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ABSTRACT

Studies of principals' leadership behavior have been limited to purely descriptive content with no insight into the meanings they ascribe to their actions. The inclusion of individual interpretation is crucial to understanding the link between actions and their intended impact on a situation. The methodology used in this study assesses principals' own interpretation of their behavior at the time of an action. An "Instructional Leadership Inventory" consisting of 48 items designed to measure the "Five Dimensions of Instructional Leadership" (defines mission, manages curriculum, supervises teaching, monitors student progress, and promotes instructional climate) was given to each of the 81 principals representing schools from the Chicago metropolitan area studied along with a beeper. Five times each day during a regular work week, principals were signaled at random to fill out a behavioral assessment form. Results of the survey relate the dimensions of instructional leadership to behavioral reports made by the principals. The most dramatic finding is the absence of consistent differences in the types of activities that effective vs. less effective principals engage in. Distinctions lie in specific meanings leaders ascribe to what they did. A comprehensive listing of explanations and results is included. (EJS)

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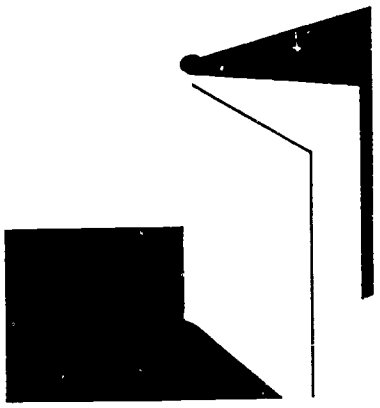

An Experience Sampling Approach to the Study of Principal Instructional Leadership II: A Comparison of Activities and Beliefs as Bases for Understanding Effective School Leadership

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The National Center for School Leadership

Project Report

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University High Laboratory School

In collaboration with

The University of Michigan

MetriTech, Inc.

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Abstract

Using the Experience Sampling Method, we simultaneously assessed the types of activities (e.g., on the telephone, circulating the building) that 81 principals engaged in and the meanings (e.g., communicating a school goal) they ascribed to these activities during random times throughout a week. There were no reliable differences in the types of activities effective and less effective instructional leaders engaged in. There were, however, significant differences with regard to the meanings that principals ascribed to their activities. In order to advance our understanding of how effective instructional leaders impact on the instructional process, future research needs to go beyond simple descriptions of overt leadership behaviors by including principals' interpretations, thoughts and beliefs concerning their behavior.

The past several years have witnessed a tremendous resurgence of public and governmental concern regarding the effectiveness of schools and a renewed appreciation for the importance and significance of the principal as instructional leader (Manasse,1984). The results from recent studies invariably identify the principal's leadership as a significant element in the school's success (Mackenzie, 1983). To date, however, relatively few studies on instructional leadership have been pursued from the perspective of the instructional leader or at a level more informative than simple behavioral accounts. Most strategies focus on the frequency with which teachers believe certain behaviors to occur or acquire behavioral accounts from trained observers, both failing to consider the meaning principals ascribe to their behavior. The present study was designed to assess principals' behavior at not only a descriptive level (e.g., walking the halls) but also at an ascriptive level (e.g., communicating a school goal) by including the meaning which principals attribute to their behavior.

Attempts to understand what makes certain principals more effective than others have been numerous, yet limited with respect to their generalizability and research design (Murphy, 1988). Researchers in the late 1960's focused on demographic characteristics of principals such as race, sex,

age, formal education, teaching experience and so forth. The information resulting from these studies added little to our understanding of how principals exercise leadership and impact the instructional process. Subsequent researchers utilized a more personal approach by investigating the predictability of personality traits for leadership effectiveness (Rutherford, Hord, & Huling, 1983). With the exception of a few studies, this approach proved ineffective as well (for a comprehensive review see Murphy, 1988).

Although the information gained from the use of observational techniques has certain advantages (e.g., ecological validity, on-line as opposed to retrospective accounts of behavior), the extent to which this data advances our understanding of instructional leadership is questionable (Firestone & Wilson, 1985; Donmoyer, 1985; Murphy, 1988). In most observational studies, behavioral accounts are provided by trained observers who operate in tandem with the principal. The observer records the various behaviors that the principal performs. The behavioral accounts vary in terms of how structured they are. In other words, some observers are looking for a specific set of behaviors whereas others record every behavior. In either case, the trained observer only has access to and therefore can only report overt observable behaviors such as "the principal supervised the lunchroom" or "the principal was on

bus duty." Our understanding of what the principal is doing is limited to a purely descriptive level and little or no insight into the meanings principals ascribe to their behavior is obtained. In other words, the goal or purpose the principal intended those behaviors to have in the context remains unknown. A significant amount of information about a situation is lost when we fail to consider the link between overt behavior and how the actor perceives or interprets that behavior in the context in which s/he is operating.

The shortcomings of a purely descriptive approach are profound, and at this point, it is necessary to explore the utility of this type of information in terms of advancing our understanding of how the principal's behavior impacts on the instructional process. More specifically, would it make someone a more effective instructional leader to know that more effective instructional leaders walk the halls more frequently than less effective instructional leaders? Probably not. However, if one knew that while walking the halls, effective instructional leaders take the opportunity to monitor student progress or to reinforce a school goal, one can begin to appreciate why this particular behavior, walking the hallways, can have an impact on student achievement.

Not only does an individual give meaning to his/her behavior, but the same behavior may serve different functions or be interpreted differently by different people. It has been demonstrated that people may vary considerably in how they report or interpret the same activity. For example, the same behavior may be perceived by one principal as "reminding children of a school goal", by a different principal it may be perceived as "monitoring a student's progress," and by a trained observer as simply "bus duty."

Action identification theorists such as Harre and Secord (1972) and Vallacher and Wegner (1985) have reported important individual differences associated with different ways of segmenting and labeling behavior. In particular, as individuals gain expertise within a domain, they tend to identify their actions at a higher level of abstraction. For example, while novice tennis players must concentrate on keeping their eyes on the ball, expert players are probably more concerned with shot placement or overall strategies and less concerned with the overlearned and overpracticed behavior of focusing on the ball. Similarly, expert principals are more likely to conceptualize their behavior in terms of global strategies or goals than as low level descriptive activities. For example, novice principals are more likely to conceptualize the activity of walking the hallways as simply "walking the hallways" whereas an expert

principal is more likely to conceptualize and utilize that activity in terms of some higher level goal such as "monitoring student progress" or even "communicating a school goal."

Because an observer has no way of knowing how the principals perceive their behavior or the meaning(s) they ascribe to those behaviors, the observer can only provide a low level description of the behavior; a description that views action at a very low level of identification, and consequently a level that is not consonant with an expert's own level of action identification. The inclusion of the individual's interpretation of his/her behavior is fundamental to understanding the link between purely descriptive behaviors as reported by a trained observer and their intended impact or function in the situation. As Emerson pointed out, "The ancestor to every action is a thought."

In summary, although the shortcomings of a purely descriptive approach have been delineated frequently in the literature (Murphy, 1988; Donmoyer, 1985; Firestone & Wilson, 1985; Geertz, 19++), few attempts to go beyond a purely descriptive level have actually been successful. Behavior reported at a purely descriptive level severely limits our understanding of instructional leadership and subsequent training of instructional leaders. In order to

advance our understanding of how effective instructional leaders impact on the instructional process, research needs to incorporate methods into their research designs that will reveal the principal's perceptions of what s/he is doing (Donmoyer, 1985). After all, as Andrews points out "...in a sense the only reality is perceived reality-and people's perceptions of their surroundings have a powerful influence on what they do" (Brandt, 1987, pg.10).

In order to assess the daily events and experiences that make up a principal's life, an Experience Sampling Methodology (ESM; Csikszentmihalyi, 1979) was utilized. In general, the ESM is a technique in which signaling devices carried by the respondents are used to elicit self-report data at randomized points in time. Unlike structured observations or shadowing where an outsider interprets the individual's behavior, this methodology assesses the principal's own interpretation of his/her behavior. In addition, since individuals report and interpret their behavior at the time it is actually occurring the data are minimally influenced by memory biases. This methodology also facilitates the study of behavior and subjective experience of the principals interacting in their natural environment, thus maximizing the ecological validity of the results. Since there is no outsider observer involved, the degree to which the principal feels "watched" is minimized and

according to principals, a beeper is significantly less intrusive than another person.

By utilizing the Experience Sampling Methodology the researcher acquires a systematic random sample of daily life, thus providing a snapshot picture of how individuals spend their time during a "typical week" (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987). In summary, the goal of utilizing the Experience Sampling Method is to be as objective about subjective phenomenon as possible "without compromising the essential personal meaning of the experience" (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987, pg. 527).

In order to arrive at some meaningful understanding of variations among principal reports of their activities at random times during the day, we needed a criterion for effective instructional leadership. Moreover, by observing the covariation between principal reports of their daily activities and a more traditional measure of instructional leadership, we are able to extend the nomological network of instructional leadership resulting in a more comprehensive definition of the construct. The Instructional Leadership Inventory (ILI: Maehr & Ames, 1988) was used as the criterion measure of instructional leadership. The ILI is composed of five scales that assess instructional leadership, and three scales that measure school context. For purposes of this study we are interested only in the

five dimensions of instructional leadership (e.g., Defines Mission, Manages Curriculum, Supervises Teaching, Monitors Student Progress, and Promotes Instructional Climate). Individual scale descriptions are provided in Figure 1. In addition, the internal consistency estimates for the five scales range from .74 for Manages Curriculum to .85 for Promotes Instructional Climate, with a mean coefficient alpha of .80.

Krug (1989) also reports on three sets of analyses to support the validity of the ILI scales including correlations with other self-report measures of instructional leadership, correlations with superintendent ratings of instructional leadership, and correlations with relevant external behavioral measures.

Briefly, when the ten scales of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS: Hallinger, 1984) are regressed onto the five scales of the ILI, individual scale multiple Rs ranged from .34 to .90. More generally, approximately 50% of the total PIMRS variance is predictable from the five ILI scales (Krug, 1989). Furthermore, with regard to the convergence between principal and superintendent ratings of instructional leadership, Krug (1989) reports an analysis in which eight superintendents provided PIMRS ratings on 38 principals who completed the ILI. The use of separate instruments was used

to preclude artificially high correlations that might result from using common measurement scales. A number of correlations between the ILI scales and superintendent ratings were statistically significant (for a more extensive review on the development of the ILI see Krug, 1989). Finally, an analysis of mean scores on the ILI scales was conducted between one group of principals who had received formal recognition for their work as a principal (e.g., awards by local or state civic organizations) and a second group whose members did not receive similar recognition. The award group scored one-half a standard deviation or more higher on each of the five ILI scales than the no-award group.

In summary then, it appears that the Instructional Leadership Inventory appears to converge with a variety of measures of instructional leadership, and that its use as a criterion measure of instructional leadership effectiveness in the present study is warranted.

Method

Sample

Participants included a sample of 81 principals representing schools from the Chicago metropolitan area. Fifty percent of the sample were female and the remaining fifty percent were male. Forty percent of the principals had

between 1 and 5 years experience in the principalship, another 40% had between 6 and 15 years experience, and the remaining 20% had over 15 years experience.

Fifty-six percent of the principals were from elementary schools, 17% were principals of middle or junior high schools while 5% were principals at the senior high level. Twenty percent of the schools had less than 300 students, another twenty percent had between 300 and 400 students, and sixty percent of the schools represented had over 500 students.

Three Illinois Educational Service Centers (ESC) aided in the recruiting of area principals. At two of the ESC's locations, the ESC director contacted superintendents about the study and requested that the superintendents use their discretion in the dissemination of information. Principals were given information about the study along with the name of the project director if they wished further information or wished to participate. In the third ESC, principals were contacted directly and they in turn contacted their superintendent

Instruments

Signaling device. In order to collect on-line accounts of behavior, a relatively nonintrusive yet direct method of sampling was used. Each principal was given a radio paging receiver and asked to attach it to his/her clothing. The

tone alert (beep) automatically stopped after eight seconds or could be halted by pressing one of two buttons anytime during the eight second alert. All pagers were programmed for the same area code and received the radio signal within 0-60 seconds of one another.

Materials

Instructional Leadership Inventory. As stated earlier, the Instructional Leadership Inventory consists of 48 items designed to measure five dimensions of instructional leadership: Defines Mission, Manages Curriculum, Supervises Teaching, Monitors Student Progress, and Promotes Instructional Climate. Principals are asked to indicate how frequently they perform each of the 48 instructional leadership behaviors. Response alternatives include "Almost Never," "Seldom", "Sometimes," "Frequently," "Almost Always." For the 81 principals in this sample, the coefficient alpha for the scale Defines Mission was .78. Coefficient alpha was .74 for Manages Curriculum, .66 for Supervises Teaching, .80 for Monitors Student Progress, and .78 for Promotes Instructional Climate. Although the internal consistency estimate for Supervises Teaching was somewhat low in this sample, in general the scales demonstrated reliabilities consistent with previous findings.

Principal Experience Sampling Form. Following each signal or beep, principals would record information on the Principal Activity Sampling Form (PASF). The PASF was designed so that it would take no more than 3-4 minutes to complete, and principals were asked to carry one or two forms with them at all times. In general, this instrument was designed to assess on-line accounts of behavior as well as the meanings principals attribute to their behavior. Based on the results from a pilot study, the content of the items used for constructing the Principal Activity Sampling Form were judged by principals as being appropriate and as comprehensive as possible given the constraints imposed on the length of the form.

The item content was designed to assess behavior at a purely descriptive level (e.g. on the telephone, circulating the building, attending an extracurricular activity) as well as to systematically assess the principal's interpretation of each behavior in terms of the five leadership dimensions (i.e., define mission, supervise teachers, monitor student progress, promote instructional climate, and manages curriculum).

The Principal Activity Sampling Form consists of 54 items and begins with the open-ended question, "What are you doing right now?" The next set of items begins with the prompt, "Right now I am" and asks the principal to define

his or her behavior in terms of the five instructional leadership dimensions in addition to managerial duties. The third section of the form was designed to assess mood or affect at the time the principals were paged. This section includes eight items corresponding to the dimensions of Positive Affect, Negative Affect, Pleasantness, and Engagement. These items however, are not pertinent to the present study. The items included in the last section of the PASF serve to identify or define the context in which the principals were operating at the time the beeper signaled (e.g., alone, with student, faculty and so forth).

Procedure

The study was run on principals from three sets of schools during three consecutive weeks. The day before the actual sampling was to begin, participants attended an orientation meeting. During this meeting, each principal was provided with a beeper/pager, 25 copies of the Principal Activity Sampling Form, and one copy of the Instructional Leadership Inventory. In addition, principals were provided with both written and oral instruction on how to operate the pager. Before the close of the orientation meeting, principals practiced operating their pagers. Principals also practiced filling out an experience sampling form.

Actual participation typically began the day after the orientation meeting. In the majority of experience sampling

studies, participants are signaled seven to ten times each day for seven consecutive days (Csikszentmihalyi et al., 1987). However, based on the feedback from principals who participated in the pilot study, we modified this procedure to fit more closely with the principals' work week. Consequently, principals were beeped 5 times randomly each day between the hours of 7:00 a.m. and 9:00 p.m. for five working days. All principals participating during the same week were on the same beeping schedule. A computer generated a list of calling times randomly sampled between the hours of 7:00 a.m and 9:00 p.m. The beeping schedule varied across days as well as across weeks, and the minimum amount of time between beeps was set at 15 minutes.

At the end of each week, principals were asked to complete the Instructional Leadership Inventory, materials were collected, and a new set of principals would begin the study.

Results

The following set of results pertains to the relationship between dimensions of instructional leadership as assessed by the Instructional Leadership Inventory and the behavioral reports made by principals using the Principal Activity Sampling Form. As expected, there are significant differences in the types of activities

principals participated in between the hours of 7:00 a.m. and 3:00 p.m. (when school is in session) and the types of activities they engaged in between the hours of 3:00 and 9:00 p.m. (for details see Report 8C2104-101; Krug, Scott, & Ahadi, 1989). Consequently, in computing aggregated behavioral ratings, only behaviors that occurred between 7:00 a.m. and 3:00 p.m. are included. It should be noted, however, that with regard to relationships reported in this article, there are no differences in the pattern of results whether one uses behavioral ratings aggregated across all 25 observations or only observations between 7:00 a.m. and 3:00 p.m.

Correlations between dimensions of instructional leadership and descriptive accounts of current behavior. Table 1 presents correlations between the five scales of the Instructional Leadership Inventory and aggregated descriptions of current behavior. As can be seen, relatively few behavioral descriptions are significantly correlated with the ILI scales. In fact, only 6 out of the 20 descriptive items correlated with any of the five instructional leadership scales.

Insert Table 1 about here.

Correlations between dimensions of instructional leadership and ascriptive accounts of current behavior. Table 2 presents correlations between the five scales of the ILI and the aggregated ratings of the meanings principals ascribed to their current behavior. This pattern of correlations differs considerably from those found in Table 1. In this case, only one item failed to correlate significantly with any scale of the Instructional Leadership Inventory. This item was 'Right now I am reviewing a students record/performance'.

Insert Table 2 about here.

Generalizability coefficients of the PASF: stability of the behaviors across time.

After reviewing the various behaviors reported in this study, a hypothesis concerning the stability of principal behavior over time was examined. Specifically, principals in this sample reported performing a wide variety of different behaviors during the course of the week. These reports are consistent with the notion that principals' activities can be accurately characterized by brevity, variety, and fragmentation (Schainker & Roberts, 1987). Consequently, we were interested in examining the generalizability of principal behaviors across time.

As described earlier, the behavioral ratings on the PASF can be viewed conceptually as tapping into two broad categories: 1) descriptions of the current behavior represented majoratively by ratings under the prompt 'At this moment I am ...' and 2) meanings principals ascribe to their current behavior represented mostly by ratings under the prompt 'Right now I am ...'. Generalizability coefficients were computed for each of the aggregated behavioral ratings. The generalizability coefficients are presented in Table 3.

Insert Table 3 about here.

These coefficients reflect the degree to which, if this study were replicated, that principals would provide the same descriptions and ascriptions of their behaviors. The generalizability coefficients for the descriptions of the current behavior ranged from -.09 for the item 'At this moment I am on the telephone' to .86 for the item 'At this moment I am on school property,' with a mean generalizability coefficient of .54 for descriptions of current behavior.

The generalizability coefficients for ascriptive accounts of behavior range from .73 for the item 'Right now I am helping a teacher on a strategy to improve achievement'

to .86 for the item 'Right now I am seeking advice about a school issue,' with a mean generalizability coefficient of .80 for ascriptions of current behavior. In other words, over the course of the week, the meanings principals ascribed to their behaviors were generally more consistent than their descriptions of what they were doing.

Insert Table 3 about here.

Discussion

The most dramatic finding in this study is the absence of consistent differences in the types of activities that effective versus less effective principals engage in. What does distinguish effective from less effective principals are the meanings that effective leaders ascribe to the behaviors in which they are engaged. Consequently, while any two principals may be required to monitor the lunch room, the less effective principal may view this task as simply monitoring the lunch room or even as a distraction from more important activities. In contrast, the more effective instructional leader is more likely to view this task as an opportunity to promote instructional climate (e.g., recognize outstanding student achievement), define mission (e.g., communicate school goals to students), or even

monitor students' progress (e.g., asking students what they are learning about; what they are gaining from their lessons) and so forth. In summary, principals seem to participate in the same types of activities but the meanings that are ascribed to those behaviors or activities by effective and less effective instructional leaders differ significantly; more effective instructional leaders use these behaviors to implement higher level goals.

In attempting to generate an explanation for this highly consistent pattern of results, the examination of generalizability coefficients proved useful. As noted earlier, the mean generalizability coefficient for descriptions of current behavior was .54 whereas the mean generalizability coefficient for the meanings ascribed to current behavior was .80. Such a difference may indicate that the types of activities principals were engaged in during the 25 behavior samples were not as stable as the meanings they ascribed to those behaviors.

That principals are involved in a variety of activities during the course of the week is not surprising. Countless demands are placed on the principal and these demands result in many of the principals' activities as being brief, diverse, and fragmented (Schainker & Roberts, 1987). Consequently, if a principal is going to engage in effective instructional leadership, it appears that this leadership

must be conveyed in the context of these types of activities. This seems to be the point of the pattern of results obtained here. The types activities that principals are engaged in appear to be the same for effective and less effective instructional leaders. The difference between the two appears to be that effective instructional leaders conceptualize and utilize these activities as opportunities for conveying instructional leadership. In other words, instructional leadership cannot be defined as a specific set of concrete behaviors, but rather a framework or an approach to school administration that infiltrates many of the principal's daily activities.

A cautionary note should be made at this point. This study should not be confused with research that, for example, characterizes the effective schools literature. Much of the effective schools research involves the identification of schools where achievement is perceived to be lower than what it should be and schools where achievement is perceived to higher than what one might expect, and then observing differences between these schools. Such a research strategy, almost by definition, involves the analysis of outliers or extremes where differences in the types of actual leadership behaviors may be more likely to occur. For example, xxxx (19xx) has noted that in some urban settings, where gangs permeate the school

setting, and the community is generally not invested in providing quality education, principals may need to adopt more directive leadership behaviors in order to effect change. The purpose of this study, however, was not to seek out particularly effective and non-effective schools, but rather to examine the effects of instructional leadership in more "typical" schools.

It is also worth noting that the methodology through which we attempted to assess behavior appears to hold promise as a practical methodology for change itself. The opportunity to reflect on and evaluate events as they happen was felt by many principals in our study to provide a refreshing and unique perspective on what they were doing in ways that "inservices" or "workshops" cannot. In future projects it would be desirable to pursue the use of beepers as a technique for improving instructional leadership in our schools.

In conclusion, this study has conceptual as well as practical implications for the study of instructional leadership. First, it seems inadequate to consider effective instructional leadership simply in terms of a distinct set of activities. Our understanding of how the principal impacts on instructional leadership is enhanced significantly by including the meanings principals ascribe to their behaviors and activities. While what they do

impacts both teachers and students, what they do is simultaneously shaped by what they believe that impact to be. In addition, the methodology utilized in this study provides principals with a unique opportunity for monitoring their behavior and reflecting on the effectiveness of the behaviors. This is not to conclude that the study of effective instructional leadership should ignore behavior and focus exclusively on thoughts and beliefs, but rather that the meanings principals ascribe to their behaviors may be an important component of instructional leadership.

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Table 1

Correlations Between Dimensions of Instructional Leadership and Descriptions of Current Behavior

Item	ILI Scales				
	MISSION	CURRICU	TEACHIN	MONITOR	CLIMATE
alone	-.11	-.04	-.03	-.06	-.02
on the telephone	.22*	.02	.25*	.10	.14
with one other person	-.20	-.17	-.19	-.13	.03
with two or more people	.24*	.22*	.16	.16	-.09
conducting or attending an assembly	.03	.00	-.08	-.01	-.06
with a student(s)	-.05	-.10	-.22*	.08	-.22
with certified staff	.15	.07	.05	.04	.07
with noncertified staff	-.02	-.08	-.14	-.05	-.26**
with a parent(s)	.24*	.10	.05	-.07	-.03
with a district level administrator	-.01	-.04	.02	.02	.01
with a building administrator from this school	.13	.00	.05	-.04	.10
with a building administrator from another school	.04	-.03	.07	-.06	-.03
with a school visitor	-.04	-.04	-.15	-.09	-.02
ulating the building	.08	.03	.11	.07	-.02
visiting/observing a classroom	.01	-.04	.04	.09	-.07
attending an extracurricular activity	.19	.12	.16	.00	.06
on school property	.11	.07	-.02	.10	-.11
monitoring halls, cafeteria, busses, etc.	-.10	-.14	-.13	-.08	-.18
planning for upcoming activities	.13	.16	.29**	.03	.07
dealing with correspondence/forms/memos	-.07	.08	.07	-.11	-.05

Note. N = 81
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 2

Correlations Between Dimensions of Instructional Leadership and Ascribed Meanings to Current Behavior

Item	ILI Scales				
	MISSION	CURRICU	TEACHIN	MONITOR	CLIMATE
defining-communicating a school goal	.47***	.26**	.34***	.16	.33**
creating excitement about teaching-learning	.33**	.23*	.35***	.16	.25*
dealing with a curriculum issue	.38***	.28**	.34***	.22*	.13
contributing to curriculum improvement	.37***	.32**	.36***	.27**	.17
finding resources to help others do a good job	.23*	.28**	.37***	.12	.14
helping teacher on strategy to improve achieve	.19	.21	.43***	.15	.14
supervising teaching	.02	.08	.26**	.10	.07
providing feedback to a teacher(s)	.22*	.26**	.34***	.19	.13
keeping a teacher informed about a situation	.11	.16	.25*	.05	.01
monitoring students progress	.22*	.17	.24*	.31**	-.05
reviewing a students record-performance	.08	-.01	.00	.16	-.17
communicating expectations for student perform	.34***	.20	.26**	.30**	.08
involving others in decision making	.34***	.27**	.46***	.18	.31**
reducing conflict	.22*	.11	.26**	.23*	.15
seeking advice about a school issue	.18	.16	.36***	.10	.19
praising anothers work	.40***	.18	.37***	.03	.16
providing followup to disciplinary referral	-.02	-.10	-.22	.04	-.26**
What I'm doing will impact student achiev	.33	.21	.26**	.30**	.21
I'm receiving a lot of cooperation	.36***	.28**	.34***	.26**	.21
What I'm doing is important	.28**	.18	.25*	.20	.20
I'm satisfied with what I am doing	.26**	.21	.20	.19	.20

Note. N = 81
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

T e 3

Generalizability Coefficients for Items in the Principal Activity Sampling Form

Item	Generalizability Coefficient
DESCRIPTIONS OF CURRENT BEHAVIOR	
alone	.37
on the telephone	-.09
with one other person	.57
with two or more people	.53
conducting or attending an assembly	.49
with a student(s)	.65
with certified staff	.53
with noncertified staff	.44
with a parent(s)	.35
with a district level administrator	.50
with a bldg admin from this school	.73
with a bldg admin from another school	.50
with a school visitor	.58
ulating the building	.69
visiting/observing a classroom	.41
attending an extracurricular activity	.59
on school property	.86
monitoring halls, cafeteria, busses, etc	.56
planning for upcoming activities	.83
dealing with correspondence/forms/report	.76
ASCRIPTIONS OF CURRENT BEHAVIOR	
defining-communicating a school goal	.83
creating excitement about teaching-learn	.83
dealing with a curriculum issue	.74
contributing to curriculum improvement	.81
finding resources to help others do a go	.85
helping teacher on strategy to improve a	.73
supervising teaching	.79
providing feedback to a teacher(s)	.83
keeping a teacher informed about a situa	.78
monitoring students progress	.81
reviewing a students record-performance	.76
communicating expectations for student p	.85
olving others in decision making	.75
reducing conflict	.85

seeking advice about a school issue	.86
ɾ ing anothers work	.85
providing followup to disciplinary refer	.74
What I'm doing will impact student achiev	.84
I'm receiving a lot of cooperation	.74
What I'm doing is important	.78
I'm satisfied with what I am doing	.81

Figure 1

Brief Description of ILI Scales

Defines Mission. Individuals who score high on this scale describe themselves as administrators who frequently discuss school goals, purposes, and mission with staff. They take advantage of any opportunity to stress and communicate school goals. Further, they try to make themselves visible in the school building, they recognize good teaching at formal school ceremonies, and they communicate excitement about future possibilities to staff and students.

Manages Curriculum. High-scorers describe themselves as administrators who provide information teachers need to plan their work effectively. They work to ensure a good fit between curriculum objectives and achievement testing and provide specific support for curriculum development. Their primary emphasis as administrator is with instructional rather than administrative issues. People who score high have a good knowledge of instructional methods that allow them to make valid and useful critiques of their staff's work.

Supervises Teaching. Individuals who score high describe themselves as spending time working on teaching skills with teachers, observing classes, and encouraging staff to try their best. They coach and counsel teachers in a supportive manner. They attempt to critique teachers as though they were a mentor rather than an evaluator. They encourage teachers to evaluate their own performance and set goals for their own growth.

Monitors Student Progress. People who score high on this scale describe themselves as setting high standards for student achievement. They regularly review student performance data with teachers and use this information to gauge progress toward the school's goals. Individuals who score high provide teachers with easy and timely access to student assessment information and discuss item analyses with teachers to determine strengths and weaknesses within the curriculum.

Promotes Instructional Climate. Administrators who score high on this scale use a variety of techniques to create a climate that nurtures teaching and learning. They encourage teachers to try out new ideas and to compete for awards. They nominate staff members for awards, write letters of commendation for a job well done, and ask parents to praise teachers for their good work. Individuals who score high establish clear guidelines concerning the school's policies and procedures and are consistent in enforcing them.