

**THE CURRENT STATUS OF TRUST BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND
TEACHERS IN GOVERNMENT PREPARATORY SCHOOLS OF
GAMBELLA PEOPLES' NATIONAL REGIONAL STATE**

By

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ABSTRACT

This research was designed to examine the current status of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. The methodology of the research was descriptive. On top of that, the study was guided by questions; such as, (1) What is the current level of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?; (2) What are the major barriers that hinder trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?; and (3) To what extent are the behavior of the principals and the behavior of teachers made impact upon teaching and school effectiveness in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State? Data were collected by means of standardized questionnaires; such as, The Omnibus T-Scale (The Principal Trust Scale & The Faculty Trust Scale), The School Climate Index (Collegial Leadership & Teacher Professionalism) and The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Leadership Outcome). Accordingly, trust in schools was measured as the trust perceptions' of principals and teachers. The two sub-scales of school climate; i.e., collegial leadership and teacher professionalism were measured through the perceptions of teachers. Moreover, leadership out come with its three dimensions—effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort—was measured through the perceptions of both principals and teachers. Surveys were used to collect the perceptions of principals and teachers from a purposive sample of five (5) preparatory schools in Gambella region. A total of five (5) principals (100%) and one hundred twenty eight (128) teachers (89.51%) returned usable surveys. All data were aggregated to the school level using the means completed surveys items. The current level of trust, school climate data and leadership outcome data were then statistically analyzed using the non-parametric statistical analysis. The major findings of the study indicated that the level of trust between principals and teachers was low, collegial leadership and teachers' professionalism were not rightly practiced. Consequently, the teaching and learning process in the schools where the study had been taken was not effective.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABE	Alternative Basic Education
AGIMO	Australian Government Information Management Office
BoFED	Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
CIA	Community Impact Assessment
CL	Collegial Leadership
FTC	Faculty Trust in Colleagues
FTP	Faculty Trust in the Principal
FTS	Faculty Trust Scale
KG	Kindergarten
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
PrTS	Principal Trust Scale
PrTT	Principal Trust in Teachers
SCI	School Climate Index
SES	Socio-Economic Status
SNNPR	Southern Nation Nationality Peoples Region
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science Software
KM ²	Square Kilo Meter
TP	Teacher Professionalism
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education Training
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNPAN	United Nations online network in Public Administration and Finance

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

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, delimitations of the study, limitations of the study, definition of key terms and organization of the study.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

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.

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 others. 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 p 105). 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: 9-10), 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-teacher relationship within a school community, stresses that trust plays a vital role in binding agent in organizations. Shea (1984: 4) 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.

In connection to the above view, 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). Nanus (1989: 101) 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: 9) 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”.

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 modeling active listening.

The consequences of distrust have also been noted in the literature. Evidence from Louis (2007) study shows that fear, emotional distance, and anger are 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 anymore 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 doesn’t work out” (Sonneberg, 1994: 20). 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: 3–

4). 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). 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 (1978:179) writes that "very few relationships are based entirely upon what is known with certainty 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 preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

1.1.1 OVERVIEW OF EDUCATION IN GAMBELLA

Gambella Peoples' National Regional State is one of the nine regional states that form up the Federal Government of Ethiopia. The region is composed of three Zones based upon ethnic groups: Anywa , Majang , and Nuer Zones. During this study, the region had twelve independent woredas, one special woreda, and one town administrative council; with 381 (three hundred eighty one) Government schools and total enrolment of 120,185 (one hundred twenty thousand and one hundred eighty five) of which 2.4 % of the students were identified as preparatory schools students and the rest 97.6 % were primary and general secondary schools students, and this implied that almost equal ratio of preparatory—pre-primary students which was 2,048 (two thousand and forty eight) students.

Gambella town, which is the capital city of the region, is located in South-Western direction about 777 km away from Addis Ababa. The region is strategically bordered with South Sudan in the West and South-West, and SNNPR in the South-East and Oromiya region in the North and North-East. Besides that, due to its proximity to South Sudan, some of its woredas had access to potential markets across this international boarder (Gambella Peoples' National Regional State, Bureau of Finance and Economic Development, 2006). A bar chart showing number of schools in respective woredas was given below in the figure 1.1

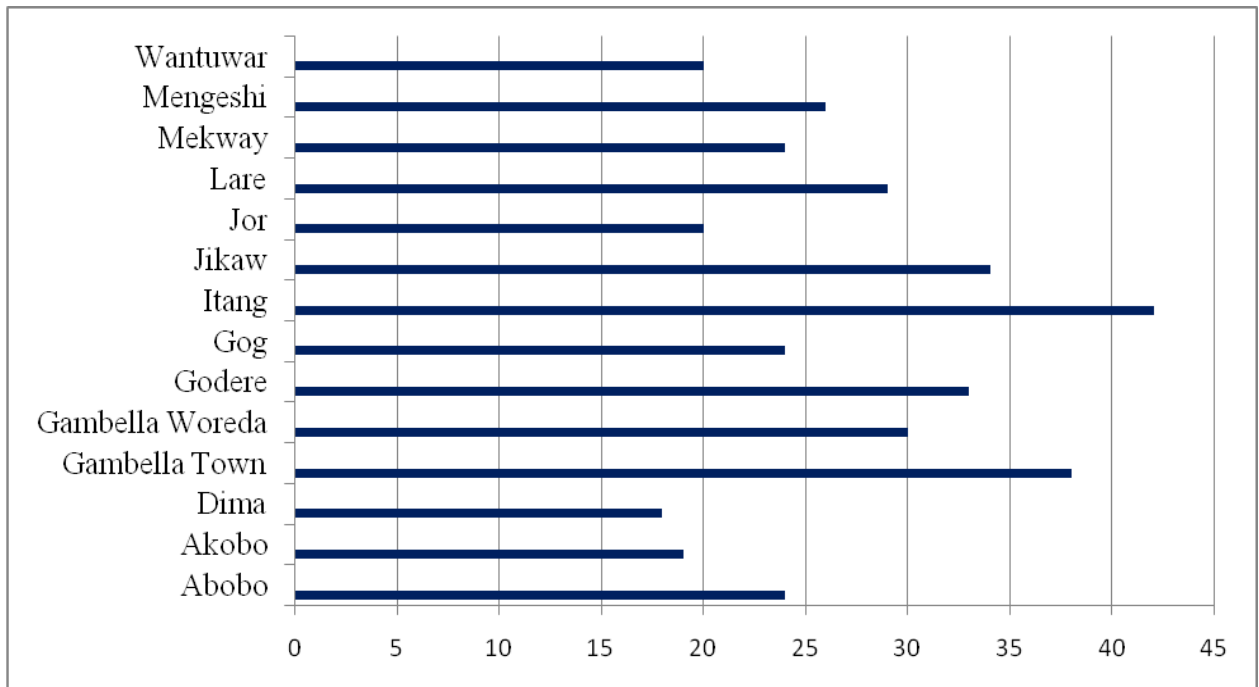


Fig. 1.1 Bar Chart Showing Number of Schools in Woreda. (source: Regional Education Bureau 2013)

From the above figure, the woreda which was consisting more number of schools in their order were Itang Special Woreda, Gambella Town Administrative, Jikaw Woreda, Godere Woreda, Gambella Woreda, Lare Woreda, Mengeshi Woreda, Abobo Woreda, Gog Woreda, Mekway Woreda, Jor Woreda, Wantuwar Woreda, Akobo Woreda, and Dima Woreda. Gambella region is a home of five indigenous ethnic groups namely: Anywaa, Komo, Majang, Nuer, and Opwo. Besides the indigenous ethnic groups, a number of nations and nationalities are living in the region.

Currently, the region is divided into three ethnic based zones (Anywaa, Majang, and Nuer). The local level government is doing its best to build the competence of the woredas and to execute their jurisdiction and benefit from the devolution of power. Yet, the resources are very low. The region has a total area of about 34, 068 sq. km (BoFED, 2006). The settlement pattern of the region is still dispersed although resettlement has been carried on for the past three years with a population density of 7.7 persons per square kilometer. However, a population density varies from woreda to woreda. The lowest density is found in Gambella woreda, Gog, and Jor woreda ranging between 1.44

and 4.22 people per sq. km. The highest density is in Jikaw and Mekway woredas (19.08) each and Godere woreda (13.26) per sq. km respectively. Amharic is both the national and official language in the region.

Now in the year 2013/ 2014, Gambella Peoples' National Regional State entire educational infrastructure is estimated to comprise around 15 (fifteen) pre-primary schools (KGs), 70 (seventy) Alternative Basic Education Schools (ABEs), 234 (two hundred thirty four) primary schools, 70 (seventy) secondary schools, and three regional technical and vocational education training (TVETs) colleges. There is no university in the region except Metu University Agriculture Faculty.

The Gambella Peoples' National Regional State citizens are proud of what they have achieved in terms of quantitative development in education considering where they were 23 (twenty three) years ago. However, many were worried because according to the CIA World Fact book (2011) data, the global literacy rate for all people aged 15 and above was 84.1%. Of these, 88.6% were male and 79.7% were female. The book continued explaining that the literacy rate in Ethiopia was 43% with a rank of 221 out of 224 countries. Gambella, as one regional state of Ethiopia, had also 36.3 % literacy rate. Thus, this rate did not look good enough in terms of the population of 306,916 (three hundred six thousand and nine hundred sixteen) and the population growth rate of 4.1% per annum. This data showed that at the regional level, there were more individuals without ability to read and write. So the region was still on the half way to liberate the whole population from illiteracy.

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.

Similarly, the relationship between the school and other institutions, such as, government organizations, business organizations and religious organizations can also be understood in this same way. 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 gulf has been opened between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. 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. It was not difficult to find principals and teachers who withheld information, operated with hidden agendas, manipulated and held meeting after meeting (office politics), infighting and spinning. Many principals and teachers alike left schools for employment elsewhere. The schools' rules, regulations, policies, procedures and processes were often appeared to be complex and cumbersome to them. Principals and teachers were put in enough effort by the regional education bureau core process owners and woreda education office leaders to avoid getting fired but later they did not contribute to their talent, creativity, energy or passion. The defensive behaviors of principals and teachers could have been also contributed to a pervasive wariness, even fear. To conclude, professionals in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State have been experienced in a serious atmosphere of distrust.

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. This was the same with what McGregor (1960) referred as "Theory X Managers", in which an autocratic style of leadership was emphasized. 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 (1986:238) 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. This view was supported by Albrecht, Wernz, and Williams (1995), who observed that it is generally people we “trust” and “have confidence in” who can and do commit frauds (1995:267). Regarding the absence of trust, Baier (1986) also used the metaphor that trust is like air: invisible but essential. When it is present, we may hardly notice it. When it is in short supply; however, we are keenly aware of its absence.

Trust is declining not only in educational institutions but also in other government and political organizations. For example, Dalton (2005) stated that since the mid-1960s, public trust in government and political institutions had been decreasing in all of the advanced industrialized democracies and developing countries. He further claimed that although the pattern and the pace of the decrease were dissimilar across countries, the downward trend was existed everywhere. This same author; moreover, said that except for the Netherlands, which actually showed increased trust in the government from the 1970s until the mid-1990s, all of the other advanced industrialized democracies and developing countries recorded a decline in the level of trust their respective governments have enjoyed. This indicated that Ethiopia was not the exceptional country in which the level of trust was high. Austrians; from the developed countries nations, pointed to the collapse of collectivist consensus as the main origin of problem for declining trust in government. Besides that, Canadians blamed the continuing tensions on nationalism and separatism in the country. Moreover, Germans attributed their malaise to the strains of unification, while the Japanese condemned the consecutive political scandals and the long economic recession of the 1990s (Dalton 2005). Even the Swedes and the Norwegians, which generally associated with high degree of trust in politics, had become distrustful of their political institutions in the 1990s (Christensen and Laegrid 2003).

In connection to the above view, BBC and Gallup International (2005) as cited in (Blind, Peri K., 2006), have conducted surveys and confirmed the decline in trust in various parts of the world. These surveys have found that there is a consistent and existed everywhere decline of trust in a range of political institutions since January 2004. They further stated that global dissatisfaction with the government was found to be 73% in Eastern and Central Europe, 69% in Latin America, 65% in Western Europe, 65% in Asia Pacific, 61% in Africa and 60% in North America (Blind, 2006).

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. These damages could be expressed in terms of decreases of job performance, decreases of job satisfaction, decreases of committeemen, 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.

Based on these, the study was expected to give answers to the following basic questions:

1. What is the current level of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?
2. What are the major barriers that hinder trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?

3. To what extent are the behavior of the principals and the behavior of teachers made impact upon teaching and school effectiveness in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.3.1 General Objectives

The general objectives of this study were:

- To examine the current status of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.
- To investigate and be aware of the factors that hinder trust between principals and teachers.
- To critically evaluate and see the extent to which trust hinder factors impact upon teaching and school effectiveness.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

In order to fulfill the above mentioned broad aims, some specific objectives were needed to be addressed. Specifically; therefore, the research would see to:

- To identify the current status of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.
- To illustrate the major factors that hinder trust between principals and teachers.
- To analyze the extent to which leadership outcome affected teaching and effectiveness of the schools.
- To explain factors such as fairness and participative decision making that had been perceived to promote or inhibit trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

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

1.5 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The Gambella Peoples' National Regional State had twelve independent woredas, one special woreda, and one town administrative council; with 10 (ten) government preparatory schools scattered in 7 (seven) woredas. Since, all these woredas were located in a very different heterogeneous part of the region, with none or almost only one government preparatory school found in them, the study was delimited to cover five (5) government preparatory schools found in woredas and town administrative council. Moreover, research investigating trust level between school stakeholders should have been extended to include parents, teachers, principals, and students trust; secondary

school first cycle (grades 9-to-10) and secondary school second cycle (grades 11-to-12); and schools in different regional states of Ethiopia with a broader range of demographics. However, this research was delimited only to the second cycle of secondary education and training structure. Within this education level, only principals and teachers were included as respondents; guards, custodians, secretaries, and other administrative staff were not included. On top of this, the county was selected for convenience. It was my hometown and I had personally experienced with its hot weather condition as the data for study was collected at the mid of February and March.

1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of this study were five 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. The principal's survey was a relatively short survey that did not require a great deal of time, but the teacher's survey contained forty (40) questions and required a substantial length of time to properly complete. 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. Third, there was discrepancy due to answering relative to the other answers. Fourth, there was a less than optimal return rate of survey questionnaires. The return rate was 90.86% for both principals' and teachers' surveys over all schools. The higher the return rate the more reliable the data; therefore, unless 100% of the surveys were returned, the rate was less than optimal. Finally, there was lack of quality information as to why teachers and principals felt as they did during the study. This meant that not having qualitative data to help explain why respondents answered as they did was a limitation.

1.7 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

- ***Interpersonal trust:*** an individual's belief in, and willingness to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another.
- ***Preparatory School:*** a government school with grade configurations of 11-12 within Ethiopia.
- ***Trust:*** the extent to which one perceives “one’s willingness to be vulnerable to another based on the confidence that the other is benevolent, honest, open, reliable, and competent”.
- ***Teacher:*** a person or thing that teaches something; *especially:* a person whose job is to teach students about certain subjects.
- ***Principal:*** most important, consequential, or influential.
- ***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.

1.8 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, which was the final part of the thesis, presented the summery, the conclusions, and the recommendations for the research. The thesis was concluded with different appendices that offered a variety of supplementary information.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

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. Later on, relational and reciprocal trust was briefly discussed. 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 DEFINITION OF 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 Tannenbaum 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 (p. 3).” The authors further noted that “leadership always involves attempts on the part of a leader to affect the behavior of a follower or followers in a situation (p. 3).”

Along with defining leadership, Tannenbaum and Massarik (1957) outlined four major components of the phenomenon. According to the researchers, the first facet of leadership is *interpersonal influence*. This involves capability of leaders to influence the behavior of followers through communication. Thus, leaders’ success is contingent on their ability to persuade. The second feature is *exercised in situation*, meaning the capacity of those who

lead to sway the behavior of others by controlling elements in the environment that can have an impact on their capability to influence: physical phenomena, persons not attempting to influence, the organization, the broader culture, social norms, stereotypes, and the goals of the leader, followers, or organization. The third feature of leadership identified by the authors is *the communication process*. They perceived communication as the sole process in which leaders are able to function. According to the researchers, leaders use communication as the medium through which they attempt to affect their followers' attitudes so the follower will be ready to move or will actually move in the direction of the specified goal (p. 6). The final aspect of leadership defined by Tannenbuam and Massarik is *directed toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals*. In this domain, leaders employ influence to achieve desired goals; such goals may be that of the organization, a group, personal goals of the leader, or of the follower.

Burns (1978) defined leadership as the ability to motivate "followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations--the want and needs, the aspirations and expectations--of both leaders and followers (p. 19)." Bennis (1989) declared that leaders are persons who have the capacity to create and bring life to visions and are the managers of dreams. DePree (1989) asserted that leaders (a) are servants, (b) are debtors, (c) are responsible for effectiveness by enabling others to reach their highest potential, (d) define reality, (e) show gratitude, (f) identify, develop, and nurture other leaders, (g) encourage contrary opinions, (h) provide and maintain momentum, (i) leave behind legacies and assets, and (j) take role on developing, expressing, and defending civility and values. 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 (p. 182)."

After evaluating over two hundred definitions of leadership found in the literature, Rost (1991) posited that leadership is male, rational, management-oriented, technocratic,

quantitative, cost-driven, hierarchal, short-term, pragmatic, and materialistic. This male gendered, specific identification of leadership is primarily because most leadership research prior to the 1980's were carried out by men and dealt exclusively with male leaders (Klenke, 1996). Providing a "feministic" view of leadership, in their exploratory investigation of women business owners and managers Stanford, Oates, and Flores (1995), found leadership to be team-oriented, operating from reward and referent, visionary, and fostering mutual respect between leaders and subordinates.

Moreover, many scholars, researchers, educators, etc. have created romanticized definitions of leadership holding that leaders should be capable of manipulating and influencing the fates of persons or organizations under their direction. Klenke (1996) provided a vivid example when the author stated:

Leaders are spellbinders and dreamers, pathfinders and trail blazers: they are champions such as Isabelle of Spain and Napoleon, saviors such as Florence Nightingale and Moses, servants such as Mother Theresa and Martin Luther King, and revolutionaries such as Rosa Luxemburg and Fide Castro...(p. 8).

The manner in which leadership is defined is contingent upon how it is studied, measured, the metaphors and symbols applied to it, and how it is used in practice. Succinctly, leadership or effective leadership skills are contextual (Klenke, 1996).

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 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.

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.

In their research, Levine and Lezotte (1990) determined that strong educational leaders supervise instructional practices, support teachers, have high energy, monitor school activities, and acquire necessary resources. Enfield and Freeman (1992) claimed that effective leaders in education treat teachers as professionals, trust subordinates, give teachers a clear vision in decisions, and invite divergent points of view. Moreover, Sammons, Hillman, and Mort (1995) noted that effective leaders, are firm, are purposeful, and are viewed as the leading professional. In another study, Lambert (1998) defined valuable educational leaders as persons whose compelling ideas and initiatives are sustained, even when they are no longer affiliated with the school.

Despite the many ways of defining leadership for educational administration, they all share the assumption that it involves an "influence process concerned with facilitating the performance of a collective task (Yukl, 2002, p. 19)." Moreover, regardless of the multiple definitions, Leithwood and Riehl (2003) categorized educational leadership into two factors: (a) providing direction, and (b) exercising influence. They further declared, educational leaders (a) do not impose goals on their constituents but work cooperatively with their followers to accomplish objectives; (b) work with and through people while

creating environments conducive for others to be effective; and (c) see their position as a function more than a role; thus recognizing at times they may have to serve as a follower. Since leadership is contextual and is defined in various ways, grasping a concrete meaning is often difficult. Stogdill (1974) stated, “There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (p. 7).” Furthermore, Cuban (1998) noted that although leadership is defined in numerous ways, “there is no clear and unequivocal understanding as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders (p. 190).” Thus, the problem of leadership is not in the lack of definitions but in the ambiguity and often contradiction in the definitions applied to it (Klenke, 1996).

Another critique of leadership is that it is a concept so general that there is no point of reference, while contrarily, others claim that is too specific to cover “the full range of complexities and possibilities that characterize leadership (Klenke, 1996, p. 9).” However, Klenke argued that placing a strict definition on leadership constrains a depth understating of the phenomena, precludes persons to critically decipher what is an appropriate leader in their context, and hinders individuals from critically analyzing leadership situations.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF TRUST

Hosmer (1995:379) claims that there appears to be a considerable degree of consensus among scholars regarding to the importance of trust related to the human actions. As Hosmer (1995) notes, in these days, trust has emerged as a favorite theme of advertisers in promoting everything from investment firms to hair salons. The school principal normally has the responsibility for creating and sustaining the social architecture capable of generating supportive relationships. Such supportive relationships of interdependence depend on trust and are bound to the premise that individual goals can only be reached with the cooperation of others, and others can only reach their goals with the cooperation of the individual (Hardin 2002, Loomis 1959).

Based on the above view, Blau (1964:99) describes trust as, “essential for stable social relationships.” Weber (in Eisenstaedt 1968:114) claims that the exchange of goods “is

possible only on the basis of far-researching personal confidence and trust.” Rotter, Chance, and Pharse (1972: 40) argues that, “a generalized expectancy of trust or distrust can be an important determinant of behavior.” Golembiewski and McConkie (1975:131) states that, “there is no single variable which is so thoroughly influences interpersonal and group behavior as does trust.” Hirsch (1978: 78) reemphasizes its importance for exchange when we explain that trust is a, “public good, necessary for the success of economic transactions.” Bok (1978: 26) goes even further and claims that, “when trust is destroyed, societies falter and collapse.” Lewis and Weigert (1985:968) agree, adding that trust is, “indispensable in social relationships.” Zucker (1986:56) follows with the statement that trust is, “vital for the maintenance of cooperation in society and necessary as grounds for even the most routine, everyday interactions.” Hoy and his colleagues (Tarter, Bliss, and Hoy 1989; Hoy et al 1992; Tarter, Sabo, and Hoy 1995; Tschannen—Moran and Hoy 1998; Hoy and Tschannen—Moran 1999; and Goddard et al 2001) state that, “trust exists as a characteristic of the school and maintains as part of the school culture.” Bryk and Schneider (1996, 2002) conceptualize trust in school as, “a product of the everyday interactions that affect person-to-person relationships in the schools.”

What the definitions in general mean is that trust is a fundamental tool by which an organization or individual ensures that the available interpersonal transactions are used for the achievement of its objectives. Besides this, Khodyakov, Dmitry (2007:126) states that the reputation of the partner and the actor, the evaluation of current circumstances of actions, the assumptions about the partner’s actions and the belief in the honesty and morality of the other side are all part of the creation, development, and maintenance of trust process.

It is to be expected; however, that (Baier, Annette 1986:232) conspiracy, as much as justice and fellowship, thrive better in an atmosphere of trust. There are immoral as well as moral trust relationships, and trust busting can be a morally proper goal. If we are to tell when morality requires the preservation of trust, when it requires the destruction of trust, we obviously need to distinguish different forms of trust, and to look for some morally relevant features they may possess.

Mayer et al (1995) discussed that trust involves at least two parties and a variety of factors affecting the trust relationships between them: ability, benevolence and integrity, organizational leadership and organizational competence, openness and integrity, concern and reliability the leader shows for the members of the organization, trustworthiness, and identification (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001). Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak state that trust consisting of these factors increases employee identification with the organization, improving organizational performance. Moreover, trust-based relationship between teachers and principals plays an important role in acting for the accomplishment of organizational/ school goals in cooperation, increasing efficiency and productivity in the organization/ school as a whole (Semerciöz et al., 2010, Brower et al., 2009). This research focused on the current trust level between teachers and principals in the government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

More interestingly still Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, (2003:182) stated that, the concept of trust tends to be ambiguous, not because people do not know it, but rather because it is so complex. However, they had shown that there are typically five major facets of trust against which the observable behaviors that create or destroy trust can be compared. These are benevolence, competency, honesty, openness, and reliability.

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, 2003:186). 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

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003:186) defined competence as “the extent to which the trusted party has knowledge and skill.” One’s competence is judged by his/her ability to perform as expected using a certain level of skill and according to certain appropriate standards. In schools, for example, students trust that the teachers have a certain level of skill in their teaching abilities and content knowledge to competently teach the subject. Competence also implies that the person will do what is necessary to maintain and enhance their level of skill over time. Just because one is competent today does not mean they will automatically be competent five years from now. Another difficulty with competence is that one’s perceived level of skill does not always match his or her actual level of skill, sometimes creating situations of distrust (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

2.3.3 HONESTY

Honesty is also a critical component of trust. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003:186) 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, 2003:186). 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 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 (2001), 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 (2003:186) 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 time and again. 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

All relationships are not 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.

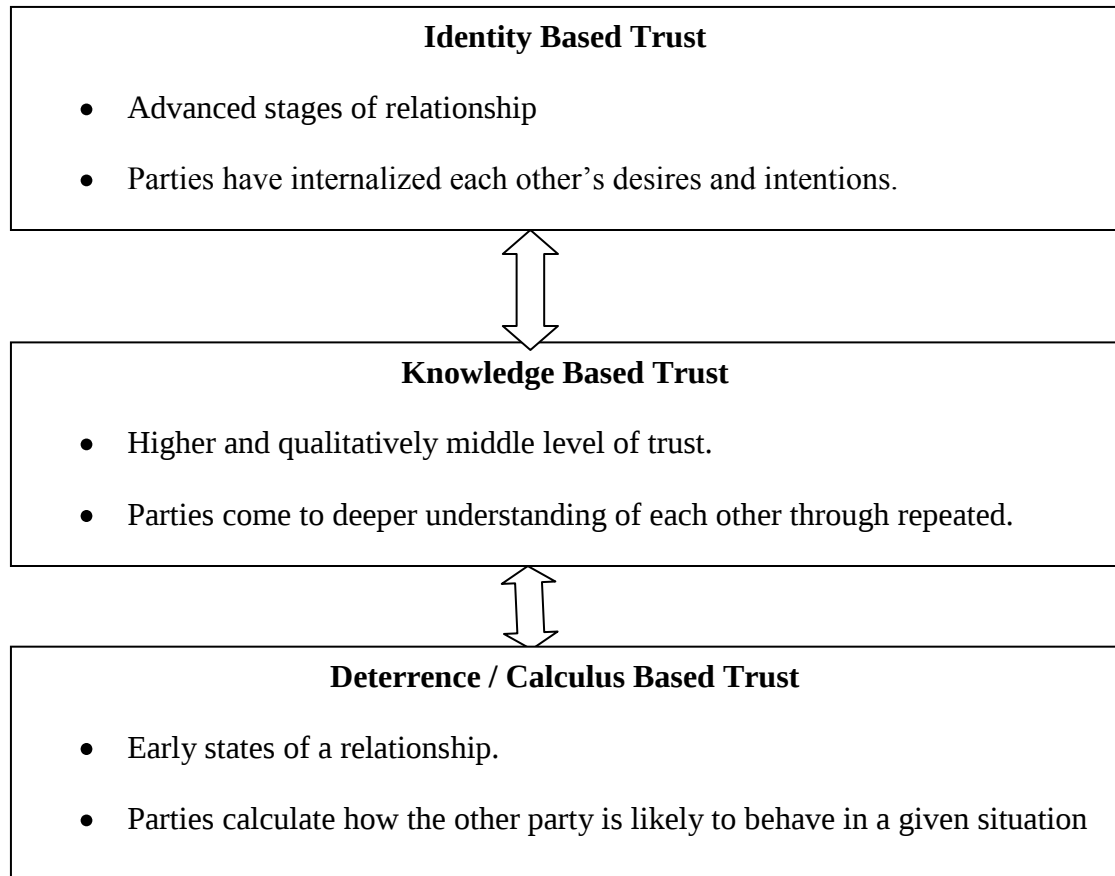


Figure 2.1: Basic Levels of Trust

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 and treat each other and if they violate those rules, usually there will be consequences involved. Some other scholars call deterrence-based trust as calculus-based trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

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's

behavior. 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 trustor 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.

According to Borgen (2001), strong identification is a significant trust-making mechanism. When trust is based on identification with the other’s desires and intentions, trust exists because the parties effectively understand and appreciate the other’s wants. They have a mutual understanding and each of them can effectively act for the other. The other can also be confident that his/her interests will be protected and that no monitoring of the actor is necessary. *Identification-based trust* develops when both knows and predicts the other’s needs, preferences and choices and also shares some of those same needs, preferences and choices as one’s own (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Calculus-based and knowledge-based trust may also allow a person, group or firm to become more dependent on others, but the exclusive advantage of identification-based trust is that both of the parties can act independently, knowing their interests will be met in the long run (Borgen, 2001).

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. Imagine a school culture where professionals operate freely without concerns of being stabbed in the back by power-hungry colleagues looking to move higher on the principal ship ladder. Again, imagine less gossiping, backbiting, or dirty politics being played because professionals knew each other's hopes, dreams and worked to encourage their development rather than always having a "me-first" attitude.

Furthermore, while this third level of trust is considered the optimum level, there are risks involved. It is possible that agreement may be reached in some situations that may not, in fact, be in the best interest of the students. This action would resemble groupthink as described by Janis [as cited in Shafritz, Ott, Jang, 2003]. In this article, Janis refers to groupthink as agreeing with decisions, despite their quality, in order to have consensus and be a part of the group. In this higher level of trust, it would be easy to trust to the degree where one is unable to see the fallacy in a decision because of that high level of established trust.

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.

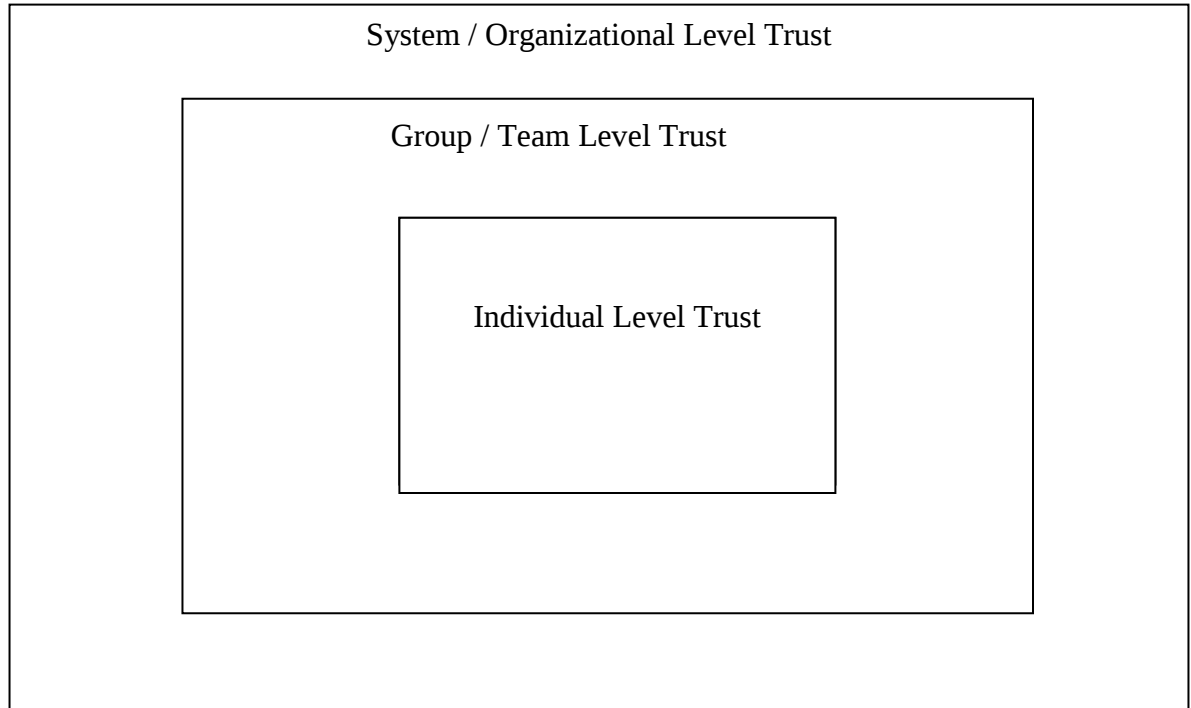


Figure 2.2. Levels of Trust within an Organization.

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 trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party.” Willingness to be vulnerable, to say take a risk, implies that there is something of importance to be lost (Mayer et al., 1995.) 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’ judgments about others’ trustworthiness are anchored, at least in part, on their priori

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).

According to some researchers, managers play a central role in determining the overall level of trust within organizations. For example, managers design reward and control systems that are visible displays of base levels of trust or mistrust within the organization as a whole. The beliefs and actions of managers also directly and indirectly influence trust in organizations (Creed & Miles, 1996). 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).

According to 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.

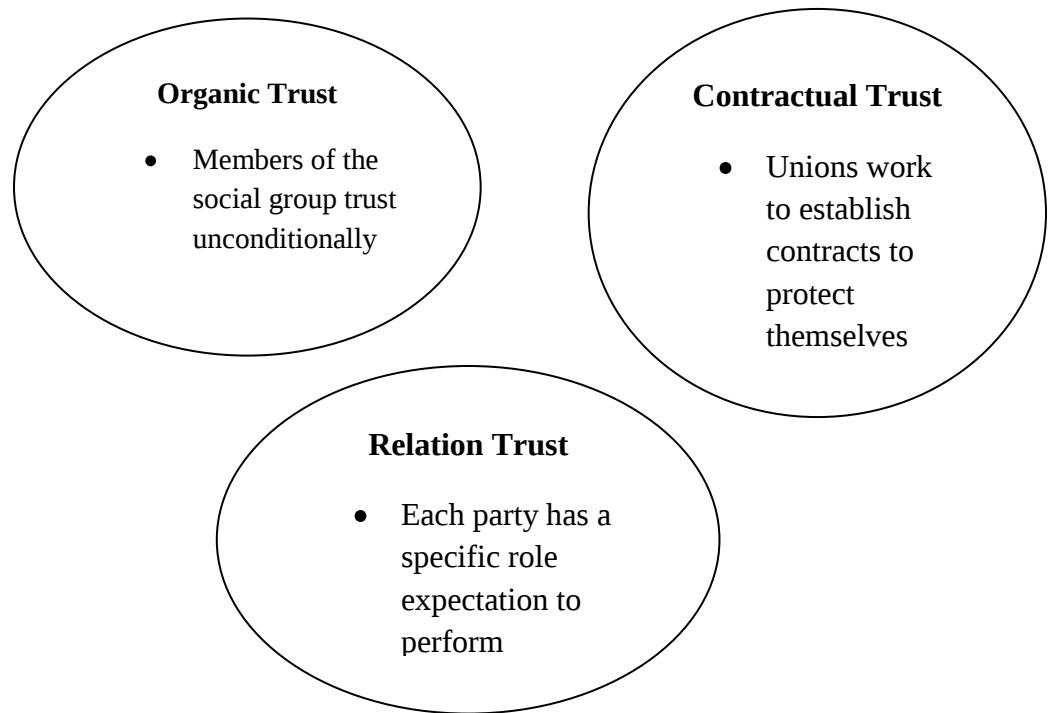


Figure 2.3. Forms of Trust.

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” (p. 21-22).

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 & Schneider, 2002: 25). 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: 27). 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; Tschannen-Moran & 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" (p. 20). "When this synchrony is achieved within all of the major role sets that comprise a school community," (p. 21) 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.

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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” (p. 269). 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. (1999:101) 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: ix) 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 (2006:76), 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 (2007:268) 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 2007:268) 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 Kuper Smith (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: 348-349); 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 (2002:130) 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 not uncommon 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). Blankstein (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 explained by Lambert (1998:79), "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, (2003:42) 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 MAINTAINING 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.

CHAPTER THREE: THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

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 THE RESEARCH METHOD

The study was located within the broad category of quantitative research. Quantitative research's statistical analysis, specific approach to its subject matter suited the study's quest to investigate the current status of trust level that existed between principals and teachers in the Government Preparatory Schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. Within the quantitative research realm, the study adopted survey design which employed ample questionnaires to ask principals and teachers to provide real information about their relationships within five government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

All participants were assured that their participation in the study was voluntary and confidential. There was no physical harm in participating, and undertook to keep their names and all the information they provided strictly confidential and to use these only for research purposes. No administrative personnel had access to the study data at any point in the data collection process.

3.2 SOURCE OF DATA

Data sources typically can be thought of as primary, secondary or tertiary. A primary source is one where a work appears for the first time. According to (Kothari, 1990:96), methods of collecting primary data includes observation, interview, through questionnaires, through schedules, and other methods which include warranty cards, distributor audits, pantry audits, consumer panels, using mechanical devices, through projective techniques, dept interviews, and content analysis.

Secondary sources; on the other hands, are more accessible and they are likely to form an important part of the literature a researcher wants to use. They are published. Kothari (1990:111) stated that published data are usually available in: various publications of the

central, state or local governments; various publications of foreign governments or of international bodies and their subsidiary organizations; technical and trade journals; books, magazines and newspapers; reports and publications of various associations connected with business and industry, banks, stock exchanges, etc; reports prepared by research scholars, universities, economists etc...in different fields; and public records and statistics, historical documents, and others sources of published information.

According to Cameron (2008:424), tertiary sources of data include indexes, abstracts and catalogues. These data are designed to help ones locate other sources or to give him/her an introduction or overview of a topic. So they are acting as ones starting point like library and/or the internet. Based on the above discussion, the researcher interested in using primary source of data for his study and accordingly he collected data through survey questionnaires from principals and teachers. This is to mean that, the study involved five principals and one hundred twenty eight teachers from government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

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 subscale of School Climate Index (SCI) (Tschannen-Moran, 2009b) and the third one was the subscale 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 disagree” 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 “D” for all 16 items sorted by subscale).

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 subscale. Internal consistency was assessed using Chronbach’s alpha coefficient. Each of the two subscales demonstrated strong internal consistency: (1) Faculty trust in the principal (.98) and (2) Faculty trust in colleagues (.93).

Construct validity was evaluated using factor analysis, with items loading from .83 to .97 for faculty trust in the principal, and .65 to .85 for faculty trust in colleagues. (See Table in the appendix “D” for all 16 items sorted by subscale).

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 disagree” 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 “D” 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. (See Table in the appendix “D” for all 9 items).

3.3.1.3 School Climate Index (SCI)

The School Climate Index (SCI) was a 28-item instrument, which included four subscales and used a five point Likert response set ranging from “never” to “very frequently.” When broken into subscales, it measured four dimensions of school climate – collegial leadership (7 items), teacher professionalism (8 items), academic press (6 items), and community engagement (7 items) (Tschannen-Moran, 2009b).

However, for the purpose of this study, academic press and community engagement which consisted of six (6) items and seven (7) items respectively were not included. Since the focus of this study was to measure the interaction between principals and teachers, academic press and community engagement were excluded. (See Table in the appendix “D” for all 15 items sorted by subscale).

Tschannen-Moran et al. (2006) tested the reliability and validity of each subscale and the entire index. Internal consistency was assessed using Chronbach’s alpha coefficient. The SCI demonstrated strong internal consistency (.96), as did the two subscales: collegial leadership (.93) and teacher professionalism (.94). Along with content validity, construct validity was also evaluated using factor analysis, with items loading from .56 to .91 for collegial leadership and .66 to .83 for teacher professionalism. (See Table in the appendix “D” for all 15 items sorted by subscale).

3.3.1.4 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) was a 45-item instrument, which included four subscales and used a five point Likert response set ranging from “not at all” to “frequently, if not always.” When broken into subscales, it measured ten (10) dimensions of leadership – ***transformational leadership***: idealized influence that was attributed to the leader, idealized influence or behavior that the leader displayed, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration;

transactional leadership: contingent reward, active management by exception and passive management by exception; **non transactional leadership:** laissez faire; and **outcomes of leadership:** effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

However, for the purpose of this study, transformational leadership which consisted of five (5) leadership dimensions, transactional leadership that consisted of three (3) leadership dimensions and laissez faire which consisted of only one (1) leadership dimension were not included. Since the focus of this study was to measure trust between teachers and principals, these sub scales were excluded. Nevertheless, the researcher took only **leadership outcomes** that consisted of effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction to measure how teachers and principals were performing their work. (See Table in the appendix “D” for all 9 items sorted by subscale.

Validity and reliability had been established through testing 2080 respondents in nine samples. The divergent and convergent validity of all the factors netted generally positive results (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The LISREL VII was chosen to test validity; however, the sample size was very large, and this test was not considered useful alone because slight differences were too hard to detect between the matrices. Therefore, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Root Mean Squared Residual (RMSR) were used. The GFI was .91, which was above the .90 criterion recommended, and the RMSR was .04, which satisfied the below .05 criterion. The GFI measured for one, two, three, four, five, and seven factors were less than for the six factors, and only the seven factors was acceptable, with the GFI measuring .90 and the RMSR measuring .04.

Reliability was reported, using factor loading by scale, with idealized influence attributed to the leader at .86, idealized influence that the leader displayed at .87, inspirational motivation at .91, intellectual stimulation at .90, individualized consideration at .90, contingent reward at .87, active management by exception at .74, passive management by exception at .82, laissez-faire at .83, **extra effort at .91, effectiveness at .91, and satisfaction at .94** (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Any measure under .3 or .4 was not considered meaningful (Vogt, 2005).

External validity had been established through many studies, both domestic and foreign, including studies conducted in Spain, Portugal, Italy, France, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Israel, Turkey, China, Thailand, and Korea (Avolio & Bass, 2004). External validity had also been established over numerous organizational venues, including the military, health-related companies, educational institutions, financial institutions, and oil producers. The MLQ had been used in over 300 research programs, dissertations, and theses (Avolio & Bass). In all cases, transformational leaders had been shown to generate higher commitment from followers and higher effectiveness and satisfaction. (See Table in the appendix “D” for all 9 items sorted by subscale).

3.3.2 PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

In order to use standardized questionnaire, first, permission was sought from the developer authorities-- Dr. Tschannen-Moran, Megan from “The College of William and Mary School of Education”. Second, permission was also sought from the relevant educational authorities in the Gambella Peoples’ National Regional State for a voluntary, anonymous survey to be conducted among government preparatory schools educators in their administration.

Third, principals of each participating schools was contacted to arrange a date for the administration of the survey among educators in their schools. On the arranged date, the questionnaires were disseminated and retrieved with the assistance of school principals and their management teams at each school selected for the survey. Finally, the responses on the questionnaires were encoded and analyzed in the statistical package. Each principal received a bag with not less than 20 faculty survey questionnaires for distribution to faculty members who work with 11th and 12th grade students.

3.4 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

The population for this study was Government Preparatory Schools with grade configurations of 9-to-12 or 11-to-12 and twenty (20) or more faculty members within Gambella Peoples’ National Regional State. There were ten (10) government preparatory schools in the population. Since participation in the study was based upon the

geographical division of the Region into three Zones (Anywaa, Mejeng, and Nuer Zone), Itang Special Woreda, and Gambella Town Administrative Council, a purposive sampling procedure was necessary. This was because, in this form of subject selection, sample elements were assumed to be typical, or representative of the population (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006).

For sample validation purposes, the researcher ranked all ten (10) Government preparatory schools in the population by Zones, Special Woreda, and Town Administrative Council in which they were located and watched their years of establishment (from the oldest to the youngest). Then, using years of establishment, a purposive selection was made by taking the oldest school from each Zone, Special Woreda, and Town Administrative Council. This was because, in this form of subject selection, sample elements were assumed to be typical, or representative of the population (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006). Accordingly, five (5) of the ten (10) government preparatory schools in the region were represented in the sample. The unit of analysis for this study was the school. Therefore, all data collected from individual teachers and principals were aggregated to the school level. Participants at each school were the principals and teachers.

3.5 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Once data was collected, it was analyzed using the statistical analysis method. Data was 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 subscale. 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 including the mean, standard deviation, and range was calculated. These non-parametric statistical analyses were used to answer the research questions.

Data from the survey instruments were then entered by hand into an Excel workbook using the double entry method. This method was chosen to ensure the accuracy of the data and to enter the data such that it can easily be imported into computerized statistical software for analysis. The double entry method involved creating three worksheets for each school: “A”, “B”, and “C”. Data from each survey was then entered twice, once on data entry sheet “A” and once on data entry sheet “B”. The third sheet, which is cross check sheet “C”, was used as formulas to crosscheck the entries in both sheets “A” and “B”, displaying a zero if the data was matched and the difference if they were not. Several rules of entry were adopted to deal with omitted questions and questions with more than one response. The data was entered as “-1” if the participant omitted the question or if two or more responses appeared (i.e. more than one number apart) were selected, for example, if both “4” and “5” were bubbled, then, “-1” was entered. However, if two adjacent responses were selected, the data was entered as an average of the two numbers. For example, if both “4” and “5” were bubbled, “4.5” was entered.

Once the process was completed, the Excel files were imported into PASW and statistical analyses were used to answer the research questions. Since the school was the unit of analysis, all individual responses were aggregated to the school level by taking the mean for each item. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each variable and subscale: (1) Faculty trust (faculty trust in principal, and faculty trust in colleagues,) and (2) Principal trust (principal trust in teachers).

Relational trust values were calculated by first standardizing the trust scores for each trust scale using formulas from Tschannen-Moran (2004), each base on the standard deviation and mean of a normative sample of schools. (See Table in the appendix “D”). The means and standard deviations for the FTS were based on a sample of 97 high schools in Ohio, 66 middle schools in Virginia, and 146 elementary schools in Ohio. The means and standard deviations for the PrTS were based on a sample of 642 principals in Virginia and Ohio. (See Table in the appendix “D”).

Next, these standardized values were categorized into low, medium-low, medium, medium-high or high levels of trust according to the ranges in Table 4, which was based on scale with a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100 (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). (See Table in the appendix “D”). The proximity of trust levels was then compared to determine the reciprocal trust value from one (1) to five (5) with one (1) being low reciprocal trust and five (5) being high reciprocal trust. (See Table in the appendix “D” for a detailed breakdown of this categorization.)

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

In this chapter, the researcher presented, analyzed and interpreted the results of his survey. Moreover, the researcher gave an account of his findings and demonstrated his findings through the use of tables and graphs. Tables and graphs demonstrating some of his findings can be found in addendum.

Table 1: Survey Response Rate for All Schools

School	Faculty Number (100%)						Sample (60%)			Returned Surveys				Response Rate 100%
	Principal			Teacher			Faculty Number (Teachers)			(Teachers)				
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F		
Abobo	1	1	—	34	30	4	20	18	2	19	17	2	—	95.00%
Gambella	1	1	—	55	48	7	33	29	4	30	25	4	1	90.90%
Godere	1	1	—	66	56	10	40	34	6	31	29	1	1	77.50%
Itang	1	1	—	36	30	6	22	18	4	20	16	4	—	90.90%
Kuergang	1	1	—	47	37	10	28	22	6	28	22	3	3	100%
Total	5	5	—	238	201	37	143	121	22	128	109	14	5	4.543%

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. Five principals (5) and one hundred twenty-eight (128) teachers from Government Preparatory Schools of Gambella participated in the study.

Table 2: Gender Distribution of the Respondents

Variable	Number of Principals		Number of Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Numb	Percent
Male	5	100	109	85.2
Female	—	—	14	10.9
Missing	—	—	5	3.9
Total	5	100.0	128	100.0

Table 2 above, showed the respondents' gender distribution. As the table showed, the respondents were classified based on sex. Among 5 principals and 128 sample teachers who filled the questionnaires, only (14 or 11 percent) respondents were female teachers. In contrast, all principals, that is, (5 or 100 percent) were males. On top of that, (109 or 85 percent) teacher respondents were males. Nearly (5 or 4 percent) of the teacher respondents did not indicate their sex in this survey.

From the table; thus, it can be deduced that the managerial positions of the preparatory 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 less educational opportunity had been given to females. Moreover, such background could be one factor that affected trust relationship between female teachers and principals. Because the earlier study by Zucker (1986:15) 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 3: Age Distribution of the Respondents.

Age	Number of Principals		Number of Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
18--25	—	—	33	25.8
26--30	1	20	48	37.5
31--40	3	60	32	25.0
41--50	1	20	4	3.1
Missing	—	—	11	8.6
Total	5	100	128	100.0

In referring to the age of the respondents; majority of the principals (3 or 60 percent) were within the age group 31-to-40 years, on the contrary, majority of the teachers (48 or 38 percent) were within the age group 26-to-30 years, followed by those teachers whose age group failed between 31-to-40 years (32 or 25 percent), while (33 or 26 percent) of the teachers were within the age bracket 18—25 years. Besides that, the analysis further

revealed that fewer teacher respondents amounting to (4 or 3 percent) and (1 principal or 20 percent) were within the age group 41-to-50 years. What is more, (1 principal or 20 percent) was within the age group between 26-to-30 years, and (11 or 9 percent) of the teachers did not indicate their age in this survey.

From these data, it might be concluded that the majority of the teachers were between 26-to-30 years of old. Hence, in order to lead these young staff 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.

Table 4: Respondents' by Years of Work Experience

Experience	Number of Principals		Number of Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Less than 5	2	40	80	62.5
6--10	2	40	31	24.2
11--15	1	20	6	4.7
16--20	—	—	4	3.1
21--25	—	—	1	0.8
Missing	—	—	6	4.7
Total	5	100.0	128	100.0

As far as the work experience of the respondents was concerned, (2 or 40 percent) of the principals and (80 or 63 percent) of the teachers had work experience less than 5 years in current schools. Likewise, (2 or 40 percent) of the principals and (31 or 24 percent) of the teachers had work experience between 6-to-10 years. In the same way, (1 or 20 percent) of the principal and (6 or 5 percent) of the teachers had work experience between 11-to-15 years and only (4 or 3 percent) of the teachers had work experience between 16-to-20 years. Furthermore, only (1 teacher or 1 percent) had work experience between 21-to-25 years and (6 or 5 percent) of the teachers did not indicate their work experience in this survey.

From these data, it might be concluded that half percent of the principal (60%) and most of the teacher respondents (80%) had not adequate work experience in the current schools. With the school principals, since this was so, they might lack necessary power to influence teachers' trust in their schools. Moreover, there is research by Zucker (1986:15) 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.

Table 5: Respondents by their Educational Qualification

Variable	Number of Principals		Number of Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Diploma	—	—	11	8.6
First degree	3	60	110	85.9
Second degree	2	40	5	3.9
Missing	-	-	2	1.6
Total	5	100	128	100

In discussing the educational level of the respondents, while (11 or 9 percent) of the teachers had indicated that they had diploma certificate, majority of the principals and teachers; that is, (3 or 60 percent) of the principals and (110 or 86 percent) of the teachers were first degree holders. In addition to these, (2 or 40 percent) of the principals and (5 or 4 percent) of the teachers were master graduates. Only (2 or 2 percent) of the teachers did not indicate their educational level in this survey.

These data showed that the schools where this survey was undertaken were staffed with the graduates of Bachelor degree. This is really a surprising finding. Because, if the present set of teachers at those preparatory schools were Bachelor degree holders, it meant that they had not acquired the necessary teaching qualification and competency for those educational levels, and probably this might also mean that they could not teach up to the very required or expected point.

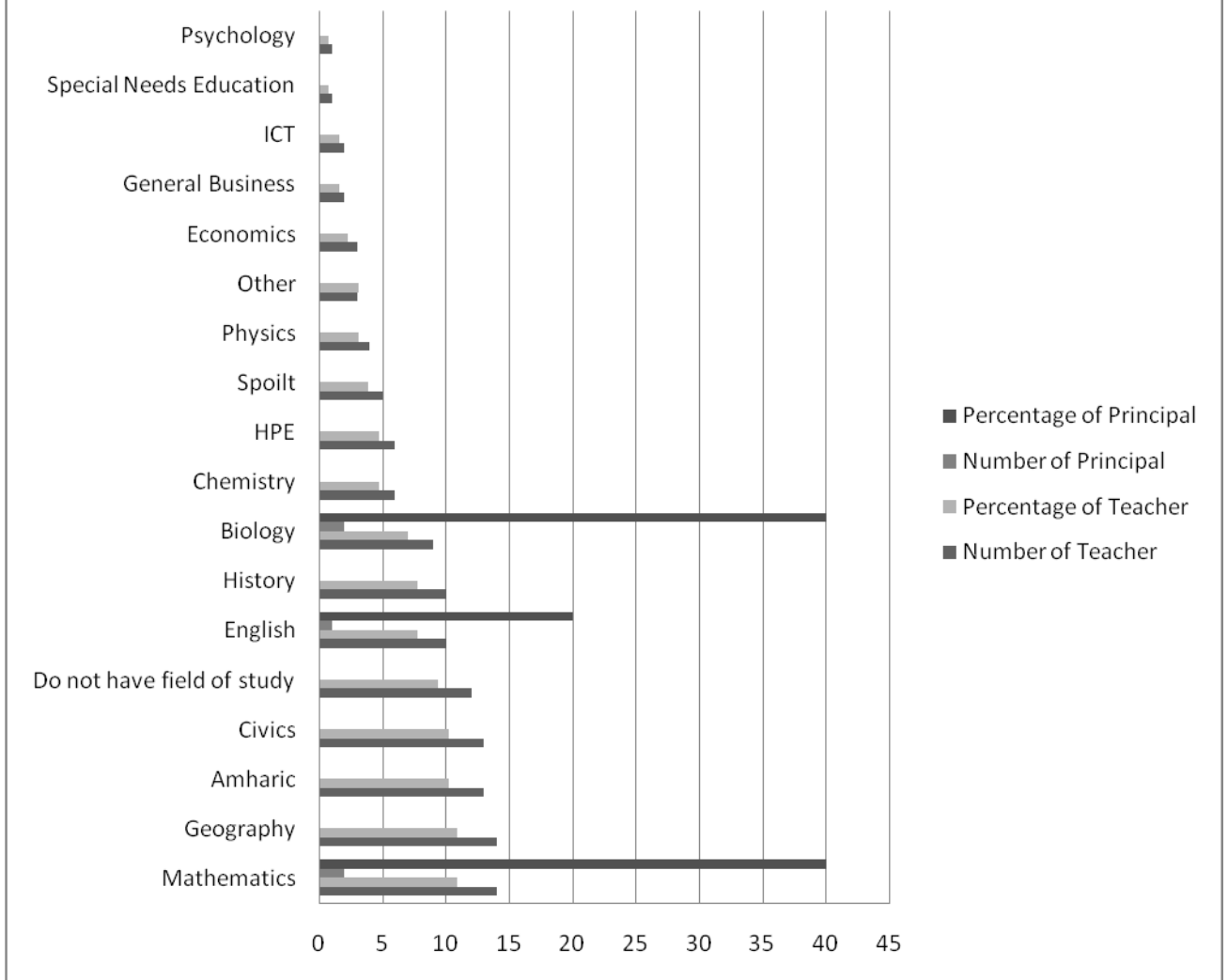
This finding is similar to the findings of earlier studies by Bryk and Schneider (2002), who also found that to build strong principal-teacher trust, teachers and principals must view themselves as competent, honest, and reliable. Failure to remove staff members who are widely viewed to be ineffective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

Table 6: Distribution of Respondents by Grade in which they were Teaching

Classes / Sections	Number of Principals		Number of Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
None	2	40	16	12.5
1--3	3	60	54	42.2
4--6	—	—	34	26.6
7--9	—	—	5	3.9
10--12	—	—	15	11.7
Missing	—	—	4	3.1
Total	5	100.0	128	100.0

The respondents were further classified according to the number of core academic classes or sections taught in preparatory schools. It was found that while majority of principals and teachers; that is, (3 or 60 percent) of principals and (54 or 42 percent) of teachers were assigned to teach between 1-to-3 preparatory classes or sections, (2 or 40 percent) of principals and (16 or 13 percent) of teachers were not assigned to teach any preparatory class or section. Results of the analysis also revealed that (34 or 27 percent) of teachers were assigned to teach between 4-to-6 classes or sections, (5 or 4 percent) of teachers were assigned to teach between 7-to-9 classes or sections, while (15 or 12 percent) of teachers were assigned to teach between 10-to-12 preparatory classes or sections. Only (4 or 3 percent) of the teachers did not indicate how much preparatory classes or sections they had been given in this survey.

Figure 4.1: Distribution of Rsepondents by their Departments



Regarding to the field of specialization, (2 or 40 percent) of principals and (14 or 11 percent) of teachers indicated mathematics as their major specialization area, followed by the same amount (14 or 11 percent) of teachers who said geography was their major area. In addition to this, the analysis also showed that more teachers amounting to (13 or 10 percent) and some more (13 or 10 percent) of teachers were specialized in Civics and Amharic respectively, yet some more teacher (13 or 10 percent) of teachers indicated that they did not have field of specialization. Besides that, while (1 or 20 percent) of principal and (10 or 8 percent) of teachers said that English was their major field of graduation, the same amount of teachers; that is, (10 or 8 percent) of teachers indicated History as their

major area. Furthermore, (2 or 40 percent) of principals and (9 or 7 percent) of teachers showed Biology as their major area. Moreover, (6 or 5 percent) and (6 or 5 percent) of teachers indicated Chemistry and Health and Physical Education as their major of specializations respectively. Another case was that (4 or 3 percent) of teachers indicated that Physics was their major area of specialization. What is more, (3 or 2 percent) of teachers showed that economics was their major field of graduation and still (3 or 2 percent) of teachers indicated that their major areas were other than mentioned. But they did not mention it. (2 or 2 percent) of teachers showed that General Business was their major area. Not only that, ICT was also indicated by the same amount of teachers; that is, (2 or 2 percent) as their major area of specialization. On top of that, (1 or 1 percent) and still (1 or 1 percent) of teachers showed that Special Need Education and Psychology were their major of specialization respectively. Only (4 or 3 percent) of the teachers did not indicate their major of specialization.

4.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

1. Research question one: what is the current level of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?

Principals' 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= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree and 5= Strongly agree). Then, the frequency distribution of each variable was calculated as well as the mean score, standard deviation and range using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) Software. 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 subscale. Finally, reciprocal trust level was determined by comparing the mean trust scores of the

principals 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 including the mean and standard deviation were presented in the following tables.

Table 7: Mean and Standard Deviation on each of the three subscales

Variable		Sample size		Mean	Standard Deviation
		Teacher	Principal		
Faculty trust in the	principal	128	—	3.64	0.96
Faculty trust in the	colleagues	128	—	3.49	0.97
Principal trust in the teachers		—	5	3.93	1.16

Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations of the survey on each of the three subscales. Accordingly, mean and standard deviation for faculty trust in the principals was 3.64 and 0.96 respectively. On the other hand, the overall mean score for faculty trust in the colleagues was 3.50 and standard deviation of 0.97. Another important point to note is that principal trust in teachers has a mean score of 3.93 and standard deviation of 1.16 despite the small number of principals who responded to the survey.

The result of this calculation has shown that the high mean score of 3.93 for principal trust in the teachers indicates that most principals agree that they trust their teachers. Yet, the high standard deviation of 1.16 for principal trust in the teachers also shows that there are some more principals, who scatter around this high mean score; who either disagree or neither agrees nor disagrees. These small categories of principals might have not sufficient beliefs in their teachers' competence, honesty, reliability, benevolence and openness. 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 principal trust in the teachers is somewhat good. When principals reported that they trust their teachers, it implies that principals controlled their own destiny by acting in ways that create trust on teachers.

Faculty trust in the principals is much worse than principals' trust in the teachers. This is evidenced with the result that while the mean scores for principals trust in the teachers is 3.93; it is only 3.64 for faculty trust in the principals. An example of faculty trust in the principal, "The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the principals' action" has a mean score of 2.77 and standard deviation of 1.08 which means that teachers tend to suspect most of the principals' actions. Teachers also reported with a mean score of 3.59 and standard deviation of 1.09 that principals do not show concern for them.

The low mean score of 3.64 for faculty trust in the principals could contribute to the overall level of trust in the schools. This is because, when faculty perceived that the principals 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 principals. 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 principals is that, the principals' impact in generating trust in colleagues seem quite limited; that is, principals' behaviors have little influence on the trust that teachers have with each other and on the principals.

The faculty trust in colleagues with a mean score of 3.50 and standard deviation of 0.97 was the lowest result from the three trusts in the schools. Mean scores of 2.85 and 3.36 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 principals and principals' trust in the teachers could lead to a situation where both teachers and principals are in the dark regarding what each really thinks about what is happening in the school settings.

Table 8: Trust Level Categorization.

Variables	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	340.45	—	—	—	—

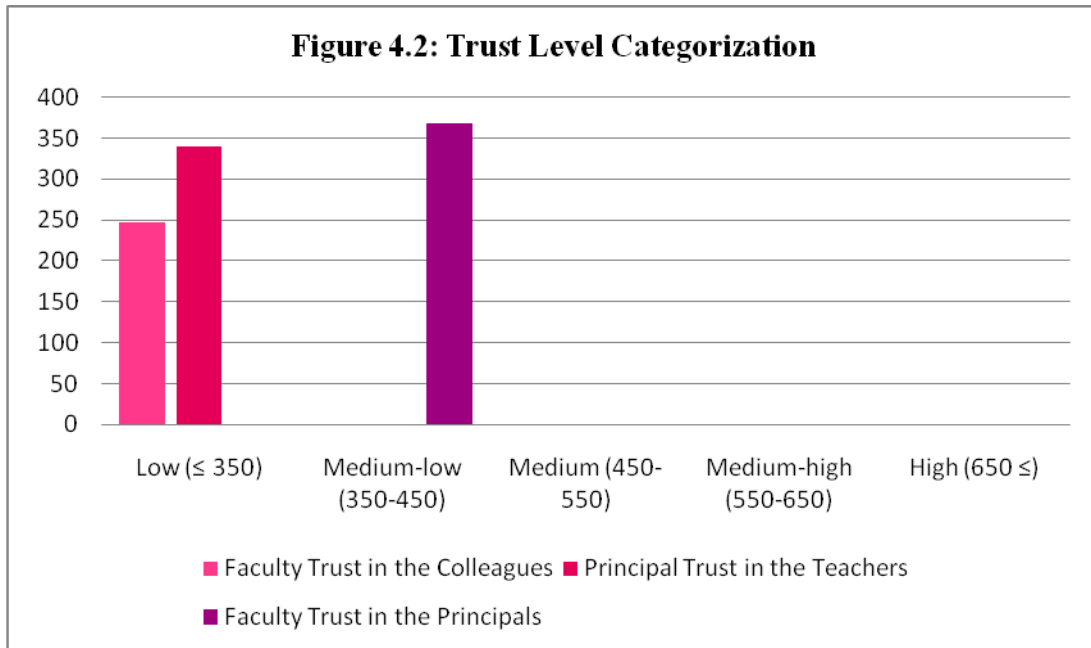


Table 8 and figure 4.2, showed the results of a computed standardized score for faculty trust in the principals, faculty trust in the colleagues and principals' trust in the teachers. Accordingly, the standardized score on faculty trust in the principals was 367.90. This standardized score indicates 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 are 340.45; it is only 246.78 for faculty trust in the colleagues. These standardized scores indicate that the level of principals' trust in the teachers and the level of faculty trust in the colleagues were presented in low 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.

2. Research Question Two: what are the specific / major barriers that destroy trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?

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 score, standard deviation and range using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) Software. 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. Anymore, descriptive statistics including the mean and standard deviation were presented in the following tables.

Table 9: Teachers' Perception about the School Principals in Enhancing Collegial Leadership of the School

Item	No	Never occurs	Rarely occurs	Sometimes occurs	Often occurs	Very frequently occurs
The principal is friendly and approachable.	128	21(16.4%)	50 (39.1%)	30 (23.4%)	21 (16.4%)	6 (4.7%)
The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.	128	13(10.2%)	35(27.3%)	34(26.6%)	32(25%)	14(10.9%)
The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist.	128	4(3.1%)	35(27.3%)	22(17.2%)	50(39.1%)	17(13%)
The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.	128	4(3.1%)	24(18.8%)	19(14.8%)	59(46.1%)	22(17.2%)
The principal is willing to make changes.	128	2(1.6%)	19(14.8%)	24(18.8%)	54(42.2%)	29(22.7%)
The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.	128	4(3.1%)	18(14.1%)	24(18.8%)	48(37.5%)	34(26.6%)
The principal maintains definite standards of performance.	128	5(3.9%)	26(20.3%)	23(18%)	50(39.1%)	24(18.8%)

Table 9 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 (50 or 39.1 percent) of the teachers had depicted that the principals' behavior of being friendly and approachable was rarely occurred. Other (30 or 23.4 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, (21 or 16.4 percent) and (21 or 16.4 percent) respectively, who reported that principals' behavior of being friendly and approachable never occurred and often occurred respectively. Yet, (6 or 4.7 percent) 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.

The mean value for the item was medium low 2.54 with relatively medium high standard deviation 1.20 values. This meant that while most of the teachers were not agreed with the occurrence of the principal's behavior indicated in the item; there were also a few of teachers who did so. Therefore, looking at the mean of 2.54 and standard deviation of 1.20, it could be inferred that the teachers might have not enjoyed with the principal's behavior of being friendly and approachable. This implied that teachers perceived the principal as acting in not a fair and just way. If teachers did not perceive their principal as acting friendly and fairly; then, they would not more likely to trust him or her.

In item two, the principal behavior of being putting suggestions made by the faculty into operation was presented. Accordingly, (35 or 27.3 percent) of the teachers showed that rarely, principals put suggestions made by the faculty into operations. On the one hand, (34 or 26.6 percent) of the teachers claimed that it was sometimes that the principals put suggestions made by the faculty into operations. Still, (32 or 25 percent) of the teachers replied that often the principals put suggestions made by the faculty into operation. More interestingly still, (14 or 10.9 percent) of the teachers reported that it was very frequently that the principals put suggestions made by the faculty into operation. Finally, (13 or 10.2 percent) of the teachers suggested that putting suggestions made by the faculty into operation by the principals did not occur at all in their schools.

It was interesting to note that mean score obtained for this item was almost medium (2.99). This medium score of 2.99 and relatively medium low standard deviation score of 1.17 showed that half of the teachers had scored medium; that is, “sometimes” and have moderately agreed with the occurrence of this item. This brought to light a half way construct in teachers’ minds about believing in their principals’ behavior of putting suggestions they made into operation. This finding; therefore, suggested that teachers’ perception of their principals as moderately attempting to put suggestions made by the faculty into operation was somewhat good for enhancing collegial leadership; as a result, they moderately trust him / her.

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 (50 or 39.1 percent) reported that often the principals explore all sides of the topics and admit that other opinions exist. On the other hand, (35 or 27.3 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 (22 or 17.2 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, (17 or 13.3 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 (4 or 3.1 percent) of the teachers replied that principals never explore any side of topic and nor admit any other opinion exist.

It was interesting to note that mean score for this item was somewhat moderate. The moderate mean score of 3.32 and the moderate standard deviation of 1.11 showed that half of the teachers had scored 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 principals’ behavior; that is, moderately explored some aspects of the topics and admitted those other opinions existed moderately. This finding suggested that teachers perceived their principals as acting moderately ethically and moderately fairly to explore all sides of the topics and admit that other opinions exist; consequently, they moderately trust him / her.

The data presented in item four showed that (4 or 3.1 percent) of the teachers stated that their principal never treats all faculty members as his or her equal. Other group of teachers; that is, (24 or 18.8 percent) of the teachers reported that principal rarely treats all faculty members as his or her equal. In contrast, while (19 or 14.8 percent) of the teachers claimed that sometimes principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal; (59 or 46.1 percent) of the teachers pointed out that their principal often treats all faculty members as his or her equal. Towards the end, (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teachers suggested that their principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal very frequently.

The considerable medium high mean score of 3.55, showed that almost medium high of the teachers agree with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite moderate 1.16 for the whole item. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that most of the teachers moderately felt good with the occurrence of the principal's behavior indicated in the item. In other words, most of the teachers moderately agreed with the occurrence of that of principal's behavior; that is, treating all faculty members as principal's equal as often occurred in the school. This finding implied that teachers perceived their principals as moderately acting fairly; as a result, they moderately trust him or her.

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 (29 or 22.7 percent) of the teachers reported that their principal was very frequently willing to make change in the school. On the other hand, (54 or 42.2 percent) of the teachers replied that their principal was often willing to make changes. Yet, (24 or 18.8 percent) of the teachers claimed that it was sometimes that principal was willing to make change in the school. The other more teachers, (19 or 14.8 percent) of the teachers, said that rarely the principal was willing to make changes in the school. Finally, (2 or almost 1.6 percent) of the teachers suggested that their principal never made and accepted changes in their school.

The medium high mean score of 3.70 showed that most of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite low 1.03 for the whole item. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that most of the teachers moderately felt good with the occurrence of the principals' behavior indicated in the item. In other words, most of the teachers agreed with the occurrence of that principal's behavior; that is, being neither rigid nor domineering was often occurred in the school. This finding implied that teachers perceived their principal as moderately acting flexibly; as a result, they moderately trust him or her.

As indicated in item six, (34 or 26.6 percent) of the teachers entrusted that their principal let faculty knew what was expected of them very frequently. On the other hand, (48 or 37.5 percent) of the teachers argued that often the principal let faculty knew what was expected of them. Moreover, (24 or 18.8 percent) of the teachers said that sometimes the principal let faculty knew what was expected of them. Besides that, (18 or 14.1 percent) of the teachers claimed that rarely the principal let faculty knew what was expected of them. The other remaining (4 or 3.1 percent) of the teachers pointed out that their principal never let faculty knew what was expected of them.

The medium high mean score of 3.70 showed that most of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite low 1.10 for the whole item. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that most of the teachers moderately felt good with the occurrence of the principal's behavior indicated in the item. In other words, most of the teachers agreed that principal's behavior; that is, setting the tone for high performance, setting an example of hard work and letting teachers knew what was expected of them was often occurred in the school. This finding implied that teachers perceived their principal as moderately setting direction, giving them freedom to get their work done and encouraging them; as a result, they moderately trust him or her.

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, (5 or 3.9 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 (26 or 20.3 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, (23 or 18 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, (50 or 39.1 percent) of the teachers who reported that the principal's behavior in maintaining definite standard of performance as occurred often. Yet, (24 or 18.8 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.

It was interesting to note that mean score for this item was somewhat moderate. The moderate mean score of 3.48 and the moderate standard deviation of 1.13 showed that half of the teachers had scored 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 principal's behavior that was moderately setting clear goals and standards of performance. This finding suggested that teachers perceived their principal as moderately setting clear goals and standards of performance; consequently, they moderately trusted him or her.

Table 10: Mean and Standard Deviation on each of the Collegial Leadership items

Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Variance
The principal is friendly and approachable.	128	2.54	1.09	1.20
The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.	128	2.99	1.17	1.38
The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist.	128	3.32	1.11	1.23
The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.	128	3.55	1.08	1.16
The principal is willing to make changes.	128	3.70	1.03	1.06
The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.	128	3.70	1.10	1.23
The principal maintains definite standards of performance.	128	3.48	1.13	1.28
Collegial leadership	128	3.33	0.97	1.22

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 3.70 and standard deviation of 1.03 and mean score of 3.70 and standard deviation of 1.10 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 2.54 and standard deviation of 1.09. 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 2.54 and standard deviation of 1.09 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 2.99 and standard deviation of 1.17. 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 3.32 and standard deviation of 1.11. Teachers also reported with a mean score of 3.48 that principals were not maintaining definite standards of performance. Another example of a behavior with a medium high mean score (3.55) was, "The principal treats all faculty members as his/ her equal."

These medium and medium high mean scores of (3.55, 3.48, 3.32 and 2.99) respectively on the behaviors, "The principal treats all faculty members as his/her equal", "The principal maintains definite standards of performance", "The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist", and "The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation" would indicate that principals frequently do not know what their teachers are thinking or feeling. This coupled with the lowest mean score of 2.54 and standard deviation of 1.09 on the behavior, "The principal is friendly and approachable" could lead to a situation where teachers do not trust principals. This finding that teachers were less willing to trust principals for their not being friendly and approachable, for not putting suggestions made by the faculty into operation, for not exploring all sides of topics and admitting that other opinions exist, for not treating all faculty members as their equals and for not maintaining definite standard of performance was related with (Driscoll, 1978; Tan & Tan, 2000) studies. 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 11: Teachers' Feelings about their Professionalism

Item	No	Never occurs	Rarely occurs	Sometimes occurs	Often occurs	Very frequently occurs
The interaction between faculty members is cooperative.	128	4(3.1%)	24(18.8%)	22(17.2%)	52(40.6%)	26(20.3%)
Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.	128	5(3.9%)	21(16.4%)	25(19.5%)	51(39.8%)	26(20.3%)
Teachers help and support each other.	128	7(5.5%)	23(18%)	16(12.5%)	62(48.4%)	20(15.6%)
Teachers in this school exercise professional judgment.	128	9(7%)	22(17.2%)	19(14.8%)	61(47.7%)	17(13.3%)
Teachers are committed to helping students.	128	4(3.1%)	24(18.8%)	18(14.1%)	54(42.2%)	28(21.9%)
Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.	128	2(1.6%)	22(17.2%)	18(14.1%)	65(50.8%)	21(16.4%)
Teachers "go the extra mile" with their students.	128	7(5.5%)	22(17.2%)	24(18.8%)	56(43.8%)	19(14.8%)
Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.	128	21(16.4%)	31(24.2%)	24(18.8%)	40(31.3%)	12(9.4)

In table 11, teachers' feeling about their professionalism was presented. Accordingly, (26 or 20.3 percent) of the teacher replied that the interaction between them was very frequently mutual cooperation. In addition to this, (52 or 40.6 percent) of the teachers argued that it was often that they interacted and felt good about each other. Moreover, (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teacher reported that it was sometimes that they interacted and felt good about each other. On top of that, (24 or 18.8 percent) of the teacher stated that it was rarely that the interaction between them occurred mutually cooperation. What was more, (4 or 3.1 percent) 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 3.56 showed that almost medium high of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite moderate 1.11 for the whole item. 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 (5 or 3.9 percent) of the teachers believed that they never respected the expertise of their colleagues. On the contrary, (21 or 16.4 percent) of the teachers believed that teachers respected the professional competence of their colleagues rarely. Furthermore, (25 or 19.5 percent) of the teachers said that teachers respected the professional competence of their colleagues sometimes. Not only had that, (51 or 39.8 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 3.56 showed that almost medium high of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite moderate 1.11 for the whole item. 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 item two. 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, (7 or 5.5 percent) of the teachers replied that they never provide strong social support for one another and never help each other with professional problems. However, (23 or 18 percent) of the teachers argued that they help and support each other rarely. Besides that, (16 or 12.5 percent) of the teachers responded that they sometimes provide strong social support for one another and help each other with professional problems. Conversely, (62 or 48.4 percent) of the teachers said that they often help and support each other. Some more teachers; that is, (20 or 15.6 percent) of the teachers suggested that very frequently they help and support each other.

The considerable medium high mean score of 3.51 showed that almost medium high of the teachers agreed strongly with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite moderate low 1.12 for the whole item. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that most of the teachers felt good with the occurrence of their professional behavior indicated in the item. In other words, most of the teachers agreed that teachers' professional behavior; that is, providing strong social support for one another and helping each other with professional problems was often occurred in the school. This finding implied that professional teachers committed to provide strong social

support for one another and help each other with professional problems was significant in facilitating trust among teachers, which in turn enhanced a sense of professionalism.

Item four showed teachers' professional behavior of being autonomous in decision making. Approximately (17 or 13.3 percent) of the teachers revealed that very frequently they exercised professional judgment. Other teachers, that was to say, (61 or 47.7 percent) of the teachers indicated that it was "often" that teachers' professional behavior of being autonomous in decision making occurred. Yet, (19 or 14.8 percent) of the teachers responded that sometimes teachers exercise professional judgment. In the same way, (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teachers said that teachers' professional behavior of being autonomous in decision making occurred in the school rarely. Then, the remaining (9 or 7 percent) of the teachers revealed that teachers never exercise professional judgment at all in the school.

It was interesting to note that mean score for this item was somewhat medium high. The medium high mean score of 3.43 and the medium high standard deviation of 1.13 showed that more than half of the teachers had scored considerable (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 professional behavior of engaging in moderately autonomous decision making. This finding suggested that professional teachers perceived their moderate commitment in engaging in autonomous decision making as significant in facilitating trust among teachers, which in return enhanced a sense of professionalism; as a result, they moderately trusted themselves.

Item four presented the commitment of teachers at helping students develop both socially and intellectually. Among 128 respondent teachers, only (4 or 3.1 percent) of the teachers said that they never committed to help students. In contrast, the majority of teachers, that was, (54 or 42.2 percent) of the teachers responded that they often committed to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually. In addition, (28 or 21.9 percent) of the teachers replied that teachers' commitment to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually at school very frequently occurred. Besides that, (24 or 18.8 percent) of the teachers argued that teachers' commitment to helping their students develop both socially and intellectually at school rarely occurred. Moreover, (18 or 14.1

percent) 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 3.61 showed that most of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite medium high 1.12 for the whole item. 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 (2 or 1.6 percent) of the teachers reported that they never accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm. On the contrary, (65 or 50.8 percent) of the teachers replied that it was often that they accomplished their jobs with enthusiasm. What was more, (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teachers said that it was rarely that they accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm. In like manner, (21 or 16.4 percent) of the teachers revealed that it was very frequently that they accomplished their jobs with enthusiasm. Yet, (18 or 14.1 percent) of the teachers responded that it was sometimes that they accomplished their jobs with enthusiasm.

The medium high mean score of 3.63 showed that most of the teachers agreed with the frequency occurrence of this behavior. The standard deviation was quite low 1.00 for the whole item. 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, (19 or 14.8 percent) of the teachers showed that teachers went the extra mile with the students very frequently. Conversely, (7 or 5.5 percent) of the teachers claimed that teachers never work hard at helping students and even helping students on their own time at all. Anymore, (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teachers replied that teachers went the extra mile with the students rarely. Another group of teachers, (24 or 18.8 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, (56 or 43.8 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 3.45 and the moderate standard deviation of 1.11 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 (40 or 31.3 percent) of the teachers stated that they often provide strong social support for colleagues. Nevertheless, (31 or 24.2 percent) of the teachers reported that they rarely provide strong social support for colleagues. In addition, (24 or 18.8 percent) of the teachers replied that they sometimes provide strong social support for colleagues. Similarly, (21 or 16.4 percent) of the teachers said that they never provide strong social support for colleagues. The other remaining (12 or 9.4 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 (2.93). This medium score of 2.93 and relatively high standard deviation score of 1.26 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 12: Mean and Standard Deviation on each of the eight (8) item of Teacher professionalism

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
The principal is friendly and approachable.	128	2.54	1.093
Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.	128	3.56	1.107
Teachers help and support each other.	128	3.51	1.122
Teachers in this school exercise professional judgment.	128	3.43	1.134
Teachers are committed to helping students.	128	3.61	1.117
Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.	128	3.63	1.003
Teachers “go the extra mile” with their students.	128	3.45	1.107
Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.	128	2.93	1.262
Teacher professionalism	128	3.46	1.12

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 3.63 and standard deviation of 1.00 that they very frequently accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm. Next to this, teachers also confirmed with mean score of 3.61 and standard deviation of 1.12 that they very frequently committed to helping students.

Teachers; on the other hand, expressed moderate perception with mean scores of below 3.60 on almost six (6) of the eight (8) behaviors. The behavior with the lowest mean score of (2.93) and the highest standard deviation of (1.26) was, “Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.” Next to this, teachers also reported with a medium high mean score of 3.43 and a high standard deviation of 1.13 that they were exercising professional judgment in their schools. Another example of a behavior with a medium high mean score of (3.45) and a high standard deviation of 1.11 was, “Teachers ‘go the extra mile’ with their students.” Similar medium high mean scores of (3.51; 3.56 and 3.56) and high standard deviations of (1.12; 1.11 and 1.11) respectively, indicating a

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 (3.43; 3.45; 3.51; 3.56 and 3.56) and high standard deviations of (1.13; 1.11; 1.12; 1.11 and 1.11) respectively on teacher professionalism behaviors of, “Teachers exercise professional judgment”, “Teachers ‘go the extra mile’ with their students”, “Teachers help and support each other”, “Teachers respect 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 2.93 and the highest standard deviation of 1.26 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.

3. To what extent are the behavior of the principals and the behavior of teachers made impact upon teaching and school effectiveness in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?

Principals' 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 score, standard deviation and range using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) Software. 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; therefore, including the mean and standard deviation were presented in the following tables.

Table 13: Perceived Effectiveness of Principals and Teachers in the Schools

Item	Principal (N=5)					Teacher (N=128)				
	Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
The principal is effective in meeting my job-related needs. (I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs).	—	4 (80%)	—	—	1 (20%)	31 (24.2%)	40 (31.3%)	28 (21.9%)	19 (14.8%)	10 (7.8%)
The principal is effective in representing me to higher authority. (I am effective in representing others to higher authority).	—	—	1 (20%)	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	19 (14.8%)	26 (20.3%)	29 (22.7%)	32 (25%)	22 (17.2%)
The principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements.	—	—	1 (20%)	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	21 (16.4%)	21 (16.4%)	27 (21.1%)	44 (34.4%)	15 (11.7%)
The principal leads a group that is effective.	—	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	23 (18%)	26 (20.3%)	23 (18%)	37 (28.9%)	19 (14.8%)

As indicated in item one in the table 13, the majority (40 or 31.3 percent) of teachers and (4 or 80 percent) of principals reported that the principals' influence to meet others' job related needs occurred once in a time and (31 or 24.2 percent) of the teachers replied that this behavior did not occur at all. On the contrary, while (28 or 21.9 percent) of the teachers said that this behavior sometimes occurred, (19 or 14.8 percent) of the teachers complained that fairly often principals were effective in meeting their job related needs. The remaining (10 or 7.8 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals said that principals were always effective in meeting others' job related needs.

From these data, it was understandable that within schools, a considerable amount of variation was due to unusual practices of principals in schools but the mean scores for both teachers and principals were quite small (1.51 and 1.60) and standard deviations were high (1.23 and 1.34) respectively. 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 principals 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 principal behaviors neither were nor existed.

As we can observe from item two, (32 or 25 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the principals rated that their principals assigned responsibilities to them as opportunities for growth and development "fairly often" and (29 or 22.7 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals argued that representing teachers to higher authority occurred "sometimes." Following this, while (26 or 20.3 percent) of the teachers said that their principals assigned responsibilities to them "once in a year", (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals replied that

principals were representing other to higher authority “very frequently.” The remaining (19 or 14.8 percent) of the teachers reported that assigning responsibilities to teachers as opportunities for growth and development “did not occur” at all.

The mean score (2.09) of teachers and mean score (3.00) of principals indicated that individualized consideration behavior of principals was relatively moderate. This finding suggested that principals 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 principal (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 principals’ effectiveness in meeting schools’ requirements. As indicated in the table, (44 or 34.4 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the principals reported that principals were “fairly often” showed concern for organizational vision and teachers’ motivation. In contrast, (15 or 11.7 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals argued that principals’ concern for organizational vision and teachers’ motivation was “frequently” provided. In like manner, the same amount of teachers, that was, (21 or 16.4 percent and 21 or 16.4 percent) of the teachers claimed that principals’ abilities to communicate their visions in ways that inspire all faculties to take actions in an effort to fulfill the visions “did not occur at all” or if happen, “once in a year” respectively. Finally, (27 or 21.1 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals indicated that it was “sometimes” that principals provided challenges and meanings to teachers in order to engage them in shared organizational goals.

The calculated mean score (2.09) of teachers and mean score (3.00) of principals and the relatively low standard deviations of (0.71) for principals and moderately high standard deviation of (1.28) for teachers indicated that most of the teachers and principals 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 (37 or 28.9 percent) of the teachers and (2 or 40 percent) of the principals rated their principals as “fairly often” lead a group that was effective. In addition to this, almost (26 or 20.3 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals said that principals’ behavior of leading a group which was effective as occurred “once in a while” in their schools. Another group of respondents, that was, (23 or 18 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals rated principals’ behavior of leading a group that was effective as occurred “sometimes” in their schools. Besides that, (19 or 14.8 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals rated their principals as it was “frequently” that lead a group that was effective. The remaining (23 or 18 percent) of the teachers argued that leading a group that was effective by their principals “did not occur at all.”

The calculated mean score (2.02) of teachers and mean score (2.60) of principals and the relatively high standard deviations of (1.14) for principals and standard deviation of (1.14) for teachers indicated that results were scattered. This scattered of scores around the mean showed that almost medium number of teachers and principals 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 principals were moderately willing to take risks and were moderately consistent in leading effective group.

Table 14: Mean and Standard Deviation for all items of Perceived Effectiveness of Teachers and Principals

R/ N	Item	Principal			Teacher		
		No	Mean	SD	No	Mean	SD
1	The principal is effective in meeting my job related needs. (I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.	5	1.60	1.34	128	1.51	1.23
2	The principal is effective in representing me to higher authority. (I am effective in representing others to higher authority.	5	3.00	0.71	128	2.10	1.32
3	The principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements.	5	3.00	0.71	128	2.10	1.28
4	The principal leads a group that is effective	5	2.60	1.14	128	2.02	1.35
Perceived effectiveness of teachers and principals		5	2.55	0.97	128	1.93	1.29

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 principals 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 and standard deviation of 0.71. 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 and standard deviation of 1.32. 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 principals are effective in meeting others' job related needs, in meeting organizational requirements and in leading groups that are effective as what principals would like.

The character dimension with a mean score of 1.51 and standard deviation of 1.23 in teachers' report and mean score of 1.60 and standard deviation of 1.34 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 principals' response respectively on the behavior, "The principal is effective in meeting my job related needs / I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs" would indicate that principals not at all provide any one with job related materials. This coupled with the low mean scores on the behavior, "The principal 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 principals 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 principals 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 and standard deviation of 1.32 in teachers' response and mean score of 3.00 and standard deviation of 0.71 in principals' response on the behavior, "The principal 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 and standard deviation of 1.28 in teachers' response and mean score of 3.00 and standard deviation of 0.71 in principals' report on the behavior, "The principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements/ I am effective in meeting organizational requirements" also do not offer such hope that teachers and principals could be effective in their performance. Low mean scores of such indicate that a number of teachers and principals had 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 principals 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 principals' 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 principals' low-trust in teachers which may compel the teachers to reciprocate that low-trust. This also seems to affirm that principals do not take teachers as the most important assets in the schools. Thus, teachers' trust in their principals 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, 1999:102). 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 15: Principals' and Teachers' Satisfaction in the Schools

Item	Principal (N=5)					Teacher (N=128)				
	Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
The principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying. (I use methods of leadership that are satisfying).	—	1 (20%)	—	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	21 (16.4%)	38 (29.7%)	31 (24.2%)	26 (20.3%)	12 (9.4%)
The principal works with me in a satisfactory way. (I work with others in a satisfactory way).	—	1 (20%)	—	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	21 (16.4%)	18 (14.1%)	17 (13.3%)	45 (35.2%)	27 (21.1%)

As indicated in item one in the table 15 above, teachers and principals were asked about their satisfaction with methods that school principals used in their schools as indicators of success. Their responses were varied considerably with point scales. For example, (38 or 29.7 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals pointed out that their satisfaction with methods that principals used in their schools occurred once in a while. In addition, (26 or 20.3 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the principals reported that it was fairly often that they satisfied with methods that principals used in their schools. Furthermore, (12 or 9.4 percent)

of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals said that it was frequently that they satisfied with methods that principals used in their respective schools. Not only had that, (31 or 24.2 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, (21 or 16.4 percent) of the teachers claimed that they never satisfy at all with the methods that their principals used in their schools.

These variations were due to differences among teachers and principals perceptions about methods that their principals used. Once people had evidence that lead them to perceive differences in practices, distrust was likely to emerge. The calculated mean score (1.77) of teachers and mean score (2.80) of principals and the relatively medium high standard deviations of (1.09) for principals and standard deviation of (1.22) for teachers indicated that most of the teachers scored below average whereas principals scored nearly average and above.

Hence, this indicated that the school principals 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, principals 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 principals' ways of executing day-to-day practices was minimal.

As indicated in item two, almost (45 or 35.2 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the principals rated the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred "fairly often." On the contrary, (27 or 21.1 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals rated that the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred "most frequently." Moreover, (18 or 14.1 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals rated that the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred "once in a while." Yet, (17 or 13.3 percent) of the teachers rated that the frequency of works with others in a satisfactory way as occurred

“sometimes.” Finally, (21 or 16.4 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 (2.31) of teachers and mean score (2.80) of principals and the relatively medium high standard deviations of (1.09) for principals and standard deviation of (1.38) for teachers 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 16: Mean and Standard Deviation for all items of satisfaction of teachers and principals

R/ N	Item	Principal			Teacher		
		No	Mean	SD	No	Me	SD
1	The principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying. (I use methods of leadership that are satisfying).	5	2.80	1.10	128	1.77	1.22
2	The principal works with me in a satisfying way. (I work with others in a satisfying way).	5	2.80	1.10	128	2.31	1.38
Satisfaction of teachers and principals		5	2.80	1.10	128	2.04	1.30

We are now briefly analyzing the respondents’ responses regarding to the teachers and principals 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 principals have on this aspect of leadership outcome. For example, principals reported equally that they used methods of leadership that were satisfying and worked with others in a satisfactory ways for mean scores of 2.80 & 2.80 and standard deviations of 1.10 & 1.10 respectively. 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 and standard deviation of 1.22 on the behavior, “The

principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying” and mean score of 2.31 and standard deviation of 1.38 on the behavior, “The principal works with me in a satisfactory way” respectively. On closer examination; consequently, it appears that teachers believe that principals are not doing the things for them, which is oppose to what principals thought.

The character dimension with a mean score of 1.77 and standard deviation of 1.22 in teachers’ report on the behavior, “The principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying” was lower than the character dimension with a mean score of 2.31 and standard deviation of 1.38 in teachers’ response on the behavior, “The principal works with me in a satisfactory way”. This mean score; that is, 2.31 in teachers’ response on the behavior, “The principal works with me in a satisfactory way” indicates that principals minimally work with other in a satisfactory way. This coupled with the low mean scores on the behavior, “The principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying” could lead to a situation where both teachers and principals do not get work satisfaction. Not only have that, from these respondents’ responses, one can also concluded that principals 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 principals 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 17: Principals' and Teachers' Extra Effort in the Schools

Item	Principal (N=5)					Teacher (N=128)				
	Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
The principal gets me to do more than I expected to do. (I get others to do more than they expected to do).	—	1 (20%)	—	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	13 (10.2 %)	25 (19.5%)	28 (21.9 %)	54 (35.2%)	17 (13.3%)
The principal heightens my desire to succeed. (I heighten others' desire to succeed).	—	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	3 (60%)	—	18 (14.1 %)	27 (21.1%)	22 (17.2 %)	35 (27.3%)	26 (20.3%)
The principal increases my willingness to try harder. (I increase others' willingness to try harder).	—	—	1 (20%)	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	30 (23.4%)	21 (16.4%)	22 (17.2%)	40 (31.3%)	15 (11.7%)

As indicated in item one in the table 17, teachers and principals were asked about their principals' leadership whether principals 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, (45 or 35.2 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the principals pointed out that their principals fairly often motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. In addition, (28 or 21.9 percent) of the teachers reported that it was sometimes that their principals motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. Furthermore, (25 or 19.5 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals said that it was once in a while that their principals motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. Not only had that, (17 or 13.3 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals also said that it was frequently that

their principals motivated them to do more than they thought they could do in their respective schools. On top of that, (13 or 10.2 percent) of the teachers claimed that their principals 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 principals perception about motivation that their principals did in schools. The calculated mean score (2.22) of teachers and mean score (2.80) of principals and the relatively low standard deviations of (1.09) for principals and standard deviation of (1.20) for teachers 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 practices.

As indicated in item two, teachers and principals were asked about their principals whether they heightened teachers' motivation to succeed in their schools as indicators of success. Their responses were varied considerably with point scales. For example, (35 or 27.3 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the principals pointed out that their principals fairly often heightened their motivation to succeed. In addition, (26 or 20.3 percent) of the teachers reported that their principals frequently, if not always heightened their motivation to succeed. Furthermore, (27 or 21.1 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals said that it was once in a while that their principals heightened their motivation to succeed. Not only had that, (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals also said that it was sometimes that their principals heightened their motivation to succeed. On top of that, (18 or 14.1 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 principals perception about methods that their principals 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 (2.19) of teachers and mean score (2.40) of principals and the relatively low standard deviations of (0.89) for principals and standard deviation of (1.36) for teachers 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 principals were asked about their principals 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, (40 or 31.3 percent) of the teachers and (3 or 60 percent) of the principals pointed out that their principals fairly often increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. In addition, (22 or 17.2 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals reported that it was sometimes that their principals increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. Furthermore, (15 or 11.7 percent) of the teachers and (1 or 20 percent) of the principals said that it was frequently that their principals increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. Not only had that, (21 or 16.4 percent) of the teachers also said that it was once in a while that their principals increased their willingness to try hard in their schools. On top of that, (30 or 23.4 percent) of the teachers claimed that their principals never at all increased their willingness to try hard in their schools.

These variations were due to differences among teachers and principals' perception about methods that their principals 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 (1.91) of teachers and mean score (3.00) of principals and the relatively low standard deviations of (0.71) for principals and relatively high standard deviation of (1.38) for teachers indicated that most of the teachers scored below or equal to average whereas principals scored nearly above average.

Hence, this indicated that the school principals who rated high for principals' practices tend to divide faculties into two groups: those with whom they shared group membership (principals) and those who are outside that group (teachers). Once faculties had been categorized, principals 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 18: Mean and Standard Deviation for all Items of Extra Effort of Teachers and Principals

R/ N	Item	Principal			Teacher		
		No	Mean	SD	No	Mean	SD
1	The principal gets me to do more than I expected to do. (I get others to do more than they expected to do).	5	2.80	1.10	128	2.22	1.20
2	The principal heightens my desire to succeed. (I heighten others' desires to succeed).	5	2.40	0.89	128	2.19	1.36
3	The principal increases my willingness to try harder. (I increase others' willingness to try harder).	5	3.00	0.71	128	1.91	1.38
Extra effort from teachers and principals		5	2.73	0.90	128	2.11	1.31

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 principals 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 principals have on this aspect of leadership outcome. One example of this is that principals reported that they increase others' willingness to try harder for a mean score of 3.00 and standard deviation of 0.71. 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 and standard deviation of 1.38. 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 principals get others to do more than they expect to do and increase others' willingness to try harder as what principals would like.

The perceived extra effort dimension with mean score of 2.80 and standard deviation of 1.10 in principals' response and mean score of 2.22 and standard deviation of 1.20 in teachers' response on the behavior "The principals 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 and standard deviation of 0.89 in principals' responses and mean score of 2.19 and standard deviation of 1.36 in teachers' responses on the behavior, "The principals heighten my desire to succeed / I heighten others' desires to succeed" also do not offer such hope that teachers and principals were motivated to put in extra effort. Thus, trust could not be developed between teachers and principals in their respective schools. Low mean scores of 2.80 as principals rated themselves and 2.22 as teachers rated their principals' behaviors indicate that a number of teachers and principals 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 principals 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 principals. The reasons for not exerting extra effort in these schools were reported by teachers and principals as leadership behaviors and how motivator principals 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 principals 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, principals are using strong influence strategies to control teachers. Furthermore, this implies that teachers and principals 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, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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

5.1 SUMMARY

5.1.1 OVERALL SUMMARY OF STUDY FINDINGS

This research was designed to examine the current status of trust between teachers and principals in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. Trust between principal and teacher was measured as the trust perception of principals and teachers in the schools. The two school climate dimensions—collegial leadership and teachers' professionalism—were measured through the perception of teachers. Finally, the three leadership outcomes—effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort—were measured through the perceptions of teachers and principals.

The following research questions were asked:

1. What is the current level of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?
2. What are the major barriers that hinder trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?
3. To what extent are the behavior of the principals and the behavior of teachers perceived by the teachers made impact upon teaching and school effectiveness in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State?

Surveys were used to collect the perception of teachers and principals from a purposive sample of five (5) government preparatory schools in Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. At these schools, sixty percent (60%) of the population; that is, at Abobo senior and secondary preparatory school twenty (20) teachers and one (1) principal, at Gambella senior and secondary preparatory school thirty-three (33) teachers and one (1) principal, at Itang senior and secondary preparatory school twenty-two (22) teachers and

one (1) principal, at Kuergang senior and secondary preparatory school twenty-eight (28) teachers and one (1) principal and at Tinishu Metti senior and secondary preparatory school thirty-four (34) teachers and one (1) principal were asked to complete role specific trust surveys measuring their perception of trust in the other role group in order to ascertain the level of reciprocal trust between these role groups: principals--teachers. In addition to this, the same principals and teachers were asked to complete leadership outcome surveys to measure their perceptions of the leadership outcome in their schools. Moreover, the same teachers were specifically asked to complete the two dimensions of school climate surveys to measure their perceptions of the school climate in their schools.

Finally, it was observed that a total of five (5 or 100 percent) of principals and (128 or 89.51 percent) of teachers returned usable surveys. All data were aggregated to the school level using the means from completed survey items. The level of reciprocal trust, school climate and leadership outcomes data were then statistically analyzed using SPSS and tables to see the results.

The major findings of this study indicated that the reciprocal trust between principals and teachers was very low. Results indicated that none of the schools in the study had a high level of principal—teacher reciprocal trust. Since the reciprocal trust relationship was at the low and medium low level, there appeared to be a general lack of trust between principals and teachers in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

The study also found out that top down decision making, ineffective communication, lack of collaboration, lack of team leadership, lack of mutual trust, and lack of authenticity inhibited trust between principals and teachers. Results indicated that none of the schools in the study had a high level of all these factors. Since the presence levels of these factors were at low, medium low and medium high, there appeared to be difficulty to establish the common values needed to develop trust between principals and teachers as well as among the teachers.

Finally, the study found out that principals' and teachers' commitment, loyalty and satisfaction with their organization found to be very low. Results indicated that none of the schools in the study had a high level of job performance, perceived effectiveness, satisfaction with principals and high amount of effort they were willing to exert to their work. Since the presence levels of these leadership outcomes were at low and medium low, there appeared to be difficulty to influence the effectiveness of schools by enhancing the teamwork of staff, facilitating the efficiency of operations and promoting a culture in which students can succeed.

5.1.2 SPECIFIC SUMMARY

As the above overall summary showed, 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 principals' impact in generating trust in colleagues seemed quite limited; that is, principals' behaviors had little influence on the trust that teachers had with each other.
2. Of the three types of faculty trust examined; only faculty trust in the principal was found to be medium low. Principal trust in teachers and faculty trust in colleagues were found to be very low.
3. Since the two role groups (faculty trust in colleagues and principal trust in teachers) were at very worse low levels, there appeared to be a general lack of trust between principals and teachers in participating schools.
4. Trust between principals and teachers were reciprocal. If the principals judged that teachers were trustworthy, then they would act in consequence. As a result, teachers would see that the principals trusted them and they would tend to respond in kind.
5. Collegial leadership was not experienced in the schools where the study had been undertaken. Because teachers were less willing to trust principals for their not being friendly and approachable, for not putting suggestions made by the faculty into operation, for not exploring all sides of topics and admitting that other opinions exist, for not treating all faculty members as their equals and for not maintaining definite standard of performance.

6. Teachers' professionalism behaviors were found to be weak. 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, (2) low mean score in teachers' respect in the competence of one another, (3) low mean score in teachers' provision of social support for one another, (4) low mean score in teachers' getting along with their colleagues, (5) low mean score in teachers' helping each other with professional problems and (6) low mean scores in teachers' being friendly and feeling good about each other. All these affected teachers' professionalism behavior in negative way.
7. Teachers' trust in their principals was negatively impacted by the level of their perception of their principals as ineffective in carrying out organizational practices or decisions they used to make in their schools.
8. Both teachers and principals did not get work satisfaction. Principals were not trusted by the teachers. Having not trusted principals by the teachers also led to poor performance of the teachers. Because poor performance is usually linked to low level of job satisfaction.
9. Principals and teachers did not put extra effort. Because, principals did not get teachers to do more than they expected, they did not heighten teachers' desires to succeed and they did not increase teachers' willingness to try harder. All these had strong negative consequences on work.

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 level of trust between principals and teachers as well as among teachers was found to be very low. The nature of school works; however, calls for interdependence. For instance, the principal needs teachers' support to maintain a cohesive professional community that productively engages parents and students. Teachers' work; in turn, depends on decisions that the principal makes about the allocation of resources to their classrooms. To maintain these interdependences; hence, trust is required. In this regard,

the Government Preparatory Schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State seem lagging behind.

The findings of this study concerning collegial leadership and teacher professionalism revealed that principals 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 Preparatory Schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

The findings of this study concerning leadership outcomes showed that principals 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 principals 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 principals.

1. In order to improve the level of trust that exists between teachers and principals as well as among teachers themselves, the principals need to spend time listening to their teachers and encouraging them to give them feedback on a wide varieties of items; such as, allowing teachers to evaluate the principals, having group meetings with faculty where teachers and principals discuss how things are going up around them, and suggest ways how they could be improved and having group discussion with faculty on the vision and mission of schools. The principals also need to be predictable, keeping confidence and showing teachers that they care about them.

2. It seems desirable that principals often stay open to teachers. Because, trust could be maintain between teachers and principals when teachers see that principals are not feeling that they “know everything all” and they are interested in listening from other teachers as well. This is because listening is an openness dimension that is a building block for trust. When a person listens to someone, a message could be conveyed that you value that person, and that you have time for them because they are important. When people believe that you care, the process of trusting is underway.
3. Living authentic lives is important for trust. In other word, teachers need to know who their principals and peers / colleagues really are and what they stand for. As an illustration, a principal who changes roles and approaches frequently will be perceived as unpredictable and unauthentic. The same is also true for a teacher or colleague who frequently changes his/her roles and approaches.
4. The important factor of principals’ doubting resulting from unclear practices of the teachers should be eliminated by sharing credit generously so that trusting one other skill will be developed among all the school citizens. Principals should notice that the job of a principal as a leader is to go first, to extend trust first. Not a blind trust without expectations and accountability, but rather a "smart trust" with clear expectations and strong accountability built into the process. The best principals always lead out with a decided propensity to trust, as opposed to a propensity not to trust.
5. 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. Because the successful working of any organizational system depends upon the positive organized efforts of its members. All teachers and principals are working towards the same end. Principals should pay attention to daily relationships with teachers inspire confidence in principals as a persons, which in turn will provide a foundation for trust in school leaderships.
6. It is also desirable to develop strong social support among teachers. This is because in schools; parents, students, teachers and principals are all mutually dependent on each

other to achieve their goals. This mutual dependence will not be possible if strong social support among teachers does not exist. However if it exist, will create a feeling of vulnerability as each party relies on the others to fulfill their responsibility. Satisfaction results when the parties have a shared understanding of their roles and believe each other to be acting with good intentions (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). If teachers cannot trust each other, they cannot work together effectively to crate systemic harmony.

7. People are motivated by a range of factors which differ from person to person. Teachers, whose job related needs, are met; therefore, may likely produce huge benefits for the school. It is essential therefore for school principals to provide a supportive working environment in which available resources are effectively employed to ensure success. As principal, focus on satisfying teachers' job related needs in the workplace, clarifying desired outcomes and increasing opportunity for teachers. If these needs are fulfill and growth opportunities are met, teachers may increase the opportunity for the success of the school.
8. It seems desirable that authority to lead schools need not be located only in the hands of the principals but also it should be dispersed within the schools in between and among teachers. School principals should understand that leadership is embedded in various organizational contexts within school communities not centrally vested in principals or principals' offices. In other word, teachers are not passive actors in the schools, but co-constructors of leadership. As active professional, teachers who felt that they are left out of important decisions or whatever empowerments will react by withdrawing trust, which in turn would undermine unity.
9. Principals should work to meet organizational requirements by demonstrating competence and communicating a strong vision for the schools communities and clearly defining expectations that are upheld for all faculty members. These leadership skills would help staff to accomplish common goals and maintain a cohesive professional community which is characterized by collective responsibility for student learning. The cohesive community is lubricated by respectful interaction and courtesy among principals and staff members.

10. Principals, 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. This is because if teachers cannot trust each other, they cannot work together effectively. If staffs are not working together, in turn, they would not be effectively leaded by the principals.
11. It has been revealed in this study that teachers' perception of the principals' leadership skills and abilities to work with other was too low. In like manner, teachers' emotional attachment towards schools would also fail down or decrease. Therefore recommendations would be:
- a. Principals must be ruthless in scrutinizing how their leadership skills and abilities are interpreted by teachers. Getting information about how one is being perceived requires developing strategies for getting honest assessments, possibly through techniques like rapid feedback 360 evaluation, in which teachers and other staff provide anonymous assessments of performance.
 - b. State government needs to make it as a matter of policy to ensure that all preparatory school principals undergo refreshment course on educational management. Here, the principals need to be taught leadership skills and the appropriate styles to apply in a particular situation in school administration.
12. It can be also noted from the findings that the outcome of teachers' extra effort was very poor. Indeed, the satisfaction teachers could get from assisting those who have fallen behind in their work, voluntarily helping of others, and identifying and stopping work related problems in the first place are not simple. The researcher; in fact, knows that these types of behaviors are not normally part of the reward system. Their absence also would not bring any punishment on teachers by the principals. However, the researcher believes that their performance would lead to effective running of schools and trust among the teachers. For this reason, the recommendation is that principals need to look beyond teachers' commitment and strive to improve teachers' engagement as it is engagement (or extra effort) that defines teachers' willingness to go above and beyond designated job responsibilities to promote the school organizations success.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Permission to Use Copyrighted Material
(Collective Teachers Efficacy Scale)

APPENDIX B

Principal Trust Survey

Addis Ababa University

Graduate School of Education

Department of Educational Planning and Management

**Questionnaire for Gambella Peoples' National Regional State Preparatory Schools
Principals**

Dear principals /respondents,

I am a graduate student of Educational Leadership and Management in education at Addis Ababa University.

The purpose of this research is to assess the level of trust among educators (teacher-to-teacher and teachers-to-principals) at government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

The researcher hopes to continue conducting this educational research in order to find the level of trust among educators (teacher-to-teacher and teacher-to-principal) in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. The researcher also will find through research that comprehensive involvement of educators (teachers and principals) in the preparation of students in the government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State is helpful. Finally, the researcher hopes to guide users through the research so that they will develop mutual trust among themselves in the government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

This questionnaire is for all principals in the government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. Your responses are voluntary and immensely important for the success of this study. It will be treated strictly confidential.

Marking Instructions:

- ✓ Please do not write your name.
- ✓ Use a No. 2 Pencil only.
- ✓ Erase unwanted marks correctly. Correct Marks:  
- ✓ Make no stray marks. Incorrect Marks:  
- ✓ Please mark only one response to a question, unless other directions are given.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

Your help is greatly appreciated.

PART ONE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1 The region you are working
in _____

1.2 The Zone you are working
in _____

1.3 The Woreda you are working
in _____

1.4 The school you are working
in _____

1.5 **Are you:** Put a tick (✓) mark in one box.

Male ☐

Female ☐

1.6 **How old are you?** Record whole years, not fractions or months.
Round up to the nearest whole number and include the current
year. Print number of years in the boxes.

Number of years

1.7 **How many years have you taught** at **THIS** school? Record whole
years, not fractions or months. Round up to the nearest whole
number and include the current year. Print number of years in the
boxes.

Number of years

1.8 What type of teaching certification do you hold? Put a tick (✓) mark in one box.

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ Standard Certificate | ☐ 2 nd Degree Certificate |
| ☐ Diploma Certificate | ☐ Not Certified |
| ☐ 1 st Degree Certificate | |

1.9 About how many preparatory classes / sections / have you taken at **THIS** school this year?

- | | |
|--|--|
| ☐ None. | ☐ 7—9 Classes/ Sections |
| ☐ 1—3 Classes / Sections. | ☐ 10—12 Classes/ Sections |
| ☐ 4—6 Classes / Sections. | ☐ 13 Or More Classes/ Sect. |

1.10 What was your undergraduate major field of study? Put a tick (✓) mark in one box.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| ☐ Do not have an undergraduate degree | ☐ History |
| ☐ Amharic | ☐ Civic |
| ☐ English | ☐ Economic |
| ☐ Maths. | ☐ G. Business |
| ☐ Geography | ☐ ICT |
| ☐ HPE | ☐ Other |

(Please specify)-----

PART TWO: RELATIONAL TRUST RELATED INFORMATION

2.1 Please tick (✓) one box for each statement below to show how much you agree or disagree with it.

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line.	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
1	Teachers in this school are candid with me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I have faith in the integrity of my teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	I believe in my teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	I question the competence of some of my teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	I am often suspicious of teachers' motives in this school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	When teachers in this school tell you something, you can believe it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	Even in difficult situations, I can depend on my teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	My teachers typically look out for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	I trust the teachers in this school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

**PART THREE: PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP OUTCOME RELATED
INFORMATION**

***3.1 Please tick (✓) one box for each statement below to show how
often the following things occur.***

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line.	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
10	I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	I get others to do more than they expected to do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	I am effective in representing others' to higher authority.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	I work with others in a satisfactory way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	I heighten others' desire to succeed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	I increase others' willingness to try harder.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	I lead a group that is effective.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

0 1 2 3 4

APPENDIX C

Faculty Trust Survey

Addis Ababa University

Graduate School of Education

Department of Educational Planning and Management

**Questionnaire for Gambella Peoples' National Regional State Preparatory Schools
Teachers.**

Dear teacher respondents,

I am a graduate student of Educational Leadership and Management in education at Addis Ababa University.

The purpose of this research is to assess the level of trust among educators (teacher-to-teacher and teachers-to-principals) at government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

The researcher hopes to continue conducting this educational research in order to find the level of trust among educators (teacher-to-teacher and teacher-to-principal) in government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. The researcher also will find through research that comprehensive involvement of educators (teachers and principals) in the government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State is helpful. Finally, the researcher hopes to guide users through the research so that they will develop mutual trust among themselves in the government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State.

The questionnaire is for all teachers in the government preparatory schools of Gambella Peoples' National Regional State. Your responses are voluntary and immensely important for the success of this study. It will be treated strictly confidential.

Marking Instructions:

✓ Please do not write your name.

✓ Use a No. 2 Pencil only.

✓ Erase unwanted marks correctly.

Correct Marks:



✓ Make no stray marks.

Incorrect Marks:



✓ Please mark only one response to a question, unless other directions are given.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

Your help is greatly appreciated.

PART ONE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.11 The region you are working
in _____

1.12 The Zone you are working
in _____

1.13 The Woreda you are working
in _____

1.14 The school you are working
in _____

1.15 **Are you:** Put a tick (✓) mark in one box.

Male ☐

Female ☐

1.16 **How old are you?** Record whole years, not fractions or months. Round up to the nearest whole number and include the current year. Print number of years in the boxes.

Number of years

1.17 ***How many years have you taught*** at **THIS** school? Record whole years, not fractions or months. Round up to the nearest whole number and include the current year. Print number of years in the boxes.

Number of years

1.18 **What type of teaching certification do you hold?** Put a tick (✓) mark in one box.

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ Standard Certificate | ☐ 2 nd Degree Certificate |
| ☐ Diploma Certificate | ☐ Not Certified |
| ☐ 1 st Degree Certificate | |

1.19 **About how many preparatory classes / sections / have you taken at THIS school this year?**

- | | |
|--|---|
| ☐ None. | ☐ 7—9 Classes/ Sections |
| ☐ 1—3 Classes / Sections. | ☐ 10—12 Classes / Sections |
| ☐ 4—6 Classes / Sections. | ☐ 13 Or More Classes/ Sections |

1.20 **What was your undergraduate major field of study?** Put a tick (✓) mark in one box.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| ☐ Do not have an undergraduate degree | ☐ History |
| ☐ Amharic | ☐ Civic |
| ☐ English | ☐ Economic |
| ☐ Maths. | ☐ G. Business |
| ☐ Geography | ☐ ICT |
| ☐ HPE | ☐ Other |

(Please specify)-----

PART TWO: RELATIONAL TRUST RELATED INFORMATION

2.1 Please tick (✓) one box for each statement below to show how much you agree or disagree with it.

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line.	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
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 rely on the principal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
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.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(1)

(2)

(3)

(4)

(5)

PART THREE: SCHOOL CLIMATE RELATED INFORMATION

3.2 Please tick (✓) one box for each statement below to show how often the following things occur.

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line.	Never occur	Rarely occur	Sometimes occur	Often occur	Very frequently
17	The principal is friendly and approachable.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	The principal is willing to make changes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	The principal maintains definite standards of performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	The interactions between faculty members are cooperative.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	Teachers help and support each other.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	Teachers in this school exercise professional judgment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28	Teachers are committed to helping students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30	Teachers “go the extra mile” with their students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31	Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1

2

3

4

5

**PART FOUR: PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP OUTCOME RELATED
INFORMATION**

***4.1 Please tick (✓) one box for each statement below to show how
often the following things occur.***

R/ No.	Please tick one box on each line.	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
32	The principal is effective in meeting my job-related needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33	The principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34	The principal gets me to do more than i expected to do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35	The principal is effective in representing me to higher authority.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36	The principal works with me in a satisfactory way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37	The principal heightens my desire to succeed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38	The principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39	The principal increases my willingness to try harder.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	The principal leads a group that is effective.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
		0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX D

Different Tables

Table: Faculty Trust Scale (FTS) Items by Trust Subscale

Item #	Survey item
Faculty trust in the principal	
3	The teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal.
5	The principal in this school typically acts in the best interests of the teachers.
6	Teachers in this school can rely on the principal.
10	Teachers in this school trust the principal.
14*	The principal doesn't tell teachers what is really going on.
15*	The principal of this school does not show concern for teachers.
23*	The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the principal's actions.
25	The principal of this school is competent in doing his or her job.
Faculty trust in colleagues	
2	Teachers in this school typically look out for each other.
4	Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other.
7	Teachers in this school trust each other.
11	Teachers in this school are open with each other.
16	Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues.
18*	Teachers in this school are suspicious of each other.
20	When teachers in this school tell you something you can believe it.
21	Teachers in this school do their jobs well.

*** Indicates reverse scored item**

Note. Based on survey in Tschannen-Moran (2004).

Table: Principal Trust Scale (PrTS) Items by Trust scale

Item #	Survey item
Principal trust in teachers	
1	Teachers in this school are candid with me.
4	I have faith in the integrity of my teachers.
6	I believe in my teachers.
8*	I question the competence of some of my teachers.
9*	I am often suspicious of teachers' motives in this school.
12	When teachers in this school tell you something, you can believe it.
13	Even in difficult situations, I can depend on my teachers.
17	My teachers typically look out for me.
18	I trust the teachers in this school.

*** Indicates reverse scored item**

Note. Based on survey in Tschannen-Moran (2004).

Table: School Climate Index (SCI) Items by the two School Climate Dimensions

Item	Survey item
Collegial leadership	
7	The principal is friendly and approachable.
8	The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.
16	The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist.
17	The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.
23	The principal is willing to make changes.
24	The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.
25	The principal maintains definite standards of performance.
Teacher professionalism	
2	The interactions between faculty members are cooperative.
4	Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.
11	Teachers help and support each other.
12	Teachers in this school exercise professional judgment.
13	Teachers are committed to helping students.
18	Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.
19	Teachers “go the extra mile” with their students.
20	Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.

Note. Based on survey in Tschannen-Moran (2009).

Table: Leadership Outcome Items by Respondents.

Item	Survey item
Principal's perception for his/her leadership outcome	
37.	I am effective in meeting others' job related needs.
38.	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying.
39.	I get others to do more than I expected to do.
40.	I am effective in representing others to higher authority.
41.	I work with others in a satisfying way.
42.	I heighten others' desire to succeed.
43.	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements.
44.	I increase others' willingness to try harder.
45.	I lead a group that is effective.
Teachers' perceptions for their principals' leadership outcomes	
37.	The principal is effective in meeting my job related needs.
38.	The principal uses methods of leadership that are satisfying.
39.	The principal gets me to do more than I am expected to do.
40.	The principal is effective in representing me to higher authority.
41.	The principal works with me in a satisfying way.
42.	The principal heightens my desire to succeed.
43.	The principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements.
44.	The principal increases my willingness to try harder.
45.	The principal leads a group that is effective.

Note: Based on survey in Hancock, Carol Schubert (2008).

Table: Formulas for Computing Standardized Scores

Variable	Formula for computing the standardized score
Principal trust in teachers	$(PrTT) (sPrTT) = 100 (PrTT - 4.911) / .618 + 500$
Faculty trust in the principal	$(FTPr) (sFTPr) = 100 (FTPr - 4.512) / .662 + 500$
Faculty trust in colleagues	$(FTCo) (sFTCo) = 100 (FTCo - 4.399) / .357 + 500$
Collegial leadership (CL)	$(sCL) = 100(CL - 3.946) / .4127 + 500$
Teacher professionalism (TP)	$(sTP) = 100(TP - 4.089) / .218 + 500$

***Note.** Formulas are based on normative sample means and standard deviations and are from Tschannen-*

Moran (2004).

Table: Trust Level Categorizations

Trust Level Categorization	Standardized Score
Low	≤ 350
Medium-Low	350 – 450
Medium	450 – 550
Medium-High	550 – 650
High	$650 \leq$

Note. Based on Tschannen-Moran (2004).

Table: Reciprocal Trust Level Categorizations

Reciprocal trust level category	Trust level 1	Trust level 2
Low	Low	Low
Low	Low	Medium low
Low	Low	Medium
Low	Low	Medium high
Low	Low	High
Medium low	Medium low	Medium
	low	
Medium low	Medium low	Medium
Medium low	Medium low	High
Medium	Medium	Medium
Medium	Medium low	Medium
	high	
Medium	Medium	Medium
	high	
Medium high	Medium high	Medium
	High	
Medium high	Medium	Medium
	high	
High	High	High
High	Medium high	High

Note. Based on Forsyth & Adams, (2004:265).

Table 4.9: Mean and Standard Deviation on Each of the Three Subscales

		Variables		
		Faculty trust in the principal	Faculty trust in the colleagues	Principal trust in the teachers
Sample Size	Teachers	128	128	---
	Principals	---	---	5
Mean		3.6375	3.4950	3.9250
Standard Deviation		0.9545	0.9730	1.15875
Mean for normative sample		4.5120	4.3990	4.9110
Standard Deviation for normative sample		0.6620	0.3570	0.6180

Table 4.7: Distribution of Respondents in Relations to their Departments.

Variables	Number of Principals		Number of Teachers	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Do not have field of study	---	---	12	9.4
Amharic	---	---	13	10.2
English	1	20	10	7.8
Mathematics	2	40	14	10.9
Biology	2	40	9	7.0
Chemistry	---	---	6	4.7
Physics	---	---	4	3.1
Geography	---	---	14	10.9
History	---	---	10	7.8
Civics	---	---	13	10.2
Economics	---	---	3	2.3
G. Business	---	---	2	1.6
HPE	---	---	6	4.7
ICT	---	---	2	1.6
Special Need Education	---	---	1	0.8
Psychology	---	---	1	0.8
Other	---	---	3	2.3
Spoilt	---	---	5	3.9
Total	5	100.0	128	100.0