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Editorial

Articles

Editorial

The Ties that Bind Us

Serving as editor for a journal like *JITP* provides many personal benefits but none greater than the contact with so many bright and engaging scholars. When the journal is international, that benefit is multiplied many times over. This issue of *JITP* represents work from scholars in three continents (Africa, Australia, and North America). Our biannual leadership conference was held in Hong Kong, perhaps the most vital hub of Asia. Without question, the international aspect of invitational education is vibrant and visible.

In today's world, that is an important point to ponder. We are embroiled in a world that seems obsessed with our differences. Those differences seem to be too frequently used to divide the world's peoples into suspicious and distrusting factions.

There are many pressing issues present in our world that only international cooperation can address: AIDS (and an increasingly long list of new viral infections) threaten our health; global warming and massive pollution threaten our environment; political extremism and terrorism threaten world peace; tsunamis, hurricanes, and earthquakes destroy lives and livelihood on an incomprehensible scale; continued economic expansion does not profit most of the world's peoples who languish in hunger and poverty.

We have been presented simultaneously two directions. One is a path of cooperation and mutual concern about the health and welfare of all. The other is competition accented by adversarial self-

interest. With one path we have the greatest opportunity for world improvement ever presented to humankind. With the other path, the insensitive heart and callous policy can create deepened hatreds that feed the frustration of marginalization of culture and economy experienced by much of the world's population. The choice is ours.

That is why the internationalization of invitational education is so exciting to me. With a few well-chosen words, we can secure our future prosperity. With renewed Respect, Intentionality, Optimism, and Trust, what problems cannot be solved? If our governments and ambassadors viewed other nations with an Intentionally Inviting stance, what disagreement cannot be addressed? By attending to the needs of People, by addressing the Policies and Procedures employed to direct our actions, and by practicing stewardship for our Programs and Places, what goal cannot be reached? If the theories and ideals of invitational education are internationalized among educators and the helping professions around the world, couldn't national leaders tap the intellectual capital of each nation in hope of building a better, more just, and more caring world?

In this edition, we are presented with thinking from many different cultures and locations, yet there exists a unitary perspective on the veracity of invitational education. Regardless of where we reside, the class or social group we belong, the government that protects us, or the religion (or philosophy) we choose to provide us with purpose, the basic tenets of invitational education have roots.

Of course, as Piet Hein, a Danish mathematician and poet, reminds us: "The road to wisdom? 'Tis easy to express. To err, and err, and err again. But less and less and less." I am sure that for you as for me, invitational education has not stopped our mistakes…but we

are making less of them than at any other time. And we are doing some very interesting things. Here is what is in this issue:

In keeping with our exploration of the factors and evidence that deepen our understanding of the inviting stance, G. M. Steyn provides an analysis of aspects of professional development that influence effective development of the inviting stance. Steyn explores those factors that influence the effective implementation and sustainability of Invitational Education. Steyn reasons that since teachers have the most direct contact with students, as well as considerable control over what is taught and how it is taught, it is reasonably assumed that enhancing teachers' knowledge, skills, and attitudes are critical steps in improving learner performance. Thus, the theoretical links between enhanced learner performance and the inviting environment can be developed with effective professional development

In our second offering, Ken Smith responds to the many requests instigated by reactions to his previous technical analyses of the Inviting School Survey. In this article, he provides a shortened version of the instrument for use in school and other settings. The revised Inviting School Survey (ISS-R) is half as long as the original 100-item ISS, but maintains the same psychometric characteristics and measurement domains as the original. The original ISS and the ISS-R are designed for use by students (grade four and above), teachers, and school administrators, as well as others associated with schools, such as counselors, psychologists, and social workers.

Our third article describes another tool for measuring inviting situations and behavior. In many ways, mentoring is one of the

most fundamental expressions of the inviting stance. As such, Carl Hoffmeyer, Al Milliren, and . analyze the process of mentoring from the perspective of applied invitational theory as employed in teacher induction programs. Combining the work of three research studies exploring mentoring of first-year school teachers, factor analysis indicated 22 specific mentor related activities and behaviors that are beneficial to the induction process. These results were compiled to create the Hoffmeyer Mentoring Activity Checklist (HMAC), which is detailed and explained in their article.

Our fourth piece by Robert Egley and Brett Jones is another empirical examination of inviting characteristics. Their study assesses the relationship of school administrators' self-reported professionally and personally inviting behaviors with administrators' perceptions of school rankings, job satisfaction, school climate, and time spent on instructional leadership. Specifically, the authors explore the question, "Have the increased demands for accountability as a result of legislation at the state and national levels altered the administrators' self-reported willingness and ability to be inviting?" Their findings reflect both the increased demands on our diligence but also our increasing capacity to remain inviting in less than inviting circumstances.

Our final piece is one of personal journey and revelation. Salene Cowher recently returned from a sabbatical where she studied the most recent research on treatments for clients diagnosed with Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). During the sabbatical, she was struck by how her own complacency had become unintentionally disinviting to some of her clients and many efforts to accommodate their needs lacked the sensitivity and mutual communication characteristic of intentionally inviting behavior. She concludes that although we may be well versed in the inviting stance, we should not

take for granted that all behavior intended to be inviting is inviting. In other words, she had rediscovered how covertly unintentionally disinviting behavior can creep into our thinking and practice. She discusses her discovery and helps us become more aware of the constant vigilance necessary to remain intentionally inviting.

I hope these messages of scholarship both enrich and inform your indubitable journey toward becoming an inviting professional.

Parenthetically, please note that spellings, format issues, and some colloquialisms of the home country of the author have been maintained.

Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice

Exploring Factors that Influence the Effective Implementation of Professional Development Programmes on Invitational Education

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Professional development (PD) has emerged over that last decade as a recognised area of study (Evans 2002). PD of teachers is seen as an essential ingredient for creating effective schools and raising students' performance (Rhodes & Houghton-Hill 2000; Wood & Millichamp 2000; Birman, Desimone, Porter & Garet 2000). Since teachers have the most direct contact with students as well as a considerable control over what is taught and how it is taught, it is reasonably assumed that enhancing teachers' knowledge, skills and attitudes is a critical step in improving learner performance (King & Newman 2001; Ribisch 1999; Anonymous 2001/2002). It is necessary to realise that teachers cannot hope to use the most sophisticated approach to student learning unless they have both the skills to use it and the desire to implement it (Shaw 2003).

Introduction

The ultimate aim of professional development (PD) is increased student performance, but individual student outcomes and teachers' use of instructional strategies are profoundly affected by the school culture in which teachers work (King & Newman 2001). Professional learning communities, in which teachers and leaders work together, appears to be necessary for educators to focus on student learning (Purkey & Strahan 1995; Sparks 2000b). However, individual factors, outside school factors and the PD itself can also play an important role in creating successful learning communities. From this perspective designing a PD programme should be grounded on the way teachers learn, but must also con-

sider the factors which influence the effective implementation of PD. Programmes and materials can not bring about effective change without the skilled involvement of the people in the education system. If we strive for quality in schools and school improvement, we should centre our attention and energies on the factors required to bring about effective change. This implies a focus on the knowledge, skills and attitudes people need to implement and sustain human interaction.

Invitational Education (IE) is an appropriate approach to address successful PD since it is the product of conscious and well-planned thought as well as regular evaluation, based on a strong commitment to certain basic values about people and how they should be educated. Professional development programmes focus on the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes of people. There are, however, certain factors that will influence the effective implementation and sustainability of any development programme. Thus, the main research question motivating this research project is: What are the factors that influence the effective implementation and sustainability of Invitational Education? The theoretical foundation of IE serves as a basis for empirical research as employed in several inviting schools in the United States of America.

Background to the study

During 1992 the researcher studied 11 schools in the United States of America that received the Invitational Award from the Invitational Alliance. However, the *process* of how Invitational Education had been implemented was not investigated during the previous project. The focus during the previous study was on how these schools function as inviting schools. After conducting a number of

these awareness programmes in South African schools the researcher has realised that having an effect on people's knowledge, skills and attitudes is difficult. She has also realised that there are certain factors that influence the implementation and sustainability of Invitational Education. This implies that the whole *process* should be carefully analysed. The article attempts to outline key factors that may influence the effective implementation of PD. The purpose is not to outline all the factors that influence PD, but to suggest that diverse factors may have an influence on PD, not necessarily directly, but through the influence they have on school capacity. In order to identify significant factors it is important to survey existing research in this regard and develop a suitable model to indicate such factors.

Research design

The following methods of research were employed:

- A revisit of literature on Invitational Education
- A qualitative study to address the research problem. This included interviews with role players (principals, staff and students).

The researcher visited the USA during April 2004. Her sample for the study consisted of eight schools: two elementary schools, one ninth grade school and one high school in Scott County, Kentucky as well as three elementary schools and one early childhood centre in New Mexico.

What is Professional Development (PD)?

It is universally acknowledged that a teacher's professional training does not end at the initial pre-service education (Ho-Ming &

Ping-Yan1999; Somers & Sikorova 2002). Over time the knowledge and skills of staff members in schools are subject to deterioration while developments in educational thinking can also indicate that their skills can become outdated or inefficient (Campbell 1997). Moreover, teachers will not change the way they teach unless they learn new ways to teach. The focus of PD is the continuous updating of professional knowledge, skills and attitudes required of staff so that all students can learn and perform at higher levels (Browell 2000; Ho-Ming & Ping-Yan 1999; Somers & Sikorova 2002). It is difficult for students to attain high levels of learning unless educators are continuously learning (Sparks & Richardson 1997). It implies that educator learning and student learning go hand in hand (Wood & Millichamp 2000).

The PD process suggests that staff review, renew and extend their commitment and serve as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching (Evans 2002). This comparatively longitudinal process of staff's behaviour change is guided by and focussed upon practical application of suggested innovation and also prepares staff for their responsibilities which enables the organisation to attain the set goals (Browell 2000). Considering this, it seems as if PD has changed from a way for teachers to update their professional knowledge to a tool for change (Professional staff development: A key to school improvement 1999; Rhodes & Houghton-Hill 2000).

PD is most effective when it is an ongoing process that includes suitable properly planned training and individual follow-up through supportive observation and feedback, staff dialogue and peer coaching (Ho-Ming & Ping-Yan1999; Moore in Robinson & Carrington 2002; Professional staff development: A key to school improvement 1999; Bernauer 2002; Moore 2000). There is a ten-

dency to underestimate the long-term commitment of professional development that is required for effective change to happen (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Richardson 2003). In this process teachers develop a greater sense of collaboration, share common problems, and assume greater responsibility for their own professional development (Ribisch 1999; Bernauer 2002; Browell 2000).

Considering the above PD relates to life-long development programmes which focus on a wide range of knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to educate students more effectively. It includes both formal and informal activities carried out by an individual or an organisation to enhance staff growth. In this complex process teachers improve and develop their teaching skills, and their curriculum development, implementation and evaluation skills (Conners in Campbell 1997).

PD programmes have the potential to influence teacher learning, but the reality is that there have been many wasteful workshops, conferences and seminars which have led to little sustained change in classrooms (Russell 2001).

A Suggested Model for Professional Development

A crucial question is: What factors play a role in the effective implementation of PD for teachers? Figure 1 provides an outline of some factors that influence the effectiveness of PD. The following major categories are identified: Teachers' commitment to change; learning styles; transformational leadership; personal factors; out-of-school conditions; in-school conditions and personal factors. How each of these categories impact PD is briefly described in the following paragraphs.

Learning styles of teachers

For effective PD, the different learning styles of participants should be identified (Burke 1997). Teachers are individuals with specific learning needs and learning styles (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Somers & Sikorova 2002). Teachers who learn in programmes that accommodate their preferences will acquire more skills, become more motivated and use what they learn in the classroom (Burke 1997). Learning styles include a number of variables, such as an individual's environmental, emotional, socio-ecological, psychological and physiological processing preferences.

- *Environmental factors*. Environmental factors include a comfortable and well-equipped venue (Burke 1997; Ribisch 1999).
- *Emotional factors*. Since adults prefer to be involved in their own learning for the sake of personal ownership, they should participate in setting goals, priorities, processes and the evaluation of PD (Burke 1997; Badley 1992; Ho-Ming & Ping-Yan1999; Bernauer 2002).
- *Sociological factors*. Although lecturing has long been an acceptable mode of instruction, it has to include other techniques except for auditory, listen-alone students (Burke 1997). For Burke (1997) and Ribisch (1999) effective PD means maximising staff interaction through small-group discussions that could stimulate their learning and provide motivation. By collaborating with professionals within and outside their schools in order to gain expertise from research, teachers' learning experience is enhanced (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Ho-Ming & Ping-Yan1999).
- *Psychological factors*. When planning for PD the different physiological needs of teachers should be considered, such as the time of the day, type of food and beverage preferences

(Burke 1997).

- *Physiological factors*. Learning styles are also related to physiological factors: Auditory (hearing); Visual (seeing); and Kinaesthetic (touching) (Vincent & Ross 2001). Staff developers should design auditory, visual, tactual and kinaesthetic material and match them with each student's strengths (Burke 1997; Vincent & Ross 2001). Tyrell (2000) supports this view by stating that programmes should be individualised and fully differentiated.

Apart from the variables listed above, Ashworth in Smith and Coldron (1999) identifies four key features of learning:

- *Being attuned to others' discourse*. The way in which teachers participate in PD from the standpoint of their own backgrounds needs to be acknowledged (Smith & Coldron 1999; Somers & Sikorova 2002). The background includes the tradition in the particular school and the subject they are teaching, as well as personal beliefs and values. Teacher learning most likely occurs when PD takes the diverse needs of teachers' students in the specific context of their classrooms into account (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Bernauer 2002; Sachs 1999; Mashile 2002).
- *Sharing emotionally in concerns relevant to learning*. An essential feature of participation is that individuals see themselves as having the right to voice their opinions and to be listened to (Smith & Coldron 1999; Somers & Sikorova 2002).
- *Being assured that they can contribute appropriately and worthily*. Participants need to feel that respected for what they know and can do and they should be treated accordingly in PDP (Smith & Coldron 1999; Somers & Sikorova 2002).
- *Being relatively unthreatened concerning ones identify*. Many teachers faced with changes in curricula may feel that their

threshold of competence has been threatened by having to adjust their methods.

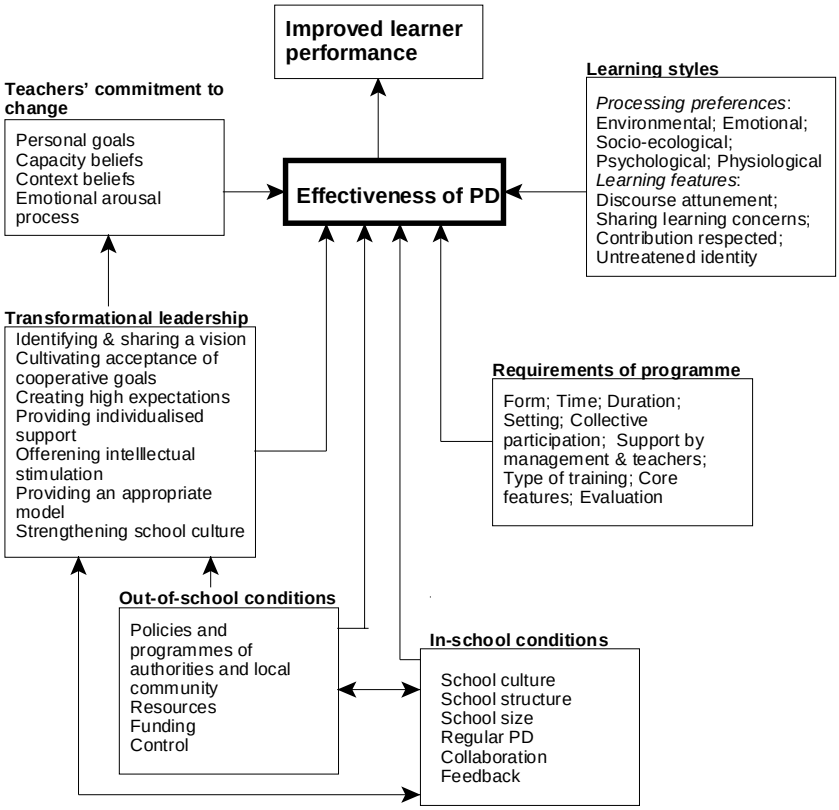

Figure 1: Factors influencing professional development

It is clear from the above that different contexts and different learning styles may require different techniques (Guskey 2002). Consequently, professional learning should offer various opportunities for teachers to construct their own meaning and theories in a collaborative setting (Novick in Robinson & Carrington 2002).

Since the focus of PD programmes is on teacher learning, teacher commitment will play a crucial role in their development (Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi 2000; Bernauer 2002).

Educator commitment

Compared to the school's commitment to change, teachers' commitment is equally if not more important for the success of PD (Ho-Ming & Ping-Yan1999; Pehkonen & Törner 1999; Blackmore 2000). According to Ho-Ming and Ping-Yan (1999) PD will be futile without teachers' whole-hearted commitment, even if such programmes are well designed. Yu, Leithwood, and Jantzi (2000) describe the different aspects of teachers' commitment to develop professionally as follows:

- *Personal goals.* These goals refer to the desired future states internalised by an individual. As an important source of teacher commitment, they must be observed by teachers to energise action.
- *Capacity beliefs.* These beliefs refer to psychological states such as self-efficacy, self-confidence, academic self-concept and aspects of self-esteem. Teachers must also believe that they are capable of accomplishing goals. The study of Lam & Pang (2003) reveals that when teachers are more confident about themselves they are more prepared to be involved in learning.
- *Context beliefs.* They refer to whether the school environment, such as the school governance will provide funds, professional

development or other resources for teachers to effectively implement changes in their classroom practices.

- *Emotional arousal process.* The functions of this process are to create a state of readiness, to activate immediate action and to maintain action.

Law as found in Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) suggests a model for exploring the relationship between staff commitment to PD and leadership. A collaborative culture in schools is considered to be conducive to both PD of teachers (Rhodes & Houghton-Hill 2000). Yu, Leithwood and Jantzi's model (2000) on teachers' commitment to change explicitly identifies the effect of leadership on teacher commitment.

Transformational leadership

Quality leadership is required for effective PD in schools (Bernauer 2002). It provides an orderly and nurturing environment that supports teachers and stimulates their efforts. A skill of an effective leader is to inspire people to work more effectively and to obtain ownership (Mahoney 1997). Mahoney (1997:96) says: Successful leaders are able to commit people to action.

Current trends in leadership show a shift from bureaucratic managerial styles to different leadership styles that reflect human dignity and promote collaboration in decision-making (Asbill & Gonzalez 2000). With such leadership styles principals are visionaries, form collegial relationships with staff and share knowledge with them (Edwards, Green & Lyons 2002). According to Fullan (Sparks 2000b) creating and sharing knowledge is central to effective leadership. If principals do not share leadership with teachers,

development and staff empowerment will unlikely occur (Bernauer 2002).

Transformational forms of leadership fundamentally aim to make events meaningful, cultivate professional development and higher levels of commitment to organisational goals on the part of staff (Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi 2000; Bernauer 2002). The model used in the Canadian study done by Yu, Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) include various transformational leadership dimensions which could influence teacher commitment and have an effect on PD. These dimensions are supported by other researchers. They are:

- *Charismatic leadership: Identifying and sharing a vision*. Charisma is a characteristic that describes leaders who are able to exert a profound influence on followers, the school's performance and climate by the force of their personality, abilities, personal charm, magnetism, inspiration and emotion (Dreher 2002). Charismatic leadership also provides a vision and a sense of mission (Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman 2002).
- *Communicate the mission*: The mission must be clear and emphasise a vision for PD (Professional staff development: A key to school improvement 1999).
- *Assess the school's readiness for change and the level of staff resources*: Each school has its individual culture and resources. A scan of the staff's status reveals staff members' specific PD needs to that training can be tailored accordingly (Somers & Sikorova 2002). In Gordon's study (1999) he found that schools with effective PD devoted time and energy to ensure readiness among staff members.
- *Coordinate priorities*: To plan appropriate PD also implies assessing the school's financial and programmatic resources (Partee & Sammon 2001). To achieve maximum success principals and those who train and support must coordinate staff

development and school reform efforts, laying out the mission, the skills of the staff, the activities of programme developers, the time frames, the deliverables, the tools and the objectives.

- *Set the PACES*: The last step involves Plan, Act, Create/Catalogue, Evaluate and Sustain (PACES).
- *Plan*: A plan should be developed and communicated to all stakeholders that meets the mission of the school and the current needs of the staff (Professional staff development: A key to school improvement 1999).
- *Act:* Act on the plan and follow through with commitments and training required. This shows the seriousness of a commitment to change and improved results (Pehkonen & Törner 1999).
- *Create/Catalogue*: Create an atmosphere that cultivates success for teachers and fosters a PD approach that truly develops professionalism (Bernauer 2002). Catalogue the results of staff's work by using a library of best practices, best resources and best examples of work.
- *Evaluate*: Evaluate the success of the PDP and changes in staff (Bernauer 2002).
- *Sustain:* Sustain changes, improvements and lessons learnt (Somers & Sikorova 2002).
- C*ultivating the acceptance of cooperative goals*: Creating a community of students requires the cultivation of shared values and the development of an appreciation for the value of working together and caring about each other (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Bernauer 2002). The shared values of members in a school community affect their actions which subsequently has an influence on the school culture (Smith & Coldron 1999; Robinson & Carrington 2002; Wood & Millichamp 2000).

- *Creating high performance expectations*: They refer to leaders' expectations for excellence, quality and high performance on the part of staff (Anonymous 2001/2002).
- *Providing individualised support:* he way in which teachers are supported through the process of change is important (Sachs 1999; Brandt 2003; Gerber 1998; Richardson 2003). It is also important to provide emotional, psychological and logistical support to teachers for them to continue developing new habits during the implementation dip that reduces effectiveness before the new procedures become routine (Sparks 2000a; Pehkonen & Törner 1999; Somers & Sikorova 2002).
- *Offering intellectual stimulation*: It challenges teachers to re-examine certain assumptions of their practices and rethink how they could be accomplished (Yu, Leithwood & Jantzi 2000). Such stimulation creates a gap between the current and desired practices and could enhance emotional arousal processes (Somers & Sikorova 2002; Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman 2002).
- *Providing an appropriate model.* Examples are set for staff to follow which are consistent with values leaders advocate (Yu, Leithwood & Jantzi 2000).
- S*trengthening school culture*: A school's culture has far more influence on life and learning in schools that the president of the country, the department of education, the principal, teachers and parents can ever have (Barth in Sparks 2000b). Leadership is overwhelming important in establishing a positive school culture (Campbell 1997). Strengthening school culture refers to leaders' behaviour aimed at developing shared norms, values and beliefs and attitudes among staff and enhancing mutual caring and trust among staff (Yu, Leithwood & Jantzi 2000).

Apart from the crucial effect of leadership on PD, the conditions within a school can play an important role in the effective of PD.

In-school conditions

The Canadian study done by Yu, Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) include mediating variables such as school culture, school structure, strategies for change, and school environment that may affect teacher commitment to change. Since teacher commitment will impact PD, it can be deduced that these variables may also impact PD. Research also reveals some other variables in in-school conditions that may influence the effectiveness of PD.

- *School culture*: It refers to the shared norms, values, beliefs and assumptions shared by role players of an organisation that shape decision-making and practices (Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi 2000; Duff in Lowrie & Smith 1998). This definition has particular implications for PD since it implies not only that PD needs to be congruent with the school culture…therefore PD programme is involved in transmitting the school culture (Somers & Sikorova 2002). The school culture should be humane, that is psychologically comfortable with warm human relationships and professional supportive where people have the resources they need and where they have opportunities to collaborate and learn from others (Brandt 2003; Partee & Sammon 2001; Somers & Sikorova 2002).
- *School structure*: This variable refers to opportunities for teachers in decision making concerning classroom and schoolwide practices. The school structure supports shared and distributed leadership which has the potential for teachers to believe that they are empowered to shape meaningful and feasible changes in the school (Washington 1993).

- *School size*: The size of the school appears to be an important factor for planners of PD (Lowrie & Smith 1998; Smith & Coldron 1999). In larger schools where there is a large amount of staff development activity, many individual teachers appear to be relatively uninvolved with development. On the contrary, teachers appear to be more involved in smaller schools.
- *Regular PD*: Since ongoing development is a characteristic of effective PD, it is obvious that such programmes should be presented on a regular basis.
- *Collaboration*: Teacher collaboration and support are required for PD to be effective (Rhodes & Houghton-Hill 2000; Anonymous 2001/2002; Brandt 2003; Richardson 2003). Unfortunately the traditional culture of teacher isolation and the limited interaction within schools has not encouraged teachers to cooperate as colleagues (Ribisch 1999; Trent 1997; Collinson 2001). In the absence of such interaction, the possibility for change and development in the organisation is limited. Teachers also miss out on any competent feedback with working alone (Ribisch 1999; Bernauer 2002).

PD should provide opportunities for teachers to discuss their achievements and problems in employing new strategies (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Bernauer 2002). By doing so, the collaboration will contribute towards the development of a positive school culture that is committed to change and the creation of better learning opportunities for all (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Rhodes & Houghton-Hill 2000). Collaboration as an end in itself should not be the goal, but rather whether people in the organisation have added knowledge and contributed towards other people's development (Sparks 2000b; Rhodes & Houghton-Hill 2000).

Professionals in collaborative schools view each other as resources with the collective value of providing high quality education for all students (Robinson & Carrington 2002;Shelton & Jones 1996). They utilise strengths and complement each others' knowledge and skills, which create more effective teaching and ownership of their own professional learning (Robinson & Carrington 2002; Bernauer 2002; Blackmore 2000. According to Barth in Purkey and Strahan (1995) the most powerful predictor of student performance is the quality of relationships among staff.

- *Feedback:* Staff development is most effective when it is a continuous process that includes individual follow-up through supportive observation and feedback, staff dialogues, mentoring and peer coaching (Moore 2000; Robinson & Carrington 2002; Richardson 2003). The importance of feedback to teachers on their development is widely supported (Redding & Kamm 1999; Birman, et al 2000;).

Out-of- school conditions

Conditions outside schools have the potential to influence the functioning of schools which may impact PD in schools the following factors are highlighted:

- *Policies and programmes of authorities*: Schools are strongly influenced by changing of control patterns, enrolment fluctuations and policy directives from the education department (Lam & Pang 2003). Schools that were regulated by the education department in the past, have to readjust their working procedures with decentralisation, which may impact PD.
- *Resources*: The quality of teaching and learning depends on people and structural and technical resources which are influ-

enced by community context and policies and programmes of other external role players (King & Newman 2001). Factors include human and social resources such as parent support; resources such as family income and school funding; technical resources such as equipment, materials and technology; and organisational structures; time for teachers to plan and school bureaucracy. Coordination of school resources may assist in developing a coherent, systematic PD strategy but also in identifying multiple objectives that can be supported by a collection of training programmes (Partee & Sammon 2001).

- *Funding*: Planning for continuous PD implies the availability of necessary funding. Funds to support PD may be provided by educational authorities, outside agencies or raised by individual schools.
- *Control*: Responding to change through PD can keep teachers seemingly busy, but makes them dependent where others control their actions (Lowrie & Smith 1998). This is in contrast to empowerment, where teachers take control of change processes (Edwards, Green & Lyons 2002; Englehardt & Simmons 2002).

Requirements for PD Programmes

For PD to be effective certain structural aspects are important.

- *Form*: Traditional approaches are criticised for not giving teachers the time, activities and the content to improve their knowledge and skills (Birman, et al 2000). For PD to be effective, programmes are longer, have more content focus, more active learning and increased coherence.
- *Time*: Quick fixes may not produce the desired results (Blackmore 2000). Teachers need blocks of time without responsibilities for optimal learning to take place (Professional staff devel-

opment: A key to school improvement 1999). There seems to be different views on the time provided for PD. According to Shelton and Jones (1996) time for PD should be provided after school hours. They found that training at the end of a school day has been proven useful for follow-up sessions to focus on special topics. This is in contrast to the findings of Washington (1993) where teachers prefer to have workshops during school hours. After school, weekends and holidays were viewed as the least desirable times to offer PD (Washington 1993).

- *Duration:* PD should take place over an extended period of time (Blackmore 2000; Richardson 2003; Russell 2001).
- *Collective participation*: Collective participation may contribute to a shared professional culture where teachers develop the same values and goals (Birman, et al 2000; Bernauer 2002; Cullen 1999; Drejer 2000). A study done by Ho-Ming and Ping-Yan (1999) indicates that the establishment of a culture of learning and sharing is more conducive to PD. Sharing stimulates teachers' reflection and broadens their perspective (Dixon 1998; Blackmore 2000; Shelton & Jones 1996). According to Dixon (1998) it is the responsibility of each team and individual to make what they have learnt available to others. It means to assume the responsibility as staff member or team for sharing knowledge. Studies indicate indicates that although teachers value the sharing of their knowledge, finding available time was a great barrier (Dixon 1998).
- *Support of management and teacher:* For programmes to be effective, both management and teachers have to support them (Richardson 2003). Washington's study (1993), however, indicates that teachers felt that principals' involvement in PD should be limited to a supportive role and that of a participant in PDP. Principals' attendance communicates they value the

programme. This variable also implies teachers' conscious commitment to programmes and that they also gain ownership of programmes (Russell 2001; Richardson 2003; Campbell 1997; Washington 1993). Teacher ownership is crucial for PD effectiveness (Professional staff development: A key to school improvement 1999; Blackmore 2000).

- *Type of training;* The type of training should be applicable to teachers' practice (Shelton & Jones 1996). Outside providers often used inappropriate activities, which are not geared to classroom learning. Although it is widely acknowledged that students learn differently, schools neglect to apply this concept to PD, using a one-size-fits-all approach (Shaw 2003). Teachers like students may be at different stages of mastery certain skills. A successful PD programme will comprise a variety of different models, each meeting the needs of different teachers and achieving different outcomes. Some models include topical seminars and full staff presentations. In the topical seminar model one or two days are devoted to the goal of PD. The 'one-off' staff day of the 1970s and early 1980s can still be relevant, for example to present topics such as emergency care or new administrative procedures (Campbell 1997; Rhodes & Houghton-Hill 2000). This model works well to explore new approaches and provides an overview of their strengths and weaknesses. Unfortunately little time or structure is provided for follow-up. In the full staff presentations model, lectures and demonstrations are used to the entire staff of a school (Shaw 2003). It may be useful to introduce new approaches that will influence the whole staff. When these presentations fail, it is usually because there is too much detail and not enough time is used to promote the big picture.
- *General guidelines that make good training programmes* (Vincent & Ross 2001; Moore 2000): trainers should be well pre-

pared; outcomes should be clear to everybody; the learning styles of students should be determined before training; an outline of the lesson could provide structure and organisation; different teaching aids should be used and student participation should be encouraged (Sparks 1997); and continuous feedback should be provided (Redding & Kamm 1999).

- *Core features of PDP itself*: The following features may be identified:

  Content focus: Programmes must be contextualised and fit for the school (Mashile 2002; Sparks 1997; Ho-Ming & Ping-Yan1999; Guskey 2002). They should also deepen teachers' knowledge and skills of a particular topic (Birman, et al 2000; Somers & Sikorova 2002). Teachers do not find generic PD effective, such as grouping methods and prefer a PD activity on a specific aspect in teaching, such as increasing a teacher's understanding of the way students solve story problems in mathematics.

  Active learning: Teachers need to be actively involved during in the presentation and obtain feedback on their teaching afterwards (Birman, et al 2000; Blackmore 2000; Moore 2000; Redding & Kamm 1999). Active learning encourages staff to become involved in meaningful discussions, planning and practice as part of the PDP. It also includes opportunities to observe other teachers, present a programme or lead a discussion.

  Coherence: Programmes should encourage continued communication among staff (Birman, et al 2000).

Evaluation

Programme evaluation is a critical and integral part of PD (Professional staff development: A key to school improvement 1999; Vin-

cent & Ross 2001; Russell 2001). Guskey (2002) distinguishes between five critical levels of PD evaluation. Each level builds on the previous one, and the success at one level is therefore necessary for success at higher levels.

Level 1: Participants' reactions. On this level it is necessary to focus on the participants' experience of the programme. Aspects such as their experience of the material, the presentation, usefulness of the programme, convenience of the set-up, et cetera receive attention.

Level 2: Participants' learning. Apart from participants' positive experience of the workshop, it is also important to determine whether they have learnt something from the programme. The type of assessment will depend upon the purpose of the programme. The measures should however, indicate the attainment of specific learning goals.

- Criteria for PDP evaluation on Level 1 and Level 2 include (Professional staff development: A key to school improvement 1999):
- Clarity: Simple and clear statements should be used.
- Decision focus: Concentrate on three categories: content, activities and logistical management.
- Brevity: Use as few as possible items. Such items will likely draw thoughtful responses.
- Anonymity: Construct at least part of the evaluation form to be anonymous.
- Suggestions: Provide opportunities for suggestions regarding the programme.

Level 3: School support and change. In this level the focus shifts to the school as organisation. According to Pehkonen and Törner

(1999) support given to teachers in schools is crucial for teacher change. Lack of support on organisational level can ruin any PD. At level 3 it is necessary to focus on questions regarding the characteristics of the organisation necessary for success (Guskey 2002). To collect information at this level is more difficult than previous levels. Methods for data collection include school records, structured interviews with participants and questionnaires.

Level 4: Participants' use of new knowledge and skills. Did the new knowledge and skills attained make a difference to teachers' practice? Enough time must pass before such information can be gathered through questionnaires, structured interviews with participants and supervisors and participants' portfolios (Guskey 2002). This information will help to restructure future PDP to facilitate more effective implementation.

Level 5 Student learning outcomes. This is the "bottom line" (Guskey 2002). How did the PD affect student performance? Measures on student learning include portfolio evaluation and average marks in tests and examinations. In addition it is also possible to include students' affective outcomes and psychomotor outcomes? Examples include better school attendance, homework completion rates and classroom behaviours. Questionnaires and structured interviews can also be used to determine the perceptions of staff, principals, students and parents.

One should, however, consider that such evaluations of PDP do not prove that PD is effective. The relationship between PD and improvement in student learning is much too complex and include many variables (Guskey 2002).

Conclusion

Ongoing professional development is essential if quality education to students is to be provided (Louw, 1992). Drucker in DuFour and Berkey (1995) elaborates on this view by stating that successful organisations of the twenty-first century will be learning organisations that build continuous learning into jobs at all levels. No pre-service training programmes can effectively prepare staff members for a lifetime in organisations. Moreover, the skills and knowledge of teachers can decline over time. As such there is a need for teachers to be regularly if not continually involved in quality programmes of development for the sake of improving student performance. Unfortunately many programmes that are offered to teachers are inadequate and do not attain their goals. This implies that it is necessary to revisit PD in order to identify factors that will influence its effectiveness.

This article examined factors which may impact the effectiveness of PD for teachers. Specific categories that were highlighted include learning styles of teachers, educator commitment, transformational leadership, out-of-school conditions, in-school conditions and requirements of programmes. According to the model for PD, the design of PD requires a new way of thinking and interacting and most importantly should be a step in the direction of improved student performance.

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The Inviting School Survey–Revised (ISS-R): A Survey for Measuring the Invitational Qualities (I.Q.) of the Total School Climate

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This article describes the revised Inviting School Survey (ISS-R) which is a 50-item checklist based on the 100-item Inviting School Survey (Purkey & Schmidt, 1990, Purkey & Fuller, 1995). Both the original ISS and the ISS-R are designed for use by Grade Four students and above, teachers, school administrators and others associated with the school, such as counselors, psychologists, and social workers. The ISS-R, by being half the length of the original, is easier to administer as well as less time consuming, yet provides the same psychometric properties as the original.

Description

The Inviting School Survey (ISS) was originally designed to informally assess the Invitational Qualities (I.Q.) of the total school climate (Purkey & Novak, 1984; Purkey & Schmidt, 1987) and revised in 1990 (Purkey & Schmidt) to cover the five environmental areas as outlined in Invitational Education theory (Purkey & Novak, 1996, 1984): People, Places, Processes, Policies, and Programs:

People

Although all parts of a school are vital to its operation, from the standpoint of the Invitational Model (Purkey & Novak, 1984),

People are the most important part. People create and maintain the invitational climate. It is important in a school to know how people who are significant in the lives of the students are contributing to or detracting from human existence and development. The invitational model requires unconditional respect for people. This respect is manifested in the caring and appropriate behaviors that people exhibit toward themselves and others, in the quality of life reflected in the places they create and inhabit, by the policies and programs they establish and support, and through the processes employed to sustain their organization and environment. In the Invitational Model, people come first.

Places

When seeking to change an environment, the most obvious place to begin is the physical setting. Any part of the physical plant that is unpleasant, unattractive, littered, grimy, dusty or dingy is disinviting. The ISS-R assists in identifying factors that can be altered, adjusted, or improved to create a more inviting physical place. Creating a pleasant physical environment is a major way that professionals demonstrate their concern for the people they seek to serve.

Processes

Process represents not only the content of what is offered, but also the context. The context of the Invitational Model is that life is never so busy that we have no time for caring, civility, politeness, and courtesy. Any school that operates under a situation where the processes are negative (lack of concern, rudeness, insults, etc.) is likely to achieve poor results in the areas of academics and human

development. Process is the factor that indicates how the school is operating, how the people are acting, rather than what is being done. Examples might be a democratic style of leadership, a cooperative spirit in the teaching/learning process, and inter-disciplinary teaming among faculty.

Policies

The places people create are closely related to the policies they establish and maintain. *Policies* refer to guidelines, rules, procedures, codes, directives and so forth that regulate the ongoing functions of the school. It is not the policy itself as much as what the policy communicates that is vital to the Invitational Model (i.e., trust or distrust, respect or disrespect, optimism or pessimism, intentionality or unintentionality). Policies reveal the perceptual orientations of the policy-makers. The ISS-R is designed to help appraise the governance of schools, and point out areas where schools might move away from "rule fixation" to assisting all who are concerned with the operation of the school (students, parents, administrators, teachers and staff) in becoming responsible for their own behavior.

Programs

As in the other factors, *Programs* can be helpful or harmful to individuals and groups. Some programs are not inviting because they focus on narrow goals and neglect the wide scope of human concerns (for example, tracking or labeling students. People are not labels, and programs that label individuals as different can have negative effects). The ISS-R can assist in determining the inviting nature of school programs and in delineating programs

that should be altered in some way to enhance the personal and professional growth and development of all the people in schools.

Following recent research (Smith & Bernard, 2004; Shoffner & Vacc, 1999) and communication from a number of school administrators, teachers, and counselors it was decided to shorten the ISS in order to facilitate the use of such an instrument in schools. As such, the 100-item ISS has been reduced to 50-items with no significant reduction in psychometric properties (refer to Appendix B). Additionally, in order to enhance scoring and interpretation, retained negatively stated items were re-written to be positively stated.

The ISS-R consists of five subscales representing the degree to which schools are welcoming in the five environmental areas: 16 people items (e.g., "The principal involves students in the decision-making process"), 7 program items (e.g. "There is a wellness (health) program in this school"); 8 process items (e.g., "Grades are assigned by means of fair and comprehensive assessment of work and effort"); 7 policy items (e.g., "School buses rarely leave without waiting for students"); 12 place items (e.g., "The school grounds are clean and well-maintained").

Placed together on a 50-item Likert-type scale, with items addressing each of the five factors of People, Places, Processes, Policies, and Programs, the Inviting School Survey (ISS-R) presents a global picture of life in school, inviting or disinviting. Individuals completing the ISS-R are asked to respond to 50 items on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly Agree" (5) to "Strongly Disagree" (1).

Purpose

The basic idea behind the ISS and the ISS-R is that everything counts in a student's education: from the overall physical facility to the way each individual child is treated in each individual classroom. The ISS-R yields five scores for the five factors and one composite (Total) score of all the questions combined (Details of subscale items are found in Appendix A). In addition to helping assess the "Invitational Quality" (I.Q.) of schools, the ISS-R can also assist school personnel in identifying weaknesses in the system that could be corrected.

The ISS-R is meant to be used in the following ways in a number of different ways:

- To identify schools which are eligible to receive the *Inviting Schools Award*, presented by the International Alliance for Invitational Education, centered at Kennesaw State University, Georgia.
- To identify areas of strength or weakness in a school's climate.
- To use as an assessment tool to see how administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and the community perceive the school.
- To use as a pre-post measure by educators who are implementing a plan to improve or transform their total school.

Special Considerations for Institutionalized Usage of the ISS-R

The Inviting School Award

As with the ISS, the ISS-R can be used as the basis for the *Inviting School Award* which is given by the International Alliance for Invitational Education. In the past the ISS has been a consensus report made by a representative group of three students, three parents, three teachers and the school's principal or headmaster. The score on this report is then compared with the norms that have been collected to see if the school is within the range of "invitingness" necessary to earn the award. Ideally, the group responsible for completing the checklist should be representative of the school's constituency.

However, in the past there has been no guarantee that schools followed directions regarding the selection of judges. Therefore, the scores on these checklists may be somewhat high. See Appendix C for the means of the schools that have submitted applications for the Inviting School Award and for the norms associated with the ISS as used for the *Inviting School Award*.

Information on how to apply for the *Inviting School Award* may be obtained from the International Alliance for Invitational Education Headquarters at Kennesaw State University, Georgia.

An Assessment Instrument for Determining School Climate

To use the ISS-R as an assessment of school climate the following steps should be followed:

- Ideally, every student, teacher, staff person, and administrators in the school should complete the ISS-R. However, practical considerations may require a representative sample group of the various groups.
- Each person completing the ISS-R is asked to do so without conferring with other students, members of the faculty, staff, or administration.
- Each person completing the ISS-R is asked to complete all items.
- The completed ISS-R answer sheet is then returned to the contact person responsible for administering the instrument.
- The answer sheets are then returned to Radford University Center for Invitational Education for scoring and analysis.
- Scores on the five subscales (the five P's) will indicate the climate of the school with respect to each factor, and, therefore, will indicate where change can be made for the school climate to be more inviting. For example, if the total score in the subscale area of *People* is low with respect to the norms, changes in the attitudes of people toward other people in the school might be necessary. In many cases, the scores on the five factors have indicated an overall need to do an in-depth study of the school climate.

Administration and Scoring

The ISS-R was designed for self-administration and may be given in individually or in groups. Although there are no time limits, most respondents complete the instrument within 20 minutes.

As the directions on the ISS-R indicate, participants should record their responses on the answer sheet provided. Most participants do not need prompting to complete the ISS-R. However, if a participant asks about skipping an item, he/she should be encouraged to respond to all items.

When administering the ISS-R to groups, the administrator should read the directions aloud while the participants read them silently. If questions arise during the testing session, the administrator's response should be supportive but noncommittal, for example, "Just give the answer that best describes how you generally feel."

The completed ISS-R answer sheets are returned to Radford University Center for Invitational Education, c/o College of Education & Human Development, Radford University, Radford, Virginia, 24142. Dr Paula Helen Stanley, Director, pstanley@radford.edu. A detailed report will be sent to the school. There is a nominal charge for this service.

Current Research

The five factors of People, Places Processes, Policies and Programs are the basis for the development of the ISS and the ISS-R, with *People* being the most critical single factor. People consist not only of the individuals interacting together on a daily basis to

operate a school. They work together in all aspects to fulfill the mission of the school. This mission includes policy-making, program development, long-range planning both in the areas of physical space usage (places) and usage of mental and emotional resources (curricula, counseling, policy concerning visitors, etc.). It also determines how all these different plans and policies will be implemented.

The ISS is a product of the Invitational Model developed by William W. Purkey and colleagues (Purkey, 1978; Purkey & Novak, 1984; Purkey & Schmidt, 1987, 1990; Purkey & Stanley, 1991). This model supports and encourages inviting practices in all areas of school functioning. The ultimate goal of the model and of the ISS (including the ISS-R) is to assist in the development of the individual student's potential in the intellectual, psychological, social, spiritual, and physical realms. An environment, which is both human and humane, is best for realizing this potential (Novak, 1992; Purkey & Schmidt, 1987).

The ISS was developed to determine which specific parts of schools could affect the total gestalt of the schools under examination. Observation, discussions, and surveys were used to collect information. The discussions were of critical importance to gain the insights of those people closest to the school situation. Such people included school officials and faculty (principals, counselors, and teachers), parents, students, and researchers. Over a number of years the aspects of schools that could impact the learning and personal growth environment were delineated. These were then formulated into behaviorally anchored questions that were intended to assess the invitational climate of the school. "Invitational climate" was the term used to describe the interrelationships of the five P's mentioned above.

In 2004, a detailed psychometric study of the ISS was undertaken by Smith and Bernard. One of the aims of the study was to determine whether the 100-item instrument could be shortened without compromising its psychometric properties. Utilizing Rasch measurement modeling (Rasch, 1980; Bond & Fox, 2001) the focus of the item analysis was to identify misfitting items in sequential calibrations, remove the identified item(s) and repeat the com-putations. The 'infit mean square statistic' was used as the criterion for uni-dimensionality and to investigate whether the subgroups of items "hang together" which is also a check of validity.

The results of this study and further analyses, such as factor and reliability analyses, have shown that reducing the present 100-item ISS to 50 items does not compromise its reliability significantly (See Appendix B).

While it is advisable to have an instrument in which all items are performing adequately previous research has show that the do-main, Programs, is problematic (Shoffner & Vacc, 1999). That is, this particular domain may be subsumed under the other four do-mains. Smith and Bernard (2004) comment that few 'Programs' items have strong psychometric properties. It is suggested that more specific reliable items need to be written so as to have a comprehensive instrument to measure this specific subscale area.

In summary, a shorter version of the ISS lends itself to be used more often by school personnel to assess school culture as per-ceived by the major stakeholders: students, teachers, parents, and administrators.

In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the psychometrics of the ISS-R it is suggested that further research be encouraged. Additionally, future psychometric studies of the Inviting School Survey need to examine the stability of the instrument across age, gender, country, and other school-environment demographics.

To obtain an extensive annotated bibliography of research studies on Invitational Theory and Practice, please contact the Radford University Center for Invitational Education, c/o College of Education & Human Development, Radford University, Radford, Viginia, 24142. Dr Paula Helen Stanley, Director, pstanley@radford.edu.

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Appendix A
The Inviting School Survey - Revised (ISS-R)

PEOPLE ITEMS

3. The principal involves everyone in the decision-making process.
6. Teachers in this school show respect for students.
9. Teachers are easy to talk with.
12. Teachers take time to talk with students about students' out-of-class activities.
15. Teachers are generally prepared for class.
18. Teachers exhibit a sense of humor.
21. People in this school are polite to one another.
24. Teachers work to encourage students' self-confidence.
27. The principal treats people as though they are responsible.
30. Students work cooperatively with each other.
33. People in this school want to be here.
36. People in this school try to stop vandalism when they see it happening.
39. Teachers appear to enjoy life.
42. School pride is evident among students.
45. Teachers share out-of-class experiences with students.
48. Teachers spend time after school with those who need extra help.

PROGRAM ITEMS

2. Everyone is encouraged to participate in athletic (sports) programs.
10. There is a wellness (health) program in this school.
17. School programs involve out of school experience.
23. Good health practices are encouraged in this school.
31. Interruptions to classroom academic activities are kept to a minimum.
38. The school sponsors extracurricular activities apart from sports.
46. Mini courses are available to students.

PROCESS ITEMS

1. Students work cooperatively with one another.
7. Grades are assigned by means of fair and comprehensive assessment of work and effort.
14. All telephone calls to this school are answered promptly and politely.
22. Everyone arrives on time for school.
29. People often feel welcome when they enter the school.
35. Many people in this school are involved in making decisions.
43. Daily attendance by students and staff is high.
50. Classes get started quickly.

POLICY ITEMS

5. Teachers are willing to help students who have special problems.
11. Students have the opportunity to talk to one another during class activities.
19. School policy permits and encourages freedom of expression by everyone.
26. The messages and notes sent home are positive.

34. A high percentage of students pass in this school.
41. School buses rarely leave without waiting for students.
47. The grading practices in this school are fair.

PLACE ITEMS

4. Furniture is pleasant and comfortable.
8. The air smells fresh in this school.
13. The school grounds are clean and well-maintained.
16. The restrooms in this school are clean and properly maintained.
20. The principal's office is attractive.
25. Bulletin boards are attractive and up-to-date.
28. Space is available for student independent study.
32. Fire alarm instructions are well posted and seem reasonable.
37. Classrooms offer a variety of furniture arrangements.
40. Clocks and water fountains are in good repair.
44. There are comfortable chairs for visitors.
49. The lighting in this school is more than adequate.

Appendix B
Validity and Reliability

The Inviting School Survey-Revised (ISS-R) Total Scale and Subscales provide operational measures of the five school environmental areas as outlined in Invitational Education theory – People, Programs, Processes, Policies, and Places.

While there is limited research on the *concurrent and predictive validity* of the ISS-R, *face and content* validity certainly exists. That is, the instrument's items represent and measure major school climate factors as judged by experts and practitioners in the field of invitational education.

The reliability (internal consistency) of the Inviting School Survey was evaluated by Chronbach's alpha coefficients and Guttman's split-half alpha coefficients using SPSS Version 13 (SPSS, 2004). Results of these analyses can be found Tables 1 and 2. As shown by these results the internal consistency of the ISS-R is reasonably good.

Table 1
Inviting School Survey Chronbach's Coefficient Alphas for 100 and 50 Item Bank

Number of Items	People	Program	Process	Policy	Place	Total
100	.81 30 items	.54 10 items	.68 20 items	.61 20 items	.71 20 items	.93 100 items
50	.77 16 items	.48 7 items	.49 8 items	.52 7 items	.66 12 items	.88 50 items

n = 469

Table 2
Inviting School Survey Guttman's Split-Half Reliability Alphas for 100 and 50 Item Bank

Number of Items	People	Program	Process	Policy	Place	Total
100	.81 30 items	.53 10 items	.62 20 items	.54 20 items	.64 20 items	.90 100 items
50	.75 16 items	.46 7 items	.57 8 items	.54 7 items	.65 12 items	.86 50 items

n = 469

Bivariate correlational analyses were performed on the five subscales for the 100-item and the 50-item ISS. As can be determined by Table 3 all correlations were statistically significant ($p < .001$).

Table 3
Correlation Matrix for Inviting School Survey Subscales
for 100 and 50 Item Bank

SubScale	People	Program	Process	Policy	Place
People	------	.49***	.59***	.59***	.59***
Program	.55***	------	.42***	.40***	.55***
Process	.76***	.51***	------	.45***	.44***
Policy	.70***	.52***	.68***	------	.51***
Place	.67***	.54***	.62***	.62***	------

Note. Upper diagonal are correlations for 50-item ISS (n = 469), Lower diagonal are correlations for 100-item ISS (n = 469).
*** p < .001.

Appendix C
Inviting School Award Norms

Table 4
Inviting School Award Norms Prior to 1992

Subscale	N	Mean
People	20	92.26%
Programs	18	90.88%
Processes	20	91.26%
Policies	17	93.26%
Places	21	90.38%

Table 5
1992 Inviting School Award Norms

Subscale	N	Mean
People	6	90.86%
Programs	6	88.66%
Processes	7	90.42%
Policies	7	91.42%
Places	6	89.34%

Table 6
Total Inviting School Award Norms

Subscale	N	Mean
People	26	91.94%
Programs	24	90.32%
Processes	27	91.04%
Policies	24	92.72%
Places	27	90.14%

Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice

The Hoffmeyer Mentoring Activity Checklist: Invitations to Professional Growth

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In this article, invitational theory is applied to the process of mentoring. The results of three research studies exploring mentoring of first-year school teachers led to factor analysis research in which 22 specific mentor related activities and behaviors in assisting first-year teachers are identified. These results were compiled to create the Hoffmeyer Mentoring Activity Checklist (HMAC).

Introduction

Mentoring is a concrete application of invitational theory. In fact, mentoring is a direct application of the statement, "Humans need invitations the way flowers need sunshine" (Purkey & Novak, 1984, p. 10). The present article briefly defines mentoring in the context of some of the related theoretical concepts of invitational theory. Three research studies, comparing different mentoring programs with first-year school teachers in Southwest Texas, formed the basis for the development of a mentoring checklist. The Hoffmeyer Mentoring Activity Checklist (HMAC) identifies 22 specific ways mentors and the supporting school districts can be inviting to first-year teachers.

The original "Mentor" first appeared in Greek mythology. Mentor was the name of a trusted friend and wise advisor to Odysseus. When he later left to fight in the Trojan War, Odysseus entrusted the teaching of his son Telemachus to Mentor. In modern times the word "mentor" is usually used in reference to "…a friend and role model, an able advisor, a person who lends support in many different ways to one pursuing specific goals…sometimes the mentor must be a story teller; at other times an empathetic listener, occasionally it's a coach's pep talk that is needed. The art is not knowing what to say but how to say it" (Peddy, 1998, p. 24-25).

Eckstein (2005) notes that:

> Whether it is in a total program relationship or in just one single course, mentors have a unique opportunity and a privilege to share personal knowledge, skills, and insights from one's own experience. Mentors share personal wisdom in an apprentice relationship, but ultimately encourage each learner to go beyond, to stand on their shoulders, and to see and create a better world. (p. 3)

Too often mentors are guilty of what values clarification expert Sid Simon (1995) called "red-pencil mentality." By that he meant that mentors often think that identifying the mistakes made by one's protégé is the primary purpose of interventions. Invitational theory as well as the contemporary "positive psychology" movement and even the classic work of Alfred Adler all stress the need to build on strengths and not on weaknesses. It is important that mentors act on the premise of "catching someone doing something right."

Assumptions and Basic Constructs of Invitational Theory

The concept of Invitational Education was first introduced by Pukey in 1978 and represents a "process by which people are cordially summoned to realize their relatively boundless potential" (Purkey & Novak, 1984, p. 3). This process is a perfect descriptor of the act of mentoring wherein an experienced individual serves in the role of friend and teacher to assist a "newcomer," in this case a beginning teacher, to develop into a more effective professional.

An inviting relationship "… has the potential to improve both the immediate human condition and the long-term growth and health of people. … The inviting relationship is as much a therapeutic attitude, an orientation in character, a 'dispositional quality,' as it is a methodology. As such, it can be applied to interactions with people in a wide variety of places…" (Purkey & Schmidt, 1987, p. 3).

Professionals who apply the principles of invitational theory and practice adhere to four fundamental beliefs.

1. Everyone wants to be accepted and affirmed as valuable, capable, and responsible, and wants to be treated accordingly.
2. Everyone has the power to create beneficial messages for themselves and others, and because they have this power, they also have the responsibility.
3. Everyone possesses relatively untapped potential in all areas of learning and human development.
4. Human potential is best realized by creating places, programs, policies, and processes intentionally designed to in-

> vite optimal development and encourage people to realize this potential in themselves and others (Purkey & Novak, 1996 in Schmidt 2004).

The Adlerian concept of encouragement is quite similar to the process of providing invitations through appropriate people, places, policies, and programs. Schmidt (2004) observes that these elements can be 1) intentionally disinviting, unintentionally disinviting, unintentionally inviting and intentionally inviting. He believes that "…successful relationships are established through the intentional creation of beneficial messages chosen and sent within a caring context that dependably demonstrates optimism, trust, and respect for all persons involved in the process" (p. 43).

What follows is a research oriented example of how an invitational approach has been applied to mentoring first-year teachers.

Mentoring and Coaching Research with First-Year Teachers

Hoffmeyer (1998) researched the role of mentoring and coaching with first-year public school teachers in three separate projects. These all took place in the Edinburg Consolidated Independent School District, a large multi-high school district located in the Rio Grande Valley of South Texas. This district has a high Hispanic student population (95 percent), with a relatively high percentage of Hispanic teachers (81.5 percent).

In the third of the three projects, two trainers from the central office of the school district helped train the teacher/mentors. The training primarily focused on working with the adult learner and how to be a role model for the first-year teacher. The district sup-

ported project involved all mentors and first-year teachers in the district covering both elementary and secondary campuses. The district project provided a stipend to the mentors (though not to the first-year teachers) for a total of 30 combined hours of training and mentoring time.

While feedback from first-year teachers indicated that their mentor/coaches were at least "adequate," several suggestions were made by Hoffmeyer for improving the mentoring process based on teacher feedback after the mentoring interventions had ended. Components missing from this project were:

- Provisions for allowing the mentor/mentee dyad to be self-selecting;
- Starting assistance before the mentees classroom teaching begins;
- Helping the first-year teacher apply a decision making model;
- A common release time adequate to accomplish the mentoring program;
- Adequate resources; and
- Evidence of collaboration among a variety of organizations and institutions.

The district project had a strong training model for mentors, but could have more effectively involved the first-year teachers in the process. Suggestions from participants would be to have the project designers reduce the time spent on laws and definitions of mentoring and replace those with more scenarios of problems encountered by the mentors.

Because many of the mentors were on different campuses than their protégées, assistance in assimilating into the culture of the

first-year teacher's campus was not possible. Similarly, assisting with policies and procedures was not evident in many of the interview sessions. The critical elements that were missing from both cycles of this project would have to be proximity and the mentor and mentee not having a common subject or grade level. These two factors impacted efficacy of the model. One specific recommendation in mentoring first-year teachers would be to conduct an ethnographic study to more closely observe the actual culture of being a first-year teacher.

Based on the review of the literature, the critical elements of mentoring were listed. Using a forced analysis technique that took critical component descriptions from the literature review, analyzed these critical components to ascertain the preponderance of similar descriptors on mentoring, the *HMAC* was developed. This instrument was divided into three essential mentoring areas: 1) Section I describes the qualities of mentors that create an invitational relationship with their mentees; 2) Section II describes the specific activities and strategies employed in the mentoring relationship; and 3) Section III details the institutional parameters that serve to support the mentoring process.

Summary

Mentoring is one of the most encouraging ways that first-year and indeed all teachers can feel invited to improve their own classroom effectiveness. The present article identifies 22 specific factors that mentors can use to extend invitations to first-year teachers. The Hoffmeyer Mentoring Activity Checklist (HMAC) can serve to provide both specific administrative guidelines for program development as well as being a checklist for evaluating mentor effectiveness with teachers.

The Hoffmeyer Mentoring Activity Checklist (HMAC)

		I. Qualities of Mentors	Rating (Optional)
___	a.	Mentors demonstrate qualities of, and a clear understanding of, effective teacher performance.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	b.	Mentors have the ability to work with teachers – in- training analyzing and critiquing lessons to promote further growth and reflection.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	c.	Mentors are supportive and non-evaluative, with a clear distinction between supervision and evaluation.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	d.	Mentors are flexible enough to deal with individual context specific concerns of the first-year teacher. They also demonstrate an understanding and appreciation of mentor and mentee differences.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	e.	Mentors are experienced teachers.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 – 5
		II. Activities of Mentors	
___	a.	Mentors provide information about policies and procedures.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	b.	Mentors provide assistance with classroom management/ discipline.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	c.	Mentors assist mentees in understanding individual student differences and how those differences impact student performance and evaluation.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	d.	Mentors provide information concerning interaction with parents.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	e.	Mentors assist the first-year teacher's assimilation into the school/work environment.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	f.	Mentors help the first-year teacher apply a decision making model.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	g.	Mentors provide instructional paradigms – not only how but why.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	h.	Mentors provide emotional support for the first-year teacher.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5

HMAC continued

	III. Institutional Parameters		
___	a.	The school district provides a formal training program for mentors.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	b.	Timing of the program implementation – program should be modified to start assistance before the mentees classroom teaching begins.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	c.	Have the mentor and mentee teach the same content and/or grade level with as close physical proximity as possible.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	d.	A common release time adequate to accomplish the mentoring program.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	e.	Adequate resources (human and material) available to support the program.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	f.	Reasonable teaching assignment for the mentee within the realm of his or her certified competencies.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	g.	Administrative emphasis in the importance if the mentor teacher in long-term instructional improvement.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	h.	Improved evidence of collaboration among a variety of organizations and institutions (an example could be a mentor/peer/university triad support system) is suggested.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
___	i.	Improved provisions for allowing the mentor/mentee dyad (team) to be self-selecting are recommended.	1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5

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Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice

Reflections upon the Invitational Model and 5 Powerful P's in Working with Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

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The author recently spent part of a sabbatical from her university exploring the most current research on treating clients diagnosed with Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). During the sabbatical, she was struck by how her own complacency had become unintentionally disinviting to her work with these clients, as she learned that preconceptions she had about treatment were not considered best practice. The article is a personal reflection of the insights she gained about PTSD and a reaffirmation of the relevance of the invitational model (and the 5 Powerful P's) to working effectively with all clients.

According to the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition, Text Revision* (DSM-IV-TR), Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is defined as an anxiety disorder "characterized by the re-experiencing of an extremely traumatic event accompanied by symptoms of increased arousal and by avoidance of stimuli associated with the trauma" (p. 429). Typically, the client diagnosed with PTSD will be prescribed medications, such as Prozac, Paxil, or Zoloft (Gorman, 1997, p. 91) and encouraged to 'debrief' in small group therapeutic settings (Seligman & Rosenhan, 1998, p. 146-147).

As part of my recent sabbatical, I chose to research appropriate therapies for working with victims of trauma and had targeted a couple of specific interventions I wanted to explore. But my preconceived attitudes about diagnosing (labeling) and intervening

through a combination of medication and small group interventions definitely affected what I presumed would be the outcomes of my research. Not realizing it, I had begun to disinvite my clients by referring to traumatized individuals as though they were all the same; "PTSD", a cluster of symptoms and interventions, not *individual* people for whom places, policies, programs and processes might vary according to their *individual* needs.

Although I pride myself upon being sensitive and invitational with the individual client, I had definitely felt complacent about my current knowledge of PTSD and appropriate interventions. After conducting this research, I feel compelled to share some of my 'discoveries' with other 'invitational types' who may have become equally complacent in their work. In this case, discussion centers upon traumatized individuals, but the problem of complacency is as relevant for work with any population of individuals who have been diagnosed or labeled.

Throughout my efforts to understand and work with PTSD, I have been reminded of Purkey's discussion of the 5 Powerful P's: People, Places, Policies, Programs, and Processes. His discussion of the P's in his book, *What Students Say to Themselves* (2000) came to mind numerous times as I learned more about working with PTSD. Although this book does not deal specifically with mental disorders, Purkey describes internal dialogues that go on within clients and practitioners that may be helpful and harmful. He mentions the "gap between theory and practice" and how that gap may be "difficult to breach" (p. 34). In this particular passage, Purkey is talking about research and practice related to self-esteem, but the point is applicable to this article since my 'practice' was not in step with current 'research' on PTSD.

People

Why do we label? According to the *DSM-IV-TR*, we label in order to assist in formulating an evaluation of the client and to provide an adequate treatment plan (p. xxxiv). Seligman and Rosenhan (1998) add to this by noting that we also use diagnosis in order to receive third–party insurance payment and to provide a common language for clinicians and researchers to use in providing better understanding of clients. But what happens when the label becomes the person, ignoring the uniqueness of the individual?

In regard to PTSD, I've learned that responses to trauma tend to be very unique, as details of the traumatic experience will also be unique. I've also learned that the incidence of trauma is extremely high. Although there are many reports from federal, state, and local sources that are alarming, studies suggest that 10-20% of all boys have been sexually abused in some way (Homes, 1998); and the number apparently quadruples for girls (United States Bureau of Justice, 2002). In other words, the likelihood is great that you, the reader, or someone you know is suffering as the result of direct experience or witnessing a traumatic event.

Policies, Programs, and Processes

Because those with PTSD re-experience the trauma, triggers can vary in type and number for each victim. During group counseling, re-experiencing is more likely to occur because of the sharing that goes on among victims in the group. Because of those individual differences and therapeutic complexity, client-directed, individual interventions are recommended, using a multiple technique/eclectic approach to therapy. (Note: For purposes of this dis-

cussion, the terms counseling/therapy; counselor/therapist will be used interchangeably.)

Appropriate policies, programs, and processes regarding work with PTSD have to be considered within the individual context of the client's trauma. Even when diagnosis has not been complicated by symptoms that may appear to be better associated with another diagnosis, i.e. Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Conduct Disorder, and other learning disorders, treatment should begin with analysis of the individual's situation. Experts repeatedly warn against prescribing medication with these individuals, as well as the immediate introduction of group counseling or 'de-briefing'.

Instead of pushing the traumatized client to share too many details too soon, experts suggest that the counselor invite the client by first and foremost establishing a trusting relationship. Within that safe haven, details can emerge and their powers to harm become neutralized. Cautioning against the use of psychiatric drugs, group sessions, and 'catch-all' diagnostic labels, experts tell us to be creative in our use of individualized techniques. They also encourage us to ignore or find ways to circumvent insurance company mandates for limiting sessions and directing the modalities we use to treat these clients.

There are many techniques that the counselor can employ to facilitate wellness in therapy with traumatized clients. These techniques may include journaling, art therapy, role plays, dream work, and regression therapy. Experts also recommend that we permit the client to direct the course of therapy in order to regain a sense of control in relationships. Counselors are encouraged to allow therapeutic venues in which the client can explore his/her unique sense of

spirituality; the operative term here being *unique*, rather than counselor-imposed. Personally, I had avoided using some of these techniques because they appeared to be 'anti-mainstream therapy'. Now the experts resoundingly affirm the contrary. For a more complete listing and description of the aforementioned techniques—and others—that may be successfully employed with those diagnosed with Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder, refer to Rothschild (2003), *The Body Remembers: Casebook* or www.PTSDAlliance.org.

Places

For me, the biggest surprise of all—and it probably should not have been because my son has struggled with environmental sensitivities—involved the significance of the place where counseling occurs with trauma victims. Although I may have inadvertently done the 'right' thing because I shun fluorescent lighting in favor of table lamps and try to rid my office of noxious odors, I had not considered the potential triggering effects of those stimuli for traumatized individuals.

Many counseling offices are very clinical-appearing. Fluorescent lighting is generally the norm, and the scent of cleaning fluids or air fresheners (to mask the cleaning fluid smell) permeates the air. Experts on trauma suggest that the glare of fluorescent lighting is counterproductive to sharing. Instead, desk or table lamps with regular frosted or clear light bulbs are recommended. Fluorescent lighting, because of its prevalence, can also be a trigger for re-experiencing. Odors can also elicit strong emotions, as well as trigger allergic reactions in traumatized clients who often re-experience through phobias and allergies (Rapp, 1991).

Too much sensory stimulation can also impede work with clients diagnosed with PTSD; so the place where counseling occurs should be neat, homey, well-lit, well-ventilated, and clear of too much background noise or visual stimulation (i.e. posters, certificates, knick-knacks, etc.).

Summary

What I hope has become apparent to the reader is that the invitational model is very applicable to our work as helping professionals. Sometimes, we may ignore the wisdom of the model because we have become complacent in our knowledge of a label—in this case, an increasingly prevalent mental disorder diagnosis—at the risk of ignoring the individuality of the person we are seeking to help. We can also assume, as I had, that the policies, programs and processes with which we have become familiar over the years are still 'best practice'. Instead, we should continually strive to remain current and avoid feeling professionally smug.

In my case, it was only too easy to conceptualize an individual as a stereotypical diagnosis and proceed to refer for medication and group therapy; in essence, to push the client to share the details of the trauma too soon. Even though my original doctoral training emphasized individual therapy, not group, I had accepted the idea that certain processes regularly followed in the treatment of all clients diagnosed with PTSD.

Inviting the client through the establishment of trust and rapport within the one-on-one relationship between the client and counselor is critical in the treatment of PTSD. During that process, the counselor must be patiently working to recognize and understand

the unique details and reactions of the client to the trauma. As much as possible, the client should feel a regained sense of control through the direction that the therapy takes, while the counselor is considers a broad framework of possible techniques to assist the client in feeling safe. In providing that safe haven for exploration, the client can begin to neutralize the power of the traumatic event and regain control and direction in his/her life.

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Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice

Can Accountability Be Inviting? An Assessment of Administrators' Professionally and Personally Inviting Behaviors

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The purpose of this study was to assess administrators' professionally and personally inviting behaviors and examine whether administrators' reported behaviors were correlated with school rankings, job satisfaction, school climate, or time spent on instructional leadership. Overall, both principals and assistant principals reported engaging in high levels of professionally and personally inviting behaviors. This suggests that, with respect to inviting leadership behaviors, administrators believe that they have adjusted to the demands of Florida's test-based accountability system and are able to be inviting leaders.

Introduction

Current state and national reform efforts, such as the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001* (NCLB, 2002), force administrators to increase students' standardized test scores or face sanctions and the disgrace of having their school labeled with a low ranking. It is no wonder that, in an era of high-stakes accountability, many teachers and principals have reported feeling a lot of stress and pressure in their jobs (George, 2001; Jones, Jones, & Hargrove, 2003). We were curious as to whether this pressure was having an effect on administrators' leadership behaviors, so we designed a study to assess administrators' professionally and personally inviting be-

haviors using self-report scales. In addition, we examined whether administrators' reported behaviors were correlated with school rankings, job satisfaction, school climate, or time spent on instructional leadership.

Theoretical Framework

We chose to use Invitational Education Theory (IET) as a framework for this study because it has been shown to be a useful theory in the educational setting (Asbill, 1994; Barth, 1991; Egley, 2003). According to Purkey and Siegel (2003), "Invitational Leadership is a theory of practice that addresses the total environment in which leaders function. As a theory put into practice, it is a powerful process of communicating caring and appropriate messages intended to summon forth the greatest human potential as well as for identifying and changing those forces that defeat and destroy potential" (p. 1). Their model of Invitational Leadership is one that encourages leaders and their associates to pursue more joyful and meaningful professional and personal lives through four guiding principles: respect, trust, optimism, and intentionality. Purkey and Novak (1996) noted that IET is a theory of practice that offers a systematic approach to the educational process and it provides strategies for making schools more inviting. IET furnishes educators with principles of practicing behaviors that seek to integrate, in creative and ethical ways, research, theory, and practice.

Invitational Leadership differs from the standard theories of leadership that emphasize the process of influencing others through the use of power. Instead, it promotes collaboration and shows compassion and respect for individuals in the educational system. Barth (1991) noted that improving the interactions among and between

teachers and principals is a significant factor in the school improvement process.

The goal of Invitational Leadership is to create schools with a climate that invites everyone in the school to experience success. Strahan and Purkey (1992) concluded that the school climate should reflect a sense of excitement and satisfaction for both students and staff. Purkey and Novak (1984) contended that educators should operate from a consistent stance of respect, trust, optimism, and intentionality. The research literature on the role of school climate in improving student achievement is widespread with findings that support school climate as a variable that has an effect on other variables in the educational environment (Anderson, 1982; Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Strong & Jones, 1991).

The tenants of IET deal with the five Ps of any organization: people, places, programs, policies, and procedures. The present study focuses on the *people* aspect of the IET and specifically investigates the inviting behaviors of elementary school administrators in the state of Florida. This study builds on the work of Asbill (1994) who documented elementary school principals' inviting behaviors (IBs) and Egley (2003) who expanded the research of Asbill and examined the IBs of secondary principals in Mississippi.

Method

Participants

Of Florida's 67 school districts, about half (47.8%) of all districts (32 out of 67 districts) agreed to participate in this study. We contacted the principals at all of the elementary schools in the districts agreeing to participate a total of three times: twice by electronic

mail (email) and once by letter. In the email correspondence we explained the purpose of the survey, asked them to invite their assistant principal(s) to participate, and provided them with the Web site URL for the online survey. We sent a paper copy of the survey to those who did not complete the online survey within two weeks.

We received completed surveys from 325 administrators that included: 212 principals; 96 assistant principals; and 17 who did not indicate their administrative rank. These administrators represented 41.6% of the schools (264 out of 635 schools) within the school districts participating. Two-thirds of the administrators were female (67.0%) and most were White or Caucasian (87.0%), while 10.8% were Black or African-American, 0.6% were Hispanic, and 1.5% were of another race/ethnicity. Participants ranged in age from 26 to 63 years old (M = 49.7 years old, SD = 7.0). The principals had an average of 9.9 years of experience as a principal (SD = 6.6) and 4.2 years of experience as an assistant principal (SD = 3.3). The assistant principals had an average of 0.3 years experience as a principal (SD = 1.1) and 5.8 years of experience as an assistant principal (SD = 5.0).

Questionnaire and Analysis

Administrators rated their professionally and personally inviting behaviors by completing a 12-item questionnaire. Seven of the items assessed their professionally inviting behaviors (Professionally IB) and five items assessed their personally inviting behaviors (Personally IB). Each item was rated using a 5-point Likert-format scale where: 1 = *very seldom or never*, 2 = *seldom*, 3 = *occasionally*, 4 = *often*, and 5 = *very often or always*. Administrators were

asked to select the response that best described his/her own perception of his/her leadership behaviors.

We had used the questionnaire items in a prior study to assess teachers' perceptions about their administrators' inviting behaviors and found both scales to be highly reliable (α = .92 for the Professionally IB scale and α = .93 for the Personally IB scale; Egley & Jones, in press). These items were originally part of a larger set of scale items that were developed by Asbill (1994). Tables 1 and 2 show the complete list of questionnaire items used in the present study.

Results and Discussion

The means and standard deviations for the 12 questionnaire items and the Professionally and Personally IB scales are provided in Tables 1 and 2. Overall, both principals and assistant principals reported engaging in high levels of professionally and personally inviting behaviors. In fact, the lowest mean rating for principals or assistant principals was a 4.15 (a little more than "often"). This finding is encouraging because high levels of inviting behaviors are associated with the principles of moral commitment to coworkers. By increasing the concern to many within the organization, the leader can appear to be more thoughtful and reflective of the totality of the relationships within the organization (Sirotnik, 1990).

Reform strategies have historically caused people within the organization to adjust to the new demands and expectations that the movement imposes on them. Some of the adjustments that leaders make may be associated with learning new ways of seeing and dealing with things that they have experienced for years. With re-

spect to inviting leadership behaviors, administrators believe that they have adjusted to the demands of Florida's test-based accountability movement and are able to be inviting leaders.

In another study, we found that teachers also rated their principals highly in inviting behaviors, although not quite as highly as the administrators in the present study (Egley & Jones, in press). Teachers provided an average rating of 4.26 for their principals for professionally inviting behaviors and 4.16 for personally inviting behaviors. In comparison, principals and assistant principals in the present study rated themselves 4.70 or higher on both the professionally and personally inviting behavior scales.

With only one exception, the mean values for the scale items can be ranked from highest to lowest in the same order for both principals and assistant principals. For example, on the Professionally IB scale, the highest mean value was reported by both principals and assistant principals on the item "You expect high levels of performance from co-workers," followed by the next highest-rated item related to communicating expectations. In this respect, principals and assistant principals have similar perceptions of their inviting behaviors.

To test for differences between principals and assistant principals, we conducted *t*-tests for each item and scale. A few statistically significant differences emerged as is shown by the asterisks in Tables 1 and 2. These differences, however, are generally small and indicate that, overall, principals and assistant principals have similar perceptions about their inviting behaviors.

Unfortunately, the reliability scores for the Professionally and Personally IB scales were low, ranging from .31 to .69. Furthermore, our analyses did not reveal that any one or two items were particularly uncorrelated with the remainder. The items simply did not correlate with one another as highly as we expected. This finding was surprising to us because when the same scales were used assess teachers' perceptions of principals inviting behaviors, the reliability scores were found to be .92 for the Professionally IB scale and .93 for Personally IB scale (Egley & Jones, in press). We believe that one possible explanation for the low reliability scores in the present study was that the range of values for each item was small, which can lower the reliability estimates. That is, the correlations between items tend to be small when the item responses do not vary (Shannon & Davenport, 2001). Because Cronbach's coefficient alpha is based on correlations between items, the reliability of the scale is lowered when the item variation is small.

The second purpose of our study was to determine whether the reported inviting behaviors were correlated with school rankings, job satisfaction, school climate, or time spent on instructional leadership. Because of the low reliability of the scale scores, however, we view the correlations between these scales and the other variables only as an initial investigation that needs further exploration. More reliable scale scores might increase or decrease the correlations reported in this study.

The Professionally IB scale was moderately correlated with the Personally IB scale for both principals ($r = .43$) and assistant principals ($r = .42$). Level of job satisfaction and school climate were also correlated with both the Professionally and Personally IBs for both principals and assistant principals (see Table 3). This indicates that administrators who rated their inviting behaviors higher

also rated their job satisfaction and the climate of their school as higher, and visa versa. This finding is consistent with other studies that have found teachers' job satisfaction to be correlated with principals' inviting behaviors (Asbill, 1994; Egley, 2003). Taken together, these results suggest that when administrators are more inviting, both they and their teachers are more satisfied with their jobs. Because these findings are only correlational, future studies could examine whether the inviting behaviors actually lead to job satisfaction.

Administrators' inviting behaviors were generally not correlated with their school's ranking, with the exception of principals' professionally inviting behaviors. In other words, principals who perceived themselves to have higher professionally inviting behaviors also tended to have higher student scores on state standardized tests. It seems reasonable that professionally inviting behaviors would be more predictive of test scores than personally inviting behaviors. However, it is unclear as to why assistant principals' inviting behaviors would not be correlated with increased test scores.

Finally, it was interesting to find that principals' inviting behaviors were correlated with the amount of time per day that they reported spending on instructional leadership. Instructional leadership involves frequent monitoring of the teaching process to assess the instructional capacity of the educational organization. As instructional leaders, principals are responsible for ensuring that each student has the opportunity to receive a quality education. Because instructional leadership has been shown to have positive effects on instructional practice (Quinn, 2002), the relationship between a

principal's inviting behaviors and instructional leadership should be investigated further.

Conclusion

Despite the pressure of high-stakes testing, both principals and assistant principals have high perceptions of their professionally and personally inviting behaviors. We view this as an encouraging finding because of the positive outcomes associated with inviting behaviors. Another positive finding is that when administrators are more inviting, they are more satisfied with their jobs and perceive their school climate to be healthier. These findings suggest that invitational education theory may be a useful construct through which to view the work of educational administrators.

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Table 1

Differences Between Principals and Assistant Principals for the Professionally Inviting Behavior Scale and Items

	Principals[a]		Assistant Principals[b]			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*
Professionally Inviting Behaviors scale	4.70	0.29	4.72	0.26	297	0.69
1. You expect high levels of performance from co-workers	4.90	0.30	4.92	0.28	304	0.33
2. You communicate expectations for high academic performance from students	4.77	0.45	4.83	0.38	217	1.41
3. You have a sense of mission you share with others	4.71	0.47	4.76	0.43	199	1.06
4. You create a climate for improvement through collaboration and shared decision making	4.70	0.48	4.71	0.46	306	0.41
5. You facilitate policies and procedures which benefit staff, students, and teachers	4.66	0.53	4.74	0.44	216	1.37
6. You offer constructive feedback for improvement in a respectful manner	4.58	0.52	4.69	0.49	201	1.98**
7. You provide opportunities for professional growth through meaningful in-service	4.56	0.62	4.40	0.66	305	1.91*

Note. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-format scale that ranged from: 1 = *very seldom or never*, 2 = *seldom*, 3 = *occasionally*, 4 = *often*, 5 = *very often or always*

[a]n = 203, α = .69. [b]n = 96, α = .63. * $p < .10$, ** $p < .05$

Table 2

Differences Between Principals and Assistant Principals for the Personally Inviting Behavior Scale and Items

	Principals[a]		Assistant Principals[b]			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*
Personally Inviting Behaviors scale	4.71	0.28	4.79	0.21	245	2.68**
1. You make an intentional effort to treat others with trust and respect	4.92	0.28	4.98	0.14	305	2.71***
2. You care about co-workers	4.91	0.29	4.96	0.20	255	1.71*
3. You are polite to others	4.87	0.34	4.90	0.31	306	0.80
4. You demonstrate optimism	4.71	0.48	4.78	0.44	198	1.35
5. You take time to talk with faculty and staff about their out-of-school activities	4.15	0.74	4.32	0.69	305	1.92

Note. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-format scale that ranged from: 1 = *very seldom or never*, 2 = *seldom*, 3 = *occasionally*, 4 = *often*, 5 = *very often or always*

[a]n = 208, α = .60. [b]n = 96, α = .31.

* $p < .10$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Table 3

Intercorrelations Between Inviting Behaviors Scales and Four Other Variables

	Professionally IB		Personally IB	
	Principals	Assistant Principals	Principals	Assistant Principals
Personally IB	.43***	.42***	--	--
School ranking [a]	.15*	-.04	.04	.05
Level of job satisfaction [b]	.16*	.39***	.27***	.32***
School climate [c]	.35***	.35***	.29***	.28**
Time per day spent on instructional leadership [d]	.24***	.20	.01	.09

[a] Each school was assigned a grade by the state based on their student test scores on standardized tests. For this analysis, we assigned each school grade a numerical value, where: A = 5, B = 4, C = 3, D = 2, and F = 1

[b] Administrators rated their job satisfaction on a 7-point Likert-format scale where: 1 = very dissatisfied, 4 = satisfied, and 7 = very satisfied

[c] Administrators rated their school climate on a 7-point Likert-format scale where: 1 = very unhealthy, 4 = somewhat healthy, and 7 = very healthy

[d] Administrators provided the percentage of time on an average day that they spent on instructional

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