusiasm was given in item six. Teachers 'responses regarding to their enthusiasm about their work and being proud of their school showed that only (1 or 1.5 percent) of the teachers reported that they never accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm. On the contrary, (16 or 25 percent) of the teachers replied that it was often that they accomplished their jobs with enthusiasm. What was more, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers said that it was rarely that they accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm. In like manner, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers revealed that it was very frequently that they accomplished their jobs with enthusiasm. Yet, (5 or 7.5 percent) of the teachers responded that it was sometimes that they accomplished their jobs with enthusiasm.

The medium high mean score of 1.8 showed that most of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that most of the teachers moderately felt good with the occurrence of professional teachers' behavior indicated in the item. In other words, most of the teachers agreed that professional teachers 'behavior; that was, being enthusiastic about their work and being proud of their school was often occurred in the school. This finding implied that teachers' professional behavior of being enthusiastic about their work and proud of their school was significant in facilitating trust among teachers, which in turn enhanced a sense of teachers' professionalism; as a result, they trusted their professional behavior of accomplishing jobs with enthusiasm. In other words, teachers 'professional behavior in which faculty was enthusiastic about their

work and proud of their school made a significant independent contribution in the explanation of school organizational trust.

In item seven, teachers 'hard working at helping students and even helping students on their own time was presented. Consequently, (5or 7.6 percent) of the teachers showed that teachers went the extra mile with the students very frequently. Conversely, (2 or 3 percent) of the teachers claimed that teachers never work hard at helping students and even helping students on their own time at all. Anymore, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers replied that teachers went the extra mile with the students rarely. Another group of teachers, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teachers revealed that it was sometimes that teachers worked hard at helping students and even helping students on their own time. Finally, (14 or 21.2 percent) of the teachers said that often teachers worked hard at helping students and even helping students on their own time.

It was interesting to note that mean score for this item was somewhat medium high. The medium high mean score of 1.7 showed that more than half of the teachers had scored more than half and had moderately agreed with the occurrence of this behavior. This brought to light a moderate construct in teachers' minds about believing in their hard work at helping students and even help students on their own time. This finding suggested that professional teachers perceived their hard work contribution at helping students and even help them on their own time as a moderate performance, which was significant in facilitating trust among teachers, which in turn enhanced a sense of professionalism; consequently, they moderately trusted their professionalism.

Finally, the data presented in item eight showed that (10 or 15.2 percent) of the teachers stated that they often provide strong social support for colleagues. Nevertheless, (8 or 12.1 percent) of the teachers reported that they rarely provide strong social support for colleagues. In addition, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teachers replied that they sometimes provide strong social support for colleagues. Similarly, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers said that they never provide strong social support for colleagues. The other remaining (3 or 4.5 percent) of the teachers argued that they very frequently provide strong social support for colleagues.

It was interesting to note that mean score obtained for this item was almost medium (1.4). This medium score of 1.4 showed that more than half of the teachers have scored medium; that was, sometimes‖ and had moderately agreed with the frequency occurrence of this item. This brought to light a considerable construct in teachers' minds about believing in social support they were giving for one another and help each other with professional problems. This finding; therefore, suggested that professional teacher perceptions of their professionalism as they were moderately providing social support for one another and moderately helped each other with professional problems was moderately significant in facilitating trust among themselves, which in turn moderately enhanced a sense of teachers' professionalism; as a result, they moderately trusted their professionalism.

Table 4.7: Mean of each of the eight (8) item of Teacher professionalism

Item	N	Mean
Teachers commitment to students	33	1.27
Teachers respect of the professional competence of their colleagues	33	1.78
Teachers help and support each other	33	1.75
Teachers in this school exercise professional judgement	33	1.71
Teachers are committed to helping students	33	1.80
Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm	33	1.81
Teachers go the extra mile ‖ with their students	33	1.72
Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues	33	1.46
Teacher professionalism	33	1.73

Source: Own survey data, 2020

Though the mean score for all eight items of teacher professionalism did not reach 5.0 for very frequency occurrence response, there was some moderate agreement on the occurrence of teacher professionalism behavior of the teachers on some items. Take the cases of, Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm and teachers are committed to helping students. In these behaviors; first, teachers showed with mean score of 1.8 indicate that they very frequently accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm. Next to this, teachers also confirmed with mean score of 1.8 indicate that they very frequently committed to helping students.

Teachers; on the other hand, expressed moderate perception with mean scores of below 1.8 on almost six (6) of the eight (8) behaviors. The behavior with the lowest mean score of (1.46) was, teachers provide strong social support for colleagues. Next to this, teachers also reported with a medium high mean score of 1.7 indicate that they were exercising professional judgement in their schools. Another example of a behavior with a medium high mean score of (1.7) was teachers go the extra mile 'with their students. Similar medium high mean scores of (1.7; 1.7 and 1.7) respectively, indicating The principal is friendly and approachable. 331.20.5 Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues. 33 1.70.55 Teachers help and support each other. 33 1.70.55 Teachers in this school exercise professional judgement. 331.70.55 Teachers are committed to helping students. 331.80.55 Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm. 331.80.5 Teachers go the extra mile with their students. 331.70.55 Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues. 331.4 0.6 Teacher professionalism 331.70.5 moderate of teacher professionalism were found for behaviors, teachers help and support each other, Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues and The interaction between faculty members are cooperative.

The medium high mean scores of (1.7; 1.72; 1.751.78 and 1.78) on teacher professionalism behavior, exercise of professional judgement of teachers, teachers effort to go the extra mile' with their students, teachers help and support each other, teachers respect of the professional competence of their colleagues, and The interactions between faculty members are cooperative‖ would indicate that the one-on-one relationship among teachers in the schools was existed in medium high level. This coupled with the lowest mean score of 1.46 on the behavior; teachers provide strong social support for colleagues‖ could automatically lead to a situation where teachers do not fully trust each other in the schools.

This finding is consistent with earlier study by Tschannen-Moran, 1997 and Hoy, 1997 who also found that teachers' behavior in relation to one another is a primary influence on trust in colleagues. These behaviors that help create trust in colleagues are expressed in term of teachers' engaged behaviors. As these teachers' professionalism behaviors weakened, interactions among teachers would become also difficult. For this reason, the researcher could say that the medium high mean score in teachers' commitment to students, medium high

mean score in teachers' respect in the competence of one another, medium high mean score in teachers' provision of social support for one another, medium high mean score in teachers' getting along with their colleagues, medium high mean score in teachers' helping each other with professional problems and medium high mean scores in teachers' being friendly and feeling good about each other all affect teachers' professionalism behavior in negative way.

4.4 ROLE OF SCHOOL LEADERS AND TEACHER BEHAVIORS' ON TEACHING AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

Leaders' and teachers' responses to items written to investigate the impact of trust destroying factors upon teaching and school effectiveness were collected on five (5) points likert scales consisting of four (4) items for effectiveness, three (3) items for extra effort and two (2) items for satisfaction. The responses were converted into a numerical scale. The numerical value assigned to each response was given as (0=Not at all; 1=Once in a while; 2=Sometimes; 3=fairly often; 4=frequently if not always). Then, the frequency distribution of each variable was calculated as well as the mean scores. On top of that, data were aggregated at the school level by averaging the scores for each item within each area. The mean scores for each variable and factor were then determined by averaging the scores for all survey items within each area. Descriptive statistics i.e. the mean is presented in table 4.8.

As indicated in item one in table 4.8, the majority (10 or 30.3 percent) of teachers and (23 or 79.3 percent) of leaders reported that the leaders ' influence to meet others' job related needs occurred once in a time and (8 or 24.2 percent) of the teachers replied that this behavior did not occur at all. On the contrary, while (7 or 21.2 percent) of the teachers said that this behavior sometimes occurred, (5 or 15 percent) of the teachers complained that fairly often leaders were effective in meeting their job related needs. The remaining (3 or 9 percent) of the teachers and (6 or 20.6 percent) of the leaders said that leaders were always effective in meeting others' job related needs.

Table 4.8: Perceived Effectiveness of leaders and teachers

Item	Leaders (N=29)					Teacher (N=33)				
	Not at all (0)	Once in a while (1)	Sometimes(2)	Fairly often(3)	Frequently if not always(4)	Not at all (0)	Once in a while (1)	Sometimes(2)	Fairly often(3)	Frequently if not always(4)
The leaders are effective in meeting my job-related needs. (I am effective in meeting others 'job-related needs)	-	23 (82.1%)	-	-	6 (17.9%)	8(12.1%)	10 (15.2%)	7 (11.3%)	5 (7.5%)	3 (3.7%)
The leaders are effective in representing me to higher authority. (I am effective in representing others to higher authority)	-	-	6(21%)	17(60.7%)	6(17.8.5%)	5 (7.5%)	6(9.8%)	8 (24.2%)	9 (27.2%)	5(8.4%)
The principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements	-	-	9 (31%)	11 (37%)	9(31%)	5 (15.1%)	5(8.3%)	7 (21.2%)	12 (36.3%)	4(12.1%)
The leaders are leads a group that is effective.	-	7(24.1%)	7 24.1%)	8(27.7 %)	7(24.1%)	6 (18.1%)	6 (18.1 %)	6 (18.1)	10 (30.6)	5 (15.1%)

Source: Own survey data, 2020

From these data, it was understandable that within schools, a considerable amount of variation was due to unusual practices of leaders in schools but the mean scores for both teachers and leaders were quite small (0.75 and 0.8. This suggested that principals were not more effective in meeting each teacher job related needs. Helping each teacher meet his / her job related needs was important for teachers to motivate. Motivated teachers in turn, can do more than they originally expected to do.

As earlier study indicated, trust is necessary for leaders and teachers to feel confident enough in each other to collaborate and share decision making responsibilities, as well as resources. (Tchannen-Moran, 2001) suggests that instructional practices and school policies will improve as teachers are engaged to share their expertise and support and evaluate each other. However, the finding here indicated that supportive leaders behaviors neither were nor existed.

As we can observe from item two, (9or 27.2 percent) of the teachers and (17 or 58.6 percent) of the leaders rated that their leaders assigned responsibilities to them as opportunities for growth and development fairly often and (8 or 24.2 percent) of the teachers and (6 or 20 percent) of the leaders argued that representing teachers to higher authority occurred sometimes. Following this, while (6 or 18 percent) of the teachers said that their leaders assigned responsibilities to them once in a year, (5 or 15.1 percent) of the teachers and (6 or 20percent) of the leaders replied that leaders were representing other to higher authority very frequently. The remaining (5 or 15.1 percent) of the teachers reported that assigning responsibilities to teachers as opportunities for growth and development did not occur at all.

The mean score (1.4) of teachers and mean score (1.5) of leaders indicated that individualized consideration behavior of leaders was relatively moderate. This finding suggested that leaders in order to be more effective in representing staff in higher authority need to take on the role of mentor by assigning responsibilities to teachers as opportunities for growth and development through a process of self actualization.

As earlier study indicated, an enabling bureaucracy that combines flexible rules and procedures with decentralized authority creates an environment in which teachers are encouraged to solve problems and seek out best practices. The culture of open communication and shared responsibility increases the trust that teachers have in their leaders (Geist, 2002). However, it can be noted that in the schools where this research had been taken, principals were relatively moderate in assigning responsibilities to teachers. Item three presented teachers 'and principals 'responses on leaders' effectiveness in meeting schools' requirements.

As indicated in the table, (12 or 36.3 percent) of the teachers and (11or 37 percent) of the leaders reported that leaders were fairly often showed concern for organizational vision and teachers 'motivation. In contrast, (4 or 12.1 percent) of the teachers and (9 or 31 percent) of the leaders argued that principals 'concern for organizational vision and teachers 'motivation was frequently provided. In like manner, the same amount of teachers, that was, (5 or 15.1 percent of the teachers claimed that leaders 'abilities to communicate their visions in ways that inspire all faculties to take actions in an effort to fulfil the visions did not occur at all or if happen, once in a year respectively. Finally, (7 or 21.2 percent) of the teachers and (9 or 31 percent) of the leaders indicated that it was sometimes that leaders provided challenges and meanings to teachers in order to engage them in shared organizational goals.

The calculated mean score (1.4) of teachers and mean score (1.5) of indicated that most of the teachers and leaders agreed with fairly often or very frequently occurrence of effective leadership in meeting organizational requirements. Hence, this indicated that the school principals were moderately remained focused on the vision of the group although obstacles such as time, weather condition, location, and cost were experienced in the schools.

The data obtained in the item four revealed that (10 or 30.6 percent) of the teachers and (8 or 27.7 percent) of the leaders rated their leaders as fairly often lead a group that was effective. In addition to this, almost (6 or 18.1 percent) of the teachers and (7 or 24.1percent) of the leaders said that leaders 'behavior of leading a group which was effective as occurred once in a while in their schools. Another group of respondents, that was, (6 or 18.1percent) of the teachers and (7 or 24.1 percent) of the leaders rated leaders' behavior of leading a group that was effective as occurred sometimes in their schools. Besides that, (5 or 15.1 percent) of the teachers and (7 or 24.1percent) of the leaders rated their leaders as it was frequently that lead a group that was effective. The remaining (6 or 18.1 percent) of the teachers argued that leading a group that was effective by their leaders did not occur at all.

The calculated mean score (1.1) of teachers and mean score (1.3) of leaders indicated that results were scattered. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that almost medium number of teachers and leaders agreed with medium point scale, which was, fairly often or

sometimes occurrence of effective leadership in leading effective group. As a result, this indicated that the school leaders were moderately willing to take risks and were moderately consistent in leading effective group.

Table 4.9: Mean for all items of Perceived Effectiveness of Teachers and Leaders

	Item	Leaders		Teacher	
		No	Mean	No	Mean
1	Job related needs	29	1.60	33	1.51
2	Effective in representing me to higher authority	29	3.00	33	2.10
3	Effective in meeting organizational requirements	29	3.00	33	2.10
4	The leaders leads a group that is effective	29	2.60	33	2.02
Perceived effectiveness of teachers and principals		29	2.55	33	1.93

Source: Own survey data, 2020

While the average score for all four dimensions of perceived effectiveness did not reach 4.0 for frequency occurrence response, there was some agreement on its occurrence. On close analysis; hence, it appears that the average score on this aspect of leadership outcome is somewhat distorted by the higher perception leaders have on this aspect of leadership outcome. As an illustration, principals reported that they were effective in representing other to higher authority for a mean score of 3.0. When teachers reported their perception on this leadership behavior; however, they expressed some disagreement with frequency occurrence of this behavior with a mean score of 2.09. A similar pattern was also found for the other three behaviors that comprise this dimension of leadership outcome. On closer examination; consequently, it appears that teachers are unwilling to trust that leaders are effective in meeting others' job related needs, in meeting organizational requirements and in leading groups that are effective as what leaders would like.

The character dimension with a mean score of 1.51 in teachers' report and mean score of 1.60 in principals' report alike was the lowest of the four performance outcomes item in perceived effectiveness of leadership outcome. These same mean scores; that is, 1.51 in teachers'

response and 1.34 in leaders' response respectively on the behavior, The leaders is effective in meeting my job related needs / I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs would indicate that leaders not at all provide any one with job related materials. This coupled with the low mean scores on the behavior, The leaders leads a group that is effective / I am effective in leading a group that is effective could lead to a situation where both teachers and leaders are in the dark regarding what each really thinks about what is happening in their school setting. Not only that, from these respondents 'responses, one can also conclude that leaders were not focusing more on removing obstacles, they were not providing materials and emotional support, they were not taking care of the management details that could make their journey to be complete, and they were not identifying a worthwhile destination for the future march.

The perceived leadership effectiveness dimension with mean scores of 2.09 in teachers' response and mean score of 3.00 in leaders' response on the behavior i.e. the leaders is effective in representing me to higher authority/ I am effective in representing others to higher authority) as well as the perceived leadership effectiveness dimension with mean score of 2.09 in teachers' response and mean score of 3.00 in leaders' report on the behavior (The leaders is effective in meeting organizational requirements / I am effective in meeting organizational requirements) also do not offer such hope that teachers and leaders could be effective in their performance. Low mean scores of such indicate that a number of teachers and principals have minimally or moderately agreed with the frequency occurrence of the two leadership behaviors that partly make up the perceived leadership effectiveness. Thus, it could be said that a number of teachers and leaders have minimal or moderate faith in their principals' abilities. Thus, high trust could not be developed between teachers and principals in their respective schools.

Based on the above finding, we could say that leaders' ineffectiveness in representing teachers to higher authority, ineffectiveness in meeting teachers' job-related needs, ineffectiveness in meeting organizational requirement and ineffectiveness in leading effective group are direct demonstration of leaders' low-trust in teachers which may compel the teachers to reciprocate that low-trust. This also seems to affirm that leaders do not take

teachers as the most important assets in the schools. Thus, teachers' trust in their leaders was impacted by the level of perceived ineffectiveness and incapability of principals in carrying out the organizational practices or decisions they used to make in the schools. Previous studies; however, concluded that perceived trust of leaders by their employees yield higher performance because with trust employees experience greater job commitment and job security (Wicks, 1999). It is also not hard; in addition to this, to say that where there is such low trust, employees will not have greater productivity and they will not have better quality of ideas. So, the schools where this study had been taken were not effective.

Table 4.10: Leaders' and Teachers' Satisfaction in the Schools

Item	Principal (N=29)					Teacher (N=33)				
	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if, not always	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if, not always
Leaders use methods of leadership that are satisfying (I use methods of leadership that are satisfying)		5 (17.2%)		19 (65.5%)	5 (17.2%)	3(8.3%)	10 (15.1%)	8 (12.1%)	6 (9.8%)	3(4.5%)
Leadersworks with me in a satisfactory way (I work with others in a satisfactory way)		5 (17.2 %)		19 (65.5%)	1 (20%)	5 (8.3%)	4(6.8%)	4 (6.8%)	11(17.4 %)	7 (10.6 %)

Source: Own survey data, 2020

As indicated in item one in the table 4.10 above, teachers and leaders were asked about their satisfaction with methods that school leaders used in their schools as indicators of success. Their responses were varied considerably with point scales. For example, (10 or 15.1 percent) of the teachers and (5 or17.2 percent) of the leaders pointed out that their satisfaction with methods that leaders used in their schools occurred once in a while. In addition, (6 or 9.8 percent) of the teachers and (19 or 65.5 percent) of the leaders reported that it was fairly often that they satisfied with methods that leaders used in their schools. Furthermore, (3 or 4.5

percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the leaders said that it was frequently that they satisfied with methods that leaders used in their respective schools. Not only had that, (8 or 12.1 percent) of the teachers also said that it was sometimes that they satisfied with methods that principals used in their schools. On top of that, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers claimed that they never satisfy at all with the methods that their leaders used in their schools.

These variations were due to differences among teachers and leaders perceptions about methods that their leaders used. Once people had evidence that lead them to perceive differences in leaders, distrust was likely to emerge. The calculated mean score (1.8) of teachers and mean score (2.8) of leaders indicated that most of the teachers scored below average whereas leaders scored nearly average and above. Hence, this indicated that the school leaders who rated high tended to divide faculties into two groups: those with whom they shared group membership (principals) and those who were outside that group (teachers). Once faculties had been categorized, leaders seemed to make biased assumption, based on group membership, about their values, preferences, behaviors, and trustworthiness. For this reason, the finding suggested that teachers'satisfaction with leaders 'ways of executing day-to-day practices was minimal.

As indicated in item two, almost (11 or 17.4 percent) of the teachers and (19 or 65.5 percent) of the leaders rated the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred fairly often. On the contrary, (7 or 10.6 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the leaders rated that the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred most frequently. Moreover, (4 or 6.8 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the leaders rated that the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred once in a while. Yet, (4 or 6.8 percent) of the teachers rated that the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred Sometimes. Finally, (5 or 8.3 percent) of the teachers said that working with others in a satisfactory way did not occur at all in the schools. The calculated mean score (2.3) of teachers and mean score (2.8) of leaders indicated that most of the teachers and principals scored average.   As a result, this indicated that the school principals were moderately working with others in a satisfactory way.

Table 4.11: Mean for all items of satisfaction of teachers and Leaders

No	Item	Leaders		Teacher	
		N	Mean	N	Mean
1	The leaders uses methods of leadership that are satisfying (I use methods of leadership that are satisfying)	29	2.8	110	1.77
2	The leaders' works with me in a satisfying way (I work with others in a satisfying way)	29	2.8	110	2.31
	Satisfaction of teachers and principals	29	2.8	110	2.04

Source: Own survey data, 2020

We are now briefly analyzing the respondents' responses regarding to the teachers and leaders satisfaction with leadership. Consequently, while the average score for all two dimensions of perceived satisfaction did not reach 4.0 for frequency occurrence response, there was some agreement on its occurrence. On close analysis; thus, it appears that the average score on this aspect of leadership outcome is somewhat distorted by the higher perception leaders have on this aspect of leadership outcome. For example, leaders reported equally that they used methods of leadership that were satisfying and worked with others in a satisfactory ways for mean scores of 2.8. When teachers reported their perception on this leadership behavior; however, they expressed some disagreement with frequency occurrence of this behavior with a mean score of 1.77 on the behavior, the leaders' uses methods of leadership that are satisfying and mean score of 2.31 on the behavior, the leaders works with me in a satisfactory way respectively. On closer examination; consequently, it appears that teachers believe that leaders are not doing the things for them, which is oppose to what principals thought.

The character dimension with a mean score of 1.77 in teachers' report on the behavior, the leaders' use methods of leadership that are satisfying was lower than the character dimension with a mean score of 2.31 in teachers' response on the behavior, the leaders' works with me in a satisfactory way. This mean score; that is, 2.31 in teachers' response on the behavior, the leaders works with me in a satisfactory way indicates that leaders minimally work with other

59

in a satisfactory way. This coupled with the low mean scores on the behavior, The leaders uses methods of leadership that are satisfying could lead to a situation where both teachers and leaders do not get work satisfaction. Not only have that, from these respondents 'responses, one can also concluded that leaders were not trusted by the teachers. Having not trusted principals by teachers may lead also to poor performance. In addition, poor performance usually links to low level of job satisfaction. Teachers who do not trust their leaders and have poor relationship with them usually do not spend much time on their work. This implies that in the schools where this study had been conducted, productivity was less.

Table 4.12: Leaders and Teachers' Extra Effort in the Schools

Item	leaders (N=29)					Teachers(N=33)				
	Not at all	at all Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Leaders get me to do more than I expected to do. (I get others to do more than they expected to do)	7(24.1 %)		15		7 (24.1%)	3 (9%)	6 (18.1%)	8(24.2 %)	12	4(12.1 %)
Leader heightens my desire to succeed. (I heighten others ' desire to succeed).	7 (24.1 %)	7 (24.1 %)	15 (51.7 %)			4 (12.1 %)	7 (21.2%)	6 (18.1%)	10 (30.3%)	6 (18.1%)
Tleaders increase my willingness to try harder. (I increase others ' willingness to try harder			7 (24.1 %)	15 (51.7 %)	7 (24.1 %)	8 (24.2%)	5 (15.1 %)	5 (15.1 %)	11 (33.3%)	4 (12.1%)

Source: Own survey data, 2020

As indicated in item one in the table 4.12, teachers and leaders were asked about their principals'leadership whether leaders motivated teachers to do more than they thought they could do in their schools as indicators of success. Their responses were varied considerably with point scales. For example, (12 or 36.3 percent) of the teachers and (15 or 51.7 percent) of

the leaders pointed out that their leaders fairly often motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. In addition, (8 or 24.2percent) of the teachers reported that it was sometimes that their leaders motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. Furthermore, (6 or 18.1 percent) of the teachers and (7 or 24.1percent) of the leaders said that it was once in a while that their leaders motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. Not only had that, (4 or 12.1 percent) of the teachers and (3or 9 percent) of the leaders also said that it was frequently that their leaders motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. On top of that, (7 or 10.6 percent) of the teachers claimed that their leaders never motivated them at all to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools.

These variations were due to differences among teachers and leaders perception about motivation that their leaders did in schools. The calculated mean score (2.2) of teachers and mean score (2.8) of leaders indicated that most of the teachers scored average or nearly above average. Hence, this indicated that the school principals moderately motivated teachers to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. For this reason, the finding suggested that teachers were moderately exerting their extra effort to do their day-to-day teaching and learning leaders.

As indicated in item two, teachers and leaders were asked about their leaders whether they heightened teachers' motivation to succeed in their schools as indicators of success. Their responses were varied considerably with point scales. For example, (10 or 30.3 percent) of the teachers and (15 or 51.7 percent) of the leaders pointed out that their leaders fairly often heightened their motivation to succeed. In addition, (6 or 18.1 percent) of the teachers reported that their leaders frequently, if not always heightened their motivation to succeed. Furthermore, (7 or 21.1 percent) of the teachers and (7 or 24.1 percent) of the leaders said that it was once in a while that their leaders heightened their motivation to succeed. Not only had that, (6 or 18.1 percent) of the teachers and (7 or 24.1 percent) of the leaders also said that it was sometimes that their leaders heightened their motivation to succeed. On top of that, (4 or

12.1 percent) of the teachers claimed that their principals never at all heightened their motivation to succeed in their schools.

These variations were due to differences among teachers and leaders perception about methods that their leaders used to heighten their desire to succeed. Once people had evidence that lead them to perceive differences in practices, distrust was likely to emerge.The calculated mean score (2.2) of teachers and mean score (2.4) of principals indicated that most of the teachers scored average and had moderately agreed with the fairly often occurrence of principals' behavior that heighten others' desire to succeed. Hence, this indicated that the school principals moderately heighten teachers' motivate to do more and succeed. For this reason, the finding suggested that teachers were moderately exerting their extra effort to do their day-to-day teaching and learning practices.

As indicated in item three, teachers and leaders were asked about their leaders whether they increased teachers' willingness to try hard in their schools as indicators of success. Their responses were varied considerably with point scales. For example, (11 or 33.3 percent) of the teachers and (15 or 51.7 percent) of the leaders pointed out that their leaders fairly often increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. In addition, (5 or 15.1 percent) of the teachers and (7 or 24.1 percent) of the leaders reported that it was sometimes that their leaders increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. Furthermore, (4or 12.1 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the leaders said that it was frequently that their leaders increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. Not only had that, (5 or 15.1 percent) of the teachers also said that it was once in a while that their leaders increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. On top of that, (8 or 24.2 percent) of the teachers claimed that their leaders never at all increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. These variations were due to differences among teachers and leaders 'perception about methods that their leaders used to increase their willingness to try hard in their schools. Once people have evidence that leads them to perceive differences in practices, distrust is likely to emerge. The calculated mean score (1.9) of teachers and mean score (3.0) of leaders indicated that most of the teachers scored below or equal to average whereas leaders scored nearly above average. Hence, this indicated that the school leaders who rated high for leaders' practices tend to divide faculties into two groups: those with whom they shared group

membership (leaders) and those who are outside that group (teachers). Once faculties had been categorized, leaders seemed to make biased assumption, based on group membership, about their values, preferences, behaviors, and trustworthiness. For this reason, the finding suggested that teachers were minimally exerting their extra effort to try hard doing their day-to-day practices.

Table 4.13: Mean for all Items of Extra Effort of Teachers and Leaders

No.	Item	Leaders		Teachers	
		No	Mean	No	Mean
1	The leaders gets me to do more than I expected to do (I get others to do more than they expected to do)	29	2.80	110	2.22
2	The leaders heightens my desire to succeed. (I heighten others 'desires to succeed).	29	2.40	110	2.19
3	The leaders increases my willingness to try harder (I increase others 'willingness to try harder)	29	3.00	110	1.91
Extra effort from teachers and principals		29	2.73	110	2.11

Source: Own survey data, 2020

In considering the extra effort as a result of leadership behaviors, while the average score for all three items of extra effort did not reach 4.0 for how frequently leaders had displayed the behaviors described, there was some agreement on its occurrence. On close analysis; therefore, it appears that the average score on this aspect of leadership outcome is somewhat distorted by the higher perception leaders have on this aspect of leadership outcome. One example of this is that leaders reported that they increase others 'willingness to try harder for a mean score of 3.00. When teachers reported their perception on this leadership behavior; however, they expressed some disagreement with frequency occurrence of this behavior with a mean score of 1.91. A similar pattern was also found for the other two behaviors that comprise this dimension of leadership outcome. On closer examination; thus, it appears that

teachers are unwilling to trust that leaders get others to do more than they expect to do and increase others' willingness to try harder as what leaders would like.

The perceived extra effort dimension with mean score of 2.80 in leaders' response and mean score of 2.22 in teachers' response on the behavior, the leaders get me to do more than I expected to do / I get others to do more than they expected to do as well as the perceived extra effort dimension with mean score of 2.40 in leaders' responses and mean score of in teachers' responses on the behavior, the leaders heighten my desire to succeed / I heighten others' desires to succeed also do not offer such hope that teachers and leaders were motivated to put in extra effort. Thus, trust could not be developed between teachers and leaders in their respective schools. Low mean scores of 2.80 as leaders rated themselves and 2.22 as teachers rated their principals' behaviors indicate that a number of teachers and leaders had minimally agreed with the frequency occurrence of the two leadership behaviors that make up the perceived extra effort as a result of leadership behaviors. Thus, it could be said that a number of teachers and leaders have minimal faith in their principals' influence behaviors.

In addition to the discussion mentioned above, we could also see that there was a minimum positive behavior in the extra effort from teachers and leaders. The reasons for not exerting extra effort in these schools were reported by teachers and leaders as leadership behaviors and how motivator leaders were. Principals were not getting others to do more than they expected, they were not heightening teachers' desires to succeed and they were not increasing teachers'willingness to try harder. These findings have strong negative consequences. For example, if leaders do not do these, teachers will not trust them. And if teachers do not trust their principals, it implies that, they do not interact with them positively. Moreover, it implies that, leaders are using strong influence strategies to control teachers. Furthermore, this implies that teachers and leaders do not like each other. As a result, this does not make for a productive or even a comfortable workplace. Past studies by (Brief & Weiss, 2002; and Podolny and Baron, 1997) show that relationships between workers with a positive affective dimension increase personal health, happiness, and job devotion. Moreover, these authors concluded that the individual benefits spill over to improve the whole organizational work climate and work quality (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Podolny & Baron, 1997).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presented the summary of major findings, conclusion, and recommendations of the study. It clearly represented the major findings, generalization was also provided about the major findings, and relevant suggestions were forwarded to the major problems in the research findings.

5.1 SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

There were very specific research findings that would explicitly address the three research questions. Of the few findings that explicitly addressed the three research questions, the most important ones were the following:

1. The leaders' impact in generating trust in colleagues seemed quite limited; that is, leaders' behaviors had little influence on the trust that teachers had with each other. Of the three types of faculty trust examined, only principals' trust in the teachers was found to be medium high (Mean=3.93). Faculty trust in the colleaguesand faculty trust in principalswere found to be very low with Mean=1.79 and Mean=1.87 respectively.

2. Regarding factors hindering trust, collegial leadership was not experienced in the schools where the study had been undertaken (Mean Average=1.66). To look at each of the indicators one by one: teachers were less willing to trust leaders for their not being friendly and approachable (Mean=1.27), they do not put suggestions made by the faculty into operation (Mean=1.49), for not exploring all sides of topics and admitting that other opinions exist (Mean=1.66), for not treating all faculty members as their equals (Mean=1.77) and for not maintaining definite standard of performance (Mean=1.74)

3. Regarding factors hindering trust again, teachers' professionalism behaviors were found to be weak (Mean Average =1.73). As a result, interactions among teachers were also found to be difficult. These were all due to the (1) low mean score in teachers' commitment to students (Mean=1.27), (2) low mean score in teachers' respect in the competence of one another (Mean=1.78), (3) low mean score in teachers' provision of social support for one another (Mean=1.75), (4) low mean score in teachers' exercise of professional judgment (Mean=1.71), (5) low mean score in teachers' going the extra mile in helping their students (Mean=1.72)and (6) low mean scores in teachers' provision of strong social support to collegues (Mean=1.46). All these affected teachers' professionalism behavior in negative way.

4. Regarding the role of teachers and school leaders behaviors on school and teaching effectiveness, teachers' trust in their leaders was negatively impacted by the level of their perception of their leaders as ineffective in carrying out organizational practices or decisions they used to make in their schools (Mean Average=1.93). Similarly, the perceived effectiveness of teachers in the eyes of school leaders is at a low to medium level (Mean Average=2.55).

5. Both teachers and leaders did not get work satisfaction. however, leaders satisfaction level is better than teachers (mean scores of 2.04 and 2.8 respectively). The teachers did not trust leaders. Having not trusted leaders by the teachers also leaded to poor performance of the teachers, because poor performance is usually linked to low level of job satisfaction.

6. School and teaching effectiveness is also assessed with putting extra effort. Accordingly, it was found out that leaders did not get teachers to do more than they expected (Mean=2.22), they did not heighten teachers' desires to succeed (Mean=2.19) and they did not increase teachers' willingness to try harder (Mean=1.91). All these had strong negative consequences on school and teaching effectiveness.

5.2 CONCLUSION

The issues raised hereunder were among the most important conclusions of the study, which were still related with the research major findings.

The overall result of the study indicated that there is low level of trust between principals and teachers. However, the principals' trust on teachers is relatively better than the trust of colleagues each other and teachers trust on principals. Teachers' work; in turn, depends on decisions that the leaders makes about the allocation of resources to their classrooms. To maintain these interdependences; hence, trust is required. In this regard, the government secondary schools of Mojo city administration seem lagging behind.

The findings of this study concerning collegial leadership and teacher professionalism revealed that leaders had not yet helped teachers to develop as professionals who had confident and committed, possessed specialized knowledge and expertise collaborated with their colleagues and undertook leadership roles both within and outside their classes. This seemed resulted from the presence of low level of trust between principals and teachers in government secondary schools of Mojo city administration. Collegial leadership as measured by principals' friendly approach, putting suggestions of faculty into operation, exploring all sides of topics, treatment of all faculty members equal, willingness to make changes, letting faculty know what is expected of them and maintaining definite standards of performance is found to be at low performance showing a challenge to trust. Similarly, teachers' professionalism was found to be a factor hindering trust. Consequently, the teaching and learning process in the schools where the study has been taken was not effective.

As to the role of teachers and leaders behavior on school and teachers effectiveness perceived by respondents the leaders are weak in meeting job related needs, representing teachers, meeting organizational requirements and leading a group that is effective. This affects school and teachers effectiveness. In general, school and teaching effectiveness outcomes showed that leaders were much less effective, were not enhancing the interest and commitment of the teachers in the schools. This seemed resulted from the presence of negative interpersonal relationship between leaders and teachers in the schools.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made believing that they would be helpful for realizing and putting in effect in schools where one has to be effective in building and maintaining trust among teachers and between teachers and leaders.

For the school leaders:

1. Identifying the specific causes of mistrust in the school and making a sincere commitment to address them is the first and probably most important step. For that end, the school leaders should encourage conducting action research on the issue by participating teachers and come up with recommendations that would be applicable in the schools concerned.

2. To improve trust in the schools, the school leaders also need to be predictable, keeping confidence and showing teachers that they care about them to minimize lack of trust.

3. In reviewing the school organizational atmosphere, systematic study should be conducted to eliminate the unfriendly relationship between teachers and principals in which it appears to be particularly strange and challenge to establish trust between teachers and principals.

4. School leaders should provide a supportive working environment in which available resources are effectively employed to ensure success.

5. Leaders, particularly those who are appointed with a mandate to lead the whole schools systems, must pay particular attentions to embed cultures of trust among the staff.

For government and community bodies:

1. Creating and sustaining school communities. School communities are desirable to develop strong social support among teachers. This is because in schools; parents, students, teachers and leaders are all mutually dependent on each other to achieve their goals.

2. Zonal and Woreda school governance authorities need to make it as a matter of policy to ensure that all secondary school leaders undergo refreshment course on educational management.

3. Since the goal of trust in schools is ultimately benefit the students and lead to school effectiveness, supervision from concerned education authorities regarding its status and sustainability needs to be reviewed constantly.

REFERENCES

Adams, C. M. (2008). Building trust in schools: A review of the empirical evidence. In W. K. Hoy & M. DiPaola (Eds.), *Improving schools: Studies in leadership and culture* (pp. 29-54). Research and theory in educational administration. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Adams, C. M., Forsyth, P. B., & Mitchell, R. M. (2009). The formation of parent-school trust: A multilevel analysis. *Educational Administration Quarterly,45*(1), 4-33 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ826820)

Adsett, Margaret. (2003). ―*Change in Political Era and Demographic Weight as Explanations of Youth 'Disenfranchisement' in Federal Elections in Canada 1965-2000, Journal of Youth Studies 6, 3: 47-64.*

Atkinson, S. and Butcher, D. (2003). "Trust in Managerial Relationships". *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Vol. 18 No. 4, pp. 282–304.

Baier, A. (1986). *Trust and antitrust*. *Ethics* Vol. 96, Number 2 (231–260). The university of Chicago Press journals.

Bhattacharya, R., Devinney, T.M. and Pillutla, M.M. (1998). *A formal model of trust based on outcomes"*. Academy of Management Review, 23:3, 459–472.

Blankstein, Alan M. (2004). *Failure Is Not an Option: Six Principles That Guide Student Achievement in High-Performing Schools*. Corwin Press.

Borgen,S.O. (2001). "Identification as a Trust-Generating Mechanism in Cooperatives", Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics, Vol. 72 No.2,pp. 209–228.

Brower, H. H., Lester, S. W., Korsgaard, M. A. and Dinen, B. R. (2009). *"A Closer Look at Trust between Managers and Subordinates: Understanding the Effects of BothTrustingand Being Trusted on Subordinate Outcomes". Journal ofManagement, Vol. 35, No. 2, pp. 327-347.*

Bryk, A. S., & Schneider, B. (2003). *Trust in schools: A core resource for school reform.Educational Leadership, 60,* 40-44.

Cosner, S. (2009). *Building organizational capacity through trust. Educational Administration Quarterly, 45(2), 248-291*. (ERIC Document ReproductionService No. EJ833142).

Creed, W.E.D. and Miles, R.E. (1996). *Trust in organizations: a conceptual framework linking organizational forms, managerial philosophies, and the opportunity cost of controls*. In R.M. Kramer and T.R. Tyler (eds), *Trust inOrganizations: Frontiers of Theory and Research*, 16–38. Thousand Oaks,CA: Sage Publications.

Dalton, Russell J. (2005). "The Social Transformation of Trust in Government." International Review of Sociology 15, (1), 133-154.

Deutsch, M. (1958). Trust and suspicion. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, *2*, 265–279.

Driscoll, J. W. (1978). Trust and participation in organizational decision making as predictors of satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal,* 21: 44-56.

Eisenstaedt, S. N. (1968). *Max Weber on charisma and institution building*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Ellis, K. and Shockley-Zalabak, P. (2001). *"Trust in Top Management and Immediate Supervisor: The Relationship to Satisfaction, Perceived Organizational Effectiveness, and Information Receiving"*. *Communication Quarterly*, Vol.49, No. 4, pp. 382-398.

Forsyth, P. B., & Adams, C. M. (2004). *Social capital in education: Taking stock of concept and measure.* In W. K. Hoy & C. G. Miskel (Eds.), *Educationaladministration, policy, and reform: Research and measurement* (pp. 251-278). Research and theory in educational administration. Greenwich, CT:Information Age.109

Forsyth, P. B., Barnes, L. L., & Adams, C. M. (2006). *Trust-effectiveness patterns in schools*. *Journal of Educational Administration, 44*(2), 122-141. (ERICDocument Reproduction Service No. EJ801615)

Geist, J. R. (2002). Predictors of faculty trust in elementary schools: Enabling bureaucracy, teacher professionalism, and academic press. Unpublisheddoctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus.

Hardin, R. (2002). *Trust and Trustworthiness, Russell Sage Foundation*. New York, NY.

Hosmer, L. T. (1995). *Trust: The connecting link between organizational theory and philosophical ethics*. *Academy of Management Review*, *20*(2), 379–403.

Hoy, W. K., & Kupersmith, W. J. (1984). *Principal authenticity and faculty trust: Keyelements in organizational behavior. Planning and Changing, 15*(2), 80-88.(ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ309958)

Hoy, W. K., & Tschannen-Moran, M. (2003). *The conceptualization and measurement of faculty trust in schools: The Omnibus T-Scale.* In W. K. Hoy & C. Miskel(Eds.), *Studies in leading and organizing schools* (pp. 181-208). Research andtheory in educational administration. Greenwich, CT: Information AgePublishing.111

Khodyakov, Dmitry (2007). *Trust as a process: a three-dimensional approach. Sociology* 41(1): 115-132.

Kochanek, J. R. (2005). *Building trust for better schools*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Kothari, C.R. (2004). Research Methodology, Methods and Techniques.New age International (Pltd). New Delhi. 2nd revised edition.

Lewis, D., & Weigert, A. (1985). *Trust as a social reality*. *Social Forces*, 63(4), 967–985.

Loomis, J. (1959). ―*Communication, the development of trust, and cooperative behavior".* Human Relations, Vol. 52, pp. 305-15.

Louis, K. S. (2007). *Trust and improvement in schools*. *Journal of Educational Change*, *8*(15), 1–24.

Maele, D. V., & Houtte, M. V. (2009). Faculty trust and organizational school characteristic: An exploration across secondary schools in Flanders. *Educational Administration Quarterly 2009*; *45; 556* fromhttp://eaq.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/45/4/556.

Maranto, R.T. and Skelley, B.D. (2003**).** *Anticipating Change in the Higher Civil Service: Affective Commitment, Organizational Ideology, and Political Ideology***,** PAQ, fall 2003, pp. 336–367.

Mayer, R. C., J. H. Davis, F. D. Schoorman (1995). *An integrative model of organizational trust*. *Academic Management Rev.* 20(3) 709–734.

McKnight, John and Kretzmann, John (1993). *Building Mutually-Beneficial Relationships Between Schools and Communities: The Role of a Connector.Asset Based Community Development Institute at North Western University.*

Mitchell, R. M., & Forsyth, P. B. (2004). *Trust, the principal, and student identification*.Paper presented at the annual meeting of The University Council for Education Administration, Kansas City, Missouri. Retrieved September 12, 2008, from http://coe.ksu.edu/ucea/2004/04ucea19.pdf.

Murphy, J., & Louis, K. (1994). *Reshaping the principalship: Insights from transformational reform efforts.*Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Nanus, B. (1989). *The leader"s edge: The seven keys to leadership in a turbulent world*. Chicago: Contemporary Books.

Podolny, J. M., & Baron, J. N. (1997). *Resources and relationships: Social networks and mobility in the workplace.American Sociological Review*, *62*, 673-693.

Rieg, Sue A. (2007). *Young children"s perceptions of school administrators: Fostering positive relationships. Jalongo, Mary R. (Ed.).Enduring bonds: The significance of interpersonal relationships in young children's lives.* New York: Springer.

Rousseau, D., Sitkin, S., Burt, R., & Camerer, C. (1998). *Not so different after all: A crossdiscipline view of trust.Academy of Management Review, 23,* 393-404.

Senge, P. M (2000). *Schools that Learn: A Fifth Discipline Field book for Educators, Parents, and Everyone who cares about Education, Doubleday*. New York: NY

Shamir, B., & Lapidot, Y. (2003). *Trust in organizational superiors: Systemic and collective considerations.Organization Studies, 24,* 463-491.

Shockley-Zalabak P, Ellis K, Winograd G. (2000). Organizational trust, what it means, why it matters.*Organizational Development Journal,* 18, 35-48.

Simmel, G. (1978). *The Philosophy of Money*. Routledge, London

Sonneberg, F. (1994). *Trust me…trust me not*. *Journal of Business Strategy, 15 (1), 14-16.*

Tannenbuam, R. & Massarik, F. (1957). *Leadership: A frame of reference*. *Management Science, 4*(1), 1-19.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Trust in schools: A conceptual analysis*. Journal of Educational Administration, 36*(3-4), 334-352. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ571815)

Tyler, T. and Kramer, R. M. (1996). *Whither trust?* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weick, K. E., Sutcliffe, K. M., & Obstfeld, D. (2005). *Organizing and the process of Sense making. Organization Science, 16: 409-421*

Whitaker, T., Whitaker, B., & Lumpa, D. (2000). *Motivating and inspiring teachers: The educational leader"s guide for building staff morale.* Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

Wicks, A. C., Berman, S. L., & Jones, T. M. (1999). *The structure of optimal trust: Moral and strategic. Academy of Management Review, 24,* 99–116.

Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in Organizations (5th ed).* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zucker, L. G. (1986). *The production of trust: Institutional sources of economic structure 1840–1920. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.). Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 8, pp. 55–111). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

QUESTIONNAIRE

JIMA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Questionnaire to be filled by leaders and teachers
General Direction

I am a graduate student of Educational Leadership and Management in education at Jima University. The ultimate purpose of this study is to assess the level of trust among educators (teacher-to-teacher and teachers-to-leaders) at government secondary schools of Mojo city Administration. The information collected through this questionnaire will be used purely for academic purpose. Your response will be kept confidential and you are kindly requested to complete the questionnaire carefully. Please, read the instruction and each item in the questionnaire carefully before you give your response. If you want to change any of your response, please make sure that you have cancelled the undesired ones.

N.B - No need to write your name

-There is no need of consulting other to fill the questionnaires.

Thank You Very much for your patience and dedication to respond to the entire question.

PARTI: Background Information of the Respondents
Please, put a mark (√) in your choice among the following alternatives with respect to background information on the space provided in the box for each item below.
1. The school you are working in_____
2. Sex: Male ………   Female ………..
3. Age: 20-25 ………   26-30 ………..
4. Experience: < 5 …………   6-10 …………..
5. Qualification: Certificate………   Diploma………   Degree……..   Masters…….
     Other………….

Thank you very much

PART-II Please put a mark (√) to indicate the possible answer for the following given alternatives about respondents' perceptionabout Relational Trustrelatedinformation

Key: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal.					
2	The principal in this school typically acts in the best interests of the teachers.					
3	Teachers in this school can understandthe Leaders					
4	Teachers in this school trust the principal.					
5	The principal doesn't tell teachers what is really going on.					
6	The principal of this school does not show concern for teachers.					
7	The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the principal 's actions.					
8	The principal of this school is competent in doing his or her job.					
9	Teachers in this school typically look out for each other.					
10	Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other.					
11	Teachers in this school trust each other.					
12	Teachers in this school are open with each other.					
13	Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues.					
14	Teachers in this school are suspicious of each other.					
15	When teachers in this school tell you something you can believe it.					
16	Teachers in this school do their jobs well.					

PART III: Please put a mark (√) to indicate the possible answer for the following given alternatives about respondents' school climaterelatedinformation

Key: 1-Never occur   2-Rarely occur   3-Sometimes occur   4-Often occur   5-Very frequently

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The principal is friendly and approachable.					
2	The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.					
3	The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist.					
4	The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.					
5	The principal is willing to make changes.					
6	The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.					
7	The principal maintains definite standards of performance.					
8	The interactions between faculty members are cooperative.					
9	Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.					
10	Teachers help and support each other.					
11	Teachers in this school exercise professional judgement.					
12	Teachers are committed to helping students.					
13	Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.					
14	Teachers go the extra mile with their students.					
15	Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.					

PART IV: Please put a mark (√) to indicate the possible answer for the following given alternatives about principals leadershipoutcomerelatedinformation

Key: 1-Not at all 2-Once in a while 3-Sometimes 4-Fairly often 5-Frequently, if not always

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The principal is effective in meeting my job-related needs.					
2	The principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying.					
3	The principal gets me to do more than i expected to do.					
4	The principal is effective in representing me to higher authority.					
5	The principal works with me in a satisfactory way.					
6	The principal heightens my desire to succeed.					
7	The principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements.					
8	The principal increases my willingness to try harder.					
9	The principal leads a group that is effective.					