

TEACHER ACADEMIC OPTIMISM AND COLLABORATION
THE CATALYST FOR
PARENT TRUST, PARENT INVOLVEMENT, PARENT COLLABORATION
AND
SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

by

VIVIAN BISHOP HARRIS

ROXANNE M. MITCHELL, COMMITTEE CHAIR

C. JOHN TARTER
PHILLIP WESTBROOK
DAVID L. DAGLEY
SARA TOMEK

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Department of Educational Leadership,
Policy, and Technology Studies
in the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2015

Copyright Vivian Bishop Harris 2015
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ABSTRACT

This study examines teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents as they correlate with parent trust in school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness.

The sample included 240 teachers and 214 parents from 7 elementary schools located in Northern Alabama. The research methodology utilized in this study included correlation analysis and regressions to test the effects of the independent variables separately and collectively with the dependent variables. The findings were that teacher academic optimism is significantly correlated to parent trust in the school, parent involvement, and school effectiveness even while controlling for percent of free and reduced lunch and years of teaching experience.

Implications from the study may provide school administrators with new insights into ways teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration work within the organization to promote parent involvement, parent perception of collaboration, parent trust in the school, and school effectiveness.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to everyone who helped me and guided me through the trials and tribulations of creating this manuscript. In particular, my family and close friends who stood by me throughout the time taken to complete this masterpiece.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

<i>a</i>	Cronbach's index of internal consistency
<i>df</i>	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
<i>F</i>	Fisher's <i>F</i> ratio: A ration of two variances
<i>M</i>	Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
<i>p</i>	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
<i>r</i>	Pearson product-moment correlation
<i>t</i>	Computed value of <i>t</i> test
<	Less than
=	Equal to

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am pleased to have this opportunity to thank the many colleagues, friends, and faculty members who have helped me throughout my earning this doctoral degree. I am most indebted to Roxanne Mitchell, the chair of this dissertation, for sharing her research expertise, wisdom, and encouragement. I would also like to thank all of my committee members, C. John Tarter, Phillip Westbrook, David Dagley, and Sara Tomek for their invaluable input, inspiring questions, and support of both the dissertation and my academic progress. A special thanks to The University of Alabama Graduate School Research Assistant, Lauren Holmes assisting me to analyze my research data.

Next, I would like to thank an amazing superintendent and principals for assisting me in the data collection process. A special thanks to Robin and Steve Kines for showing leadership and support. This research would not have been possible without the support of my friends: Katrina, Lori, Allison, and fellow graduate students, Kim and Melissa who never stopped encouraging me to persist.

Finally, I have to say thanks to my immediate family. I am proud of my young men for allowing me to work on my research for the past five years. Thanks for keeping me entertained and fed on the weekends. A special thanks to my three grandchildren: Alexis, Alanna, and Zyon for understanding during weekend events and summer vacation when Nanna had to “do school work.”

Most importantly, I want to say thank you to my amazing husband, Gerald, for being the love of my life. Thanks for allowing me work on my research more and do less cooking. Thanks for all the double duty you have done all these years to take care of our home.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background of Study.....	1
Effectiveness.....	8
Problem Statement and Purpose of Study.....	8
Definition of Concepts.....	9
Research Questions.....	11
Limitations of Study.....	11
Summary.....	12
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	13
Conceptual Framework.....	13
Academic Optimism.....	15
Parent Trust in School.....	33
School Effectiveness.....	48
Theory Development.....	57
Theoretical Rationales and Hypotheses.....	60

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY	64
Data Sample and Collection Procedures	64
Participants	65
Data Collection Procedure.....	65
Variables.....	66
Instrumentation.....	67
Teacher Academic Optimism Scale (TAOS-E)	67
Research Questions	71
Data Analysis	72
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS.....	74
Overview	74
Descriptive Analysis	74
Other Statistical Findings	79
Unhypothesized Findings.....	83
Teacher Years of Experience across Schools.....	84
Conclusion.....	86
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	88
Statement of Findings.....	88
Theoretical Implications.....	89
Practical Implications	97
Recommendations for Further Research	99
Limitations	99
Conclusion.....	100
REFERENCES	101
APPENDIX A.....	110

APPENDIX B	111
APPENDIX C	112
APPENDIX D	113
APPENDIX E	114
APPENDIX F.....	115

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: 2014-2015 School District Demographics for Case Study.....	75
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Research Variables	76
Table 3: Cronbach Alpha for Study Variables and the Number of Items Measured	77
Table 4: Correlations Matrix Among all Variables	79
Table 5: Independent T-Test.....	80
Table 6: Parent Involvement was regressed on YOE, F/RL, TAO, TCP	81
Table 7: Parent Collaboration with School was regressed on YOE, F/RL, TAO, TCP	82
Table 8: Parent Trust in School was regressed on YOE, F/RL, TAO, TCP.....	83
Table 9: Descriptive Data for Individual School	84
Table 10: Years of Teaching Experience Data	85

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Relationships of Academic Emphasis, Teacher's Trust, and Teacher's Sense of Efficacy in Reciprocal Causality with Each Other.....	19
Figure 2: Summary of the Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Type of Analysis Involved in this Research Study.....	63

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

This study examines teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents as they relate to parent trust in school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness. In this chapter the background of the study is presented, the need and purpose outlined, key concepts and terms are defined. Finally, the research questions guiding this empirical study are stated and limitations are specified.

Background of Study

Personal and social considerations mix deeply in the day-to day operations of a school. These interactions are bound by various rules, roles, and prevailing practices, in combination with technical resources, constitute schools as formal organizations. Distinct role (Bryk & Schneider, 2002, p. 5) relationships characterize the social exchanges of schooling: teachers with students, teachers with other teachers, teachers with parents, and all groups with the school principal. In a sense, almost everything interacts with everything else. All participants remain dependent on others to achieve desired outcomes and feel efficacious about their efforts. A rudimentary practice in this regard is how discourse is structured within a role set relation and more generally across a school community. Respectful exchanges are marked by a genuine sense of listening to what each person has to say, and in some fashion, taking this into account in subsequent actions or conversations.

The need to improve the culture, climate, and interpersonal relationships in schools has received too little attention according to the Center on School Organization and Restructuring at

The University of Wisconsin at Madison (Bryk & Schneider, 2002, p.8). Therefore, the researcher will investigate the context of teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents as it relates to the parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness. Human resources such as openness to improvement trust and respect, supportive leadership, and socialization are more critical to the development of professional community than structural conditions. Therefore, if there is a strong sense of teacher academic optimism and collaboration and trust are evident; does the school represent an effective school?

The conceptual framework of Hoy and his colleagues, Epstein, Bryk & Schneider, and Tschannen-Moran are utilized to support several major concepts: Teacher academic optimism, teacher perception of collaboration with parents, parents trust in school, parent involvement, parent perception of collaboration, and school effectiveness. Several hypotheses are formulated to test the theory. The researcher will determine how these concepts work collectively and independently in organizations such as schools.

Comer (1996) demonstrated by strengthening the connection between urban school professionals and parents of low socioeconomic status could improve the students' academic success. During his school development project, Comer found by developing social cohesion among parents, parents became engaged in school activities, school planning, and serving on the parent and student support team. To extend the idea of interconnectedness, parent- teacher meetings were held in local neighborhoods and community centers verses the local school.

These activities increased the level of social cohesion with the parent group, creating a foundation for stronger social action among parents and teachers. Meier (1995) argues persuasively that building trust among teachers, school leaders, students, and parents is an

essential component to advancing the academic mission of school, which is to provide challenging intellectual work for all students.

Fukuyama (1996) used social capital framework to examine the contributions of social trust in the efficient operation of national economies. For this study, social capital is defined as the collective interaction among people within a social system. He argues that variations in national culture, in particular their degree of “spontaneous sociability,” contribute to their capacity to sustain complex economic relations. Specifically, high levels of social trust among individuals and institutions create more efficient production arrangements than in situations where it is necessary to rely on direct monitoring and extensive legal mechanisms to regulate economic transactions. This argument raised by Fukuyama suggests the quality of social ties across the community might directly influence the effectiveness of the school’s operation. In particular, where there are high levels of social trust, the cooperative efforts necessary for school improvement should be easier to initiate and sustain (Bryk & Schneider 2002, p.13).

Bryk (2002) proposed relational trust as a central role for building effective school communities. Relational trust believes all parties in the school have expectations that the other party will behave in ways which are right and good. He launched a systemic longitudinal investigation of four hundred elementary schools in Chicago during the 1990’s to study the internal workings and external community conditions that distinguished improving elementary schools from those that failed to improve. Bryk believed improving schools entail five essential supports: a coherent instructional guidance system, professional capacity, strong parent-community-school ties, a student-centered learning climate, and leadership that drive change.

Bryk (2010) found when schools strengthened their ties to parents and the community, attendance improved over time. Schools used those ties as a core resource for enhancing safety

and order across the school. A variety of initiatives aimed at decreasing the power imbalance between poor parents and school professionals were undertaken by schools in an effort to engage parents in the local school. The principal engaged parents and other community members in activities that enabled participants to contribute to the school, advanced learning of their own children, and thus experience a sense of efficacy. “Small wins” gradually build a school community’s capacity for greater challenges and higher-risk social exchanges that may lie ahead. Communities with strong institutions, especially religious institutions are more supportive context for school improvement. These institutions afford a network of social ties that can be appropriated for other purposes. These initiatives included starting a parent center at the school, designing instructional support activities that parents could do at home to assist student learning, and developing parent and family programs in response to local needs. Bryk & Schneider (2002; 2010) stressed the importance of the leadership in building a culture of trust. Organizations with strong social bonds can improve the density of relationships within a school group. Social bonds and bridges need to be balanced to foster cooperation between school groups. Having a shared understanding among group members within the groups is a precondition for establishing sustainable social connections across groups and with that connection, this limits individuals and groups access to additional resources and opportunities.

Collaboration

Amplifying the importance of parental involvement in the school and efforts to increase academic learning standards in the United States, the federal government and national accreditation programs (National Council for Accreditation of Teachers, 1994) developed standards that require preservice teachers to be trained to collaborate with parent. Legal edicts such as The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB; 2002) and the Goals 2000 Educate

America Act mandate all schools to promote parent partnerships. Administrators, teachers, and parents must collaborate to meet the challenging demands of educating students successfully or face losing federal monies. Underlying these policies and programs is a theory of how social organizations connect; a framework of the basic components of school, family and community partnerships for children's learning; a growing amount of literature, discussed in chapter two, on the positive and negative results of these connections for students, families, and schools.

School administrators may choose to conduct only a few communications and interactions with families and communities, keeping the three spheres of influence relatively separate. Otherwise, they might conduct many high- quality communications with interactions designed to bring the three spheres of influence together. Epstein (2010) wrote that schools should welcome all families, not just those that are easy to reach. Teachers (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassier, & Brissie, 1987) are often reluctant to involve parents in school matters because of the time investments required for productive parent participation, fear of parents, and the belief that parents often question teachers' professional competence. From parents' perspectives, several factors may mitigate against productive involvement in school: lack of time, minimal opportunities for involvement, and indifferent or antagonistic attitudes as part of school personnel.

Epstein's (1995) theory of overlapping spheres of influence consists of an external and internal model. The external model of overlapping spheres of influence recognizes the context in which children learn and grow- the school, family, and community. The internal model of interaction (Epstein, 1995) shows where and how complex and essential interpersonal relations and patterns of influence occur between individuals at home, at school, and in the community.

Epstein (2010) identified two common approaches to involving families in schools and their children's education. One approach emphasizes conflict and views the school as the battleground. These conditions and relationships create an environment fueled by power struggles and disharmony. The other approach emphasizes partnership and views the school as the homeland. The conditions and relationships in this environment invite power sharing and mutual respect and allow energies to be directed towards activities to foster student learning and development. Epstein believed by forming a collaborative partnership with parents this would improve the school climate, provide family services and support, provide parental skills and leadership, connect parents with others in the school and the community, and help teachers with their work.

Collaborative partnerships view parents, teachers, community, and the local school as partners in education with a shared interest in and responsibilities for children. Collaboratively, they work together to create better programs and opportunities for students. Teachers and administrators create more family-like schools where each child is recognized for their individuality and makes each child feel special and included. Parents create more school-like families that recognize each child as a student and reinforce the values of school, homework, and activities that build student skills and feelings of success. In order for schools to be effective in educating children, there must be interconnectedness between the school, parents, and the community in which they dwell.

Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy (2006) focused on academic optimism as a catalyst for strengthening the home and school relationship. Academic optimism is an academic environment comprised of three dimensions: academic emphasis, collective efficacy, and faculty trust. For this study, the researcher will focus on the individual teacher level or teacher academic

optimism. Hoy and his colleagues insisted that when the faculty trusts in the parents, teachers can insist on higher academic standards with confidence that parents will not subvert them.

Hoy (2002) proposed two plausible and complimentary explanations of how collective faculty trust functions to influence student learning. Hoy's first explanation is trust; trusting others is an important element in human learning is often a cooperative process. Distrust, according to Hoy, makes cooperation virtually impossible, so teachers must trust parents if they are to achieve common learning goals. Second, Hoy linked collective trust and student learning indirectly because student learning is mediated by the collective efficacy of the school. The process of school, faculty, and community collaboration will not come about in an authentic form if people do not trust one another (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

A significant factor (Tschannen-Moran, 2001) in constructing a climate that supports collaboration is trust. Trust may influence student academic achievement because of its role in establishing and maintaining collaborative relationships between the home and school, and trust may shape parents' attitude towards educational systems and influence their engagement in their children's educational programs. Baier (1986) implied that trust is necessary for effective cooperation and communication, which are the bases for productive relationships and productive relationships build effective schools.

Collaboration requires parties to come together and to share both responsibility and accountability. This process places individuals in a vulnerable position (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Although, collaboration (Tschannen-Moran, 2001) is increasingly considered an important element in the effectiveness of a school, there is not much empirical literature on the conditions favorable to its development. Because collaboration involves relationships, as well as in school effectiveness, how does it concern faculty trust in parents and parent trust in the

school? Is trust, the essence of relationships, a necessary component of collaboration? If so, collaboration and trust then should set the stage for effective student learning, and overall school effectiveness. Few studies have examined these relationships. This study intends to test teacher sense of academic optimism, and teacher perception of collaboration with parents as antecedents to parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness.

Effectiveness

Parsons (1960) calls adaptation, goal attainment, integration, and latency four problems social systems must be able to solve if they are to be effective. Inherent in the Parsonian emphasis on the integration of members into the organization is the idea effective organizations will have members who share in the value of the organization, are willing to exert extra effort in their roles and desire to continue their membership or partnership in the organization; commitment is central to the organizational life (DeCotitis & Summers, 1987). In the absence of these characteristics, members will in all likelihood drift away from the organization.

Problem Statement and Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to fill the gaps in the literature and present a clear picture of possible correlations between teacher academic optimism, teacher perception of collaboration with parents, parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness. Researchers have argued that trust is critical in facilitating cooperation, (Deutsch, 1958; Tschannen-Moran, 2001), collaboration (Tschannen-Moran, 2000), academic optimism (Hoy, Tarter, & Hoy, 2006), improving the quality of schooling (Hoy & Sabo, 1998) and school effectiveness (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Research studies show the connection between academic optimism, trust, collaboration, and school effectiveness, but for

practical reasons. However, few studies have been conducted to test the concept of teacher academic optimism. What is the probability of a teacher's sense of academic optimism being a force for school effectiveness, just as school academic optimism was found to be at the collective level (Hoy, Tarter, Woolfolk Hoy, 2006)?

Definition of Concepts

Academic Optimism of schools is a collective construct that includes the cognitive, affective, and behavioral facets of collective efficacy, faculty trust, and academic emphasis (Hoy, Tarter, Hoy, 2006).

- Collective efficacy is the *perception of teachers in a school that the efforts of the faculty as a whole will have a positive effect on students. Collective Efficacy is a belief or expectation; it is cognitive.*
- Faculty trust in students and parents is based upon a feeling that the students and their parents are *benevolent, reliability, competent, honest, and open* (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Trust is an affective response.
- Academic emphasis is a *focus on learning* and a press for particular *behaviors* in schools.

Collaboration in this study is defined as teachers' and parents' perception of the extent of parent involvement and influence over school and classroom –level decisions" (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Collective trust is defined as a stable group property rooted in the shared perceptions and affect about the trustworthiness of another group or individual that emerges over time out of multiple social exchanges within the group (Forsyth, Adams, Hoy, 2011).

Faculty Trust is defined as “ the extent to which the faculty as a group is willing to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open” (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Parental Involvement is described as (a) the basic obligation of parents to provide for their children’s general wellbeing and readiness for school, (b) the basic obligations of school to communicate with parents about school activities and requirements, as well as individual student progress, (c) schools make a place for parents to volunteer in school and attend performances and workshops at the school, (d) parents involved in learning activities at home and, (e) types of involvement that includes parents in decision-making roles in governance of the school (Epstein, 1987b, 1991).

Parent Trust is defined as the parents’ willingness to be vulnerable to the school based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open (Adams, Forsyth, & Mitchell, 2009).

School Effectiveness is a complex topic that can be defined as both goal attainment and efficiency (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). The two concepts are based on student achievement and School Effectiveness Index (SE). Overall school effectiveness is subjectively determined by how people relate to one another to accomplish a common goal. Goal attainment in school is student achievement. An Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (IPOE) is given to the organizational members.

Teacher Academic Optimism - is a construct that includes cognitive, affective, and the behavioral dimensions at the teacher level. The teacher’s sense of academic optimism includes; teacher sense of self- efficacy, teacher trust in parents and students, and teacher academic emphasis (Hoy, Woolfolk Hoy, & Kurz, 2008; Beard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2010)

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent trust?
2. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent perception of collaboration?
3. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent involvement?
4. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of school effectiveness?
5. What is the relationship between teacher perception of parent collaboration and parent perception of collaboration?
6. Does teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of parent collaboration effect parent perception of collaboration, parent trust, and parent involvement?

Limitations of Study

This study is only a snapshot or a one-time view of the variables. The researcher does not know how generalizable Alabama elementary schools are to schools in other regions or states. The concepts explained in this study may not work in other settings. Some elementary schools may have similar organizational styles, characteristics, and practices much like those mentioned in this study. If that is recognized, the principal may be able to simulate portions of this study to meet the goals of the school or extend this research into other areas.

Summary

Organizations, like public schools, are made up of role groups that are interdependent on one another (Bryk & Schneider, 2002), which contributes to their complexity and unpredictability. As role group members interact through multiple social exchanges, relationships are established and trust is enhanced in the school. As group members observe one another's values, beliefs, attitudes, and expectations, the cohesions within the school community becomes stronger forming an effective system for educating children. This study will test whether teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents are predictors of parent trust in school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement and school effectiveness. Concepts are defined, research questions established, rational formed, hypotheses given and limitations provided. Years of teaching experience and free and reduced lunch percentage are the controlled variables in this study.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents the research history of the elements teacher academic optimism, collaboration with parents, parent trust in school, parent collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness. A theory linking the concepts is presented. Hypotheses that test the theory will be given. The literature review for the concepts of: Teacher academic optimism, teacher perception of collaboration with parents, parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness is provided. General knowledge of trust and academic optimism are included: however, the focus of the literature will be on faculty trust in clients from the teachers' perspective and academic optimism at the individual teacher level.

Conceptual Framework

The common view of achievement in schools is that success is a function of talent and motivation; the talented and motivated excel. Seligman (1998) offered a third factor for success-optimism. He conceived optimism as an individual variable, but Hoy and his colleagues conceived of academic optimism as a collective property, which may be an even more powerful for achievement because it has the power of the group and taps into both the social structure and potent norms of the school.

Seligman (1998) argued and provided evidence that learned optimism gets people over the "wall of learned pessimism" and not just as individuals but also as organizational participants. In the same way that students and parents can develop learned helplessness, schools

can be seduced by pervasive pessimism. Pessimism communicates the general message, these kids can't learn, and there is nothing I can do about it, so why worry about academic achievement? Such a view is reinforcing, self-fulfilling, and defeating.

Building on Seligman's views, school academic optimism is seen as a collective view of the following: teachers as capable, students as willing and able, parents as supportive and reliable, and the learning as achievable. Norms of confidence, optimism, and efficacy are powerful motivators of achievement. Why is academic optimism such a strong predictor for achievement? Consider the functions of the three underlying elements. Collective efficacy gives teachers confidence that they can be successful working with students regardless of the difficulties. It motivates teachers to set challenging academic goals and persist until they are attained (Goddard et al., 2006); Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith, 2002). Collective faculty trust in parents and students liberates teachers to experiment with new techniques without the fear of retribution if things do not go as planned, and perhaps even more important, it encourages cooperation and support between teachers and parents (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Goddard et. al., 2001).

Further, an academic emphasis is enacted because students and parents trust the teachers. Not only do both teachers and parents push for academic success, (Forsyth et al., 2011 p. 94) but students also come to value working hard, succeeding, getting good grades, and achieving. In the end, academic optimism produces a powerful synergy that engenders motivation, creates hope, encourages persistence, promotes resilience, and channels behavior toward the accomplishment of high academic goals.

Academic Optimism

Academic Optimism of Schools

Researchers have been challenged to go beyond socioeconomic status in the search for school-level characteristics that impact student achievement which is considered a descriptor of an effective school. Hoy, Tarter & Woolfolk Hoy (2006) identified a new construct, tightly woven together, academic emphasis, faculty trust, and collective efficacy forms a general latent construct called academic optimism. The construct evolves from the general work on positive psychology, which goes beyond the traditional focus of illness and pathology to look at areas of human experience that include well-being, hope and fulfillment; academic optimism is rooted in human psychology (Beard, Hoy & Woolfolk Hoy, 2009). The theoretical foundations of academic optimism are Bandura's social cognitive and self- efficacy theories (Bandura, 1987), Coleman's social capital theory (1990), Hoy and his colleagues' work on culture and climate (Hoy, Tarter, Kottkamp, 1991), and Seligman's study (1998) of learned optimism.

Academic optimism is one of the few organizational characteristics of schools in the United States that influence student achievement when socioeconomic status and previous achievement are controlled. This construct, a latent collective property, of schools, has been linked to school achievement in a number of studies.

Utilizing a diverse sample of 96 high schools located in a Midwestern state, Hoy, Tarter, & Hoy (2006), identified a new construct, academic optimism, which explained student achievement while controlling for socioeconomic status, previous achievement, and urbanicity. The researchers hypothesized that academic emphasis, collective efficacy, and faculty trust in students and parents would form a general latent construct labeled academic optimism. They also hypothesized that student academic achievement would be a function of academic optimism after

controlling for SES, urbanicity (population density) and previous student achievement. Their third hypothesis was that SES and previous student achievement would make direct contribution to achievement, as well as indirect contribution through academic optimism. The hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling with the dependent variables being math, science, reading, social studies, and writing achievement.

As hypothesized, the test of the model for math and science revealed that SES was related to student achievement directly (.20) as well as indirectly through academic optimism (.19). Likewise, prior achievement was related to student achievement directly (.60) and indirectly through academic optimism (.61). Finally, as predicted, academic optimism was directly related to achievement (.21).

The test of the model for reading, social studies, and writing achievement revealed also, SES was related to student achievement directly (.23) as well as indirectly through academic optimism (.23). Prior achievement was related to student achievement directly (.44) and indirectly through academic optimism (.27). The proposed theoretical model was supported in both tests and the results supported that the properties of academic emphasis, collective efficacy, and faculty trust in students and parents work together in a unifying fashion (Hoy, Tarter, and Hoy, 2006) to form the latent construct labeled academic optimism. Bringing these three streams of theory and research together provided a richer and yet more direct explanation of how schools enhance student learning.

In a two-fold study in 2007, Smith & Hoy continued the research on academic optimism by examining the impact of academic optimism on achievement in a sample of urban elementary schools. Smith and Paige's study focused on poor urban schools. Their research was guided by two hypotheses: First, academic optimism is a general construct composed of academic

emphasis, collective efficacy, and faculty trust in clients (parents and students) and second, academic optimism predicts student achievement even when controlling for socioeconomic status and school size.

The researchers selected 99 urban elementary schools in Texas classified as either “major urban” or major suburban” by the Texas Education Agency. Elementary schools sizes ranged from 289 to 1,251 students with an average size of 682. Data were collected from teachers during scheduled faculty meeting. The surveys instrument was administered to a random sample of teachers in the school. The three basic concepts were collective efficacy, faculty trust in clients, and academic emphasis of schools. Each concept was assessed using valid and reliable measures.

The first finding of this study revealed, just as expected, that academic optimism explained student achievement in mathematics even controlling for SES and school size. The participating schools varied in terms of SES, but in general, the sample composed mostly of poor elementary urban schools, those with more than half of the students on free or reduced price lunch. The findings stress that academic optimism is just as important as SES in explaining achievement is important because, although not simple, it is easier to improve academic optimism than it is to change socioeconomic factors of the school community.

Second and most appealing part of the findings were within the concept itself because it suggests that schools can improve in spite of low socioeconomic status by cultivating an optimistic perspective that is shared by teachers. That brings this research to the next point of academic optimism at the individual level.

Previously, all of the research on academic optimism had been examined as a school property made up of collective efficacy, trust in parents and students, and academic emphasis (Hoy, Tarter, Woolfolk Hoy, 2006). However, Hoy, Woolfolk Hoy, and Kurz, (2007) suspected

that academic optimism also may be an important individual teacher characteristic because efficacy, trust, and academic emphasis have parallel meaning at the individual teacher level. The researchers' tested academic optimism at the individual level and identified important predictors of teachers' sense of academic optimism.

Teachers' sense of optimism (Hoy et al., 2007) is about a teacher's positive belief that she/he can make a difference in the academic performance of students by emphasizing academics and learning, by trusting parents and students to cooperate in the process, and by believing in his/ her own capacity to overcome difficulties and react to failure with resilience and perseverance.

One reason may be that if teachers believe they are able to affect student learning, then they set higher expectations, exert greater effort, and persist in the face of difficulties. Bandura (1997) theorized that humans exercise control over their lives through agentic actions. Simply stated, people act, reflect on those actions, and change their behaviors accordingly. Through the process, classroom teachers proactively create mental plans to deal with events as they arise; In other words, they are agentic and according to social cognitive theory, self-efficacy plays a major role in human agency.

Similar to teachers' sense of efficacy, effective teachers must be able to form trusting relationships with their students and parents. Trusting relationships (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) includes feelings of benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness. In general, teachers must trust that their students possess openness to learn, capability to grasp concepts, and honesty. Teachers set high expectations for students they trust and rely on the students' parents for support.

Academic emphasis and academic press are used interchangeably to refer to teachers' beliefs about academic success and their focus on academic tasks. Academic emphasis should expand the time students spend successfully and actively engaged in academic task, which relates positively to student learning (Woolfolk, 2007). Academic emphasis captures the behavioral enactment of efficacy and trust. Hoy et al., 2008 graphically (*see figure 1*) projected the relationship between three major dimensions of academic optimism as a triadic set of interactions with each element functionally dependent on the other.

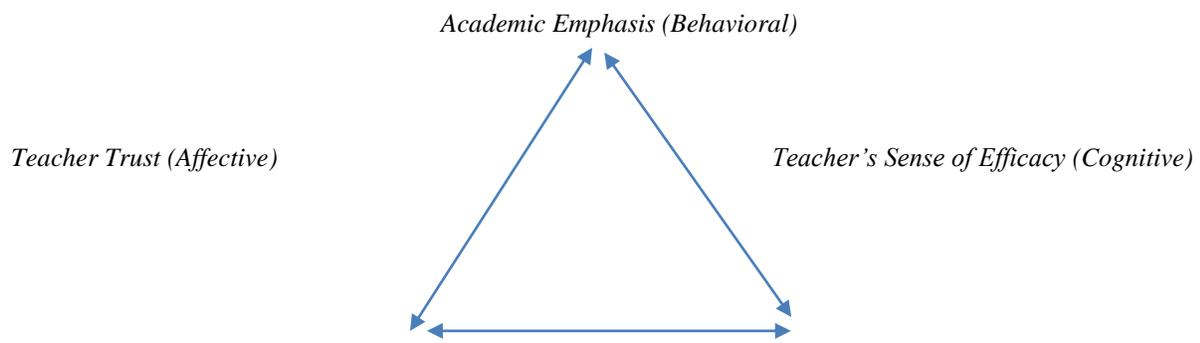


Figure 1: Relationships of Academic Emphasis, Teacher's Trust, and Teacher's Sense of Efficacy in Reciprocal Causality with Each Other.

This construct encompasses teachers' beliefs about themselves, their students, and their instruction. In brief, the researchers proposed that teachers who believe in the potential of all students, will make management and instructional decisions aligned with these expectations, and will be committed to the success of their students and will be more academically optimistic.

Participants from 220 schools within the Ohio Department of Education's database with 3rd and/or 4th grade classes participated in the study. A total of 351 teachers were randomly selected to receive a questionnaire assessing the variables in the study. Only 205 teachers returned useable questionnaires after a two month period. Teachers completed anonymous 71-item survey assessing academic optimism (teacher efficacy, trust, and academic emphasis), beliefs about

instruction and management, individual citizenship, and demographic questions about their background and their classroom characteristics.

As expected, Hoy et al. (2008), found one strong factor, which they labeled academic optimism accounted for 67% of the variance in achievement. The three scales loaded .86, .85, and .73, respectively, on the first component (academic optimism). The researchers' theory that efficacy, trust, and academic emphasis would form a second-order latent construct of individual teacher academic optimism was supported. Also, there was a significant relationship between dispositional optimism and academic optimism ($r=.30$, $p < .01$). Neither teacher years of experience nor highest degree attained was related to teacher academic optimism. In terms of classroom context variables, SES of students in the teacher's class (defined by the percent of students qualifying for free/reduced lunch) and percentage of students from minority backgrounds both were significantly negatively related to academic optimism ($r = -.43$ $p < .01$ for SES and $r = -.21$ $p < .01$ for minority) but percentage of students with accommodations in the class was not related to optimism.

Teachers' (Hoy et al., 2008) sense of academic optimism was positively related to the teachers' estimates of how their students would perform on the state achievement/ proficiency test ($r = .24$, $p < .01$). Therefore, when teachers possessed a sense of academic optimism, they believed that their students would score higher on the state examinations, which suggest that academic optimism may be related to student achievement (Hoy et al., 2006, McGuigan & Hoy, 2006).

Beard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, (2010) theorized that three basic elements of academic optimism operate in the same way at the individual level as they do at the collective level. A sample of 260 elementary school teachers was selected from 14 schools in central Ohio school

districts. The participants were from three settings (urban, rural, and suburban) within the state of Ohio with elementary school licensure. They researchers predicted that the teacher's sense of efficacy, trust in parents and students, and academic emphasis for a general latent concept called individual optimism. Next, they proposed that the academic optimism of the teachers will be moderately correlated with a general disposition to be optimistic. Their final hypothesis predicted the teacher perception of enabling school structure is positively correlated with individual academic optimism.

The primary hypothesis yielded as hypothesized academic optimism of the individual teachers is a second –order factor composed of trust, efficacy, and academic emphasis. Moreover, teacher trust in parents and students, teacher sense of self-efficacy, and teacher academic emphasis are first order factors measured reliably by the items predicted and used to measure each of the concepts. Next, the two secondary hypotheses of the study were tested to add some predictive validity to their measure of academic optimism. As predicted, the stronger the degree of academic optimism ($r=.50$, $p < 0.001$). Test of the third hypothesis was computed and the results supported the hypothesis: the more teachers perceived an enabling a school structure, the greater a teacher's degree of academic optimism ($r=.30$, $p < 0.01$).

Trust

Trust appears frequently in discussion of leadership, change, and cooperative interpersonal relationships. Clearly, it is a characteristic that seems highly desirable in personal, social, and organizational relationships (Hoy & Kuppersmith, 1985). Articulating a precise definition of trust has proved challenging.

Psychologists framed trust at a micro level in terms of individuals who trust and are trusted and emphasized the internal cognition that leads to such trust (Deutsch, 1962; Rotter,

1967). By contrast, sociologists conceive of trust as a macro- or meso-level property of social relationships among people, groups, and institutions (Coleman, 1990; Granovetter, 1985).

Erikson's (1953) broad use of the concept trust was described as a central ingredient in "the healthy personality". Expanding the definition of trust (Rotter, 1967) to interpersonal trust, to include the expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon.

Rotter developed an instrument that asked participants to make judgments about the trustworthiness of various societal actors such as politicians, doctors, the media, and parents. Because much of the informal and formal learning that human beings acquire is based on the verbal and written statements of others, and what they learn must be significantly affected by the degree to which they believe their informants without independent evidence. Therefore, trust becomes a fundamental concept in our lives, relationships, everyday social transactions, interactions, and in our language. Although vital and necessary, trust is a rather fragile part of human relationships.

Baier (1986) asserts that "trust is the reliance on others' competence and their willingness to look after, rather than harm, things one cares about which are entrusted to their care." According to Baier, what we care about may be either tangible, such as our children and money, or it may be something intangible such as ideals of democracy or norms of respect and tolerance. Schools look after all of these in society, and consequently the issue of trust becomes a major concern for school organizations positioned to help students learn. Therefore, the nature and meaning of trust has taken on added importance in schools.

Hoy & Tschannen-Moran's (1999) conceptual measure captures ideas that are amenable to studying schools and has a robust research history. Hoy & Tschannen-Moran (1999) identified

a number of common threads in most discussions of trust. Their definition of trust builds on the work of Mishra (1996) who defined trust as “one party’s willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the belief that the latter party is (a) competent, (b) open, (c) concerned and (d) reliable” (p.265). Tschannen Moran & Hoy (2000) noted in their review of diverse trust literature spanning forty years, that regardless of the context whether individual, organizational, or behavioral, most scholars (Deutsch, 1962; Fukuyama, 1996; Mishra, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998) agree that trust has the following attributes: multiple levels, different referent roles, multiple facets, vulnerability, risk, and interdependence.

At the most basic level, vulnerability is the belief in those who trust will act in ways that are not harmful or detrimental to them; vulnerability and confident expectations of outcomes are crucial aspects of trust. Vulnerability often leads to risk defined as “perceived probable loss” (Chiles & McMackin, 1996) and risk- taking behaviors that create an opportunity to trust. Finally, there can be no trust without interdependence, this is the interest of one party cannot be achieved without reliance upon another (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Cramer, 1998).

Along with a general willingness to risk vulnerability, five facets of trust emerged: benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness. Hoy & Tschannen Moran (1999, p.189) proposed trust as “an individual’s or group’s willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open.” Tschannen-Moran summarized these dimensions as: Honesty-telling the truth, having integrity, keeping promises, accepting responsibility, which speaks to character. The most common condition of trust is benevolence or the confidence that the trusted person or group will protect one’s interests. Example would be extending good will, supporting teachers, guarding confidential information, etc. Openness is the extent to which relevant information is shared and

actions and plans are transparent. Reliability is grounded in predictability. Competency is the ability of an individual or group to be dependable and efficient in a particular skill (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2004: 34)

Trust can exist at a variety of levels: between individuals, among group members, and between groups (Webber, 2002). Interpersonal trust refers to trust that a single individual has for another in a situation that carries risk. The formation of interpersonal trust is often accompanied by the formation of positive affect such as “liking”. This cognitive process begins with the observation of another’s behavior and has meaning only insofar as it affects the subsequent dispositions and behaviors of the trustor towards the trustee.

From a sociological perspective, (Lewis & Weigert, 1985, p. 968) trust must also be conceived as a property of collective units, ongoing dyads, groups, and collectivities, not of isolated individuals. In their landmark study of school trust, Bryk and Schneider (2002, 2003), explored a kind of social trust (relational trust) based on the social interactions, mutual dependencies, asymmetry among school members. School level trust emerges from individual discernments and interpersonal exchanges within role sets (e.g. principal-teacher).

Relational Trust

Relational trust according to Bryk & Schneider (2002, 2003) is a joining together of individual discernments and entails much more than just making school staff feel good about their work environment and colleagues. A school cannot achieve relational trust simply through some workshop, retreat, or form of sensitivity training, although all of these activities can help. Schools build relational trust in day-to-day social exchanges. Through words and actions, school participants show their sense of obligations towards others, and others discern these intentions. Trust grows through exchanges in which actions validate these expectations. Even simple

interactions, if successful, can enhance collective capacities for more complex subsequent actions. In this respect, increasing trust and deepening organizational change support each other. Obviously, interpersonal trust has importance when learning about human behavior, but collective trust is viewed as an organizational and sociological perspective rather than a psychological one (Rousseau et al., 1998) that is typical of groups.

Collective Trust

Collective trust, (Forsyth, Adams, Hoy, 2011, p. 22), is defined as a stable group property rooted in the shared perceptions and affect about the trustworthiness of another group or individual that emerges over time out of multiple social exchanges within the group. These socially constructed shared trust beliefs define the group's willingness to be vulnerable to another group or individual. Collective trust in school organizations exist in multiple school groups and between different relational dyads. Trustor groups include the primary members of schools: the principal, teachers, students, and parents.

Trust is embedded in relationships, and the referents of trust influence the meaning. In this study, the three referents of trust that are of interest are: faculty trust in principal, faculty trust in colleagues, and faculty trust of clients. Faculty trust in clients is comprised of the parents and students. Trust relationships appear to vary across schools (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2001) and are thought to be linked to other important school properties. Trust is crucial in facilitating cooperation (Deutsch, 1958; Tschannen-Moran, 2001), in developing open school cultures (Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994), in promoting group cohesiveness (Zand, 1971, 1997) in school leadership (Sergiovanni, 1992), in student achievement (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001), and in increasing the quality of schooling (Hoy & Sabo, 1998) as cited in (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2007). Trust begins with the leadership of the local school.

Faculty Trust

Faculty Trust is defined as “ the extent to which the faculty as a group is willing to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open” (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999) . Initiating trust in organizations takes a period of commitment to observe one’s willingness to accept risk and not to exploit the vulnerability of the other for personal gain. To cultivate an atmosphere of trust, a relationship must be established first between the principal and faculty.

Faculty Trust in the Principal

The faculty’s trust in the principal may be considered a fundamental element in the sustainability, efficiency, and productivity of the establishment. The behavior the principal exhibits in his daily interpersonal interactions often dictates the level of trust between the faculty, students, parents, and the community. Clark & Payne (2006), who studied the development of trust in leaders from several organizational settings, concluded that leader behaviors that demonstrate the facets of fairness, openness, ability, and integrity are salient with respect to leader trustworthiness.

As the leader, he or she sets the tone in the school, and is responsible for building and maintaining trusting relationships as in Whitener, Brodt, Korsgard, & Werner’s study (as cited in Forsyth, Adams & Hoy, 2011 x). As an attempt to demonstrate how a principal may fulfill this responsibility, Tschannen-Moran (2004) offered a three dimensional Trustworthy Leadership Matrix. The researcher stressed the importance of considering not only the five facets of trust, the five constituencies of schools which include: administration, teachers, parents, students, and the public, but also the five functions of the school leadership. The functions of school leadership

can significantly influence the development of trusting relationships, and affect changes in the school climate and culture.

The school administrator or principal, (a) serves as a role model for trustworthiness through his or her language and actions, (b) develops a vision for a trustworthy school, (c) facilitates teacher competence through effective coaching, (d) improves school discipline among students and teachers through effective management, (e) and mediating conflict and repair in a constructive and honest manner.

A major challenge (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005) of all principals is to create and nurture a climate in which teachers and staff members identify and affiliate with the school and its mission. The ability to fulfill the school's mission may be attributed somewhat to the principal's leadership style which is critical in setting goals, driving highly effective teaching practices, collaboration among stakeholders, and most importantly building trust.

The transactional leadership style takes the form of contingent reward in which the leader rewards the followers if they perform in accordance with contracts and expends the necessary effort. This type of leader also avoids giving directions and allows followers to do their jobs as always if performance goals are to be met (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987). In stark contrast with the transactional leadership behavior, the transformational leadership style (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) behaviors are believed to augment the transactional leadership behaviors on employee outcomes behaviors because followers "feel trust and respect towards the leader" and this prompts the followers to perform "above and beyond the call of duty." The leader makes the followers more aware of the importance and value of the task outcomes, activate higher order needs, and induce them to transcend self-interests for the needs of the organization.

Dirks and Ferrin (2001) completed a rigorous meta-analysis of three decades of research related to trust in leadership. The analysis demonstrated that trust in leadership has multiple significant and positive outcomes, including its ability to elicit from employees, altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, organization commitment, and satisfaction, belief in information provided by the leader and commitment to decisions. These findings concur with Tyler and DeGoeys' (1996) assertion that "attributions about trustworthiness are central to the willingness to accept decisions" of the leaders (p.335). Dirks and Skarlicki (2004) concluded that trust is related to "bottom line effects in terms of group and organizational performance."

As the instructional leader, (Hoy, Tarter, & Hoy, 2006) also recognized the importance of celebrating the achievement of the students, teachers, and the community, especially academic achievement. Behaviors that foster academics include honor roll, national honor society, and exemplary student work of all kinds. In conjunction with academic success, the principal's task is to build efficacy and trust with teachers. Then, what is the faculty's perception and expectation of the principal?

Teachers are dependent on the school administrator, especially principals, to provide a safe clean and orderly school wide environment which teaching and learning are possible. Teachers are more likely to trust and invest in the goals and outcomes of the organization, when the principal is authentic, competent, demonstrates consistency, communicates effectively, exhibits integrity, and shares controls.

Hoy & Henderson (1983) conceptualized and measured the extent to which the behavior of a principal is perceived by teachers as authentic. They identified three basic aspects of leader authenticity: accountability, non-manipulation of others, and saliency of self over role. Accountability is behavior for which the leader accepts responsibility, including admitting

mistakes and errors. The leader accepts the responsibility for not only his or her behavior, but also for the mistakes of subordinates; there is no “scapegoating or “passing the buck.” Blame alienates teachers, undermines professional practices, and evokes feelings of powerlessness (Cox & Wood, 1980) all of which fuel distrust and lead to noncompliance.

Authentic leaders do not manipulate people; they treat others with respect and as individuals rather than inanimate objects that are pawns in a game. Principals have powers to create a better workplace for teacher growth as well as student learning through trust and honest communication. Faculty members will visualize the principal as trustworthy when the communication is accurate and forthcoming. By providing adequate explanations and timely feedback on decisions, trust levels between the principal and the faculty is increased within the school. Waiting an extended amount of time to respond to decisions, problems, questions, or new ideas often leads to a level of distrust in the principal.

Louis (2007) conducted studies within educational settings that have associated leader trust with positive workplace-relevant teacher attitudes and favorable school-leveled outcomes. He studied districts engaged in total quality management initiatives, suggested that trust in administration leads teachers to more positively interpret administratively created visions, (Bryk & Schneider, 2002) to teachers’ orientation to innovate, commitment to the school community, outreach to parents, and professional community.

Trust in the principal has been associated with faculty perception of organizational justice that center on issues of workplace fairness (Hoy & Tarter, 2004), middle –level teachers focus on instruction (Wahlstrom & Lewis, 2008), as well as school effectiveness at the middle school level (Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995).

Trust in administrative leadership appears salient in turbulent times of conflict, crisis, change, accountability, and school reform. Of importance, organizational changes not only appear more easily initiated (Louis, 2007) but, more easily sustained (Bryk & Schneider, 2002) in schools where administrative trust is high, as compared to schools where administrative trust is low. Both directly and indirectly administrative behavior is important in setting the general tone of school trust, but teacher behavior will have a more direct impact on student learning.

Faculty Trust in Colleagues

Trust in colleagues is vital to fulfilling the mission of educating children successfully. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) suggested that the facets of benevolence, caring, and openness are important antecedents to trust formation among colleagues. Faculty trust in colleagues helps to accomplish the goals of the school by sharing ideas to meet the changes in conditions and expectations of schools brought on each day by the group of students within the organization.

Likewise, Bryk and Schneider (2002) who point to integrity as an important facet of collegial trust also argued that collegial trust is grounded in a common understanding about what students should learn, how instruction should be conducted, and how teachers and students 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.

Trust within groups has a positive impact on the efforts that group members expend (Dirks, 2000), organizational citizenship behaviors, team satisfaction, teacher retention, teacher attendance, teacher commitment, and conflict resolution is made “easier and more productive”. In relationships with high levels of trust, teachers are more likely to express their differing

perceptions of viewpoints, ideas, and opinions than in low trusting relationships where group members may disagree in ways more likely based on personal attack rather than on intellectual arguments.

Cosner (2010) cited Edmondson (2004) research concluded that in the context of work, individuals who feel psychologically safe when “putting themselves on the line” are more likely to engage in five important team learning behaviors. Those behaviors included feedback seeking, help seeking, speaking up about concerns, and mistakes, innovation, and boundary spanning. In schools, these behaviors are necessary for a creative learning environment where teachers are not hindered but, actively engaged in teaching and learning. When teachers are supportive of one another the learning community as a whole grows.

Working with other teachers within the context of mutual respect also encourages a productive level of debate, challenge, and conflict, and has the potential to invigorate teaching with increased intellectual stimulation (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Productivity without dialogue is almost impossible in schools. Unfortunately, teachers have few opportunities to engage in substantive dialogue and exchange of information with other teachers even though (Conely, Schmittle, & Shedd 1988) pointed out, “their pedagogical knowledge, skills, and information about students are arguably a school system’s most valuable resource”.

Teachers, who trust colleagues, support risk taking and the struggle entailed in transforming practice. Faculty trust in colleagues causes teachers to value their co-workers educational expertise, reduce teacher isolation, share teaching strategies, promote collaborative decision making, and overcome barrier to teaching and learning to increase adaptability and productivity. Collaboration without teacher trust in their co-workers just doesn’t seem possible.

Faculty Trust in Clients

If teachers are to help students make maximum use of the opportunities that schooling can provide (Stanton-Salazar, 1997 cited in Goddard) trust is essential. Trust is at the heart of strong relationships that help children learn, particularly disadvantaged children. Other individuals such as, principals, guidance counselors, extended family members, and other student peers each uniquely influence the decisions children make daily and the success they experience in schools. Yet, teachers are in daily contact with students and the first line of communication between the school and the family. Because trust grows out of favorable experiences (Forsyth, Barnes, & Adams, 2006), teacher trust is a key to the relationships that connect students and their families to schools.

Trusting (Rotter, 1967) that others can be believed, is a vital element in human survival, learning, and functioning in a complex society. If trust is established between teachers, parents, and students then it is possible to cooperate in accomplishing a common goal of educating children successfully. Without trust in one another, all participants seek to minimize their vulnerability.

Teachers and parents alike must be explicit in demonstrating their concerns for students. Schools can assist overwhelmed parents in finding constructive ways to care for and discipline their children. Teachers who persuade parents that they are caring and competent, fosters student learning (Goddard, et al., 2001). Openly discussing different teaching methods with parents invites parents to become partners in the educational process. The faculty's openness about teaching, learning, and school decisions signals to the parents that they are valued, and parents often share personal information that could benefit the teacher and the student.

When teachers believe their students are reliable and competent, they create learning environments that facilitate students' academic success. Since trust is reciprocal, students who trust their teachers are more likely to take the risk that new learning entails. In the classroom, contemporary teaching methods require teachers to trust in their students. For example, collaborative learning may reduce students' alienation by giving them a greater voice in their lives at school, but the change to more active styles of learning implicitly requires teachers to trust that students will participate in meaningful ways (Johnson & Johnson, 1999 cited in Goddard, et al., 2001).

It is much more difficult for schools to effectively educate children without parental support. Parents are dependent on schools to prepare their children for future academic and personal success (Epstein, 2001). A collaborative effort must be established and maintained between teachers, students and parents and trust is essential. As a result, the researcher hypothesized that teacher trust in parents, collaboration, and school effectiveness are inter-correlated as stated below.

Parent Trust in School

Adams, Forsyth, & Mitchell, (2009), identified parent trust in the school as the parents' willingness to be vulnerable to the school based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open. The seemingly simple approach of building interdependent relationships with parents is often a daunting challenge, but one of unlimited possibilities.

Traditional framework of (Etzioni, 1961) viewed parents as clients, operating outside the organizational structure with low criteria of involvement, subordination, and performance obligation. Conceptualizing schools as relational social networks is one framework (Adams et

al., 2009) that identifies parents as critical internal partners. Epstein and colleagues at John Hopkins also recognized that this networking has the potential to enhance school effectiveness.

Creating a learning environment that is more collaborative and inclusive rather than fractured and exclusive is a factor in the level of trust in the school. The latter conception is remarkably different because parents are expected to do more. Bringing parents into the operating core of schools requires a degree of trust to facilitate the transition from parent-school independence to interdependence. Parents trust educators to provide a quality of education through teaching, guiding, counseling, and protecting a valuable asset: their children. Parents are often confident that teachers will act with the best interests of the child in mind and that their child will be treated not only with fairness, but with compassion (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2007). Fostering an atmosphere of trust between the faculty, parents, and students pays significant dividends for schools.

Forsyth, Barnes and Adams (2006) used a canonical correlation approach to examine the relationship between the predictors (parent and teacher trust with SES) and collective teacher efficacy, enabling school structure, and academic performance. The study produced four distinct polar patterns of collective trust and consequences. First, classic ineffective schools where there is low parent trust, low faculty trust, and low SES resulting in low collective teacher efficacy beliefs, hindering school structures, and low academic performance. The second pattern, classic effective, describes schools with converse conditions, that is, schools with high parent trust, high faculty trust, and high SES, resulting in high collective teacher efficacy beliefs, enabling school structures, and high academic performance. The third pattern, bunker, describes schools where high faculty trust and low SES predicts enabling school structures and low academic performance. This is where school professionals have despaired of succeeding with students and

parents but make school work internally for themselves. Finally, internal dysfunctional, where low faculty trust and high SES predict high hindering structures and high academic performance. In this environment, high academic performance seems to flow from external social economic advantage despite the schools failure as an institution. The latter two patterns are not hypothetical; they exist. The findings reveal that parents trust adds explanatory power over and above faculty trust for the predominant effectiveness pattern; however, parent trust plays no significant role in bunker and internal dysfunctional patterns of school effectiveness. Clearly parent trust appears to be critical (Forsyth, Barnes, and Adams, 2006) to the effectiveness structural patterns of schools.

Barnes, Mitchell, Forsyth, & Adams (2005) studied how parent trust affects parent school involvement. The sample was evenly distributed across elementary, middle, and high schools. The data demonstrated that parent trust in school directly predicts parent involvement and parent perceptions of their influence on school decisions; but the latter perception did not affect parental involvement in school. Interestingly, parent trust in principal did not predict either parent involvement or parent influence.

Mitchell & Forsyth (2004) investigated the relationship between student and parent trust in the principal and student identification with school. The first study explored the simple relationship between parent and student trust and student identification, taking into consideration SES and school level. Student identification was conceptualized and measured as having two components: (1) feelings of belongingness and (2) valuing school and school related outcomes (Voelkl, 1997). Trust of the principal (student and parents) declined by school level, elementary trust of the principal being the highest. SES was not significantly related to other variables in the study. Examining the effects of school level and parent trust in the principal on student

identification, only school level proved to be a significant factor. Students' trust in the principal and school levels were both related to student identification.

A second study explored the direct effects of SES, school level, external trust (combination of parent trust in school, parent trust in the principal, and student trust in the principal) and internal trust (combination of faculty trust in the principal, faculty trust in clients, and faculty trust in colleagues) on academic performance. The mediation effect of student identification was explored (Mitchell & Forsyth, 2005). Academic performance was directly predicted by SES, external trust, and internal trust. Student identification was directly predicted by school level and external trust, but not internal trust or SES. In turn, student identification directly predicted academic performance. The research suggests that enhancing parent and student trust may have potential for overcoming the negative effects of poverty on school effectiveness. For this study the researcher hypothesized that trust in clients is a stronger predictor of parent trust in school than trust in colleagues or principal.

Collaboration

Tschannen-Moran (2001) defined collaboration as “teachers and parents perception of the extent of parent involvement and influence over school and classroom –level decisions”. All schools have similar characteristics but, no two schools are exactly alike. The productivity and adaptability of schools can be enhanced by the principal creating structures that facilitate collaboration.

Collaboration is one practice that can generate synchronistic relationships by bringing different agents (schools, families, and the community) together for a universal purpose and by fostering collective ownership in the educational mission (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Epstein (2001) refers to such initiatives as the overlapping of the social spheres that influence children's

lives. This moves parents from the periphery of the school's operating core to the center. Parent-school partnerships do not occur in isolation, but in community and cultural contexts.

Families, (Adams & Christenson, 2000) provide the informal education that is an essential prerequisite to children's success in formal educational setting. Home forms the first and most important micro-system (Bronfenbrenner, 1991) and socialization environment. When children enter school, at the same time they enter another important socialization environment where the rules, norms, and expectations may be slightly different from the home setting. The connection between the home and the school then becomes essential for the growth and productivity of the student from childhood through adulthood.

Lightfoot, (1981) acknowledged that parents from all socioeconomic levels bring to schools valuable insights and unique perspectives, which serve to enhance home-school relationships, student behavior, and academic achievement (Haynes, Comer, and Hamilton-Lee 1989, p. 87). Researchers have identified six types of school related parent involvement or opportunities in schools: (1) assisting parents in child rearing skills, (2) school-related communication, (3) involving parents in school volunteer opportunities, (4) involving parents in home-based learning, (5) involving parents in school decision-making, and (6) involving parents in school community collaborations (Epstein, 1992; 1994).

Similarly to Epstein, Vosler-Hunter, (1989) translated his idea of collaboration into five often-quoted key elements of collaboration identified by teachers and parents of children with emotional and behavioral disabilities and the same process should hold true for all children: mutual respect for skills and knowledge, honest and clear communication, open and two-way sharing of information, mutually agreed-upon goals, and shared planning, and decision making.

Genuine collaboration with parents is an outward signal to parents that school faculty value their knowledge and understanding of their child's educational needs.

An extensive and growing amount of literature documents the importance of the family and school connections for increasing student success in school and for school programs. The theory of overlapping spheres of influence of families and schools, as mentioned beforehand, could possibly have an impact on students' learning and development and on family and school effectiveness.

Becker & Epstein (1982) surveyed 3,700 teachers in about 600 schools in Maryland. Several major issues related to parent involvement were discussed in the comments by over 1,000 teachers on the survey of teachers' practices. The theme of the surveys were viewed from two perspectives-there are potential advantages, but there are also potential problems with any parent-involvement technique. The crucial question in parental involvement is whether the time required by the teacher is worth the trouble. This question feeds into the inkling of expectancy motivation theory discussed later in the literature review of Miskel, McDonald, and Bloom (1983).

Teachers' data and comments expressed the importance of parents being involved in education, but academic task at home can cause the parents and children psychological stress as the pressure to perform vies with the child's need for help and the parents desire to help. Many teachers described benefits they perceived or expected for their students and the parents from parental involvement: better basic skills, and greater retention of skills over the summer because of work conducted at home during vacation; better behavior of students in class; greater number and variety of classroom materials developed by parents at home; enrichment in areas the teacher

could not direct; and improved parent self-image because of successful cooperation with the school.

Baker & Stevenson (1986) used a nationally representative sample of American households to examine the relation between parental involvement in schooling and the child's school performance. The researchers used a sample of 179 children, parents and teachers to investigate three hypotheses (1) the higher the educational status of the mother the greater degree of parental involvement in school activities (2) the younger the age of the child the greater degree of parental involvement, and (3) children with parents who are more involved have children that perform better in school than those parents who are less involved in schooling.

The mothers included in the sample had a range of educational backgrounds; almost 35% of the mothers had only a high school education or less, 23% had a college education or advanced degree. The school-aged children ranged from 5 to 17 years old and were well distributed through this range. The measures of parental involvement, performing in school, and performing to ability were rated on a scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being highest. Parental involvement in school activities occurred from the beginning of the year and continued throughout the year. Data were drawn from the teachers' questionnaires about schooling activities and the child's school performance. Teachers were asked "to what extent did his/her parents get involved in activities such as P.T.O., parent- teacher conferences?" This measure had the advantage of tapping specific parental actions about the child's schooling.

The findings suggest educated mothers tended to have more information about school and were more likely to take action to address their child's school problems than less educated mothers. Also, educated mothers selected more college preparatory courses for their child's school curriculum than less educated mothers regardless of the gender. Another important

finding was the age and the gender of the child influence the degree of parental involvement and its relation to school performance. Parents of younger children tend to be more involved in school activities than parents of older children. The researchers speculate that parents understand the importance of early schooling and value their involvement at the elementary level. Parents might disengage from school activities once the child is on “track” or possibly parents feel more competent to help younger children.

Hoover-Dempsey, Bassier, & Brisse (1987) hypothesized that varying levels of teacher involvement with parents in elementary schools would be related to variations in qualities of school settings, specifically school socioeconomic status, teacher degree level, grade level, class size, teachers’ sense of efficacy, principal perceptions of teacher efficacy, organizational rigidity, and instructional coordination.

They selected five indicators of involvement common to most elementary programs: parent-teacher conferences, parent in classroom volunteer work, parent involvement in “tutoring” at home (assisting with homework, drill etc.) and parent involvement in carrying out home instruction programs designed or suggested by teacher to supplement regular classroom instruction. In addition, the researchers examined the teacher perceptions of support from parents.

The sample included 66 schools with participating principals in mid-Southern states; they served urban, suburban, and rural populations. Schools within the district varied in size and SES of families served. The number of teachers in participating schools in the study ranged from 6 to 43; the total number of teachers who participated was 1,003. The average rate of participation per school was 69%.

Data were collected from (a) information provided by teachers on aspects of their background, classroom conditions, and parent involvement through the Teacher Information Questionnaire); (b) Principals provided information about school conditions on the School Information Questionnaire); (c) teacher and principal responses were also collected from a questionnaire designed to assess their perceptions of selected school variables (Teacher Opinion Questionnaire; Principal Opinion Questionnaire). The Teacher opinion Questionnaire consisted of 164 items constructed mostly on a five-point Likert Scale with responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, or from almost always to never. Both negatively and positively worded items were utilized throughout the instrument.

The results from the study revealed an inter-correlations between criterion variables were all significant ($p < .05$). Teacher efficacy scores were significantly correlated with all five criterion variables, most notably perceptions of parent support ($r = .60$; $p < .0005$) and parent-teacher conferences ($r = .49$; $p < .0005$). School SES also significant correlations with all criterion variables, especially parent-teacher conferences ($r = .53$; $p < .0005$) and parent volunteers ($r = .42$; $p < .0005$). Instructional coordination was significantly associated with all criterion variables, most strongly with perceptions of parent support ($r = .39$, $p < .01$). Principal perceptions of teacher efficacy were significantly correlated with four criterion measures, the highest being parent tutoring ($r = .37$; $p < .005$). Schools with higher efficacy, higher SES, higher instructional coordination, higher principal perceptions of teacher efficacy, and higher average degree levels were schools with higher rates of parent involvement. As parents receive useful information from teachers and as parents are invited to ask questions and contribute information, rather than listen only –they are likely to feel that participation is productive and worth its cost in time. A teacher’s sense of efficacy, or judgment about his or her capability to influence student

engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), may become a barrier that often influence parental involvement as discussed in the next literature review.

Epstein & Dauber (1991) study consisted of 171 teachers, in 8 inner-city elementary and middle schools in Baltimore on the teachers' attitudes, and the practices of parent involvement. The eight schools were randomly selected from a comparable Chapter 1 schools in economically and educationally disadvantaged neighborhoods to begin a 3 year initiative to improve parent involvement programs and practices. The study compares school programs and teacher practices of parental involvement in elementary and middle schools.

Teacher questionnaires were organized into 10 questions with many sub-questions that obtained 100 pieces of information on teachers' general attitude towards parental involvement: teachers' general practices of communicating with students' families; use of school and classroom volunteers (including the numbers, frequency, task, and training of volunteers); strength of school programs on the five types of parental involvement; importance of specific practices of five types of parent involvement to the teacher for his/her grade level and subjects taught; teachers' expectations of parents; the level of support for parent involvement of teacher, other school staff, parents, and community; the characteristics of student population; and classroom organization. Open-ended comments about parent involvement practices and problems were also solicited from teachers.

Overall, teachers in the inner-city elementary and middle schools in this sample had strong, positive attitudes about parent involvement. A 10-item scale scored 1-4 for negative to positive attitudes on each item, had an average mean score of 3.07 with a standard deviation of .32 indicating strong agreement overall and little variation in teachers' attitudes. Compared to

other teachers, attitudes are more positive for teachers who teach in self-contained classrooms (correlation coefficient, $r = .234$) and for those who perceive high support for parent involvement from their colleagues and students' parents ($r = .336$). As a final analysis, the researchers reported that teachers who believed that they share similar beliefs with parents about involvement make more contacts with parents about involvement and conduct more types of activities to involve families. Teachers who have feelings of isolation or separateness, more than likely will not contact parents or attempt to involve the parents in at-home activities to benefit the student.

Adams & Christenson (2000) study included 1,234 parents and 209 teachers from a first-ring suburban school district in a large Midwestern metropolitan area. The district was comprised of six schools, accounting for its 303 teachers, 2,843 families, and 4,061 students. In the district overall, 23% of students received free or reduced-price lunch; approximately 25% of students were children of color; 75% identified their ethnicity as Caucasian. Parents and teachers completed parallel forms of the Family-School Relationship Survey, consisting of the following scales: Trust, Frequency and Nature of Parent-Teacher Interaction, Recommendations for Improving Trust, and Demographic Variables. Teachers and parents rated 17 to 19 items that began with the sentence stem "I am confident that teachers" or "I am confident that parents/guardians" followed by different statements that reflected a variety of behaviors often performed by parents and teachers to enhance students' school performance.

The researchers hypothesized that parent trust would be a significant correlate of four indicators of school performance for students: attendance, credits earned towards graduation, GPA, and standardized test scores. The expectations were that students of parents displaying higher levels of trust for teachers to attain higher levels of performance in school. Three

achievement indicators emerged as significantly related to parent trust, all for high school students: credits earned per year ($r=.21, p=.006$), GPA ($r=.22, p=.000$), and attendance ($r=.18, p=.01$). Standardized achievement test scores were not significantly related to parent trust in this sample. Results from this descriptive study found (a) within-group differences for both parents and teachers, with trust being significantly higher for both at the elementary and high school level, (b) between-group differences for teachers and parents at elementary and high school levels, with parent trust being significantly higher; and (c) teacher trust levels remained fairly constant across the grade-level categories, whereas parent trust levels declined between elementary and junior high school. Improving home-school communication was identified as a primary way to enhance trust in the family-school relationship. However, results of the multiple regression analysis were important for the variables that did not predict trust. Parent involvement did not emerge as a significant predictor for either parents or teachers.

Hill & Craft (2003) examined whether the often –positive influence of parental involvement on children’s achievement outcome can be explained partially or wholly by its influence on children’s academic or social competence and whether these relations are similar across ethnic groups. The researchers randomly selected three ethnic diverse elementary schools in a southeastern semi suburban city. As a result, 103 kindergarten children and their mothers were interviewed in their homes during the late spring of the kindergarten year. For 93 of the 103 children, their kindergarten teachers ($n=17$) evaluated mothers’ involvement in school.

Mothers and teachers reported on parental involvement using three subscales of the Parent Teacher Involvement Questionnaire (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 1995). As expected, academic behavior skills mediated the relation between parent-school involvement and school achievement. Specifically, parents’ involvement at school including

volunteering in the classroom and sending materials to school, improved children's academic skills, which in turn improved math performance for African American children. This data is consistent with the underlying process expected based on previous research demonstrating that parental involvement increases academic skills (e.g. Thurston, 1989) and that academic skills improve school performance. At the school level, teachers are likely to support the concept of parent involvement; some educators encourage and guide parents to participate in their children's mathematics education and learning. Those efforts are supported also by additional reports of positive relationships between parent involvement and diverse student outcomes including, but not limited to mathematics (Epstein, 1991).

Sheldon & Epstein (2005) utilized longitudinal data from elementary and secondary schools to examine the connections between specific family and community involvement activities and student achievement in mathematics at the school level. Three research questions guided this study:

- (1) What is the level of mathematics achievement in a sample of schools in which the school community (staff, parents, and community members) work to involve families and community members in student's mathematics education?
- (2) How do the schools perceive the effectiveness of specific school, families, and community partnership activities to improve student achievement in mathematics?
- (3) What is the relationship between the implementation of specific family and community mathematics involvement activities and changes over time in school reports of student performance on mathematics achievement test?

The schools selected were members of the National Network of Partnership Schools (NNPS) working to improve the quality of family and community involvement and the effects on

specific student outcomes, such as attendance, behavior, and reading and math achievement. Participating schools were offered incentives of publications and items to help the schools advance their work on school, family, and community partnerships.

Eighteen small, yet diverse, schools from states including Ohio, Maryland, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Michigan, Kansas, and California participated in both baseline and follow-up surveys. About half of the schools in the study were elementary schools (n=10), and the rest were middle or high schools (n=8). The schools were located in inner city (n=7), urban (n=4), suburban (n=3), and rural (n=4) areas and ranged in size from 124 to 1,280 students. About 75% of the schools were targeted and received Title 1 funding indicating that the school served a large numbers of economically disadvantaged students. Respondents reported whether their schools implemented 14 partnership practices focused on mathematics. The school action team members were asked to rate how helpful each involvement practice was or, if they did not implement the activity, how helpful they thought the practice could be for improving student's achievement in mathematics. Schools rated effectiveness (if they implemented the practice.) of each practice on a 4-point Likert-type scale that ranged from (1) cannot do at this school to (2) very helpful.

Data were collected on achievement test results for the same grade level for 2 consecutive school years (1997 & 1998). Respondents also reported estimated the percentage of students in the selected grade in the fall and spring semesters who received mostly A's, mostly B's, or mostly C's and mostly D's and F's on their report cards in mathematics. Using descriptive analyses, the first research question revealed an overall average of 51% of the students met or exceeded satisfactory levels of proficiency on standardized mathematics achievement test. Also, from 1997 to 1998, participating schools reported an average increase of 6% more students at the selected grade levels who met or exceeded satisfactory proficiency levels in mathematics. The

average changes in achievement-test performance varied across schools, ranging from 18% decline to a 27% improvement in student's achievement test performance; standard deviation was 11%.

The second research question tapped the effectiveness of specific school practices of involving families in mathematics and the related outcomes at the school level. Three activities repeatedly were used and rated as the most effective for helping students by all schools (a) giving parents information on how to contact mathematics teachers, (b) scheduling conferences with parents who were struggling in mathematics and (c) providing information about student progress and problems in mathematics on report cards.

The final research question focused on whether mathematics-related family and community involvement activities affected measures of student mathematics achievement. The analyses indicated that only one type of involvement (Type 4-learning –at-home activities) consistently related to improvements in students' performance on mathematics achievement test. The percentage of students who attained satisfactory mathematics scores were higher in schools that more effectively assigned homework that required parent-child interactions ($p r = .60$) or offered mathematics materials for families to take home ($p r = .59$). The positive effects of involving families in students' education may suggest that fostering these types of interactions can help lessen the extent to which adolescents' transitions into middle school coincide with their declines in motivation and achievement.

The results reinforce the fact that schools must advance beyond a belief that any parent involvement activity will produce important results. The researchers found that the quality of implementation was strongly and consistently associated with changes in levels of student mathematics achievement. The finding supports and extends previous research that shows

schools need to go beyond the basic steps when developing programs of partnership in order to affect student achievement test scores (Sheldon, 2003). Creating goal-oriented, subject-specific involvement activities to help students attain goals may mobilize family involvement and contribute to students' attention to mathematics at home and to success in school.

Parental involvement in schooling also sends a strong message to the child about the value of education. Parents who are involved in their children's education in ways that create or reinforce direct experiences of educational success offer verbal persuasions intended to develop attitudes, behaviors, and efforts consistent with school success, and create emotional arousal that underscores the personal importance of doing well in school. Those students are more likely to develop a strong, positive sense of efficacy for successfully achieving in school-related task than students whose parents are not involved (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Therefore, as schools increase trust and collaboration, the schools should be more effective.

School Effectiveness

School effectiveness has been difficult to conceptualize because it is a complicated and multifaceted construct. It is not one thing, but many things. The challenge with finding a workable definition of organizational effectiveness is that it is constantly changing. Hoy & Miskel recognized that as constituents change, constraints and expectations evolve to define school effectiveness in new ways.

Where schools are concerned, the measures used most are standardized test of student achievement because virtually everyone agrees that a mastery of basic skills is an important component of effective schools (Uline, Miller, & Tschannen-Moran, 1998). Since schools are open social systems, it is assumed that all schools attempt to achieve certain objectives and to

develop group products through the manipulation of material and human resources; hence, the study of school effectiveness is concerned with both organizational means and ends.

Mott (1972, p. 17) defined organizational effectiveness as “the ability of an organization to mobilize its centers of power for action-production and adaptation.” Mott (1972) constructed a model of organizational effectiveness that alludes to Parsons’s conception of organizational functioning. Mott’s model identified three ways in which organizations mobilize centers of power; productivity, adaptability, and flexibility. According to Mott, the construct of productivity is couched in the tradition of bureaucratic theory. It assumes that the arrangement roles, responsibilities, power, authority, and other devices of routinized formal organizational structures are related to productivity: quantity, quality, and efficiency.

Mott argued that effective organizations are those that produce more and higher quality outputs and adapt more effectively to environmental and internal problem than do other, similar organizations. The quantity and quality of the product are important for the relative survival capabilities of an organization. In schools these products and services for the community are recognized in terms of instruction, learning, and extracurricular activities.

Miskel, Fervurly, and Stewart (1979) constructed a dynamic model of school effectiveness. They investigated the influence of organizational structures and processes on three organizational outcomes: perceived organizational effectiveness, teacher loyalty, and job satisfaction. They followed Mott by using the index as a measure of instrumental functions of production, adaptation, and flexibility. However to encompass a broader definition of performance (effectiveness), they related measures of organizational climate (teacher loyalty, and job satisfaction) which are expressive functions. The researchers found moderate to high relationships between perceived organizational effectiveness and loyalty ($r=.61$); between

perceived organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction ($r=.54$); and between loyalty and job satisfaction ($r=.58$).

Miskel, McDonald, and Bloom (1982) utilized a social processing theory to integrate the contextual concepts of structural and expectancy linkage factors with important perceptual dimensions of organizational effectiveness and empirically describing the relationships could produce significant insight for practitioners and scholars. Therefore, their investigation focused on the effects of informal structural and expectancy linkage on three indicators of school effectiveness and to assess the stability of the patterns and magnitude of relationships during a school year. Work interdependence, communication, and teacher expectations define mechanisms and norms, or linkages in schools that guide individual interactions. These two organizational concepts also provide important informational flow to individuals in schools.

Informal structural linkages bind the parts of a school organization together. In addition, the structural linkages form a portion of the information environments of school. As such, the linkage concept can be coupled to schema theory because they clearly are capable of affecting the perceptual cycle of individuals through the content of communication and cooperative planning with other educators and students.

Expectancy, which refers to the subjective probability between behavior and performance levels, has long been incorporated into cognitive approaches to motivation for both teacher and student behavior. In a school setting, expectancy is high if the educator believes that high efforts will yield outcomes such as high student achievement and positive attitudes. The basic postulate of expectancy motivation theory is that force of motivation is a product of expectancy, valence, and instrumentality. Teachers with high force of motivation may initiate new techniques, organizational configurations, and curricula based on the expectation that high effort levels and

new technologies will yield or improve student performance and attitudes. If the outcomes are positive and the teachers are rewarded, high levels should continue. However, if the outcomes or rewards vary across student groups effort levels will decline or become more focused. In some cases, students with learning disabilities may not perform as well as expected, even when high teacher effort is made. The result is a loss of motivational force by the teacher towards this group of students. From the perspective of social information theory, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) observed that expectancy theories represent the formal usage of three verbs: Individuals will do what they can do when they want something. Expectations are meaningful because they link behavior and the job environment through information-processing activities.

The researchers used three concepts as indicators of school effectiveness which included student attitudes towards school, perceived organizational effectiveness, and teacher job satisfaction. The concept of student attitudes and perceptions of school is one of the more ambiguous concepts in education. The researchers' defined perceived organizational effectiveness as a subjective evaluation of a school's productivity, adaptability, and flexibility. Job satisfaction is "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's values. Student attitudes are their understanding of the behavior of teachers and administrators towards them, of certain relationships in school and of the students' actual motivations and feelings about school.

Miskel et.al selected 89 public schools in Kansas; ten students from each school were selected and completed the student attitude measure. Miskel et al. used a concept of motivation called expectancy theory which argued that motivation depends on the judgment that the teacher is able to perform and the performance is worth the work. The researchers found that teacher expectations about student success play an important role in how teachers reinforce student

behavior. Therefore, the structure of schools may appear to be linked loosely to the criteria of organizational effectiveness, but school outcomes may be, and certainly perceptions of effectiveness are, tied to the structure through the cultural and social orientations such as informal relationships and the expectancy linkage. As an important indicator of quality, student attitudes are affected by both structural and expectancy linkages in schools and also affects the views that their parents hold of the school.

Using the Parsonian framework, (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985) proposed conceptualization of organizational effectiveness subsumes the following four general dimensions: (1) organizational adaptation in the form of successful accommodation to internal and external forces, (2) organizational productivity in terms of the extent to which the organization is successful in setting and accomplishing its internal goals, (3) organizational cohesiveness in the form of the absences of intra-organizational conflict, and (4) organizational commitment in the form of members motivation and commitment to the organization (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985).

Organizational adaptability (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985) in the context of the school can be measured in terms of the flexibility and innovativeness of the school as depicted by both administrators and teachers. Goal attainment defined in school effectiveness studies as achievement on standardized test and in organizational studies as production. Student achievement remains one important goal in virtually all schools. Integration can be evaluated by the cohesiveness of the faculty-the spirit of cooperation and collaboration among faculty and among faculty and administration that contributes to the satisfaction of both individual and organizational task. Latency deals with the problem of creating and maintaining the motivational and value patterns of school. As such, it can be measured by the extent to which the faculty is

committed to the school. If schools are to be recognized as effective organizations, there must be not only the teachers' responsibility but, the principal's as well.

Hoy, Tarter, & Witkoskie (1992) examined the principal's role in influencing school effectiveness. Hoy and his colleagues' inquiry addressed three questions concerning leadership in elementary schools: (a) What kind of leadership elicits teacher trust in the principal and each other? (b) How are these aspects of trust related to effectiveness? and (c) How are leadership, trust, and effectiveness linked? The results were both puzzling and surprising about how complex relationships can be. The results showed a supportive leadership does not have a direct relationship with effectiveness: its influence is indirect. A supportive leadership contributes to a culture of trust. Surprisingly, it is not the culture of trust per se that influences school effectiveness. Rather it is only faculty trust in colleagues that produces effectiveness. Collegiality and trust in the principal are unrelated to the effectiveness of the school. Faculty trust is linked to school effectiveness.

Unlike the earlier investigation of effectiveness in elementary schools, Hoy, Sabo, & Tarter (1995) analyses of middle school climate, faculty trust, and effectiveness in 87 middle schools in New Jersey yielded a much different result. Hoy et al hypothesized that: (a) supportive principal behavior is positively related to faculty trust in the principal. (b) Collegial teacher behavior is positively related to faculty in colleagues. (c) Trust in colleagues is related to school effectiveness. (d) Trust in principal is related to school effectiveness and (e) Supportive principal behavior is positively related to collegial teacher behavior. What is arresting in the findings is the complex web of variables that produce effectiveness.

Hoy et al. found that supportive principal behavior does not promote trust in colleagues and yet trust in colleagues is the key connection to effectiveness. Collegial relationships among

teachers promote trust in colleagues, but not faculty trust in the principal. What is important to effectiveness in middle school appear to be a culture of trust, a pervasive atmosphere of trust where teachers not only have confidence in the principal, but also rely on each other as well. Manifestly, the path to effectiveness is more differentiated in middle schools than in elementary schools. Yet, the critical variables are the same. Professional skill without trust likely limits initiative and creativity. In middle schools, the exercise of professional judgment rest on teacher's conviction that they can depend upon each other and the principal even in difficult situations.

Uline, Miller, & Tschannen-Moran (1998) combined Parsons's (1960) adaptation and achievement into one function, instrumental activities; and combined integration and latency into a second function, expressive activities. The researchers identified these two functions as aspects of school effectiveness and should be related to Mott's subjective measurement of effectiveness. Expressive activities include trust and health within the school.

Distrust causes people to feel uncomfortable and ill at ease, provoking them to expend energy on assessing the actions and potential actions of others. Where there is trust, individuals are focused on the task at hand, and therefore, they work and learn more effectively. Healthy interpersonal relationships have been related to both faculty trust and to student achievement (Hoy, Sabo, & Barnes, 1996).

A healthy school is a place where it feels good to be and where the school has the capacity to fulfill its mission. The faculty places strong emphasis on academic achievement and sets high expectations for their students. The faculty enjoys friendly and supportive relationships with one another. The principal also has a positive, collegial relationship with the rest of the staff. Studies have also linked the organizational health of a school to such important outcomes

as higher student achievement (Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990), increased faculty commitment, and school effectiveness (Hoy et al., 1991).

Instrumental activities focused on student achievement in schools. When school effectiveness is reduced to one single variable, it is generally student achievement. If students are not performing at a high level it is difficult to make a convincing case that the school is a high-performing organization. School effectiveness is also related to many other outcomes such as social –emotional growth of students, satisfaction of teachers, efficient use of resources, innovativeness, adaptability, and goal accomplishment (Cameron &Whetten, 1993, 1995; Hoy & Miskel, 1992, 1996). Clearly, expressive activities and instrumental activities go hand in hand with student achievement in effective schools.

To test their model of effectiveness, Uline et al. tapped two dimensions; the perceptions of teachers and the outcomes of students. Data was examined from a wide cross section of 86 middle schools in New Jersey. Schools with grades of 5-8, 6-8, and or7-8 configuration were included in the sample and faculty members of 15 or more. The study consisted of schools from varies socioeconomic status: 28% of the schools came from the lowest level, 37% came from the middle levels, and 35% came from the highest levels. The researchers found that effectiveness correlates highly with both instrumental and expressive functions. Instrumental as well as expressive activities help to make schools effective. Student achievement, faculty trust, and organizational health all are indicators of a school’s effectiveness. If schools attempt to achieve greater school effectiveness, leaders must address both expressive and instrumental elements in school life. To focus on one at the expense of the other is dangerously limiting.

Tarter & Hoy (2004) argued that the systems approach was necessary for effectiveness of schools. Their theoretical and empirical analysis of the critical properties that make for

organizational success stems from (Bolman & Deal, 2003) research. Bolman & Deal proposed four frames that are important in organizational functioning-structure, human resources (individuals), politics, and symbols (organizational culture). Tarter & Hoy inquiry tested the usefulness of key elements of school organizations in explaining student achievement (SA) and teachers' assessment of organizational effectiveness. Their framework composed of an environmental constraint, the four major systems elements, and two aspects of organizational performance. Hoy & Tarter also examined the socioeconomic status (SES) of the environment, defined the dimensions of structure, individual, culture, and politics and the effectiveness of school performance. The analysis included examining the collect efficacy of teachers, culture of trust in the organization, politics, and organizational performance. Hoy & Tarter used two constraining means to assess performance. First, state proficiency test for schools gauge the extent to which basic skills are taught in reading and math. Second, to get a broader measure of the effectiveness of schools, teachers were asked to assess the general level of productivity, flexibility, adaptability, and efficiency in their schools (Hoy & Miskel, 2001; Mott; 1972; Uline et., 1998). These two conceptions of performance (Tarter & Hoy, 2004) provided both an objective appraisal of achievement and a subjective overall evaluation of the quality of school operation. Data were collected from a sample of 145 elementary schools in Ohio. The study revealed that all school performance was related to socioeconomic status (SES), Enabling School Structure (ES), Collective Efficacy (CE), a Culture of Trust (CT), and illegitimate politics. Student achievement was best explained by collective efficacy and enabling school structure. Highly motivated teachers in a structure of support directly improves student learning. Teachers who are self-efficacious are more likely to exert more effort, persist in teaching, use multiple methods of instructions and are less likely to become discouraged with initial disappointment

(Ross, 1998;Tschannen-Moran et.al., 1998) as cited in (Tarter & Hoy, 2004). Therefore, for this study the researcher hypothesized faculty trust, parent trust, and collaboration jointly and individually predicts effectiveness.

The social systems analysis of (Tarter & Hoy, 2004) provides the elements and functions of a quality school in terms of inputs (SES), internal systems elements (structure, individual, culture, politics), and performance outcomes (SA and overall school effectiveness). SES constrains the system; the internal elements promote the coordination, effort, persistence, resilience, cooperation, innovation, and diminish personal agendas; and the outcomes of SA and school harmony demonstrate success. The social systems model fosters system thinking, that is, thinking of the organization in its entirety.

Theory Development

All organizations confront different challenges and the local school must be able to adapt to their external conditions. As organizations adjust to environmental demands, transforming external conditions may be necessary. The organization must keep motivated and directed in order to meet the goals and increase the outcome. This requires the loyalty of participants, so organizations strive to maintain a strong internal culture and value system (Uline, Miller, & Tschannen-Moran, 1998).

Increasingly, trust is seen as a vital element in well-functioning organizations and the foundation (Cunningham & Gresso, 1993) as cited in (Uline, et al., 1998) on which effectiveness is built. Trust is necessary for effective cooperation and communication, which are the bases for productive relationships (Baier, 1986). Productive relationships build effective schools. Trust (Lewicki and Bunker, 1996) is the glue that holds most cooperative relationships together. Organizational research suggest that relationships, and by extension organization effectiveness

suffer without this “glue” and with the glue operational processes are more efficient and organizational productiveness increases.

Relationships within the school often signify the health or effectiveness of the school and the productiveness of the participants. A school where the principal is supportive, considerate, and genuinely concerned about the welfare of the teachers creates a more cohesive organization. The instructional leader uses his or her influence with the school district hierarchy to help the school accomplish its goals and secure financial resources necessary for the smooth operation of the school. At the same time, the principal lets the faculty know what is expected of them (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005).

Setting and attaining goals, defining objectives and mobilizing the resources to obtain them is a collaborative effort that involves the administrator, teachers, parents, and students. The administrator is flexible, listens and is open to exploring all sides of the topic, admits that divergent opinions exist, and is willing to make changes. Therefore, there is a spirit of cooperation and collaboration among faculty members and among faculty and administration that contributes to the satisfaction of both individual needs and organizational tasks (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Teachers are willing to go beyond their job description requirements by investing time and energies to accomplish the school’s goals. The faculty’s commitment to its students causes the teachers to implement innovative teaching practices, resolve conflict quickly, place a strong emphasis on academic achievement, and set high expectations for all students, which leads to a more effective organization.

If school effectiveness was reduced to a single variable, it is generally student achievement. Schools are recognized as productive based on the level of student achievement on standardized test. In Alabama, schools are recognized as effective in meeting the needs of its

students based on a Performance Index provided by the ACT Aspire. If students are not performing at a high level it is difficult to make a convincing argument that the school is a high performing organization.

A second conception of effectiveness is the overall effectiveness of the organization. This is a subjective judgment by the faculty of the overall effectiveness of the school along five dimensions: quantity and quality of product, efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility. The teachers' perception of the quantity and quality of the instruction, learning, extracurricular events of the school, as well as the school's efficient operation and its ability to adapt. Adaptation involves anticipating problems, developing timely solutions and staying current with new educational processes. Trust contributes to both conceptions of organizational effectiveness. The quality of communication in the relationship is based upon the level of trust. Individuals with a greater degree of trust are likely to collaborate, get involved, disclose more accurate, relevant, and complete data about problems, as well as their thoughts, feelings, or ideas (Wrightsman, 1974; Zand, 1971) as cited in Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Collaboration enables all participants to work together to solidify the organization and protect its greatest resource, the students. Administrators, teachers, and parents, trust each other to do what is necessary to meet each student's need and increase student achievement. Where there is a sense of teacher academic optimism, a strong emphasis on academics and higher standards, students are more likely to work harder to succeed in school. In schools, teacher and parent collaboration, parent trust, and parent involvement, all set the stage for effective student learning, which should lead to overall school effectiveness. Therefore, to test this theory, the researcher rationale and hypotheses are presented:

Theoretical Rationales and Hypotheses

Thus:

H₁: Teacher Academic optimism will be significantly correlated with parent trust.

Empirical evidence supports the notion of teacher academic optimism as a catalyst for parent trust. Woolfolk Hoy, Kurz, & Hoy, (2008) found that a teacher's positive belief that he or she can make a difference in the lives of the students by emphasizing academics and learning, by trusting parents and students to cooperate in the process, and by believing in his or her own capacity to overcome difficulties and react to failure with resilience and perseverance. This study hopes to confirm this correlation.

Thus:

H₂: Teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated to parent collaboration.

When a faculty has strong norms that support teacher's trusting and working with parents, the group will strive for cooperation and collaboration (Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2006). Hoy & Kupersmith (1985) proved that both teacher trust and collaboration have been shown to improve organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

Thus:

H₃: Teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated with parent involvement.

Since teacher academic optimism includes a teacher sense of efficacy, Epstein & Dauber, (1991) reported that teachers who believe that they share similar beliefs with parents about involvement make more contacts with parents and conduct more types of activities to involve families. Hoover-Dempsey, Bassier and Brissie (1992) reinforced a positive correlation between teacher efficacy and teacher reports of parent involvement.

Thus:

H₄: Teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated with teacher perception of school effectiveness.

Forsyth, Barnes, and Adams, (2006) believed that effective schooling relies upon cooperation and support between the home and school. Patterns of school success (effectiveness) and survival appear to hinge on a variety of contextual conditions, including parental wealth, parent trust, teacher efficacy beliefs, teacher trust, and school structure (Forsyth et al., 2006).

DiPaola, Tarter, and Hoy said effective schools are efficient, flexible, adaptable, and innovative. Mott (1972) believed that the quantity and quality of the product (instruction), efficacy, adaptability, and flexibility were important attributes that define the ability of an organization to mobilize its centers of power for action, to achieve goals, and to adapt.

Thus:

H₅: Teacher perception of parent collaboration will be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration.

In elementary schools, parents generally have one teacher with whom to communicate, build a relationship, and develop trust. As students move to secondary schools, parents and students are faced with the challenge of communicating and building relationships with several teachers.

H₆: Teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration will have a significant effect on parent perception of collaboration, parent trust in school, and parent involvement while controlling for percent of free and reduce lunch and years of teaching experience.

Teachers who are optimistic are more likely to collaborate with parents therefore parents are willing to collaborate and get involved with the school.

The chart below identifies the research questions, hypotheses, and type of analysis involved in this research study.

Research Question	Hypotheses	Variables	Type of Analysis
1. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent trust?	Teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated to parent trust.	Independent: Teacher Academic Optimism Dependent: Parent Trust	Correlation Analysis
2. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent perception of collaboration?	Teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration.	Independent: Teacher Academic Optimism Dependent: Parent Collaboration	Correlation Analysis
3. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent involvement?	Teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated with parent involvement.	Independent: Teacher Academic Optimism Dependent: Parent Involvement	Correlation Analysis
4. What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of school effectiveness?	Teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated with teacher perception of school effectiveness.	Independent: Teacher Academic Optimism Dependent: Teacher perception of school effectiveness	Correlation Analysis
5. What is the relationship between teacher perception of parent collaboration and parent perception of collaboration?	Teacher perception of parent collaboration will be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration.	Independent: Teacher perception of parent collaboration Dependent: Parent perception of collaboration	Correlation Analysis T-Test
6. Does teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of parent	Teacher academic optimism and teacher	Independent: Teacher Academic Optimism & Teacher perception of collaboration	

<p>collaboration effect parent perception of collaboration, parent trust, and parent involvement while controlling for percent of free and reduce lunch and years of teaching experience?</p>	<p>perception of collaboration will have a significant effect with parent perception of collaboration, parent trust, and parent involvement.</p>	<p>Dependent: Parent perception of collaboration, parent trust, and parent involvement</p>	<p>2 Block Regression</p>
---	--	---	---------------------------

Figure 2: Summary of the Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Type of Analysis Involved in this Research Study.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter briefly describes the research problem, data sample and collection procedures, instrumentation, and data analysis procedures.

Data Sample and Collection Procedures

The sample for this research is selected from 7 Alabama elementary schools with 15 or more teachers each. All schools were classified as Title I schools. A Title one school is classified as any school where 50% or more of the school's population receives free or reduced price lunch. The 7 schools had a free and reduced lunch percentage ranging from 50% to as high as 80% free and reduce lunch.

An estimate of 40 teachers and 50 parents from each of the seven elementary schools were asked to participate in the research study. A total of 214 teachers and 220 parents were surveyed in this study. However, because the variables tap individual properties within the organization, the unit of analysis is the teacher. The schools were urban and selected based on convenience. This research study focused only on elementary schools which consist of grade four. Because the study is limited to elementary schools, this controlled the organizational structures between elementary, middle, and high schools, allowing for a constant approach to the measurement of teacher academic optimism, collaboration with parents, parent trust in school, and school effectiveness.

Participants

Data were collected from teachers at each building during a regular scheduled faculty meeting. Only certified teachers under systematic evaluation who participate in decision making and classroom instruction participated in the survey process. The participants varied in years of teaching experience, gender, and subject area.

Parents of students enrolled in kindergarten through sixth grade were recruited to complete the surveys. Permission was secured at the district and school level to survey all parents. This allowed the use of a positive consent form, asking parents to return the form only if they chose to participate.

Data Collection Procedure

A written request to participate was mailed to one (1) school superintendent in Northern Alabama. The written request to the superintendent: identified the researcher, the purpose of the study, participants, provided copies of the survey instruments, approval of the UA Institutional Review Board, and a list of the researcher's dissertation committee members.

After acquiring permission from the superintendent and building principals, a copy of the letter and instruments were mailed to the local school principal. The teachers were asked to voluntarily and anonymously participate in this project. Principals assigned a date for the researcher to administer the surveys to certified teachers. The researcher explained to the staff that all responses to the surveys would be treated confidentially. Teachers were informed that they need not answer any item that made them feel uncomfortable and could cease participation in the study at any point. The explanation, distribution, and administration of the surveys took 30 minutes. The researcher made no attempt to gather data from participants who were absent.

Parent data were collected from parents of students enrolled in Grades K-6. Parents with more than one child attending school within the district were asked to only complete one survey. Parents of elementary school students were asked to complete the survey and return it in the sealed envelope provided by the researcher.

Variables

The independent variables were teacher academic optimism, and teacher perception of collaboration with parents. Dependent variables were school effectiveness and parent trust in the school, parent involvement, and parent perception of collaboration. In this study there will be an examination of relationships between teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parent and their ability to influence parent trust in school, parent perception of collaboration, and school effectiveness, while controlling for free and reduced lunch percent and years of teaching experience. The free and reduced lunch data were gathered from the state department of education's website, based on each school's reported free and reduced lunch information for the 2014- 2015 academic year.

In compliance with The University of Alabama Instructional Review Board (IRB) guidelines, the researcher completed the human research training requirements for students. The researcher submitted an application to the IRB describing the research study, consent forms, and copies of all the instruments utilized to obtain data for the study. The purpose of this application was to assure that appropriate steps are taken to provide the safe and ethical treatment of humans as subjects in the research study. Data received during the study will be anonymous. However, code numbers were used as identifiers for each participating school. Participants name, address, or I.D. was not listed on the surveys or questionnaires. The IRB approval document is located in Appendix F.

Instrumentation

Factors from four instruments were combined to create a survey to collect the quantitative data for this study. The instruments from which the factors were derived included the following: (a) Teacher Academic Optimism Scale, (Beard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2009), (b) the School Effectiveness Index (Hoy, 2009), (c) the Collaboration Survey, (Tschannen-Moran, 2001), and (d) the Parental Involvement Scale. The definitions are defined next and factors for each instrument.

Teacher Academic Optimism Scale (TAOS-E)

Teacher Academic Optimism is a set of beliefs held by individual teachers that they can teach effectively, their students can learn and their parents will support them so the teacher can press hard for learning (Beard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2010)

The measurement of academic optimism at the individual level is comprised of three parts. First measure teacher sense of self-efficacy, then teacher trust in students and parents, and finally, the teacher's academic press for achievement. An index of teacher sense of academic optimism is the created by combining the measures of these three components of academic optimism. (Beard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2009). The Teacher Academic Optimism for Elementary School scale consists of 11 items with Likert-type responses. The teacher sense of self-efficacy subscale consisted of 3 items with Likert-type responses scale that range from *nothing* (coded as 1) to a *great deal* (coded as 9). Sample items included: "How much can you get students to believe they can do well on schoolwork?" and "To what extent can you can you craft good questions for your students?" The reliability for the measure was .73.

Teacher Trust in Student and Parents subscale consisted of 4 items with Likert-type response scale that range from *never* (coded as 1) to *always* (coded as 5). Sample items for this

scale included: “I trust the parents of my students,” and “I can count on parent support.” The scale had an alpha coefficient of reliability of .79. *The Academic Emphasis* subscale consisted of 4 items with Likert-type response scale that range from *never* (coded as 1) to *always* (coded as 5). Sample items for this scale included: “I ask students to explain how they get their answers,” and “I press my students to achieve academically. The Scale had a reliability of .71.

Hoy and his colleagues normed the scale using a sample of 72 elementary teachers who were enrolled in educational classes at the University of Texas in San Antonio, University of Alabama, and Ohio State University. Teachers were asked to respond to the 24 items. The sample was primarily a convenience sample that was used to examine the factor structure of the concepts and to refine the reliability of the measures. In keeping with their earlier simplification of measures, the researchers performed an exploratory factor analysis and identified three items of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), one from each subscale, to measure teacher sense of efficacy. Four Likert items tapped teacher trust in parents and students; two items focused on teacher trust in parents and the other two on trust in students. Likewise academic emphasis was measured using the items identified in our earlier exploratory factor analysis to refine and improve the validity of the scale. The resulting four Likert items measure academic emphasis.

Teacher scores were compared with a typical set of elementary teachers. The scores were standardized using the earlier formulas such that the mean of a typical elementary school teacher is 500 and the standard deviation is 100. Thus, a score of 650 on academic optimism represents a very high score just as a score of 350 depicts a very pessimistic view on academic optimism. The range and interpretation is based on the normal distribution. If the score is 200, it is lower than 99% of the schools. If the score is 300, it is lower than 97% of the schools. If the score is 400, it

is lower than 84% of the schools. If the score is 500, it is average. If the score is 600, it is higher than 84% of the schools. If the score is 700, it is higher than 97% of the schools. If the score is 800, it is higher than 99% of the schools. A copy of the instrument is located in Appendix A.

Parent trust

Parent trust (Adams, Forsyth, & Mitchell, 2009) is defined as an individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open."

Parent trust is measured using the Parent Trust in School Scale. Items for the Parent Trust in School scale were generated using the five facets of trust. For this study, the short version of the parent trust instrument (Forsyth, Adams, & Barnes, 2004) as cited in (Adams et al., 2009) consisted of 10-items with Likert-type response set ranging from *strongly disagree*=1 to *strongly agree*=8. Individual parent scores ranging from 10-80 with a larger value indicate greater levels of parent trust. Sample items for each of the facets of trust included: "This school keeps me well informed," "Kids at this school are well cared for," "This school is always honest with me," "This school has high standards for all kids," "I never worry about my child when he or she is there." Adams, Forsyth, & Mitchell (2009), utilized the Parent –School Trust instrument to examine school-level determinants of individual parent-school trust in their sample of 79 schools and 578 parents drawn randomly from a Midwestern state. Single factor loadings on all 10 items of the parent-school trust scale were above .68. An alpha coefficient of .95 indicated strong internal consistency of the instrument. Validity of the Parent Trust scale is further supported by significant correlations with the Trust Scales developed by Hoy and colleagues. A copy of the instrument is located in Appendix B.

Collaboration

Collaboration is defined as the extent to which teachers and parents perception of the extent of parent involvement and influence over school and classroom level decisions (Tschannen-Moran, 2001)

Collaboration, in the current study, is measured on the level of collaboration between parents and teachers. The Collaboration survey (Tschannen-Moran, 2001) is a 9 -item 6 point Likert type scale with response choices that range from *not at all* (coded as 1) to *very much* (coded as 6). The survey measures teacher perceptions of collaboration with the parents and parent perception of collaboration with teacher on school level decisions. Teachers and parents were asked identical questions on the collaboration survey. Parents received the Collaboration Survey for Parents and the teachers received the Collaboration for Teachers. The reliability of the subscale in the (Tschannen-Moran, 2001) study ranged from .87 to .94. Survey sample items were the same for both *parent perception of collaboration with teachers and teacher perception of collaboration with parents* “To what extent do you have influence over approving extracurricular activities” and “To what extent do you have influence over determining school rules.” “To what extent do you have influence over needs of improvement?” A copy of the instrument is located in Appendix C.

Effectiveness

School effectiveness is defined as the extent to which any organization as a social system, given resources and means, fulfills its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain upon its members.

A global subjective measure of school effectiveness is used to gauge the overall effectiveness of each school. The School Effectiveness Index (SE Index) is an eight-item Likert type response set

ranging from *strongly disagree* (coded as 1) to *strongly agree* (coded as 6). Teachers are asked to describe the quality, efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility of the school. School effectiveness sample items included: “The quality of products and services produced in this school is outstanding.” Reliability scores for the scale are typically high ranging from .87 to .89. The instrument is located in Appendix D.

Parent Involvement

Parental Involvement is described as (a) the basic obligation of parents to provide for their children’s general wellbeing and readiness for school, (b) the basic obligations of school to communicate with parents about school activities and requirements, as well as individual student progress, (c) schools make a place for parents to volunteer in school and attend performances and workshops at the school, (d) parents involved in learning activities at home and, (e) types of involvement that includes parents in decision-making roles in governance of the school (Epstein, 1991). Parent involvement was measured utilizing a 15-item 4 point Likert type scale. Responses ranged from *Never* (coded as 1) to *Very Often* (coded as 4). Survey sample items for parent involvement included: “Do you attend open house,” “Do you contact your child’s principal,” “Do you help your child with homework?” A copy of the instrument is located in Appendix E.

Research Questions

- (1) What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent trust?
- (2) What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent perception of collaboration?
- (3) What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and parent involvement?

- (4) What is the relationship between teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of school effectiveness?
- (5) What is the relationship between teacher perception of collaboration and parent perception of collaboration?
- (6) Does teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of parent collaboration effect parent perception of collaboration, parent trust in the school, and parent involvement?

Data Analysis

Quantitative methodology was used to investigate the elements of teacher academic optimism, and teacher perception of collaboration and its correlation with parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness in a case study of one school district. Instrument data were collected from participants at during a regular faculty meeting.

Descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, and ranges were calculated for the two independent variables of teacher academic optimism, which include three subgroups (teacher efficacy, teacher academic optimism, and trust in the clients or parents and students), and teacher perception of collaboration with parents. All instruments were averaged and standardized for this study. The teacher academic optimism scale was normed to have a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100. The dependent variables were parent trust in school, parent involvement, parent perception of collaboration, and school effectiveness.

SPSS was utilized to aggregate data from the school level to the teacher level. A total of 7 schools participated in the study and therefore data were aggregated to the individual teacher level.

Next, descriptive statistics were calculated for all the variables in the study. Bivariate correlations were calculated for the variables to determine the correlation between the independent and the dependent variables in this study. Regression analysis tested the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Overview

This chapter reports the findings of the data analyzing the correlations with teacher academic optimism, teacher perception of collaboration with parents to parent trust in school, parent involvement, parent perception of collaboration, and school effectiveness. The first section begins with a summary of the descriptive statistics for the variables in this case study. Data collected from seven elementary schools were analyzed to provide answers to six research questions and six hypotheses proposed in this study. The variables were analyzed using reliable measures, computation of descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regressions. Years of teaching experience and free/reduced lunch percentage were treated as the control variables.

Descriptive Analysis

Sample

One Northern Alabama school district was solicited for participation in this case study. The district comprised of seven elementary schools (Grades K-6) which yielded a participation rate of 100%. The high participation rate is probably best explained by the superintendent's prior consent to participate. A total of 220 teachers and 214 parents completed surveys. A minimum of 15 teachers and parents were required to count each school in the sample. School population, free/ reduced lunch percentages, and other school data were gathered from the Alabama State Department of education website (Table 1). The school district's overall free and reduced lunch

percentage rate was 61% and the research sample had a combined free and reduced lunch percent rate of 60%.

Table 1: 2014-2015 School District Demographics for Case Study

	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5	School 6	School 7
Teachers	59	36	39	39	44	43	40
Student Enrollment K-6	818	514	553	535	649	605	529
Free/ Reduce Lunch %	59%	64%	57%	79%	61%	80%	50%
Teacher Participants	41/59	28/36	30/39	29/39	36/44	23/43	27/40
Parent Participants	30/50	33/50	36/50	26/50	31/50	27/50	31/50
Ethnicity of Students (Below)							
White	681	466	523	285	511	461	451
Black	90	**	**	164	88	96	30
Multi-Race	**	**	**	32	15 *	**	**
Hispanic	11	**	**	43	**	24	36
Asian	**	**	**	**	**	**	**

**Indicates a cell size of 10 or less (both male and female) in accordance with FERPA regulations

Measures

The Teacher Academic Optimism Scale (TAOS-E), the Parent Trust in School Scale, and the School Effectiveness Index (SE Index), and the Collaboration Survey were used to collect the quantitative data for this study. The Collaboration survey includes three subscales that measures teacher perceptions of collaboration with the principal on school level decisions, collaboration

with teacher colleagues on classroom level decisions, and collaboration with parents on school level decisions.

Data collected from all of the instruments were analyzed to determine whether there were correlations between and among variables. The data were analyzed to determine (a) if there was correlation with teacher academic optimism, parent trust, parent perception of collaboration, and parent involvement. (b) if there was a correlation with teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of school effectiveness and (c) if teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents correlate with parent perception of collaboration and parent involvement; and (d) to determine if teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parent correlated with parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration with parent, parent involvement, or school effectiveness while controlling for years of teaching experience and percent free/reduced lunch.. Descriptive data were calculated for each variable. Range, minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation were examined (see Table 2).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Research Variables

Variables	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Parent Involvement Scale (PIS)	220	.28	2.97	3.26	3.07	.10
Parent Collaboration with School (PCS)	220	1.42	3.02	4.45	4.00	.43
Parent Trust School (PTS)	220	.34	7.22	7.56	7.37	.13
Free/Reduced Price Lunch %	220	30.87	48.96	79.8	63.81	9.90
Years of Teaching Experience (YOE)	220	3.00	1.00	4.00	3.03	1.07
Teacher Academic Optimism (TAO)	220	357.76	293.97	651.73	504.18	69.18
Teacher Collaboration with Parent (TCP)	220	4.22	1.78	6.00	3.24	.88
School Effectiveness (SE)	220	3.25	2.75	6.00	5.13	.58

Reliabilities

Researchers utilize the Cronbach alpha coefficient as a measure of internal reliability or consistency, (Cronbach 1951). A reliability coefficient demonstrates the consistency in expecting a certain collection of items to yield interpretable statements about individual differences. The generally accepted coefficient value of .70 or higher is considered appropriate and reliable with researchers.

Cronbach alpha coefficients of inter-item reliability, as shown in Table 3, were computed for the three parent scales. Parent Involvement Scale with a total of 15 items yielded a high Cronbach alpha coefficient of .84 and the 9-item Parent Collaboration with School had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .96. The Parent Trust of School Scale with 10-items had a Cronbach alpha of .95. Teacher Academic Optimism Scale with 11-items had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .73 and Teacher Collaboration with Parent had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .88. The School Effectiveness, a subjective measure with 8 items yielded a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .90 for this research study.

Table 3: Cronbach Alpha for Study Variables and the Number of Items Measured

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha	Instrument
Parent Involvement	15	.84	Parent Involvement Scale
Parent Collaboration with School	9	.96	Collaboration Survey
Parent Trust in School	10	.95	Parent Trust Scale
Teacher Academic Optimism	11	.73	Teacher Academic Optimism
Teacher Collaboration with Parent	9	.88	Collaboration Survey
School Effectiveness	8	.90	School Effectiveness Scale

Correlations

Correlation analyses were run on the eight variables as shown in Table 4. Data from the first four hypotheses are provided next.

H₁: Teacher Academic optimism will be significantly correlated with parent trust.

There was a significant positive correlation between teacher academic optimism and parent trust ($r = .15, p < .05$). This would suggest that teachers who are optimistic are more likely to extend trust to parents. Optimistic teachers are confident that they are able to make a difference and both parties are willing to be vulnerable to the other party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open.

H₂: Teacher Academic Optimism will be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration.

There was no correlation found between teacher academic optimism and parent perception of collaboration with the school at ($r = .09, p > .05$).

H₃: Teacher Academic Optimism will be significantly correlated with parent involvement

There was a significant positive correlation between teacher academic optimism and parent involvement in the school ($r = .20, p < .01$). Teacher academic optimism was negatively related to the percent of free/reduced price lunch ($r = -.30, p < .01$). As parents receive useful information from teachers, invited to ask questions, or contribute information, rather than listen only, parents are more likely to feel that participation is productive and worth its cost in time.

H₄: Teacher Academic Optimism will be significantly correlated with teacher perception of school effectiveness. The data revealed a significant positive correlation between teacher academic optimism and school effectiveness ($r = .52, p < .01$). This would suggest that teachers

who are optimistic are more likely committed to the goals of the organization, flexible, innovative in their teaching, and willing to go above and beyond expectations.

Other Statistical Findings

Teacher perception of collaboration with parents was negatively correlated with years of teaching experience ($r = -.14, p < .05$) and parent trust in school ($r = -.22, p < .01$).

Parent perception of collaboration with school was negatively correlated with parent involvement ($r = -.20, p < .01$) and percent of free/reduced lunch ($r = -.45, p < .01$). Parent involvement with school was positively correlated with years of teaching experience ($r = .15, p < .05$) and school effectiveness ($r = .20, p < .01$). However, parent involvement was negatively correlated with percent of free/reduced lunch ($r = -.21, p < .01$). Lastly, school effectiveness was negatively correlated with percent of free/reduced lunch.

($r = -.25, p < .01$). See Table 4 for bivariate correlations.

Table 4: Correlations Matrix Among all Variables

Variables	PTS	PCS	PI	FRL	YOE	TAO	TCP	SE
Parent Trust in School		-.58**	.60**	.03	.08	.15*	-.22**	.11
Parent Collaboration			-.20**	-.45**	-.02	.07	.12	.05
Parent Involvement				-.21**	.15*	.20**	-.13	.20**
Free/Reduced Price Lunch%					.19**	-.30**	-.02	-.25**
Years of Experience						-.08	-.14*	.09
Teacher Academic Optimism							.12	.52**
Teacher Collaboration								.06
School Effectiveness								1

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

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

H5: Teacher perception of collaboration will be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration. Teacher perception of collaboration with the school and parent perception of

collaboration were not significantly correlated. However, a post hoc analysis using an independent T-test was conducted to determine if there was a significant difference between teachers' perception of collaboration with parents and parents' perception of collaboration with school as shown below in Table 5. The Levene's Test of Equality of Variance revealed a statistically significant difference between the groups. An independent t-test revealed a significant difference between teachers' perception of collaboration with parents (N=220, M=3.24, SD=.88) and the parents' perception of collaboration with the school (N=220, M=4.00, SD=.43), $t(438) = -11.36$, $p < .001$. The 95% confidence interval was -.88 to -.62. Based on the T-test data, parents believed that they collaborate more with the school than teachers perceive parent collaboration.

Table 5: Independent T-Test

Combined Scores TCP, PCS	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
	F	Sig			
Equal variances assumed	109.999	.000	-11.365	438	.000
Equal variances not assumed			-11.365	379.842	.000

H6: Teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration will have a significant effect on parent perception of collaboration, parental involvement, and parent trust in the school while controlling for percent of free and reduce lunch and years of teaching experience.

In order to test the variables in hypothesis six, block regression analyses were conducted to evaluate the effects of the independent variables of teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parent on the dependent variables parent involvement, parent perception of collaboration with school, and parent trust in school while controlling for percent of free and reduced lunch and years of teaching experience.

The first block regression analysis (Table 6) was performed to determine if the independent variables teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration predicted parent involvement with school above and beyond the effects of teacher years of experience and free and reduced price lunch percentage. Step 1, the percent of free and reduced price lunch and years of teaching experience were entered into Block 1. Step 2, teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents were entered in Block 2.

Years of teaching experience was not a significant predictor of parent involvement. However, percent of free and reduced price lunch ($b = -.14, p < .05$) was a negative predictor of parent involvement. Next, teacher academic optimism had a significant effect on parent involvement ($b = .18, p < .05$) and teacher perception of collaboration with parents had a significant negative effect ($b = -.13, p < .05$) on parent involvement.

Table 6: Parent Involvement was regressed on YOE, F/RL, TAO, TCP

	Beta Weight	T	Significance
Years of Teaching Experience	.12	1.75	.08
Free/Reduced Lunch%	-.14	-2.01	.04*
Teacher Academic Optimism	.18	2.65	.01*
Teacher Collaboration with Parent	-.13	-2.04	.04*

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

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

The second block regression analysis in (Table 7) was performed to determine if the independent variables teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration predicted parent perception of collaboration with school above and beyond the effects of teacher years of experience and free and reduced price lunch. Step 1, percent of free and reduced price lunch and years of teaching experience were entered into Block 1. Step 2, teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents were entered in Block 2.

Table 7 shows that the years of teaching experience and teacher perception of collaboration with parent did not predict parent collaboration with the school. Free and reduced price lunch ($b = -.50, p < .01$) was negatively associated with parental collaboration. This implies that in low socioeconomic school, parents are less likely to collaborate with schools. However, teacher academic optimism was negatively associated with parent collaboration ($b = -.10, p < .01$), suggesting that the stronger the teacher academic optimism the less likely teachers were to collaborate with parents

Table 7: Parent Collaboration with School was regressed on YOE, F/RL, TAO, TCP

	Beta Weight	T	Significance
Years of Teaching Experience	-.11	-1.74	.083
Free/Reduced Lunch %	-.50	-7.72	.000**
Teacher Academic Optimism	-.10	-1.54	.012**
Teacher Collaboration with Parent	.10	1.72	.088

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

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

The final block regression analysis (Table 8) was performed to determine if the independent variables teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration predicted parent trust in the school above and beyond the effects of teacher years of experience and free and reduced price lunch. Step 1, percent of free and reduced price lunch and years of

teaching experience were entered into Block 1. Step 2, teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents were entered in Block 2. The dependent variable was parent trust in school.

Years of teaching experience and free and reduced price lunch were not associated with parent trust in the school. Teacher academic optimism had a significant effect on parent trust in the school ($b = .09, p < .01$) and teacher perception of collaboration with parent had a negative effect on parent trust in school ($b = -.23, p < .01$). This would indicate that the more optimistic the teachers are the more parents tend to trust in the school. However, this did not seem to have a positive effect on teachers' willingness to collaborate with parents. See Table 8 for an explanation of this regression analysis.

Table 8: Parent Trust in School was regressed on YOE, F/RL, TAO, TCP

	Beta Weight	T	Significance
Years of Teaching Experience	.09	1.34	.183
Free/Reduced Lunch %	.11	1.56	.119
Teacher Academic Optimism	.22	3.16	.002 *
Teacher Collaboration with Parent	-.23	-3.42	.001 *

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

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

Unhypothesized Findings

A correlation analysis was performed using the independent variables and dependent variables in the study. The first unhypothesized finding was that parent trust in the school was significantly correlated with parent involvement at ($r = .60, p < .01$). Another unhypothesized finding was teacher perception of collaboration with parents was negatively correlated with years

of teaching experience ($r = -.14, p < .05$) suggesting that teachers with less experience were more willing to collaborate with parents. Teacher perception of collaboration with parents was negatively correlated with parent trust in the school ($r = -.22, p < .01$). This would suggest that when teachers are unwilling to collaborate with parents, parents are less likely to develop trust in the school. These negative relationships make for an ineffective school. The final unhypothesized finding was that parents perceived that they were collaborating more with teacher than teachers were collaborating with them.

Teacher Years of Experience across Schools

The descriptive data for the current research study consisted of 7 elementary schools with a total of 220 teachers (Table 9). According to survey responses, teacher years of experience varied across the seven schools. This study did not test for school effects on individual responses, however, to further explore the findings that teacher years of experience was negatively correlated with teachers' willingness to collaborate with parents a second post hoc analysis was conducted using a one – way ANOVA.

Table 9: Descriptive Data for Individual School

Schools	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
School 1	3.20	41	1.08
School 2	2.80	29	1.11
School 3	3.58	31	.720
School 4	2.60	30	1.16
School 5	3.16	37	.90
School 6	2.75	24	.90
School 7	2.96	28	1.29
Total	3.03	220	1.07

The researcher considered teacher years of experience (Table 10) across schools to determine if there was a likelihood of a school difference in teacher years of experience. The results indicated a significant difference ($F=3.16$, $p < .01$) across schools. It appeared that while teachers with more years of experience were less likely to collaborate with parents, years of experience varied across schools. Suggesting that this effect may have been compounded by school effects. While this was not hypothesized by the researcher or information included in the literature review, this unexpected finding may be the result of several underlying factors: the school administrator's willingness to protect the teachers' instructional time, teachers' reputation, and teachers' personal beliefs about their teaching methodology. Lastly, the superintendent's emphasis on parent contact and collaboration may also influence whether teachers are willing to collaborate with parents. Some schools may have significantly more experienced teachers. It is likely that this would contribute to teachers' tendency to protect instructional time over collaboration with parents, although this study was not designed to explore these effects. See Table 10 for an explanation of the ANOVA of years of teaching experience across schools.

Table 10: Years of Teaching Experience Data

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	20.340	6	3.390	3.161	.005**
Within Groups	228.437	213	1.072		
Total	248.77	219			

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

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

Conclusion

The results of this study did not support all six hypotheses. Hypothesis (1), which stated teacher academic optimism would be significantly correlated to parent trust in the school was confirmed. Hypothesis (2), which stated teacher academic optimism will be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration with the school was not supported. Hypothesis (3), which stated teacher academic optimism would be significantly correlated to parent involvement in the school, was confirmed. Hypothesis (4), which stated teacher academic optimism would be significantly correlated to teacher perception of school effectiveness, was confirmed. Hypothesis (5), which stated teacher perception of collaboration with parents will be correlated with parent perception of collaboration with the school, was not supported. Hypothesis (6), which stated teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents would have significant effect on parent involvement, parent perception of collaboration with school, and parent trust in school was partially confirmed.

- (1) Teacher academic optimism had a positive effect on parent involvement.
- (2) Teacher perception of collaboration did not have a positive effect on parent involvement.
- (3) Years of teaching experience and free and reduced lunch did not have a positive effect on parent involvement.
- (4) Teacher academic optimism did not have a positive effect on parent perception of collaboration.
- (5) Teacher perception of collaboration with parents did not have a positive effect on parent perception of collaboration.
- (6) Years of teaching experience and free and reduced lunch did not have a positive effect on parent perception of collaboration.
- (7) Teacher academic optimism had a positive effect on parent trust in the school.

(8) Teacher perception of collaboration with parents did not have a positive effect on parent trust in the school.

A more comprehensive discussion will be presented in chapter five.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings of the current study. The chapter summarizes the purpose and findings of the study while providing theoretical and practical implications of the research. Finally, recommendations for further research are provided to extend inquiry.

The primary purpose of this dissertation was to examine the possible correlations among the independent variables: teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents and the dependent variables: parent trust in the school, parent involvement, parent perception of collaboration, and school effectiveness. The general problem of the study is the gap in the literature about the correlations between teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration and parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement and school effectiveness.

Statement of Findings

1. Teacher academic optimism was significantly correlated to parent trust in the school.
2. Teacher academic optimism was not significantly correlated to parent perception of collaboration with the school.
3. Teacher academic optimism was significantly correlated with parent involvement in the school.
4. Teacher academic optimism was significantly correlated with teacher perception of school effectiveness.

5. Teacher perception of collaboration was not correlated with parent perception of collaboration.
6. Parent perception of collaboration was significantly greater than teacher perception of collaboration.
7. Years of teaching experience and percent of free and reduced lunch did not have a positive effect on parent involvement, parent trust in the school, or parent perception of collaboration.
8. Teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents were inter-correlated with parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, parent trust, and school effectiveness.
9. Teacher perception of collaboration was negatively correlated with years of teaching experience.

Theoretical Implications

The hypothesized correlations guiding this research were derived from the theoretical and empirical knowledge about teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration as they correlate with parent trust in school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness. To the researcher's knowledge, research studies involving teacher academic optimism are limited. This study extends the research on teacher academic optimism by looking at the correlation between teacher academic optimism, teacher perception of collaboration, and parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, parent trust in the school, and school effectiveness. Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk Hoy, (2006) measured academic optimism at the school level, not the individual teacher level. Beard, Hoy, Woolfolk Hoy conceptualized the meaning and measure of teacher academic optimism in their 2009 research study.

Teacher Academic Optimism

The first hypothesis argued that teacher academic optimism would be significantly correlated with parent trust in the school was supported. Recall that teacher academic optimism is theoretically defined as a set of beliefs held by individual teachers that they can teach effectively, their students can learn and their parents will support them so the teacher can press hard for learning (Beard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2009). When teachers exhibit high levels of optimism for learning, they are more likely to trust parents to share their knowledge and skills to achieve the mission of educating students successfully. Also, trust relationships are predicated on the belief that both parties are honest, reliable, benevolent, competent, and open about doing what is right with students. If teachers believe that they are able to affect student learning, then they set higher expectations, exert greater effort, and persist in the face of difficulties.

Another fact is that parents who trust educators to care for their children exhibit confidence that the educators will act with the best interest of their children in mind and that their children will consistently be treated with fairness and compassion. Teachers want to feel assured that they will be treated fairly and with respect by the clients (parents and students). According to Tschannen-Moran, teachers are willing to go the extra mile to meet the high demands that parents place on them because of the level of support they receive.

The second hypothesis stated that teacher academic optimism would be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration with the school was not supported. Researchers acknowledge that parents from all levels bring to schools valuable resources and unique perspectives which could enhance the home –school connection. This may increase opportunities for more parent collaboration with the school.

The third hypothesis stated that teacher academic optimism would be significantly correlated with parent involvement was supported. Aligned with Hoover- Dempsey, Bassier, & Brissie's findings, some schools actively cultivate parent or family involvement, the collective attitude of teachers and administrators being one of openness (Tschannen- Moran, 2014, p. 204) and welcome. In these schools, school personnel genuinely believe that families have valuable contributions to make in regard to their children's education.

Baker and Stevenson echoed that often educated mothers tended to have more information about school and were more likely to take action to address their child's school problems than less educated mothers. Another finding was the age and the gender of the child influence the degree of parental involvement. Parents of elementary age children tend to be more involved in school activities than parents of high school age students. The parent's perception of school involvement may not equate to the teacher's perception of parent involvement which will be discussed in hypothesis five.

Researchers verified that varying levels of teacher involvement with parents in elementary school would be correlated with variations in qualities of the school settings, specifically school socioeconomic status, teacher degree level, grade level, teacher's sense of efficacy, principal's perception of teacher efficacy, organizational rigidity, and instructional coordination (Hoover- Dempsey, Bassier, & Brissie 1987). Outside the narrowly prescribed indicators of parental involvement in elementary schools, parents are going beyond parent-teacher conferences, parent in classroom volunteer work, parent involvement in homework, and parent involvement in carrying out home instructional programs designed by the teacher to support regular classroom instruction to being active engaged in educational settings.

Hoy & Tarter's research supports the results that highly motivated teachers in a structure of support directly improves student learning because teachers who are self-efficacious are more likely to exert more effort, persist in teaching, use multiple methods of instructions and are less likely to become discouraged with initial disappointment. Teachers' and school leaders' level of trust in parents, whether high or low, is quite evident to parents' trust of the school. Attitudes about trust are not easily faked. Therefore, the trust teachers extend to parents will set an important tone for those vital relationships.

The fourth hypothesis predicted that teacher academic optimism would be correlated to teachers' perception of school effectiveness was supported in this study. Studies have demonstrated the power of positive efficacy judgments in human learning and academic success (Goddard et al, 2004). Educational researchers found associations between student achievement and three sets of efficacy beliefs of teachers (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Teacher academic optimism gives a rich explanation of teacher behavior in terms of the cognitive, affective, and behavior dimensions. These three elements of academic optimism are in dynamic and reciprocal relationship with each other. That is, academic emphasis facilitates efficacy, which in turns reinforces academic emphasis. Further, efficacy creates trust in parents, which promotes more trust; and finally trust nurtures academic emphasis.

The current research finding also coincides with Hoy and his colleagues (1991) data which demonstrated that even when controlling for SES, teachers with a strong academic emphasis was positively and directly related to school effectiveness. According to Hoy and his colleagues (2006) a strong academic emphasis is potent force in many school effectiveness models. These models include teacher commitment, teachers' judgment of the effectiveness of their school or the innovation, adaptability, flexibility, and efficiency of the school. Faculty trust

in parents and students and teacher efficacy are both constructs of academic optimism which serve to strengthened school effectiveness.

Effectiveness was described by teachers' perceptions of the quantity and quality of the instruction, learning and extracurricular events of the school as well as the efficient operation and the school's ability to adapt (Tarter et al., 1995). In schools where teacher academic optimism is significant, teachers are committed to the goals of the school, efficacious, go beyond teaching expectations, engage students in innovative learning experiences, parents participate, and there is a culture of trust. Trust, in other word, is that general expectancy held by teachers that not only the clients, but colleagues, and the principal's words, actions, written or verbal statements can be relied upon. These elements help organizations like schools to mobilize its centers of power for action, to achieve goals and adapt to the environmental surroundings.

The fifth hypothesis which stated that teacher perception of collaboration would be significantly correlated with parent perception of collaboration was not supported in this study. However, pertinent information was extracted from the data. In a post hoc analysis using an independent t-test to test for variance, it was found that parent perception of collaboration is stronger than teacher perception of collaboration.

Collaboration requires parties to come together and to share both responsibility and accountability. This process often places individuals in a vulnerable position (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). To collaborate effectively with parents, teachers must trust that the parents will behave in ways that are right and good. Mitchell et al. (2011) stressed that if principals, teachers, parents, and students are going to collaborate, they must behave in expected ways that inspire trust in their role group. Parent collaboration enhances the overall learning success for students from all backgrounds. Studies have shown that both trust and collaboration improve organizational

efficiency and effectiveness (Hoy & Kupersmith, 1984). Schools with high levels of trust are more likely to have high levels of collaboration with parents on school level decisions. Teachers say they want parents to collaborate with the school; however teachers must present opportunities for collaboration and trust parents to contribute to the overall mission of the school, student academic success. It is undeniable that collaboration between individuals in a school and community brings about an amount of risk and vulnerability. Teachers face uncertainties when bringing parents into the school environment. Parents and teacher expectations are not always the identical.

Teachers say they want parents to assist with making curricula decision, evaluating programs, developing lessons, and setting goals for the school. However, teachers do not extend an invitation to parents when these issues arise. Parents expect teachers to be open, honest, respectful, and willing to extend opportunities for them to connect with teachers through classroom visits and participation, communicating effectively, informing parents of community resources or supports, listening to their concerns, and treating them with mutual respect during collaboration. Tschannen-Moran (2001) found that schools with high levels of trust could be predicted to be schools where there is a high level of collaboration. Particularly, when there was a high level of trust in parents and students, there was more likely to be a high level of collaboration with parents and among the faculty.

Finally, hypothesis six stated that teacher academic optimism and teacher perception of collaboration with parents would have a significant effect on parent perception of collaboration , parent trust in the school, and parent involvement while controlling for free and reduce lunch and years of teaching experience was partially supported. However, Hoover –Dempsey, Bassier (1987) concluded that teacher efficacy or teacher academic optimism was significantly cor-

related to the teachers' report of parents' involvement in conferences, volunteering, and home tutoring, as well as teacher perception of parent support. That correlation was grounded in the logical probability that teachers with a higher sense of personal teaching efficacy, being more confident of their teaching skills, are more likely to invite parent involvement and to accept parents' initiation of involvement activities. However, the findings of this study do not support this. In a post hoc analysis using an independent t-test to test for variance, parent perception of collaboration is stronger than teacher perception of collaboration. Teachers are often hesitant about collaborating with parents because parents have not been viewed as an integral part of the instructional decision making process. Collaboration between teachers and parents start with openness and transparency. Parents need information from teachers that will enable them to informally support their teaching efforts without the professional credentials. Creating school-family problem solving teams to is just one example to addressing communicating mutually shared system or school level concerns for children (homework, discipline, expectations). Adams & Christianson (2000) stated that collaboration requires good communication skills on the part of the educator. As with other relationships, poorly planned or very negative interaction between the teacher and parent may be more damaging than no interaction at all.

Parents (Dauber & Epstein, 1993) often wait to be directed by the school personal for ways they can help their children become more successful. When schools create open and inviting environments, opportunities will be created for both formal and informal collaboration between the teacher and parent and trust is the key.

The results from this study have implications for both teachers and administrators. Since teacher academic optimism is related to parent trust, parent involvement, and school

effectiveness, it is suggested that schools leaders develop innovative strategies to increase teacher and parent collaboration to impact the culture of the school.

Teacher academic optimism reflects the teacher's belief about his or her ability to predict a difference in the overall effectiveness of the school. Optimistic teachers set higher expectations, exert greater effort, and persist in the face of difficulties. Trust and mutual respect among constituents enable teachers to be innovative without fear of repercussion. Parents entrust their children into the care of the school and the teachers who serve them. Therefore, teachers are in day- to-day contact with student and should be committed to the goals of the organization. Teachers perceive collaboration with parents as an important element in meeting the student and parent needs. Teachers who trust parents and students are more likely to create opportunities for parent involvement in the school which should predict more parent trust in the school. Parents trust in the school and parent involvement should predict greater school effectiveness even while controlling for free and reduced lunch and years of teaching experience. Teacher collaboration with parents had no effect on years of teaching experience. Teachers were willing to collaborate with parents no matter the number of years of teaching experience.

However, the researcher explored teacher years of experience across schools to determine if there was a likelihood of a school difference among teacher years of experience. The results indicated a significant difference across schools in this study. It appeared that teachers with more years of experience were less likely to collaborate with parents. This may reflect the administrator belief about protecting instructional time, and teachers' personal beliefs about their teaching methodology. Parents are too apprehensive to approach veteran teachers because of their reputation. Lastly, the superintendent's emphasis on parent contact and collaboration may also influence teachers' lack of collaborating with parents. However, it is

likely that there may also be a school effect on teachers' years of experience that may be contributing to teacher willingness to collaborate with parents although this study was not designed to explore those effects.

Practical Implications

A practical implication of this research is that schools need teachers who are academically optimistic. These are teachers who possess the belief that their ability will contribute well to student learning by effectively collaborating with students and parents and by trusting that their own capacity to stand against negative situations, Hoy et al. (2006). Individual sense of academic optimism is comprised of teacher sense of self-efficacy, teacher trust in parents and students, and teacher academic emphasis (Beard et al., 2010).

Administrators set the tone in schools and are responsible for building and maintaining trusting relationships. Tschannen-Moran (2004) emphasized the usefulness of considering the five facets of trust (benevolence, honesty, openness, reliability, and competency) in relation to five constituencies of schools; teachers, parents, students, principals, and the community. Principals play an important role in creating the context for trust to develop between parents and the school and between teachers and parents. Trust among school members is regarded as a critical component producing significant improvement in student learning (Kurz, 2006).

Teachers can establish relationships with parents by their positive interactions with students. If students feel a sense of safety and security with teachers, they are more likely to express this sense of trust and caring to their parents. When positive teacher- client relationships exist, teachers can perform more effectively to increase the quality of classroom practices which in turn enhances teacher trust of other parties of the school. While this study this did not focus on students, it is likely that students become more open and motivated to learn when teachers trust

them (Woolfolk Hoy et al, 2008). In an atmosphere where trust between parents and students exist, parent involvement and collaboration become easier.

In the current study, teacher perception of collaboration and parent perception of collaboration differed than what was predicted. Collaboration with parents is essential to student learning. Collaboration fosters efficiency and strengthens inter-and intra-organizational ties. Administrator must extend opportunities for parents and teachers to engage in community and school activities that strengthens the trust in the school. Bryk (2010) found that when schools strengthened ties to parents and the community even attendance improved over time. Strong social ties increase the social cohesion within the school creating a more effective school. Administrators could host parent meetings in local communities, include parents on hiring committee and leadership teams.

To my knowledge, this is the first study that has explored the variables teacher academic optimism and school effectiveness. However, there are research studies linking school academic optimism and school effectiveness (Hoy et al, 2006). Effective schools are places where members share in the values of the organization, are willing to exert extra effort in their roles, and desire to continue their membership in the organization; teacher commitment is central to organization life (Hoy, Tarter, Bliss, 1990). The school leaders should be aware of the general level of productivity, adaptability, and efficiency of their school (Hoy & Miskel, 1972). Individuals inhabit organizations and their skills and motivations are critical to completing the mission. As faculty members view their colleagues as capable of overcoming the daily challenges of students' background or difficulties in teaching, it encourages them to increase their efforts, persistence, and resilience in the classroom (Hoy et al., 2002).

Recommendations for Further Research

To the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study to examine the correlations between teacher academic optimism, teacher perception of collaboration with parents and parent trust in the school, parent perception of collaboration, parent involvement, and school effectiveness while controlling for both free and reduced lunch and years of teaching experience.

Teacher academic optimism is a new construct that was linked to parent trust in the school, parent involvement, and school effectiveness in this study. This study supplied only a small glimpse into the research on teacher academic optimism and should be researched further.

First, this study has the ability to contribute important elements for both theoretical and practical use in improving school effectiveness, increasing relationships with parents, and teacher academic optimism.

Second, this study should be extended further to verify these findings and compare these variables with other variables. Third, the correlation between teacher academic optimism, parent trust in the school, and parent involvement should be further explored with parents of students with disabilities. Fourth, the correlation between teacher collaboration with parents and years of teaching experience should be further explored with parent involvement and parent collaboration in high schools. This study did not explore school effects due to the small sample size. Future research using a larger sample size to study these variables along with years of teaching experience in middle or high school may be more informative.

Limitations

There are a few limitations with this study that may prevent generalizing these results beyond this sample. First, the participants in this case study were from one school district which included 7 elementary schools. A second limitation was the sample size. A total of 220 teachers

and 214 parents completed surveys. A third limitation was that the study relied upon participants' honesty and accuracy in completing and returning the surveys. A fourth limitation was that it appeared that teacher years of experience varied across schools but this study was not designed to explore individual effects along with school effects.

Finally, this study only included elementary schools consisting of grade 4. Researchers should extend this study to include both middle and high school parents and teachers which may view parent involvement, teacher trust in parents and students, and collaboration differently. Studies have shown that parent involvement and collaboration wanes as students move from elementary to high school.

Conclusion

Several bodies of literature comprise the basis for this study: teacher academic optimism, teacher perception of collaboration with parent, parent perception of collaboration, parent trust in the school, parent involvement, and school effectiveness. Research on teacher academic optimism is worth expanding into other avenues. School communities would benefit greatly from the future research. This study suggests that teacher academic optimism impacts parent trust, parent involvement, and school effectiveness. The greater the teacher academic optimism, the more parents support the goals and objectives of the school, collaborate, trust, and these variables appear to be a catalyst for school effectiveness.

REFERENCES

- Adams, C.M., Forsyth, P. B., & Mitchell, R. A. (2009). The formation of Parent-School Trust: A multilevel analysis: *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 45, 4-33.
- Adams, K. S., Christenson, S. L., (2000). Trust and the family-school relationship Examination of parent-teacher differences in elementary and secondary grades: *Journal of School Psychology*, 38, 477-497.
- Baier, A. C. (1986). Trust and antitrust. *Ethics*, 96 (2), 231-260.
- Baker & Stevenson (1986). Mothers' strategies for children's school achievement: Managing the transition to high school. *Sociology of Education*, 59, 156-166.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Barnes, L., Mitchell, R. M., Forsyth, P. B., & Adams, C. M. (2005). The effects of parental trust on perceived collective influence and school involvement. Paper presented at American Educational Research Annual Convention in New Orleans, LA.
- Bass, B., Avolio, B.J., & Goodheim, L. (1987). Biography and the assessment of transformational leadership at the world class level. *Journal of Management*, 13, 7-19.
- Beard, K.S., Hoy, W.K. & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2009). Academic optimism of individual teachers: Conforming a new construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 1136-1144.
- Becker & Epstein (1982). Parent Involvement: A study of teacher practices. *Elementary School Journal*, 83, 85-102.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2003). *Reforming Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership*, 3rd ed., Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Bryk, A. (2010). Organizing Schools for Improvement, *Kappan* (91) 7, 23-30.
- Bryk, A. S., & Schneider, B. (2002) *Trust in schools: A core resource for improvement*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1991). What do families do? Parts 1 and 2. *Teaching Thinking and Problem Solving*, 4(1-2), 1, 3-6, 13-15.
- Cameron, K. S., Whetten, D. A. (1995). Organizational effectiveness and equality: The second presentation. *Higher Education: Handbook of Theory and Research*, 11, 265-306.
- Chiles, T. H., & McMacking, J. E. (1996). Integrating variable risk preferences, trust, and transaction cost economics. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(1), 73-99.
- Clark, M. & Payne, R. (2006). Character-based determinants of trust in leaders. *Risk Analysis*, 26 (5), 1161-1173.
- Coleman, J.S. (1990). Foundations of social theory. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Comer, J. P., Haynes, N.M., Joyner, E. T. & Ben-Avie, M., (1996). Rallying the whole village: The Comer process for reforming education. New York: Teacher College Press.
- Conely, S., Schmittle, T, & Shedd, J. (1988). "Teacher participation in the management of school systems", *Teachers College Record*, 90, pp. 259-80.
- Cosner, S. (2010). Drawing on knowledge-based trust perspective to examine and conceptualize within-school trust development by principals. *Journal of School Leadership*. 20 (2) 117-144.
- Cox, H., & Wood, J. R. (1980). Organizational structure and professional alienation: The case of the public school. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 51, (1)1-6.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of test. *Psychometrika*, 16 (3) 297-334.
- DeCotitis, T. A. & Summers, T. P. (1987). A path analysis of a model of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. *Human Relations*, 40, 445-470.
- Deutsch, M. (1958). Trust and suspicion. *The Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 2 (4). 265-279.
- Deutsch, M (1960). The effect of motivational orientation upon trust and suspicion. *Human Relations*, 13, 123-139.
- Deutsch, M. (1962). Trust, trustworthiness, and the F Scale. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 61, 138-140.
- DiPaola, M., & Hoy, W. K. (2005). Organizational citizenship of faculty and student achievement. *The High School Journal*, 88 (3), 35-44.
- Dirks, K. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(3), 445-455.

- Dirks, K. & Skarlicki, D. (2004). Trust in leaders: Existing research and emerging issues. In R. Kramer & K. Cook (Eds.), *Trust and distrust in organizations: Dilemmas and approaches* (pp. 21-40). Thousand Oaks, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Dirks, K. T. & Ferrin, D.L. (2001). The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organization Sciences*, 12(4), 450-467.
- Dodd, A. W., & Konzal, J. L., (2002). *How communities build stronger schools: stories, strategies, and promising practices for educating every child*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership*, 37, (1), 15-24.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Some schools work and more can. *Social Policy*. 9, 28-32.
- Edmondson, R. (2004). Psychological safety, trust, and learning in organizations: A group-level lens. In R. Kramer & cook (Eds.) *Trust and distrust in organizations: Dilemmas and approaches* (pp. 239-272). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Epstein, J. L. (1986). Parents' reactions to teacher practices of parent involvement. *Elementary School Journal*, 86, 277-294.
- Epstein, J. L. (1987). What principals should know about parent involvement. *Principal*, 66, 6-9.
- Epstein, J. L. (1991). Effects on student achievement of teacher practices of involvement. In S. Silvern (Ed.), *Literacy through family, community and school interaction* (pp.261-276) Greenwich, CT: JAI.
- Epstein, J. L. (1992). "School and family partnerships." In *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 6th ed., Marvin Alkin: 1139-1151. New York: Macmillan, 1992.
- Epstein, J. L. (1994). "Theory to Practice: School and Family Partnerships Lead to School Improvement and Student Success." In *School, Family, and Community Interaction: A view from the Firing Lines*, ed. Cheryl L. Fangano and Beverly Z. Werber: 39-52. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Epstein, J. L. (1995) School/family/community partnerships: Caring for the children we share. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76 (9), 701-712.
- Epstein, J. L. (2010) *School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Epstein, J. L., & Dauber, S. L. (1991). School programs and teacher practices of parent involvement in inner-city elementary and middle schools. *The Elementary School Journal*. 91, (3) 289-305.

- Erikson, E. H. (1953). Growth and crises of the “healthy personality”. In J. Rotter (Eds.) *Measurement of interpersonal trust*, 1967.
- Etzioni, A. (1961). *A comparative analysis of complex organizations: On power, involvement and their correlates*. New York: Free Press.
- Fan, X., Chen, M., (2001). Parental involvement and student’s academic achievement: A meta-analysis: *Educational Psychology Review*, 13, 1-22.
- Forsyth, P. B., Adams, C. M., & Barnes, L. B. (2004). Parent trust and school consequences. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego (cited in Adams, Forsyth, Mitchell, 2009).
- Forsyth, P. B., Adams, C. M., & Hoy, W. K. (2011) Collective Trust: why schools can’t improve without it. New York, NY: Teacher College Press.
- Forsyth, P.B., Barnes, L.B., & Adams, C. M., (2006) Trust -Effectiveness patterns in schools. *The Journal of Educational Administration*, 44 (2) 122-141.
- Fukuyama, F. (1996) *Trust: Social virtues and the creation of prosperity*: London: Hamish Hamilton.
- Goddard, R. D., Salloum, S. J., & Berebitsky, D. (2006). An empirical examination of the importance of relational trust to academic achievement. Paper presented at annual general meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- Goddard, R.D., Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, W.K., (2001). A multilevel examination of the distribution and effects of trust in students and parents in urban elementary schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, 102, 3-17.
- Granovetter, M. (1985). Economic action and social structure. The problem of embeddedness. *American Journal of Sociology*, 91 (3), 481-510.
- Grolnick, W.S., & Slowiazek, M.L., (1994). Parent’s involvement in children’s schooling: A multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. *Child Development*, 65, 237-252.
- Haynes, N.M. Comer, J.P. & Hamilton-Lee, M. (1989). School climate enhancement through parental involvement. *Journal of School Psychology*, 27, 87-90.
- Hill, N., Craft, S. (2003) Parent –School Involvement and school performance: mediated pathways among socioeconomically comparable African American and euro-American families. *Journal of Education*. 95, 74-83.
- Hill, N. E., Taylor, L. C., (2004). Parental School Involvement and Children’s Academic Achievement: Pragmatics and Issues: *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 13, 161-164.

- Hoffman, J. D., Sabo, D., Bliss, J., & Hoy, W. K. (1994) Building a culture of trust. *Journal of School Leadership*, 3, 484-501.
- Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., Bassier, O.C., & Brissie, J. S. (1987). Parental involvement: contributions to teacher efficacy, school socioeconomic status, and other school characteristics: *American Educational Research Journal*, 24, 417-435.
- Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., Bassier, O.C., & Brissie, J. S. (1992). Explorations in parent-school relations: *Journal of Educational Research*, 85, (3) 287-294.
- Hoover-Dempsey K. V, & Sandler, H.M. (1995). Parental Involvement in children's education; Why does it make a difference? *Teacher College Record* 97: 310-331.
- Hoover-Dempsey K. V, & Sandler, H.M. (1997). Why do parents become involved in their children's education? *Review of Educational Research*, 67, 3-42.
- Hoy, W. K. (2002). Faculty trust: A key to student achievement. *Journal of School Public Relations*, 23 (2), 88-103.
- Hoy, W.K., Ferguson, J., (1985). A theoretical framework and exploration of organizational effectiveness of schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 21, (2), 117-134.
- Hoy, W.K. & Henderson, J. E., (1983) Principal authenticity, school climate, and pupil control orientation. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 2, 123-130.
- Hoy, W. K., & Kupper-Smith, W. J. (1985). The meaning and measure of faculty trust. *Educational and Psychological Research*, 5, 1-10.
- Hoy, W.K., & Miskel, C.G. (2001). Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice, 6th ed. McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.
- Hoy, W.K., & Miskel, C.G. (2005). *Educational Administration: Theory, research, and practice* (7th Ed.) New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hoy, W. K., & Sabo, D. J. (1998). *Quality middle schools: Open and Healthy*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Hoy, W. K., Sabo, D. J., & Tarter, C. J. (1995). Middle school climate, faculty trust and effectiveness. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 29, 41-49.
- Hoy, W. K., Sabo, D. J., & Barnes, K. (1996). Organizational health and faculty trust: A view from the middle level. *Research in Middle Level Education Quarterly*, 21-39.
- Hoy, W. K., Smith, P. A., & Sweetland, S. R. (2002). The development of the organizational climate index for high schools: Its measure and relationship to faculty trust. *The High School Journal*, 86 (2), 38-49.

- Hoy, W. K., Smith, P. A., & Sweetland, S. R. (2002). Towards an organizational model of achievement in high schools: The significance of collective efficacy. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38 (2), 77-93.
- Hoy, W. K., Tarter, C. J., & Bliss, I. (1990). Organizational climate, school health and effectiveness. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 26 (1), 38-45.
- Hoy, W. K., Tarter, C.J., & Witkoskie, L. (1992). Faculty trust in colleagues: Linking the principal with school effectiveness. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*. 26(1), 38-45.
- Hoy, W. K., Tarter, C.J., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2006). *Academic optimism of schools: A force of student achievement. American Educational Research Journal*, 43, 425-446.
- Hoy, W.K., Tschannen-Moran, M (1999). Five facets of trust: An empirical confirmation in urban elementary schools. *Journal of School Leadership*, 9, 184-208.
- Hoy, W.K., Tschannen-Moran, M (2003). *The conceptualization and measurement of faculty trust in schools: Studies in leading and organizing schools (pp. 181-207)*. New York: Information Age Publishing.
- Hoy, W.K., Tschannen-Moran, M (2007). *Essential Ideas for the Reform of American Schools*, pp. 87-114. New York: Information Age Publishing.
- Hoy, W.K., & DiPaola, M., (2007). *Essential Ideas for the Reform of American Schools*: Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Lewicki, R. J., & Bunker, B. B. (1996). Developing and maintaining trust in work relationships. In R. Kramer & Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.
- Lewis, D.J., & Weigert, A. (1985). Trust as a social reality. *Social Forces*, 63(4), 967-985.
- Lightfoot, (1981). Towards conflict and resolution: Relationships between families and school. *Theory into Practice*, 20, 97-103.
- Louis, K. S. (2007). Trust and improvement in schools. *Journal of Educational Change*, 8(1)1-24
- McGuigan, L., Hoy, W. K., (2006) Principal leadership: Creating a culture of academic optimism to improve academic achievement for all students. *Leadership and Policy in School*, 5, 203-229,
- Miedel, W.T., & Reynolds, A. J. (1999). Parent involvement in early intervention for disadvantaged children: Does it matter? *Journal of School Psychology*, 37, 370-402.
- Mitchell, R. M., & Forsyth, P. B. (2004). Trust, the principal and student identification. Paper presented at annual general meeting of the American Educational Research Annual Convention in Montreal, Canada.

- Mitchell, R., Ripley, J., Adams, C., & Raju, D. (2011). Trust an essential ingredient in collaborative decision making. *Journal of School Public Relations*, 32, 145-170.
- Mishra, A. K. (1996). Organizational responses to crisis: The centrality of trust. In R. Kramer and T. Tyler (Eds.) *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp, 261-287). Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.
- Miskel, C., Fervurly, R., & Stewart, J. (1979). Organizational structures and processes, perceived school effectiveness, loyalty, and job satisfaction. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 5, 97-118.
- Miskel, C., McDonald, D. & Bloom, S. (1983) Structural and expectancy linkages within schools and organizational effectiveness. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 19, 49-82.
- Mott, P. E. (1972). *The characteristics of effective organizations*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Parsons, T. (1960). *Structure and process in modern societies*. Glencoe, IL; Free Press.
- Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990) Transformational leaders behaviors and their effect on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors, *Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107-142.
- Ross, J. A. (1998). Antecedents and consequences of teacher efficacy and the effect of coaching on student achievement. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 17 (1), 51-65.
- Rotter, J. B. (1967). A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Personality*, 35, 651-665.
- Rousseau, D., Sitkin, S.B., Burt, R., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *The Academy of Management Review*, 23(3), 393-404.
- Salancik, G.R., & Pfeffer, J., (1978) "A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, (23), 226-227.
- Seligman, M. E. P. (1998). Positive social science. *APA Monitor*, 29 (2), 5.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Sheldon, S. B. (2003). Linking school-family-community partnerships in urban elementary schools to student achievement on state test. *The Urban Review*, 35,149-165.
- Sheldon, S. B. & Epstein, J.L. (2005). Involvement counts; family and community partnerships, and mathematics achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 196-206.
- Smith. P. A., Hoy, W.K., (2007). Academic optimism and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 45, 556-568 (Hoy, 1800).

- Springfield, S. & Herman, R. (1996). Assessment of the state of school effectiveness research in the United States of America. *School Effectiveness & School Improvement*, 7, 159-180.
- Tarter, C. J., & Hoy, W. K. (2004). Administrators solving the problems of practice: Decision-making concepts, cues, and consequences. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tarter, C. J., Sabo, D. & Hoy, W.K. (1995) Middle school climate, faculty trust and effectiveness: a path analysis. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 29, 41-49.
- Thurston, L. P. (1989). Helping parents tutor their children: A success story. *Academic Therapy*, 24, 579-587.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., (2001). Collaboration and the need for trust: *Journal of Educational Administration*, 39, 308-331.
- Tschannen-Moran, M. (2004). *Trust matters: Leadership for successful schools*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, W.K. (1998). Trust in schools: A conceptual and empirical analysis. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 36, 334-352.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, W.K. (1999). Five faces of trust: An empirical confirmation in urban elementary schools. *Journal of School Leadership*, 9, 184-208.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, W.K. (2000). A multidisciplinary analysis of the nature, meaning, and measurement of trust. *Review of Education Research*, 70, 1-38.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Tyler, T. R. & DeGoey, P. (1996) Trust in organizational authorities. In R.M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp.331-350). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Uline, C., Miller, D., Tschannen-Moran (1998). School Effectiveness: The underlying dimensions. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 34 (4), 462-483.
- Voelkl, K. E. (1997). Identification with schools. *American Journal of Education*, 105 (3), 294-318.
- Vosler-Hunter, R. W. (1989). *Changing roles, changing relationships: Parents and professional collaboration on behalf of children with emotional disabilities*. Portland, OR; Portland State University, Research and Training Center on Family Support and Children's mental Health.

- Wahlstrom, K. & Seashore, L. K. (2008). How teachers experience principal leadership: The role of professional community, trust, efficacy, and shared responsibility. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(4), 458-495.
- Webber, S. (2002). Leadership and trust facilitating cross-functional team success. *Journal of Management Development*, 21 (3), 201-214.
- Wrightsman, L. S. (1974). Personality and attitudinal correlates of trusting and trustworthy behaviors in a two-person game. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 4, 328-332.
- Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2007). *Educational psychology* (10th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Woolfolk Hoy, A., Hoy, W.K., & Kurz, N. (2008). Teacher's academic optimism: the development and test of a new construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24, 821-834.
- Woolfolk Hoy, A. & Tschannen-Moran, M. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Zand (1971, 1997). Trust and managerial problem solving. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 229-239.

APPENDIX A

TAOS-E

Directions: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.

	Nothing		Very little		Some influence		Quite a bit		A Great Deal
1. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5).

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
4. I trust the parents of my students.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I can count on parent support.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I trust my students.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I have confidence in my students.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I ask students to explain how they get their answers.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I don't accept shoddy work from my students.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I give my students challenging work.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I press my students to achieve academically.	1	2	3	4	5

(Copyright© Beard & Hoy – 2009)

APPENDIX B

PTS-Scale

Directions: The items below permit a range of responses from one extreme on the left (strongly disagree) to the other extreme on the right (strongly agree). Please indicate how you feel about your child's school by filling in one circled number in each row. Circled numbers close to the "1" or "8" suggest more intense feelings.

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

(@ Adams and Forsyth, 2004)

APPENDIX C

Collaboration Survey

Directions: Please indicate the level of influence you perceive each of the following groups has over various decision domains.

To what extent do you have influence over the outcome of these decisions?

	Not at All			Very Much		
1. Approving extracurricular activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Determining areas in need of improvement	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Planning school improvement	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Fostering community relations	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Determining how to allocate resources	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Resolving problems with community groups	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Determining curriculum priorities	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Determining how to comply with mandates, legislation, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Determining school rules and regulations	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D

SE- Index

Directions: Teachers produce a variety of product such as lesson plans, new curricula, student learning as well as numerous services including teaching advising, counseling, and parent conferences. Think of these products and services as you respond to each item and indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements about your school.

1. The quality of products and services produced in this school is outstanding.
2. The quality of products and services in this school is high.
3. The teachers in my school do a good job coping with emergencies and disruptions.
4. Most everyone in this accepts and adjusts to changes.
5. When changes are made in this school, teachers accept and adjust quickly.
6. Teachers in this school are well informed about innovations that could affect them.
7. Teachers in this school anticipate problems and prevent them.
8. Teachers in this school use available resources effectively.

(Hoy, 2009)

APPENDIX E

Parental Involvement Scale

Directions: Please circle the number that best describes how often you are involved with the following.

- | | Never | Occasionally | Often | Very Often |
|--|-------|--------------|-------|------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1. Do you attend the following: | | | | |
| 2. Open House..... | | | | |
| 3. Parent/teacher Conferences..... | | | | |
| 4. Extra-Curricular Events..... | | | | |
| 5. PTA Meetings..... | | | | |
| 6. Do you contact your child's teacher?..... | | | | |
| 7. Do you contact the school's principal?..... | | | | |
| 8. Do you chaperone for field trips? | | | | |
| 9. Do you volunteer to help with classroom activities?..... | | | | |
| 10. Do you go to the library with your child?..... | | | | |
| 11. Do you purchase educational materials to assist your child with school?..... | | | | |
| 12. Do you read with your child?..... | | | | |
| 13. Do you listen to your child read? | | | | |
| 14. Do you discuss the school day with your child? | | | | |
| 15. Do you help your child with homework?..... | | | | |
| 16. Do you study with your child for upcoming test/quizzes?.. | | | | |

APPENDIX F

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
R E S E A R C H

March 3, 2015

Vivian Bishop-Harris
ELPTS
College of Education
The University of Alabama
Box 870302

Re: IRB # EX-15-CM-012 (Revision) "Common Threads: Faculty Trust,
Collaboration, and School Effectiveness"

Dear Ms. Bishop-Harris:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has reviewed the revision to your previously approved exempt protocol. The board has determined that the change does not affect the exempt status of your protocol.

Please remember that your approval period expires one year from the date of your original approval, February 5, 2015, not the date of this revision approval.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the assigned IRB application number. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Stuart Usdan, PhD.
Chair, Non- Medical Institutional Review Board
The University of Alabama



358 Rose Administration Building
Box 870127
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0127
(205) 348-8461
FAX (205) 348-7189
TOLL FREE (877) 820-3066