Learning by Doing: A Daily Life Study of Principal Interns' Leadership Activities During the School Year

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Abstract

Clinical experiences, including the full-time principal internship, are considered to be one of the most important components in principal preparation. Yet research on the principal internship is limited to surveys and interviews. I use a daily life methodology to explore full-time principal interns' experiences during an academic school year. I find that interns' activities approximate the work of a school principal in many aspects of the job, including administrative activities and instructional leadership. I also find that variation between interns' activities is consistent with the literature, in that their activities vary based on personal background and school context.

Keywords

instructional leadership, internships, principal preparation, principal time use, daily life methodology

Introduction

Principal preparation is a key pathway for future school principals to develop the knowledge, skills, and dispositions they need to be effective leaders (Mendels, 2016). Yet principal preparation programs are often criticized for lacking contextual relevancy and failing to develop students' instructional leadership (Cunningham & Sherman, 2008; Fry et al., 2005). Researchers who have studied effective principal preparation, however, suggest that field-based experiences can address these critiques by providing

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students with opportunities to engage in real-world, practical leadership responsibilities, balancing the *learning about*, *learning how*, and *learning why* processes of school leadership (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Hammond et al., 2010; Havard et al., 2010; Milstein et al., 1990). In particular, high-quality school-based internships allow students to work closely with their university supervisors and field-based mentors to engage in concrete leadership activities as quasi-administrators (Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016).

Importantly, scholars who have examined the effects of participating in an internship on postgraduate outcomes have found positive effects on (a) graduates' knowledge, skills, dispositions, and career intentions, (b) graduates' advancement into leadership positions, (c) teachers' level of satisfaction and collaboration in schools where graduates lead, and (d) student performance in graduates' schools (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Orr, 2011; Orr & Barber, 2007; Orr & Orphanos, 2011). Along with (and in response to) these findings, accreditation processes emphasize the importance of high-quality, field-based experiences, especially the internship (Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016). In addition, an increasing number of states across the country have passed legislation conducive to supporting principal internships. For example, states such as North Carolina, Illinois, Colorado, Mississippi, Washington, and Kentucky now require and/or financially support students' internships (Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016).

Nevertheless, researchers studying the clinical internship largely employ cross-sectional surveys and interviews of students and faculty (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Darling-Hammond et al., 2007), information which is prone to the effects of recall bias (Coughlin, 1990). Recent advances in technology have allowed researchers working in the field of human ecology to pilot new data collection methodologies designed to overcome some of the weaknesses associated with these methods. One such methodology—an internet-based, cell phone-optimized assessment technique (ICAT)—gathers information in real time on participants' daily experiences (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013). ICAT involves using text messages to send participants' hyperlinks to brief questionnaires that capture information on participants' experiences in their natural environments in real time. Importantly, ICAT has the benefit of producing high retention and completion rates, minimal response lag, and valid information on participants' daily experiences (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013).

In this descriptive study, I used the ICAT methodology to explore a sample of 32 principal candidates' full-time, school-based internships over the course of an academic school year. I ask:

1. To what extent did interns engage in *leadership behaviors* that were aligned with their future roles as school principals?
2. To what the extent did interns *co-perform* or *co-execute* leadership activities with others?
3. How did interns *decide to engage* in key leadership activities?
4. How did *time, individual characteristics, school context,* and *program features* influence the above (1–3)?

Literature Review

Action Learning and Field Experiences in School Leadership Development

While most scholars, practitioners, and policymakers agree about the important role principals play in advancing student achievement, traditional university-based principal preparation programs can fail to meet the needs of local school districts by using instructional methods that limit students' ability to transfer and apply knowledge, and courses of study that do not always reflect principals' real jobs (Hess & Kelly, 2007; Levine, 2005; Mendels, 2016). In contrast, researchers have found that *action learning* is among the most effective tools in helping adults develop skills to navigate and lead in complex organizational environments (Skipton Leonard & Lang, 2010). Action learning can be described as learning by doing—a process that includes an intentional focus on leveraging leaders' lived experiences for leadership development and growth. Furthermore, effective leadership development through action learning not only moves beyond lectures, video recordings, or other traditional forms of instruction to engage the learner in the real-world setting in which they will work but also provides a space for learners to reflect upon their leadership practice, often in communities of practice or with a coach (Ashford & DeRue, 2012; Thomas et al., 2012). Accordingly, many scholars argue that field experiences (i.e., internships, practica, or apprenticeships) are among the most important high-leverage components of principal preparation, because they can provide students with the opportunity to engage in the real work of school leaders, often in a setting where students can reflect upon their own practices with others (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Hammond et al., 2010; Havard et al., 2010; Milstein et al., 1990).

Nevertheless, the real work of school leaders is becoming increasingly more complex and difficult to define. Today's environment of high-stakes accountability has accelerated the need for leaders who possess a new and wider array of skills and competencies. The most recent iteration of national school leadership standards (National Policy Board of Educational Administration, 2015), for instance, defines 10 standards and 83 elements associated with effective school leadership, including standards related to mission, vision, and core values (Standard 1); ethics and professional norms (Standard 2); equity and cultural responsiveness (Standard 3); curriculum, instruction, and assessment (Standard 4); community of care and support for students (Standard 5); professional capacity of school personnel (Standard 6); professional community for teachers and staff (Standard 7); meaningful engagement of families and community (Standard 8); operations and management (Standard 9); and school improvement (Standard 10). As a result, university-based principal preparation programs seeking to provide students with experiences rooted in the practices of the principalship face the daunting challenge of selecting from among the many practices currently associated with school leadership. And while the National Educational Leadership Preparation (NELP) standards provide guidance and more specificity in narrowing the scope of what a beginning-level building leader is expected to know and be able to do (National

Policy Board of Educational Administration, 2018), program faculty must decide how to design action learning experiences that engage students in the most effective school leadership practices.

One important avenue that program faculty might pursue in determining which action learning experiences to select is to focus on the leadership practices of effective school principals. How do effective building leaders use their time? Are there common practices associated with their effectiveness? And, while it is true that the majority of school leadership graduates end up working as assistant principals prior to becoming principals, effective principal preparation programs orient their instruction toward the principalship and principal practices (Cheney et al., 2010; Gates et al., 2019). As a result, and in the remainder of this review, I will highlight the research literature on principals' time use to provide a framework for understanding what activities principals engage in and what practices are the most effective.

Evaluating Principal Practices and Their Effectiveness

Scholars who research how principals use their time provide a much-needed view of their work. Building off empirical studies of management work activities (Carlson, 1951; Mintzberg, 1973), researchers from the 1970s and 1980s used structured observations to characterize principals' work as spontaneous, ever-changing, fragmented, unplanned, unscheduled, and reactive (Kmetz & Willower, 1982; Martinko & Gardner, 1990; Peterson, 1977; Willis, 1980). Kmetz and Willower (1982), for example, found that elementary school principals conducted an average of 611.6 activities per week and 122.3 per day, engaging in a new activity every 4 min. Other than planned meetings lasting about 35 min, they found that more than 90% of principals' work activities lasted less than 10 min.

Nonetheless, recent work by researchers working in this area suggests that this characterization may no longer be true. Goldring et al. (2008) used end-of-day log data and found that principals' work can no longer be characterized solely by fragmentation across a wide range of leadership practices; rather, they found that school leaders sorted into one of three groups: *eclectic leaders*, or those principals who conducted activities across a wide range of different domains; *instructional leaders*, or those principals who focused most of their time and practice on instruction; and *student leaders*, or those principals who dedicated their time to activities associated with students and student affairs. Building upon this work, Camburn and others (2010) and May and colleagues (2012) found that principals spent between 20% and 25% of their time on student affairs, followed closely by instructional leadership at nearly 20%. Principals spent the least amount of time on professional growth and finances. Researchers studying school leaders in Miami-Dade Public Schools shadowed principals' during a full academic school day and found that they spent the most amount of their time on administration activities and organization management tasks (Grissom et al., 2013; Horng et al., 2010). These authors, however, found that instruction-related activities only account for between 6% and 13% of a principal's day.

Although scholars working in this area provide an overall portrait of principals' work behaviors, they also highlight considerable variation in principals' practices—variation that occurs between principals and across a school year. For example, their work examined whether principal actions and behaviors varied by personal characteristics (e.g., prior experience, gender, training, perceived competence), school context (e.g., school level, performance, size, student composition and background), time (e.g., within-day, across-year), and national context (e.g., economic development, power distance index, standardization of educational system) (Goldring et al., 2008; Grissom et al., 2013; Hochbein et al., 2018; Horng et al., 2010; Lee & Hallinger, 2012; Sebastian et al., 2018).

The earliest work on principal practice highlighted differences in performance within and across school levels. Kmetz and Willower (1982) found that elementary school principals varied considerably on the number of activities they performed each day, ranging from 87 to 148. They also found that elementary school principals spent more time on curriculum and instruction than their secondary school counterparts. In building upon earlier studies, Goldring and colleagues (2008) found that personal characteristics were not associated with leadership actions; however, they found that principals who performed a variety of leadership activities across a school day (i.e., eclectic principals) were more likely to come from elementary schools, schools with higher academic press, schools with higher student engagement, and schools with lower percentages of economically disadvantaged students. Horng and colleagues (2010) similarly found that personal characteristics such as leaders' gender and years' experience did not explain differences in how they used their time. They also found, however, that principals with at least 2 years' experience in their building spent less time on administrative tasks, whereas principals in higher poverty school settings spent more time on administrative tasks. Additional studies provide further evidence that principals' vary in their time use decisions based on a variety personal and contextual factors, including time-of-day (Sebastian et al., 2018), school year (May et al., 2012), student demographics and achievement (Grissom et al., 2013), and national development and context (Lee & Hallinger, 2012).

Importantly, this variation in principal practice might also be used to explain differences in school performance and growth. Horng et al. (2010) found that time spent on day-to-day instructional tasks was associated with higher performing schools, though not necessarily student growth. Nonetheless, they also found that time spent on organizational management activities—such as managing budgets, hiring personnel, maintaining campus facilities, and developing and monitoring a safe school environment—was associated with student performance and student growth. In a follow-up study, Grissom and colleagues (2013) examined specific leadership activities and found that more time spent coaching teachers, evaluating teachers, or developing the instructional program was associated with math achievement growth and increases in math achievement growth. They also found that informal classroom walkthroughs were negatively related to school growth and the growth trajectory of schools. They explained that these differences may be the reason for a lack of significant association between an overall measure of instructional time use and student

achievement growth. May et al. (2012) similarly found that principals who spent relatively more time on instruction, planning, and goal-setting tended to work in lower achieving school settings, while principals who spent relatively more time on finance and personnel issues tended to work in schools with higher test scores. These authors also point out that these relationships are not causal; that is, it may be that principals in low-performing school settings are more likely to focus their time and attention on plans, goals, and instruction to improve student performance. May et al. (2012) helped to demonstrate, via their longitudinal study, that principals' activities may change in response to changing external conditions and not solely due to principals' preexisting philosophies about schooling or leadership.

Of course, in examining these relationships, it is important to recognize that principals' activities are rarely conducted in isolation. A series of studies that examine school leadership and management through a distributed perspective focus on how principals spend their time, including whether they worked alone or with others (Sebastian et al., 2018; Spillane et al., 2007; Spillane & Hunt, 2010). Their findings suggest that principals often worked with multiple others in carrying out the work—individuals who may have held formal or informal leadership roles. In fact, Spillane and colleagues (2007) found that classroom teachers with no formal leadership responsibilities led over 30% of the activities that principals were involved in over a 6-day period. They determined that principals were more likely to take the lead on matters related to administration than those related to curriculum and instruction. In addition, in a longitudinal study over 3 years, Sebastian and colleagues (2018) found that principals only spent about 23% of their workday alone, with considerable variation across principals. In general, they found that principals worked with classroom teachers and teacher-leaders the most, with very little time spent with other principals, district staff, parents, and community leaders.

In summary, although the authors of these studies drew upon different methodologies and instruments to measure principals' activities, in general, they found that principals spent between 20% and 30% of their time conducting student affairs, administration, and organization management, and between 13% and 19% working on instructional leadership (Camburn et al., 2010; Grissom et al., 2013; Horng et al., 2010; May et al., 2012; Sebastian et al., 2018). Other activities, including finances, building operations, district relations, external (parent/community) relations, and personal growth, account for less than 10% of principals' workdays. Nonetheless, the authors also suggest that principals' activities varied widely for reasons that can be partially explained by different school contexts—from school level to student performance—and that principals varied in the ways in which they co-perform or co-lead with others. In addition, they found that certain activities were more positively associated with student achievement and growth than others. Interestingly, while overall measures of instructional leadership were not usually associated with higher achievement or student growth, individual instructional leadership tasks—such as coaching teachers, developing the educational program, and evaluating teachers—were found to be associated with student achievement and growth (Grissom et al., 2013).

Method

Daily life methods are intended to "capture life as it is lived" (Bolger et al., 2003, p. 580) by describing behavior as it occurs within its typical and spontaneous setting. These methods also make available a different kind of information than more traditional methods do (Reis, 2012). While retrospective responses to even the most carefully crafted and well-designed surveys can be biased (Schwarz, 2007), daily life studies attempt to tap into ongoing experiences of activity and the person's feelings about that activity in or close to real time (Reis, 2012). Although these methods are standard in the academic fields of health, emotion, and social and family interaction, it is only recently that they are being used in the field of education and education leadership. In particular, daily logs and longitudinal observations have been found to provide valid information on principals' daily work behaviors (Camburn & Barnes, 2004; Goldring et al., 2008; Grissom et al., 2013). Nonetheless, these methodologies can be costly and time consuming for participants (Camburn & Barnes, 2004; Grissom et al., 2013).

As a result, in this study, I used an experience sampling research design by implementing a new application of the daily life methodology—an ICAT—to explore full-time principal interns' daily experiences. ICAT involves taking advantage of the proliferation of mobile devices to deliver cell phone–optimized surveys to participants to capture their experiences in their natural environments in real time (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013). Importantly, the ICAT methodology has the benefit of producing high retention and completion rates, minimal response lag, and valid information on participants' daily experiences (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013). I ask:

1. To what extent did interns engage in *leadership behaviors* that were aligned with their future roles as school principals?
2. To what the extent did interns *co-perform* or *co-execute* leadership activities with others?
3. How did interns *decide to engage* in key leadership activities?
4. How did *time, individual characteristics, school context,* and *program features* influence the above (1–3)?

Data and Sample

Data for this study were drawn from 32 principal candidates conducting a full-time, embedded internship during the 2016–2017 academic school year (Table 1). Specifically, each of these candidates was placed as a full-time principal intern in a school where they had not previously worked. Participants were enrolled in one of three school administration programs: (a) a traditional, on campus masters of school administration program ($n = 11$); (b) a statewide scholarship program ($n = 7$); and (c) a grant funded, highly competitive program ($n = 14$). All three programs led to a state administrator's license and a master's degree in school administration. Moreover, all three programs matched interns with a faculty mentor and a principal supervisor. Although student

Table 1. Participant Information.

	Gender	Race/ethnicity	Teaching experience	Teacher-leadership experience	School level	Master's program	District
1.	Female	White	7	1	Elementary	Traditional	Suburban–large
2.	Female	White	10	8	Middle	Traditional	Suburban–large
3.	Female	White	8	2	High	Traditional	Rural—fringe
4.	Female	White	8	6	High	Traditional	Suburban–large
5.	Female	White	7	4	Elementary	Traditional	Suburban–large
6.	Female	Black or African American	9	5	Elementary	Traditional	Rural
7.	Male	White	6	3	Elementary	Traditional	Suburban–large
8.	Female	White	4	3	Elementary	Traditional	Suburban–large
9.	Female	Black or African American	10	8	Elementary	Traditional	Rural
10.	Female	White	5	3	High	Traditional	Suburban–large
11.	Female	White	10	9	Elementary	Traditional	Rural
12.	Female	White	10	3	Middle	Statewide scholarship	Suburban–large
13.	Female	Black or African American	5	4	Elementary	Statewide scholarship	Suburban–large
14.	Female	Latina	10	4	Elementary	Statewide scholarship	Suburban–large
15.	Female	White	9	4	Elementary	Statewide scholarship	Rural

(continued)

Table 1. (continued)

Gender	Race/ethnicity	Teaching experience	Teacher-leadership experience	School level	Master's program	District
16. Female	White	4	2	Elementary	Statewide scholarship	Charter
17. Female	White	10	5	High	Statewide scholarship	Suburban–large
18. Female	Black or African American	5	4	High	Statewide scholarship	Suburban–large
19. Female	White	8	4	Middle	Grant-funded	Rural
20. Female	Black or African American	8	4	High	Grant-funded	Rural
21. Male	Black or African American	5	3	Middle	Grant-funded	Rural
22. Female	Asian	8	7	High	Grant-funded	Rural
23. Male	Black or African American	5	4	High	Grant-funded	Rural
24. Female	White	7	2	High	Grant-funded	Rural
25. Female	White	10	8	Elementary	Grant-funded	Rural
26. Male	Black or African American	10	1	Middle	Grant-funded	Rural
27. Female	Black or African American	10	3	High	Grant-funded	Rural
28. Female	Black or African American	9	2	Elementary	Grant-funded	Rural
29. Female	White	5	4	Elementary	Grant-funded	Rural
30. Female	Black or African American	10	5	Middle	Grant-funded	Rural
31. Female	White	5	1	Elementary	Grant-funded	Rural
32. Male	Black or African American	3	0	Elementary	Grant-funded	Suburban–large

internships occurred in different rural, urban, and suburban districts, principal mentor training and university supervision were similar across the three models.

Importantly, all three models trained principal mentors to engage their interns in leadership tasks designed for the principalship. That is, although interns often worked alongside assistant principals, these programs encouraged principal mentors to avoid using their interns in the role of assistant principal. Of course, principal interns could not perform every function that a principal performed. While university supervisors and coaches tried to work closely with principal mentors to ensure that interns were able to engage in the breadth of the work of the principalship—including, for example, attending principals' meetings, observing formal classroom observations, or meeting with community groups—it is clear that their role as intern constrained the types of activities in which they could engage.

The three program models also contained important differences. First, both the statewide scholarship program and the grant-funded programs had a more rigorous selection process than the traditional program. In addition, both of these programs offered specialized trainings and school-site visits not available to those participating in the traditional program. The grant-funded program further provided each intern with an executive coach, who met regularly with them during their internship. These coaches were all former principals and superintendents who were not working in their intern's district. Principal candidates conducted these internships in a variety of school and district settings, including 16 elementary schools, six middle schools, and 10 high schools, located in 10 different school districts and one charter school. These schools and districts represent a range of student demographic and academic performance levels, in rural and suburban settings (Table 1).

Survey Design and Distribution

To align the survey with previous work on principals' time use (reviewed above), I modified Horng and colleagues' (2010) school leadership domains to include activities associated with Camburn and others' (2010) daily log calendar. All of these domains align with both state and national school leadership and leadership preparation standards. These domains included instructional management, internal relations, organizational management, administrative duties, external relations, and personal, professional growth (Grissom et al., 2013; Horng et al., 2010). Like other daily life studies, respondents were asked to select which domain of activity they were working in at the time of the message (e.g., instructional management, internal relations), along with the specific activity in which they were engaged (e.g., informal classroom observations, counseling with students). Respondents were provided with a list of possible activities associated with each domain in the message. In addition, respondents were asked whom they were with during the activity, how they chose to conduct the activity (e.g., they were asked, part of a daily routine), and how they were feeling during the activity (e.g., energy level, happiness, confidence). In total, the survey consisted of five questions (see the appendix). Once started, respondents took an average of a little over 1 min to complete the survey.

Table 2. Response Rates Over Time.

Statistic	September–December	September–March	September–May
Overall average	76.77%	65.13%	59.60%
Range	(20.00%–98.46%)	(12.28%–91.30%)	(9.72%–91.03%)
Observations	32	32	32

From September 12, 2016 to May 12, 2017, I distributed survey links through the mobile application *Remind* to respondents' mobile phone, email, or both, depending on their preference. I sent the survey once each day at a randomly generated time between 7:30 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., and asked participants to respond to the survey based on the time of day in which the message was delivered, *not* when they were able to respond to it. Although there was a mean response rate of 59.6%, response rates decreased over time (Table 2). In terms of response lag, the median number of minutes was 35.45, with a quarter of all responses occurring within 4 min of the message being sent. In a postsurvey, I administered at the end of the school year, interns reported that a number of factors limited their responses, including being too busy when the message was delivered, having poor internet connectivity or cell phone reception, or tiring of the repetitive nature of receiving the survey for the entire year. In future work, I will examine this methodology in greater detail.

Analytic Strategy and Limitations

To assess the extent to which interns engaged in leadership behaviors that were aligned with their future roles as school principals (Research Purpose 1), evaluate the extent to which interns co-performed or co-executed leadership activities with one or more others (Research Purpose 2), and examine how interns decided to engage in key leadership activities (Research Purpose 3), I used intern responses to the daily survey to provide a rich, descriptive portrait of their internships. I then explored the extent to which interns' experiences and decision-making were shaped by important personal and school context factors (Research Purpose 4). I also explored the extent to which time—both within-day and across the academic year—may have shaped interns' activities.

Importantly, there are a number of limitations that constrained my analysis. First, response rates varied across the 32 interns—from 13 responses (9.0%) to 125 responses (86.2%) across the school year. They also varied between programs. Figure 1 shows that the traditional on campus program had the highest number of responses ($Mdn = 93$; $M = 87.3$) compared with the grant-funded ($Mdn = 80$; $M = 79.4$) and statewide scholarship program ($Mdn = 77$; $M = 66.0$). Accordingly, any differences between programs may be skewed by nonresponse bias. Second, the sample size of 32 interns made it difficult to conduct tests with enough statistical power to detect significant differences in individual, school, and program characteristics. In particular, the small sample size increases the risk of committing a Type 2 error, or failing to reject a false null hypothesis. Accordingly, while inferential tests of statistical significance
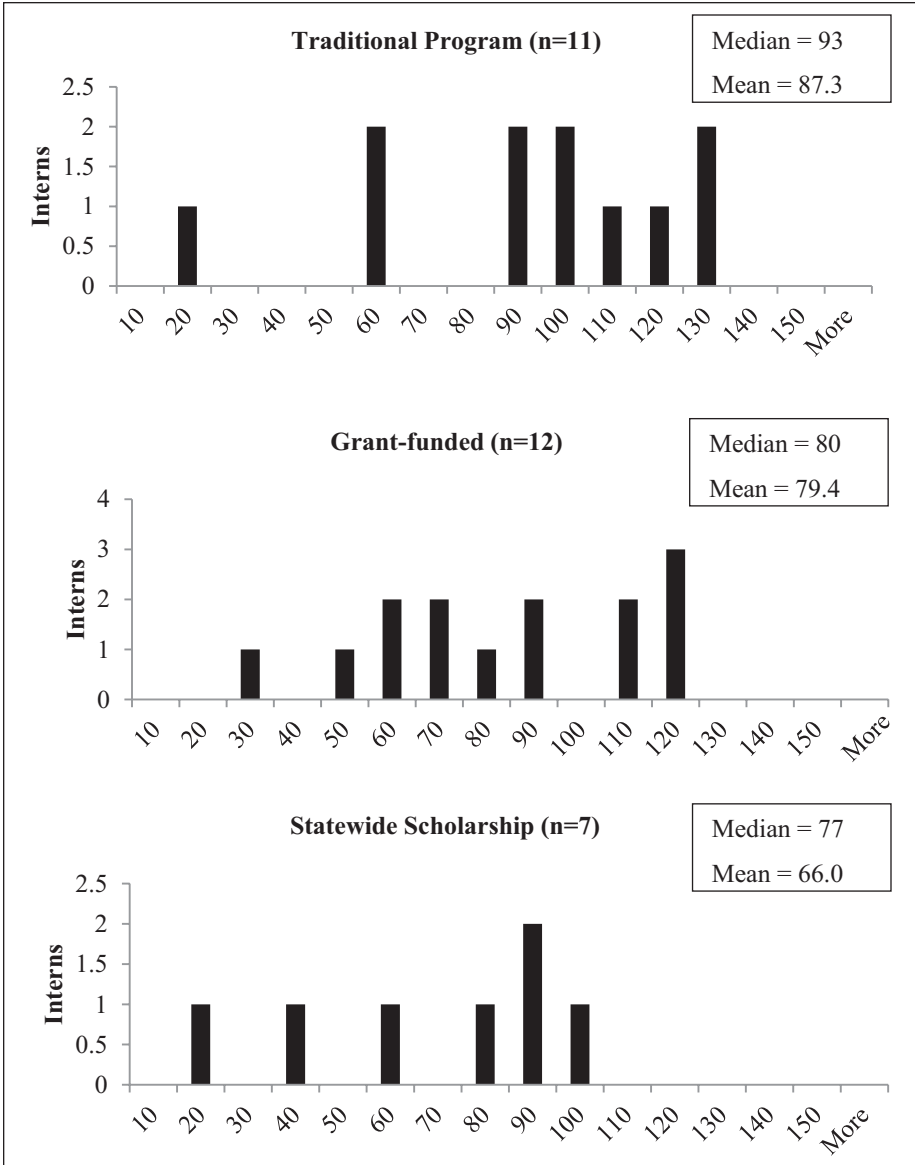
Figure 1. Distribution of response rates, by program.

would provide an important view of the personal and organizational factors that shape interns' activities, I have limited my analysis to be descriptive only.

Finally, while the principal time use studies captured the *percentage of time* principals spent working in key leadership domains, this study only captured the activity

interns engaged in at the time of the Remind message, not *how long* they had been engaged in doing it. That is, I am unable to directly compare how long interns worked in specific leadership domains with how long principals worked in those same domains. Rather, I compared the number of times an intern engaged in a specific activity as a percentage of all their activities with the percentage of time principals dedicated to these same activities, as reported in the research literature on principal time use. Although this comparison is not ideal, I believe it provides an important proxy for examining the extent to which interns were engaged in the work of a school principal.

Results

The Alignment Between Interns' Leadership Behaviors and the Work of the Principal

In exploring the work of the school principal, scholars have found that principals spend on average between 20% and 30% of their time conducting student affairs, administration, and organization management, and between 13% and 19% working on instructional leadership (Camburn et al., 2010; Grissom et al., 2013; Horng et al., 2010; May et al., 2012; Sebastian et al., 2018). Other activities, including finances, external (parent/community) relations, and personal growth, account for less than 10% of principals' workdays.

Table 3 summarizes the frequency with which the full-time interns in this study engaged in key principal activities across the school year. This table is organized by the most (top) to least (bottom) frequent leadership domain. Within each domain, I have organized the subactivity by frequency, from high to low. The bar graphs on the right side of the table show the overall relative frequency of each subactivity.

In looking across the domains and subactivities of 32 full-time principal interns, I found that of the 2,295 total responses that did not include interns' personal activities, nearly 30% related to engaging in activities related to administrative duties. This number is very similar to the percentage of the day that principals in Horng and colleagues' (2010) study dedicated to these same activities, where they found that principals spent about 27% of their time on administrative activities. In looking at the activities within this domain, however, there are some differences. For example, the most frequent activities within this domain included working with students. That is, more than 90% of these activities related to managing student discipline (count = 317; 47% of all administrative duties); supervising students (count = 205; 31% of all administrative duties); managing student services (count = 78; 12% of all administrative duties); and managing student attendance (count = 10; 1% of all administrative duties). In contrast, Horng et al. (2010) found that these same administrative activities only represented about 63% of all administrative tasks. In particular, the interns in this study were far more likely to be engaged in managing student discipline (47% of all administrative duties) than principals (16.44% of principals' time). In general, however, this focus on students aligns with other time use studies that found that student affairs are the most frequent activities in which principals engage (Camburn et al., 2010; May et al., 2012; Sebastian et al., 2018).

Table 3. Leadership Activities, by Frequency and Percent.

Administration	672	29.3%	
Managing student discipline	317	47.2%	�In
Supervising students	205	30.5%	▇
Managing student services	78	11.6%	▪
Managing school schedules	29	4.3%	▏
Fulfilling special education requirements	25	3.7%	▏
Managing student attendance	10	1.5%	▏
Other	8	1.2%	▏
Instructional management	545	23.7%	
Informal walkthroughs/observation	113	20.7%	▇
School meeting to enhance goals	80	14.7%	▪
Using data to make changes	79	14.5%	▪
Formally evaluating teachers	77	14.1%	▪
Coaching teachers	49	9.0%	▪
Using data for evaluation	41	7.5%	▪
Planning professional development for teachers	36	6.6%	▪
Implementing professional development	31	5.7%	▪
Teaching class/modeling	26	4.8%	▪
Other	10	1.8%	▏
Evaluating curriculum	3	0.6%	▏
Personal professional growth	484	21.1%	
Attending professional development outside school	217	44.8%	▇
Coursework	207	42.8%	▇
Attending professional development in school	30	6.2%	▪
Web-based professional development	13	2.7%	▏
Studying book, article (not for school)	9	1.9%	▏
Other	8	1.7%	▏
Internal relations	249	10.8%	
Developing relationships with students	62	24.9%	▪
Counseling with students	44	17.7%	▪
Attending school activities	37	14.9%	▪
Counseling staff about conflict	36	14.5%	▪
Talking with teachers about students	32	12.9%	▪
Interacting socially with staff	27	10.8%	▪
Other	11	4.4%	▏
Organization management	194	8.5%	
Maintaining campus facilities	40	20.6%	▪
Developing a safe school environment	36	18.6%	▪
Dealing with concerns from staff	36	18.6%	▪
Managing personal, school-related schedule	31	16.0%	▪
Managing budget and resources	24	12.4%	▪
Hiring personnel	12	6.2%	▏
Other	8	4.1%	▏
Managing noninstructional staff	7	3.6%	▏

Table 3. (continued)

External relations	151	6.6%
Communicating with parents	70	46.4% ▪
Working with the local community	43	28.5% ▪
Communicating with the district	26	17.2% ▪
Fundraising	6	4.0%	
Other	6	4.0%	

As with the principal time use studies, the second most frequent domain on which the interns reported spending time was instructional management, accounting for about 24% of all reported activities. Among the most commonly reported subactivities included within this domain were informal walkthroughs (count = 113, 20.7%) and using school meetings to enhance school goals (count = 80, 14.7%). Interestingly, the interns also reported participating in data use for changes to the instructional program (count = 79, 14.5%) at nearly double the rate as using data for evaluation (count = 41, 7.5%). They also reported spending more time formally evaluating teachers (i.e., either as a provisionally licensed administrator or in conjunction with a school administrator) than coaching them. Although the principal time use literature suggests that, on average, principals spent a smaller percentage of time in this domain, Grissom and colleagues (2013) also found that classroom walkthroughs are the most frequent activity principals engage in.

Not surprisingly, the interns in this study spent far more time engaged in personal professional growth than principals. That is, more than 20% of their reported activities were related to professional growth, compared with 5% to 10% for principals. Importantly, while the internships were full-time, all three programs had opportunities for interns to attend class or other forms of instruction. For example, the grant-funded program spent 1 day a week attending class during the day. In examining the subactivities, it is interesting that interns reported a high proportion of professional growth activities related to professional development *outside* of their school work. Informal conversations with student interns suggest that they did not often distinguish between school-related and nonschool-related professional growth.

With respect to internal relations (10.8%, $n = 249$), the two most frequent subactivities related to developing relationships or counseling with students. As reported above, this aligns with principals' focus in the area of student affairs (Camburn et al., 2010; May et al., 2012; Sebastian et al., 2018). In contrast, the interns only engaged in 194 organizational management activities, which represents about 8% of all activities they engaged in during the school year. This is far lower than principals, who were observed engaging in these tasks during 21% of their day (Horng et al., 2010). Within this domain, over half of all the interns' activities related to maintaining campus facilities, developing a safe school environment, and dealing with concerns from staff. Across all the domains, the least-frequent activities in which the interns engaged during the school year were hiring personnel ($n = 12$), managing student attendance ($n = 10$), managing noninstructional staff ($n = 7$), fundraising ($n = 6$), and evaluating curriculum ($n = 3$).

In summary, in examining the extent to which interns' activities were aligned to their future roles as school principals, I found that interns engaged in administrative duties at the highest rate, and performed a similar proportion of these activities as principals, though they were more likely to be engaged with student discipline. In addition, while interns, like principals, recorded instructional management activities to be the second most frequent activity, they reported a higher frequency of such activities. Not surprisingly, interns also reported a higher rate of personal professional growth activities, but it appears that this came at the expense of organizational management activities, as principals recorded nearly 3 times the rate of such activities as the interns.

Co-performance and Co-leadership

I examined whom the interns were with during the school day for two important reasons. First, as outlined in the literature review, principals often co-perform or co-lead school-related activities (Spillane et al., 2007; Spillane & Hunt, 2010). In fact, principals reported that somewhere between 30% and 42% of the activities in which they engaged were co-performed with others, often with someone other than the principal leading the activity. Second, an important part of the internship is learning how to engage in the practice of school leadership by watching and co-performing leadership activities with their mentor principals and others. As the interns gained experience co-leading, they were not only learning how to perform the leadership task, but also learning how to co-lead. In this way, interns likely spent more time in co-performance than the typical principal.

In Figure 2, I report the percentage of activities interns spent alone or with others. I also present a stacked bar chart to also show the breakdown of what leadership tasks interns were performing when engaged with others or alone. Not surprisingly, interns spent a little over 25% of their reported activities with their principal and/or assistant principal(s), an important finding given the emphasis research places in the importance of a strong principal mentor–intern relationship (Havard et al., 2010; Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016). Although not depicted in this figure, interns recorded being with assistant principals more than principals, as nearly 15% of all activities occurred with at least one assistant principal present, compared with 10% for principals. Another important finding is that interns engaged in a range of leadership tasks with principals and assistant principals. That is, while instructional leadership and administrative duties account for the largest proportion, interns were engaged in the full range of leadership activities with their school leaders—from internal and external relations to professional growth. In examining subactivities with respect to administrative duties, interns were often with principals or assistant principals while supervising students (42.3%) or managing student discipline (36.1%). Interestingly, of the 141 times interns reported being with the principal, only 14 were for a formal evaluation (10%) and 9 for an informal walkthrough (6%). Rather than these instructionally related activities, interns spent the most amount of their time with principals and assistant principals in meetings (32.5%) or professional development (17.5%).
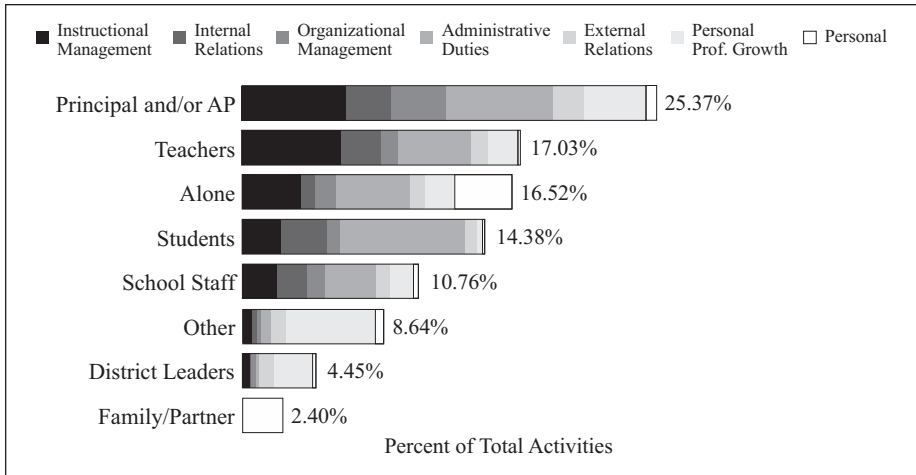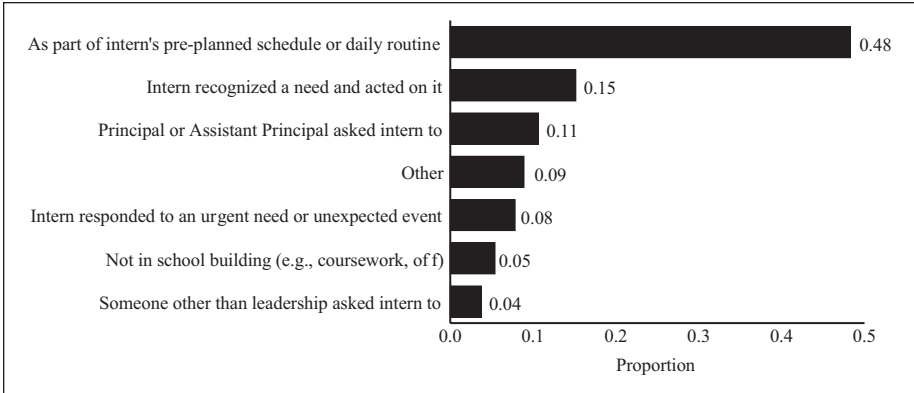
Figure 2. Interns' response to the question, "Whom were you with during the activity?"

Figure 2 also shows that interns spent 17% of their activities with teachers, often within the context of instructional leadership and administrative duties. With respect to instructional duties, these activities with teachers included, for example, formal evaluations (18.6%), informal walkthroughs (17.8%), school meetings (16.7%), and coaching (15.9%). For administrative duties, the majority of the time interns were engaged in supervising students (62.4%) or managing student discipline (13.5%). Given these findings, it is not surprising that interns report that about 15% of all their activities include students. They also report that over 16% of their activities were conducted alone. In combination with the high percentage of activities conducted with teachers, students, school staff (10.8%), and others (8.6%), it appears that interns are often engaging in leadership alone.

In short, interns report that about 70% of all of their activities are with someone *other* than school or district leaders. In addition, those times they are with leaders largely include meetings and professional development—important opportunities for growth, but also not opportunities designed to help interns become strong instructional leaders. Those activities, it appears, are left largely up to interns to engage in alone.

How Interns Decided to Engage in Key Leadership Activities

Along with examining whom interns were with, the survey results also provided information on their level of autonomy and decision-making—that is, how interns decided to pursue an activity. In Figure 3, I organize their responses in a bar chart. As indicated in this figure, around 65% of all activities were part of a preplanned schedule or daily routine (48.3%) or in response to a recognized need (15.2%). These results seem to indicate that interns were rather autonomous, often working alone to carry out a daily routine or proactively respond to a need. In contrast, only 10.6% of activities were in

Figure 3. Interns' response to the question, "How did you decide to perform the activity?"

response to school administrators' requests, a finding consistent with the relatively low percentage of time spent with school leadership. Importantly, it should be noted that these findings may also be driven by the study itself—specifically, interns may be less likely to respond to a text message or check email in the presence of their principal or assistant principal. Thus, these findings may reflect biases associated with the research design and may not specifically interns' practices.

Factors That Shape the Internship

Researchers focusing on principals' time use suggest that a variety of personal and school-level factors shape principals' activities (Goldring et al., 2008; Grissom et al., 2013; Hochbein et al., 2018; Horng et al., 2010; Lee & Hallinger, 2012; Sebastian et al., 2018). I begin by leveraging the longitudinal nature of the data set to examine the relationship between time and the interns' activities. I then explore a variety of personal, school, and program factors.

Time. Figure 4 shows a heat map of the frequency of leadership activity by time of day. In general, there does not appear to be any noticeable patterns. Administrative duties (e.g., managing student discipline, supervising students) tend to be concentrated between 10:00 a.m. and 1:00 p.m., with a slight increase during the lunch hour. They also increased at the end of the school day. External relations activities also seemed to increase at the beginning and end of the school day, which is not surprising given it is a time to interact with parents and families. Instructional management (e.g., walk-throughs, meetings, data use) and organizational management (e.g., managing facilities, budgets, dealing with concerns from staff) activities tended to be concentrated in the morning between 9:00 a.m. and 1:00 p.m., with an increase at the end of the school day, presumably for formal and informal meetings. Internal relations activities (e.g., developing relationships with students, counseling with students, attending school activities) followed a similar pattern.
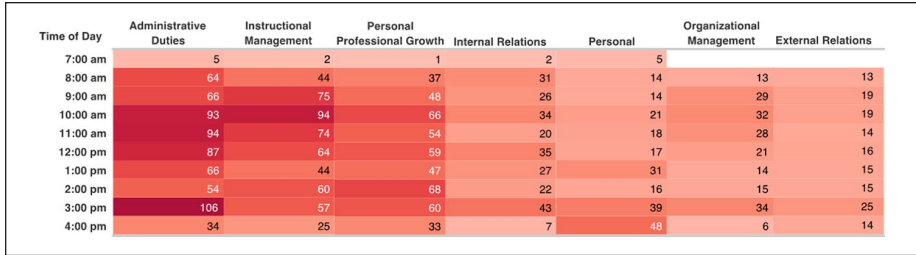
Figure 4. Heatmap of interns' activities by hour of the school day.

Figure 5 is designed to explore the extent to which leadership activities change over the course of a school year. In each row of this figure, I have included an intern's responses during the academic year. The rows are sorted by number of responses, from fewest to most. The leadership activities are labeled by a unique color. Researchers focusing on principals' time use suggest that principals' activities vary within the school year (May et al., 2012; Sebastian et al., 2018). In general, however, there does not appear to be a clear pattern that emerges with respect to the interns' activities across the school year. For example, a few interns engaged primarily in one leadership domain throughout the school year, like Interns 9 and 13 with regard to instructional management, and intern 26 with regards to administrative duties. Others, like Intern 32, transitioned from working predominately in one leadership domain in the fall (i.e., administrative duties) to another in the spring (i.e., instructional management). Yet the majority of interns engaged in a variety of activities throughout the academic year, with no clear pattern.

Personal characteristics, school context, and program model. In Table 4, I summarize the average number of activities that the interns reported by key personal, school, and program characteristics. Before providing some observations from this table, it is important to note that there are large standard deviations associated with each mean. Therefore, while I will be highlighting differences across these variables, the large variability and small sample size means that many of these differences are not statistically significant. Even still, as this study is exploratory, Table 4 provides an important foundation for examining the role that context plays in shaping interns' experiences. In addition, since the size of the subgroups and their individual response rates vary for each of these variables, it is helpful to consider the percentage allocated for each leadership domain rather than focusing solely on the average number of activities. I have provided these percentages in parentheses.

With respect to personal characteristics, I found that the interns with more teaching experience reported conducting on average about 10 more activities related to instructional leadership. In examining the differences by instructional leadership subactivity, it appears that interns with more teaching experience conducted more informal classroom observations/walkthroughs and formal teacher evaluations. Nonetheless, it appears that this difference is driven by differential response rates (i.e., interns with
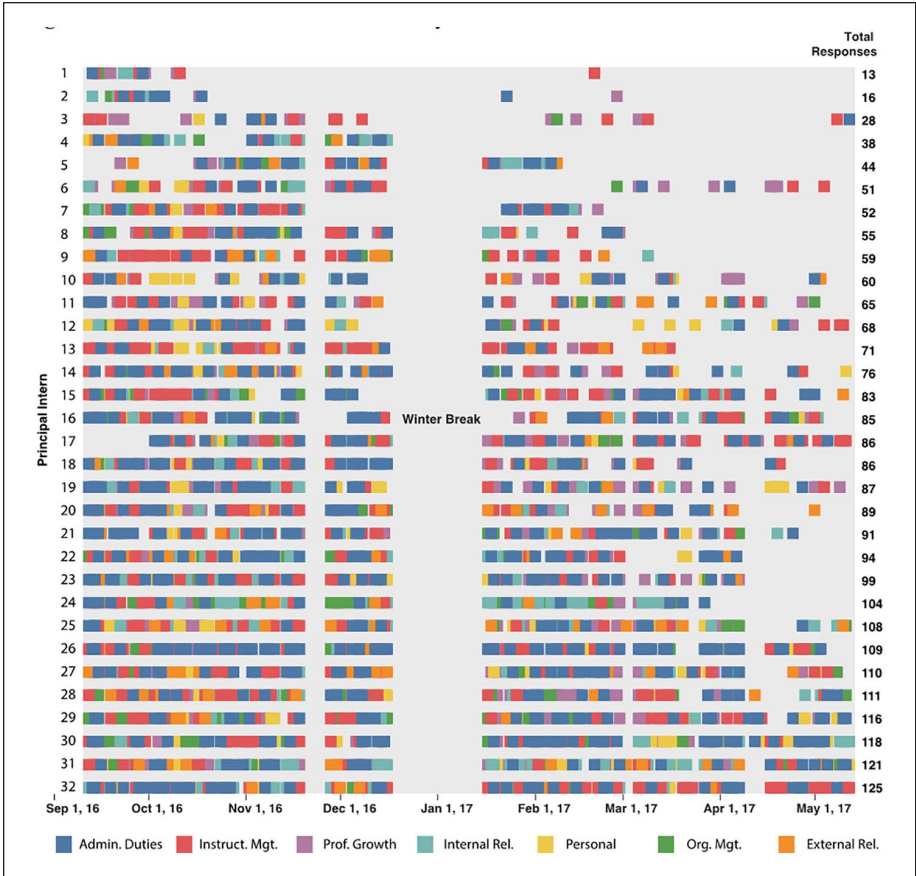
Figure 5. Interns' activities across the school year.

more teaching experience responded at a higher rate), as the percentage allocation is less than a 2% difference. Differences related to organizational management, however, are large in terms of the average number of activities and percentage allocation. In looking at the subactivities related to organizational management, I found that these differences are largely driven by teachers with less teaching experience reporting more time developing a safe school environment. In terms of teacher-leadership, while there are some notable differences in average number of activities, the percentage allocation suggests that there are few meaningful differences by teacher leadership experience.

In examining mean differences in leadership activities by school context, the interns in high school settings seemed to engage in less instructional leadership and more internal relations than their peers in elementary and middle school settings. In examining the subactivities, this difference is driven by the interns in high school settings spending more time counseling students, counseling with teachers about conflicts with

Table 4. Interns' Activities, by Personal, School, and Program Characteristics.

Variable	Instruction	Internal relations	Administrative activities	Organizational management	External relations	Professional growth	Observations
Personal characteristics							
Teaching experience							
1–6 years	69.3 (42.8%)	21.5 (22.2%)	56.1 (31.2%)	29.6 (27.3%)	8.5 (7.5%)	45.0 (29.9%)	12
7 or more years	81.8 (41.5%)	27.7 (20.8%)	65.0 (40.2%)	17.0 (11.4%)	10.2 (7.8%)	54.1 (38.8%)	20
Teacher-leadership experience							
1–3 years	72.0 (40.3%)	22.6 (17.8%)	59.7 (34.6%)	19.6 (18.0%)	7.1 (5.2%)	50.2 (39.8%)	14
4 or more years	81.0 (43.6%)	27.4 (23.8%)	63.2 (39.4%)	23.3 (21.0%)	11.4 (8.8%)	51.1 (32.9%)	18
School context							
School level							
Elementary	78.2 (48.6%)	18.8 (13.6%)	62.7 (40.2%)	21.6 (15.5%)	9.3 (7.7%)	46.2 (36.1%)	16
Middle	84.7 (42.4%)	19.0 (17.1%)	49.2 (37.4%)	11.7 (8.8%)	6.5 (4.8%)	42.2 (17.9%)	6
High	70.7 (31.4%)	39.7 (27.2%)	67.6 (32.6%)	27.9 (27.7%)	11.7 (8.8%)	63.0 (41.7%)	10
School FRPL							
Less than 36%	75.2 (20.4%)	27.4 (12.3%)	78.1 (23.5%)	22.1 (14.5%)	7.0 (6.14%)	36.4 (8.4%)	8
36%–59%	76.5 (41.3%)	21.1 (20.1%)	68.0 (47.2%)	20.9 (17.7%)	11.5 (8.8%)	64.9 (39.8%)	11
60% or more	84.9 (54.3%)	26.5 (26.0%)	44.0 (30.2%)	25.5 (27.6%)	11.5 (8.4%)	43.8 (35.1%)	13
Proportion minority							
0%–53%	67.2 (33.1%)	28.9 (20.2%)	62.9 (34.6%)	21.1 (13.7%)	7.3 (7.2%)	40.0 (26.1%)	10
54%–89%	91.1 (45.7%)	18.7 (10.1%)	73.5 (50.2%)	20.3 (18.4%)	12.5 (7.7%)	48.8 (37.5%)	10
90% and above	69.1 (44.3%)	29.1 (29.1%)	47.9 (21.6%)	23.6 (26.6%)	9.1 (8.1%)	62.7 (41.8%)	12
Program							
Traditional	88.1 (43.0%)	29.3 (21.5%)	80.5 (46.8%)	25.2 (15.8%)	8.9 (6.6%)	29.3 (11.1%)	11
Statewide scholarship	64.6 (44.2%)	20.9 (12.2%)	60.0 (33.6%)	14.4 (7.5%)	6.6 (5.6%)	32.1 (17.5%)	7
Grant-funded	74.6 (40.5%)	24.5 (24.9%)	47.6 (22.6%)	22.6 (25.6%)	11.5 (9.0%)	76.8 (38.2%)	14

Note. Percent of row in parentheses. FRPL = free or reduced-price lunch.

other teachers, and informally talking with teachers about students. In terms of percent allocation, the interns in middle school settings conducted fewer organizational management activities than their peers at other school levels. Despite these small differences, these data suggest that there are not major differences across school level.

In terms of examining the student population, I explored both the student free-reduced lunch percentage and the proportion of minority students. These descriptive mean differences suggest that the interns in more affluent schools reported on average between 24 and 34 more activities related to administrative duties than the interns in the highest poverty school settings. In examining the percent allocation, it appears that increasing poverty levels translates to decreasing administrative activities. These differences were largest in managing student discipline and supervising students. With respect to the proportion on minority students, interns in settings where the proportion of minority students was between 54% and 89% conducted far more instructional leadership activities than in other settings. Similar to the finding with respect to school free/reduced lunch rates, interns in schools with greater than 89% minority students conducted fewer administrative activities.

Finally, as illustrated in Figure 1, interns from the traditional master's program had a higher response rate than the other two programs. In looking across categories in Table 4, it appears that differences across these leadership domains are relatively small. The one notable exception is the large number of activities and percent allocation that interns in the grant-funded program dedicated to personal professional growth—a finding consistent with the program model, where interns are pulled out of their school buildings for 1 day a week to attend class. It also appears that the disproportionate allocation for professional growth came at the expense of administrative activities. That there are not large differences across program models is not too surprising given the small sample size, differential response rates, and large standard deviations.

Summary of Results

Taken together, these findings suggest that full-time principal interns have opportunities to engage in a variety of leadership tasks associated with the principalship. While the frequency with which they reported engaging in, for example, instructional leadership and administrative duties, is similar to how principals reported spending their time, it is also true that interns engage in much of this work alone according to a set schedule or routine. Furthermore, appropriate with their status as students, interns report a higher frequency of personal professional growth activities. Finally, their experiences also seemed to be shaped by their teaching experience, the school level and students they serve, and their program context.

Discussion

Field-based experiences are the hallmark of effective educational leadership preparation programs because they allow principal candidates the opportunity to experience

the job in a real-life environment (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016). In this study, I used research on principals' time use to explore the extent to which 32 full-time principal interns engaged in key practices associated with the principalship (Camburn et al., 2010; Grissom et al., 2013; Horng et al., 2010). Overall, I found that the interns' activities approximate the work of a school principal in many aspects of the job, including in the domains of administrative activities and instructional leadership. I also found that variation between the interns' activities is consistent with the scholarly literature, in that principals' time use varies based on personal background and school context.

More specifically, I found that the interns in this study engaged in a similar level of administrative activities as principals, though they are far more likely to engage in student discipline than principals. I also found that interns placed in schools with a higher percentage of students on free/reduced lunch and a high percentage of minority students (i.e., greater than 90%) engaged in less administrative tasks. In looking across all of the domains and examining this finding further, it appears that of the three internship programs (traditional, statewide scholarship, and grant-funded), interns in the grant-funded program were assigned to these types of school environments, as they engaged in less administrative tasks and more personal professional growth. In terms of the time of day, administrative activities tend to be clustered in the morning and end-of-day.

With respect to instructional leadership activities, the interns engaged in proportionally more activities than principals, though the types of activities in which they engaged were similar. That is, the interns in this study and principals alike tend to conduct classroom walkthroughs at the highest rate. In general, instructional leadership activities were conducted in the morning and late-afternoon. In terms of examining variation by school-level variables, the interns in high school settings conducted relatively fewer instructional leadership activities. Instead, it appears that the interns in high schools engaged in more internal relations activities than their elementary and middle school peers, which included more frequent activities with respect to developing relationships and counseling with students. Finally, the interns spent more time on personal professional growth and less time engaged in organizational management activities. With respect to the former, this is expected as they are still enrolled in the university; for the latter, the low percentage was especially true for the interns with less teaching experience and for those who worked in middle school settings.

In examining interns' interactions and co-performance with others during their internship, it appears that they often worked alone according to a preplanned schedule or routine. The relatively little contact that interns had with principals and assistant principals, along with the few reported instances in which they were engaged in an activity at the request of their principal, suggests that interns were relatively autonomous. Importantly, while the internship provides a critical experience for interns to enact the role of leader in a real-world environment, the research literature on action learning argues that experience is not enough; rather, interns need opportunities to be mentored and engage with others in processing their experiences for growth and

development (Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016; Skipton Leonard & Lang, 2010; Thomas et al., 2012). These results suggest that this type of mentoring exists more often in the form of personal professional development (i.e., classwork, meeting with peers) than through the school-based leadership team (i.e., principals, assistant principals).

This relative autonomy might also speak to the formal authority interns have within their schools. As opposed to other types of internship experiences commonly employed in principal preparation, such as the completing internship hours or other field-based experiences (Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016), full-time interns in this study have their own employment code and are paid at the rate of a first-year assistant principal. This formal designation within the school system provided interns with the necessary autonomy and authority they needed to perform their work as a school leader. Yet, these results also suggest that their formal position might also have associated weaknesses as well. For example, the relatively low frequency with which the interns engaged in teacher coaching seems to suggest that interns were not viewed by their principals and/or teachers as credible coaches, a leadership activity that requires training, trust, and respect (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Kraft & Gilmour, 2016). In addition, the interns did not frequently engage in organizational management activities commonly associated with the principalship, like hiring personnel, managing instructional staff, and evaluating curriculum. Moreover, compared with principals, the interns were far more likely to address student discipline, an activity commonly associated with assistant principals (Hunt, 2011; Marshall & Mitchell, 1991). In fact, while the programs worked with principal mentors to try to ensure that interns were engaged in activities associated with the principalship, it seems that some of these interns engaged in activities commonly associated with assistant principals, such as discipline and managerial tasks (Barnett et al., 2012).

Conclusion

While principal preparation programs have been criticized for failing to engage interns in leadership tasks designed to support student learning, there is some evidence to suggest that programs are doing more to engage interns in important aspects of school improvement, though "to date, there is a paucity of research using quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-methods concerning these programs" (Reyes-Guerra & Barnett, 2016, p. 240). In this study, I sought to address this gap in the research literature by examining the leadership tasks of 32 full-time student interns engaged in during an academic school year and evaluating the extent to which interns' behaviors were shaped by personal, school, and program context. Although my analysis is descriptive and limited by the small sample size, I believe that these findings highlight a number of important implications for practice and future research.

First, as the most recent iteration of the NELP Program Recognition Standards (Building level) argues, "effective internships . . . provide coherent, authentic, and sustained opportunities to synthesize and apply [candidates'] knowledge and skills . . . . in ways that approximate the full range of responsibilities required of building-level leaders" (National Policy Board of Educational Administration, 2018, p. 30). These

findings suggest that as an ideal model for aspiring principals (Barnett et al., 2009), the full-time, job-embedded internship offered interns with the opportunity to engage in a range of leadership activities over the course of a school year, many of which corresponded to the practices of effective principals.

Second, although all of these principal candidates participated in full time, job-embedded internships, their experiences seemed to vary based on their personal background (e.g., years' teaching experience), school context (e.g., school level, student background), and program. That is, embedding students in the role of full-time intern does not seem to be a guarantee that they will be engaged in the broad array of leadership tasks associated with the principalship. Principal preparation programs hoping to leverage the full-time internship for authentic student learning must be attentive to a variety of factors that shape interns' experiences. One important factor that was not thoroughly explored in this study was the role of the principal mentor and executive coach—critical participants in the implementation of high-quality internships (Gray et al., 2007; Havard et al., 2010)—in shaping interns' experiences. Future research could build upon these descriptive findings to explore the relationship between these factors and the intern experiences in more depth.

Finally, though the focus of my study was on researching the principal internship experience, the data collection strategy I employed offers principal preparation programs an important way to monitor the internships. In particular, programs could use electronic surveys or end-of-day logs to evaluate interns' experiences, working closely with principal mentors and coaches to make real-time adjustments, if needed. Programs might also use the data longitudinally to evaluate the effectiveness of internship placement or future leadership outcomes. Clearly, this study has only begun to touch on the ways in which both principal preparation programs and researchers can examine the principal internship.

Appendix

Survey Instrument. As adapted from the categories developed by Horng et al. (2010).

Q1 At the time of the message, in what domain were you working?

- INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT. The promotion, support, and improvement of classroom instruction and school curricula.
- INTERNAL RELATIONS. Building strong interpersonal relationships with students, teachers, and staff.
- ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT. Overseeing the budget, resources, facilities, and environment of the school.
- ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES. Routine, day-to-day tasks such as completing paperwork and managing schedules of discipline.
- EXTERNAL RELATIONS. Working with stakeholders beyond the school.
- PERSONAL PROFESSIONAL GROWTH. Attending professional development, reading articles or books, and so on.
- OTHER

Q2A [Displayed if "INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT" is selected]. Select the INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT ACTIVITY that most closely approximates what you were doing.

- USING DATA to MAKE CHANGES to the instructional program (i.e., formative data use)
- USING DATA to EVALUATE programs or policies (i.e., evaluative data use)
- FORMALLY EVALUATING TEACHERS
- INFORMAL CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS or WALKTHROUGHS
- COACHING TEACHERS
- UTILIZING SCHOOL MEETINGS to enhance SCHOOL GOALS
- PLANNING PD for TEACHERS
- IMPLEMENTING PD
- EVALUATING CURRICULUM
- TEACHING A CLASS or MODELING INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES
- OTHER

Q2B [Displayed if "INTERNAL RELATIONS" is selected]. Select the INTERNAL RELATIONS ACTIVITY that most closely approximates what you were doing.

- DEVELOPING RELATIONSHIPS with STUDENTS
- ATTENDING SCHOOL ACTIVITIES (e.g., assembly, club meeting, sports event)
- COUNSELING with STUDENTS
- COUNSELING with STAFF/TEACHERS about CONFLICTS with other staff/teachers
- INFORMALLY TALKING to TEACHERS ABOUT STUDENTS
- INTERACTING SOCIALLY WITH STAFF
- OTHER

Q2C [Displayed if "ORGANIZATION MANAGEMENT ACTIVITY" is selected]. Select the ORGANIZATION MANAGEMENT ACTIVITY that most closely approximates what you were doing.

- DEVELOPING a SAFE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT
- DEALING with CONCERNS from STAFF
- MANAGING BUDGETS and RESOURCES
- MANAGING PERSONAL, SCHOOL-RELATED SCHEDULE
- MANAGING CAMPUS FACILITIES
- MANAGING NON-INSTRUCTION STAFF
- HIRING PERSONNEL
- OTHER

Q2D [Displayed if "ADMINISTRATION ACTIVITY" is selected]. Select the ADMINISTRATION ACTIVITY that most closely approximates what you were doing.

- MANAGING SCHOOL SCHEDULES
- MANAGING STUDENT DISCIPLINE
- MANAGING STUDENT SERVICES (e.g., records, reporting)
- SUPERVISING STUDENTS (e.g., lunch duty, hallway duty)
- MANAGING STUDENT ATTENDANCE
- FULFILLING SPECIAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS
- OTHER

Q2E [Displayed if "EXTERNAL RELATIONS ACTIVITY" is selected]. Select the EXTERNAL RELATIONS ACTIVITY that most closely approximates what you were doing.

- COMMUNICATING WITH PARENTS
- COMMUNICATING WITH THE DISTRICT
- WORKING with the LOCAL COMMUNITY & COMMUNITY AGENCIES
- FUNDRAISING
- OTHER

Q2F [Displayed if "PERSONAL PROFESSIONAL GROWTH ACTIVITY" is selected]. Select the PERSONAL PROFESSIONAL GROWTH ACTIVITY that most closely approximates what you were doing.

- ATTENDING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN YOUR SCHOOL
- ATTENDING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OUTSIDE OF YOUR SCHOOL
- WEB-BASED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
- STUDYING A BOOK, JOURNAL ARTICLE, and so on (NOT for course work)
- COURSE WORK
- OTHER

Q2G [Displayed if "OTHER" is selected]. Briefly describe the activity:
- PERSONAL TIME
- CHECKING EMAIL
- IN TRANSITION
- OTHER

Q3 Whom were you with during the activity? (please check all that apply)
- I was ALONE
- PRINCIPAL
- ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL(S)
- TEACHERS
- STUDENTS
- SCHOOL STAFF

- DISTRICT LEADER/STAFF
- FAMILY, PARTNER
- OTHER

Q4 How did you decide to perform this activity? (please check all that apply)

- It was part of YOUR PREPLANNED SCHEDULE or DAILY ROUTINE
- YOUR PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL ASKED YOU TO
- SOMEONE ELSE ASKED YOU TO (other than principal or AP)
- YOU RECOGNIZED a NEED and ACTED ON IT
- YOU RESPONDED TO AN URGENT NEED or UNEXPECTED EVENT
- OTHER

Q5 Select the image that corresponds best to your FEELINGS during the activity.

Happiness

Energy

Confidence

Effectiveness

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

Funding

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