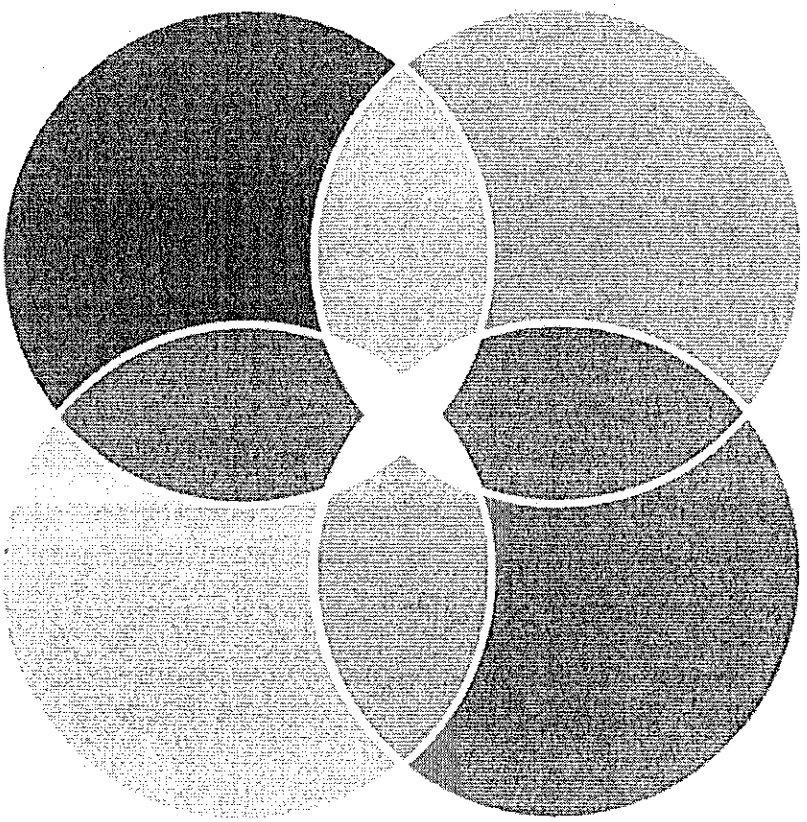
THE FRAMEWORK FOR TEACHING

EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

2013 EDITION



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INTRODUCTION

The Framework for Teaching was one of the models selected for this large-scale study, which involved the (online) training and certification of hundreds of observers for the purpose of rating the quality of teaching in the lessons. In order to fulfill this obligation, it became necessary to supply additional tools to aid in the training of observers, so that they could make accurate and consistent judgments about teaching practice as demonstrated in the large numbers of videotaped lessons. The following additional tools included:

- *Rubric language tighter even than that of the 2007 edition of the Framework for Teaching.* Furthermore, the levels of performance in the 2011 revision are written at the component, rather than the element, level. While providing less detail, the component-level rubrics capture all the essential information from those at the element level and are far easier to use in evaluation than are those at the element level.
- *"Critical attributes" for each level of performance for each component.* These critical attributes provide essential guidance for observers in distinguishing between practice at adjacent levels of performance. They are of enormous value in training and in the actual work of observation and evaluation.
- *Possible examples for each level of performance for each component.* These examples serve to illustrate the meanings of the rubric language. However, they should be regarded for what they are: possible examples. They are not intended to describe all the possible ways in which a certain level of performance might be demonstrated in the classroom; those are, of necessity, particular to each grade and subject. The possible examples simply serve to illustrate what practice might look like in a range of settings.

These enhancements to the Framework for Teaching, while created in response to the demands of the MET study, turned out to be valuable additions to the instrument in all its applications.

Practitioners found that the enhancements not only made it easier to determine the level of performance reflected in a classroom for each component of the Framework, but also contributed to judgments that are more accurate and more worthy of confidence. As the stakes in teacher evaluation become higher, this increased accuracy is absolutely essential.

As with the 2007 edition, there were absolutely no changes to the architecture of the 2011 edition. Therefore, those educators who invested resources in learning the language of the 2007 edition simply gained additional tools to help them in the challenging work of applying the Framework to actual classroom teaching.

The 2013 Edition

The principal reason for releasing the 2013 edition of the Framework for Teaching Evaluation Instrument was to respond to the instructional implications of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). Since the CCSS have been adopted in the vast majority of states, it seemed to make sense to explore what these would mean in the classroom.

The CCSS, when fully implemented, will have a profound effect on education in America. They envision, for literacy and mathematics initially, deep engagement by students with important concepts, skills, and perspectives. They emphasize active, rather than passive, learning by students. In all areas, they place a premium on deep conceptual understanding, thinking and reasoning, and the skill of argumentation (students taking a position and supporting it with logic and evidence).

In particular, the CCSS advocate specific recommendations in different curricular areas:

- In ELA and literacy in all fields, a close reading of text and a greater emphasis on nonfiction works in addition to fiction
- In mathematics, a focus on the principal topics in each grade level, with growing fluency and skill in the application of mathematical concepts

To the extent that the CCSS deal with what students should learn in school so they will be prepared for college and careers, the biggest implications are in the areas of curriculum and assessment. Educators and policymakers must revise their curricula and their classroom and district assessments, and must locate instructional materials to support the new learning.

But teachers will also have to acquire new instructional skills in order to bring the CCSS to life for their students. Teaching for deep conceptual understanding, for argumentation, and for logical reasoning have not, after all, been high priorities in most school districts or preparation programs. In most classrooms, students don't take an active role in their own learning, nor do they (respectfully) challenge the thinking of their classmates. All of this will represent a major departure, and therefore a major challenge, for many teachers.

But educators who are familiar with the Framework for Teaching will recognize much in the philosophy of the CCSS that is similar to the underlying concepts of the Framework. After all, the centerpiece of the Framework is student engagement, which is defined not as "busy" or "on task," but as "intellectually active." Learning activities for students may be "hands-on," but they should always be "minds-on." Furthermore, the hallmark of distinguished-level practice in the Framework is that teachers have been able to create a community of learners, in which students assume a large part of the responsibility for the success of a lesson; they make suggestions, initiate improvements, monitor their own learning against clear standards, and serve as resources to one another.

However, despite a deep shared philosophy of teaching and learning between the CCSS and the Framework, there are some specific additions that can be made to the rubric language to bring it into complete alignment; those have been added, particularly in the following domains:

- Domain 1—1c: Setting Instructional Outcomes, 1e: Designing Coherent Instruction, and 1f: Designing Student Assessments
- Domain 3—3a: Communicating with Students, 3b: Using Questioning and Discussion Techniques, 3c: Engaging Students in Learning, and 3d: Using Assessment in Instruction

But because the Framework is a generic instrument, applying to all disciplines, and the CCSS are discipline specific, many of the enhancements to the Framework are located in the possible examples, rather than in the rubric language or critical attributes for each level of performance.

Attentive readers who are deeply familiar with the Framework may notice some slight modifications to the language of the rubrics themselves; this has been done, as in previous revisions, in the interest of clarity. Teaching is highly complex work, and describing it is also challenging; as we receive feedback on confusing words and phrases, we try to improve the wording to minimize ambiguity. But educators who have become familiar with the 2011 version of the Framework, who "speak that language" and may have completed the online training and assessment program produced by Teachscape, should know that none of the revisions would alter the assessments of teaching represented in the videotaped lessons.

APPENDIX: THE RESEARCH FOUNDATION

Author's note: Ann T. DeRosa, an educator in the Readington Township School District in New Jersey, contributed to the update of the research foundation.

The framework for teaching is based on the Praxis III criteria developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) after extensive surveys of the research literature, consultation with expert practitioners and researchers, wide-ranging job analyses, summaries of the demands of state licensing programs, and fieldwork. The components include those aspects of teaching that are expected of experienced as well as beginning teachers. The research foundation for the Praxis III criteria is summarized here because it is relevant to this framework for teaching. Many of the findings presented derive from a work by Carol Anne Dwyer (1994) called *Development of the Knowledge Base for the Praxis III: Classroom Performance Assessments Assessment Criteria*. This appendix presents in an abbreviated form some results of the extensive research that ETS conducted that is described in detail in that publication.

The knowledge base for the assessment criteria used in Praxis III: Classroom Performance Assessments was derived over an extended period (1987 to 1993) from three distinct sources: the "wisdom of practice" (Shulman, 1987) of experienced teachers, the theory and data developed by educational researchers, and the requirements developed by state teacher-licensing authorities. These sources of information are interrelated: both experienced teachers and state licensing bodies draw on the educational research literature for their understanding of good teaching.

The process of developing the assessment criteria for Praxis III was iterative, drawing on extensive research on the tasks of teaching. Such work involved conducting job analyses of elementary, middle, and high school beginning teachers, as well as administrators. ETS staff prepared the surveys, with assistance from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the American Federation of Teachers, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, and the National Education Association. ETS researchers also conducted an extensive literature search to summarize and synthesize the most reliable findings on effective teaching. Drafts of assessment criteria were reviewed by expert panels and subjected to the rigors of pilot and field testing. And the requirements of state licensing agencies were analyzed for their statements of teaching criteria. From this process emerged the assessment criteria used in ETS's Praxis III: Classroom Performance Assessments.

Although the framework for teaching derives from the same research base as the criteria for Praxis III, the framework differs from Praxis III in two important ways. First, the framework is intended to apply to the work of all teachers, not only newly licensed ones; second, it is designed to be used in professional conversations that accompany mentoring or peer coaching. In contrast, the Praxis III criteria were developed solely for assessment.

Leading practitioners extensively reviewed the framework, which was subjected to the rigors of testing in school situations. However, it is ultimately the validation of individual users (teachers and supervisors) that matters. The framework must resonate with the professional vision that individuals bring to their craft. Only when the components are found to be consistent with the way in which individuals view their work will the components be of value.

The framework divides the complex act of teaching into four broad realms of activity, or domains. Each domain consists of five or six components. Using the four domains as a structure, the rest of the appendix provides the research supporting the components.

Domain 1: Planning and Preparation

The research on planning and preparation for teaching is abundant and clear. Skowron (2001) underscores the importance of careful planning:

> Good planning sets the stage for good teaching, which in turn fosters optimal learning. Teachers who know how to plan know precisely what they want to accomplish—or more exactly, what they want their students to accomplish. Poor planning results in no one, including the teacher, having a clear understanding of what is to be accomplished. Effective instruction starts with an organized instructional plan. (p. 2)

Shulman's (1987) earlier work supports Component 1a (Demonstrating Knowledge of Content and Pedagogy):

> We expect teachers to understand what they teach and, when possible, to understand it in several

> ways. They should understand how a given idea relates to other ideas within the same subject area and to ideas in other subjects as well. (p. 14)

He also illuminates the other components of Domain 1:

> The key to distinguishing the knowledge base of teaching lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy, in the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge he or she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and background presented by the students. (p. 15)

Many other studies emphasize the central role of content knowledge and pedagogical expertise. Most states require some evidence of this knowledge as a prerequisite for licensing. One of the five main principles, or core propositions, that is assessed as part of the certification process through the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards refers to teachers understanding the material that they teach. The core proposition states, "Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students."

The importance of becoming familiar with and building on students' knowledge and skills (Component 1b) is also the focus of much research and writing. There has been an explosion of research on students' prior knowledge. The work of Sykes and Bird (1992) strongly demonstrates that prior conceptions exert a powerful hold and are difficult to alter.

Therefore, teachers are best positioned to help students engage in meaningful learning or dispel misconceptions when they understand and recognize the value of their students' knowledge and strive to add to it. Marzano (2004) addresses major factors that influence the development of academic background knowledge. He believes that the number of experiences that students encounter in school will directly add to their knowledge of content. Jackson and Davis (2000) give the following advice to teachers: "Meet students where they are, since people learn best by connecting new information to old" (p. 83).

Other authors support the constructivist view of teaching and learning that underlies the framework for professional practice. Many researchers, including Brooks and Brooks (1993), assert that when teachers recognize and honor the human impulse to construct new understandings, they create unlimited possibilities for students. Also consistent with these findings, an American Psychological Association publication (McCombs, 1992) defines learning as "an individual process of constructing meaning from information and experience, filtered through each individual's unique perceptions, thoughts, and feelings."

The importance of setting clear instructional outcomes (Component 1c) is well documented in the research literature. Jones (1992) cites many studies demonstrating the link between effective teaching and learning and the teacher's formulation of learning goals that are appropriate to the students. Schmoker (1999) studied the importance of goals relative to schools. He states, "School success depends upon how effectively we select, define, and measure progress and how well we adjust effort toward goals" (p. 25).

An important element of the appropriateness of a goal relates to intellectual rigor. Lowered expectations are often manifested in rote exercises and teaching that remains at a

literal level. Rhem (1999) discusses teacher expectations and Robert Rosenthal's viewpoint. Rhem quotes Rosenthal as saying, "If you think your students can't achieve very much, are perhaps not too bright, you may be inclined to teach simple stuff, do a lot of drills, read from your lecture notes, give simple assignments calling for simplistic factual answers" (p. 3).

The need for designing coherent instruction (Component 1e) is also highly supported by research literature. For example, Jackson and Davis (2000) make recommendations for organizing instruction. They believe that content should be organized around concepts because the brain searches for meaningful patterns as it connects parts to wholes. Another suggestion that they offer centers on selecting pertinent experiences:

> Connect what happens in the classroom to the students, either directly or by helping them discover links to the world beyond the classroom, since people learn best when what they are learning has relevance to themselves or their society. (p. 84)

Designing coherent instruction includes knowing what instructional materials may be used (Component 1d). Jackson and Davis (2000) also address the need for teachers to use resources available through collaboration. They discuss how special education teachers and other colleagues can be excellent resources when planning instruction. Additionally, they highlight the link between instruction and assessment and assert that assessment should be directly connected to instruction and designed to provide ongoing, useful feedback, to both students and teachers, on what students have learned (Component 1f). They go on to state the following:

> To decide what assessments will reveal evidence of familiarity, mastery, and enduring understanding, teachers must consider a range of assessment methods that allow for ongoing and cumulative feedback, otherwise known as formative and summative assessment. (p. 55)

Wiggins (1998) also believes that assessment feedback should be used to improve teaching and learning progressively, not just to audit student performance. Wiggins and McTighe (1998) discuss the role that teachers serve:

> Teachers are designers. An essential act of our profession is the design of curriculum and learning experiences to meet specified purposes. We are also designers of assessments to diagnose student needs to guide our teaching and to enable us, our students, and others (parents and administrators) to determine whether our goals have been achieved; that is, did the students learn and understand the desired knowledge? (p. 7)

Domain 2: The Classroom Environment

Research on the development of expertise shows that novice teachers must master at least the rudiments of classroom management before they can become skilled at instruction. That is, attention to routines and procedures, the physical environment, and the establishment of norms and expectations for student behavior are prerequisites to good instruction.

Of course, the relationship is not a simple one. Research supports the need for classroom management, and evidence

from both research and informal experience indicates that high student engagement in learning is both a cause and an effect of successful classroom management. Effective teachers attend to various elements of the classroom environment, creating and maintaining an atmosphere of respect, caring, and commitment to important work.

Distinguished teachers demonstrate genuine caring and respect for individual students (Component 2a). Whitaker (2004) notes that one of the hallmarks of effective teachers is that they create a positive atmosphere in their classrooms and schools. He goes on to state, "Effective teachers treat everyone with respect, every day" (p. 45). Tomlinson (1999) addresses how teachers can create a healthy classroom environment. She believes that teachers must appreciate each child as an individual and recognize that all children have intellect, emotions, and changing physical needs. Jackson and Davis (2000) recommend that teachers provide students with rich learning environments, a recommendation that is consistent with Component 2b. They describe intelligence as fluid, not fixed, and maintain that it will increase, given access to a diversity of materials, opinions, and options.

Evertson and Harris (1992) emphasize the need to establish routines and procedures and to teach them along with expectations for appropriate performance. The need for establishing clear routines to optimize learning (Component 2c) is also documented by Jensen (1998). He believes that teachers should provide predictability through school and classroom rituals, which serve as a way to reduce environmental stress for students.

Whitaker (2004) describes how effective teachers manage student behavior (Component 2d):

> Great teachers are very clear about their approach to student behavior. They establish clear expectations at the start of the year and follow them consistently as the year progresses. (pp. 17–18)

He goes on to explain that although consequences for misbehavior are established, they are secondary to the expectations.

Research indicates that physical factors (Component 2e) have an impact on student learning and can serve to minimize student misbehavior. An online *Scholastic* article, referencing excerpts from Linda Shalaway's publication *Learning to Teach . . . Not Just for Beginners* (2005), examines the physical environments of successful classrooms. Shalaway claims that warm, well-run classrooms begin with the room's physical layout—the arrangement of desks and working space, the attractiveness and appeal of bulletin boards, the storage of materials and supplies. She also explains that easily accessible materials and supplies can eliminate delays, disruptions, and confusion as students prepare for activities. Finally, she addresses what she calls "other important environmental features," such as temperature, lighting, and noise level.

Domain 3: Instruction

Recent educational research has emphasized constructivist learning (and therefore teaching) and a renewed interest in "teaching for understanding" and "conceptual learning." Much of the earlier research on effective teaching, however, is still relevant and useful to practitioners. One approach is not superior to the others. Rather, as explained earlier, effective practices are designed to achieve desired results. As educators

expand their expectations for student learning to focus more on conceptual understandings and problem-solving skills, the instructional strategies used must correspondingly change.

Effective teachers communicate clearly about learning expectations, goals, and specific instructions for meeting these goals (Component 3a). The work of Skowron (2001) and Tomlinson (1999) strongly supports these tenets, as well as those associated with teacher flexibility and responsiveness to student needs (Component 3e).

The research base for questioning and discussion techniques (Component 3b) and student engagement with learning (Component 3c) is fairly consistent. Brooks and Brooks (1993) suggest that effective teachers encourage student inquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions and encouraging students to ask questions of each other. They assert that complex, thoughtful questions challenge students to look beyond the apparent, to delve into issues deeply and broadly, and to form their own understandings of events and phenomena. Ellett's (1990) work states that student involvement is needed:

> In teaching students to think, the teacher deliberately structures and uses teaching methods and learning tasks that actively involve *students* [italics in original] in ample opportunities to develop concepts and skills in generating, structuring, transferring, and restructuring knowledge. (p. 47)

Skowron (2001) reviews the literature in this area and comes to a similar conclusion:

> The purpose of engagement is to involve students in developing important concepts, skills, and processes. Engagement provides the condition in which concepts are made meaningful. (p. 15)

Using assessment in instruction (Component 3d) is also integral to providing superior educational opportunities. Skowron (2001) states:

> Monitoring students as they engage in a learning task is a crucial part of teaching. It is important for students to receive feedback on their progress throughout the learning activity. At times encouragement or positive affirmation is all that is needed. At other times clarification or instructional guidance is necessary to prevent misunderstandings. When confused, some students willingly ask for help. Other students do not. And still others do not even know they are confused. Monitoring all students is important to obtain diagnostic feedback and determine when intervention through reteaching or additional practice is necessary. (p. 24)

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2004) recognizes the importance of teachers demonstrating flexibility and responsiveness (Component 3e). The concepts of lesson adjustment, response to students, and persistence are reflected in one of the five assessment principles used for national board certification. This core proposition reads as follows: "Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning."

Moore (2004) discusses the relationship between classroom research and teaching. She suggests that teachers who incorporate research into their daily teaching are eventually able to

pinpoint patterns of learner response they may have never before realized. She continues,

> Reflecting on the patterns and making instructional changes based on authentic evidence (assignments, performance, observations of student work) is a natural part of this process for teachers who are experienced teacher researchers. (p. 1)

Research and the "wisdom of practice" (Shulman, 1987) have highlighted and continue to illuminate the limitations of using standardized tests as the sole measures of achievement. Educators are looking to other research methodologies, focusing less on single lessons and more on case studies of entire units of study and other success criteria (such as more performance assessments and other constructed-response formats). Research has also discovered (and in some cases rediscovered) the potential for problem- and project-based learning, with students asking their own questions and conducting their own investigations, and the teacher's role being one of facilitator and resource manager (Brandt, 1992, 1994; Cohen, McLaughlin, & Talbert, 1993; Gardner & Boix-Mansilla, 1994; Heckman, 1994; Nias, Southworth, & Campbell, 1992; Perkins & Blythe, 1994; Perrone, 1994; Wiske, 1994; Wolf, 1987; Woods, 1994).

As noted earlier, students benefit the most when permitted to "construct" rich new understandings based on prior knowledge. The focus on constructivist learning builds, of course, on earlier work by Dewey and educators committed to implementing the implications of Piaget's work in the classroom. For example, Wolk (1994) cites studies from the early part of the 20th century—Hennes (1921) and Kilpatrick (1918, 1925)—as a foundation for his work in project-based learning. Professional literature has cited and continues to cite examples of the benefits associated with students functioning as researchers engaged in authentic work. Even many years ago, the November 1994 issue of *Educational Leadership* was devoted to such strategies for success. Such emphasis differs greatly from the focus on skill-based instruction, administered in small steps and assessed using a norm-referenced, standardized, multiple-choice test. Ideally, students participate in the process and take ownership for their own growth, as the teacher structures experiences that promote complex, high-level learning. Torp and Sage (1998) provide details on how to effectively construct problem-based learning experiences for students at all grade levels. They stress the importance of helping students make strong connections in an authentic context using a standards-based approach in which students are accountable for their own learning, demonstrating proficiency when assessed.

Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities

Educators and researchers have gradually expanded the definition of teaching to include not only classroom interaction between teachers and students, but also the full range of responsibilities that constitute teaching. Three of the five key principles that the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2004) cites as the foundation for the assessment of accomplished teachers and the awarding of advanced certificates are aligned with Domain 4:

- Teachers are committed to students and their learning [included in Component 4f].

- Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience [included in Components 4a and 4e].
- Teachers are members of learning communities [included in Components 4d and 4f].

Teacher professionalism (Domain 4) is still an evolving field. Much of the research is theoretical and grounded in logical and ethical rather than empirical studies. Some examples include studies on topics such as the teacher as researcher; dimensions of professional development; the benefits of contributing to the school, the district, and the profession; and the nature of professional decision making.

A number of studies do guide practitioners, however, particularly in the areas of teacher reflection, advocacy, collaboration with colleagues, and communication with families. Many studies document the value of teacher reflection, conducted alone or in collaboration with colleagues, by investigating the reflection on practice by either student teachers or more experienced professionals. Examples include Colton and Sparks-Langer (1992, 1993); Ellwein, Graue, and Comfort (1990); Ross and Regan (1993); and Tabachnick and Zeichner (1991).

Effective teachers are lifelong learners who take ownership for student learning and continually reflect on their efforts to ensure that they are providing focused, quality instruction (Component 4a). Such teachers engage in corrective problem-solving approaches with failing students rather than punishing them for their shortcomings. The positive effects of this sense of efficacy are demonstrated in such studies as Jones (1992), Pajares (1992), and Schunk (1991).

Many educators, as well as researchers, believe that the ability to reflect on teaching is the mark of a true professional. Skowron (2001) supports this assertion as she claims that becoming an exceptional teacher is a learning process that some believe never ends. The teacher is in a continual state of learning, building, and refining teaching practices. Reeves (2004) notes that the reflective process is at the very heart of accountability. He goes on to state that through the process of reflection, educators are able to distinguish between the popularity of teaching techniques and their effectiveness.

Superior teachers contribute to and participate in a professional community by cultivating strong, supportive relationships with their colleagues and by assuming leadership roles among the faculty, as well as for events and projects (Component 4d). Tucker and Stronge (2005) studied successful teaching and found that qualities of effective teachers include collegiality, collaboration, a strong belief in efficacy, and contributions to the school and community. Gabriel (2005) promotes the nurturing of teacher leadership and efficacy in today's schools:

> For nearly a century, schools have functioned in the autocratic style of the line-staff model: principals are managers and teachers are their employees, often voiceless and powerless to influence their superiors' quest to improve student achievement. But with the growing emphasis on high-stakes testing and the advent of *No Child Left Behind,* many school leaders are seeking more effective organizational behavior by drawing on the leadership potential of all stakeholders, especially teachers. (p. 1)

Teachers who are committed to growing and developing professionally concern themselves with enhancing their content knowledge and pedagogical skills, as well as productively

contributing to the profession (Component 4e). Although Fullan (2001) places value on the growth efforts of individual teachers and describes the importance of program coherence as a means to combat fragmentation of multiple innovations, his research on progress also emphasizes the role of the entire group in a school:

> Thus, professional development or training of individuals is not sufficient. For this reason schools must focus on creating schoolwide professional learning communities. (p. 64)

DuFour and Eaker (1998) succinctly summarize the same point:

> The most promising strategy for sustained, substantive school improvement is developing the ability of school personnel to function as professional learning communities. (p. xi)

MacIntyre, Flores, and Noddings, as cited in Sergiovanni (1994), identify "a commitment to not only one's own practice, but to the practice itself" as one of the four dimensions of "professional ideal" toward which all should strive (p. 142).

Action research is a process that also promotes professional development, collaboration, reflection, and efficacy in teachers. As Sagor (2000) describes it:

> Practitioners who engage in action research inevitably find it to be an empowering experience. Action research has this positive effect for many reasons. Obviously, the most important is that action research is always relevant to the participants. Relevance is guaranteed because the focus of each research project is determined by the researchers, who are also the primary consumers of the findings.
>
> Perhaps even more important is the fact that action research helps educators be more effective at what they care most about—their teaching and the development of their students. Seeing students grow is probably the greatest joy educators can experience. When teachers have convincing evidence that their work has made a real difference in their students' lives, the countless hours and endless efforts of teaching seem worthwhile. (p. 3)

Calhoun (1994) simplifies the concept of action research by describing it as another way of saying, "Let's study what's happening at our school, decide if we can make it a better place by changing what and how we teach and how we relate to students and the community; study the effects; and then begin again" (p. 1).

Teachers who are most effective implement efficient systems to maintain accurate records, while empowering students to participate in monitoring and maintaining such records (Component 4b). Wormeli (2003) discusses the importance of keeping accurate classroom records, including those documenting grades, missed assignments, work habits, incidents of tardiness, and absences. He suggests that teachers give students the responsibility for some of the record keeping in the classroom.

Exceptional teachers also display professionalism by serving as advocates for children (Component 4f). Jackson and Davis (2000) underscore the importance of students having an advocate and claim that when students make a lasting connection

with at least one caring adult in school, academic and personal outcomes improve. They also cite earlier research from the 1989 report *Turning Points: Preparing American Youth for the 21st Century* when they state that students should have adults to "act on their behalf to marshal every school and community resource needed for students to succeed, and help to fashion a promising vision for the future" (pp. 142–143).

The link between parent involvement in schools and student learning is well established (Component 4c). Jones (1992) and Cruickshank (1990) compiled research suggesting that, in general, student learning is enhanced when teachers work at parent involvement. Powell, Casanova, and Berliner (1991) provide a review of research on parent involvement and its effect on student learning. In this set of readings, they establish that parent involvement is intimately associated with academic achievement and that there are a variety of ways for teachers to establish and enhance such involvement. In 1997, the U.S. Department of Education produced a publication titled *Family Involvement in Children's Education: Successful Local Approaches,* which contends that when educators, families, and communities work together, schools get better. The document suggests that parent involvement can be an important contributor to student achievement because when parents are fully involved, they are typically willing to assume equal responsibility for the success of their children:

> Successful partnerships are those that involve the sustained mutual collaboration, support, and participation of school staffs and families at home and at school in activities and efforts that can directly and positively affect the success of children's learning and progress in school. (p. 2)

Jackson and Davis (2000) have compiled the results of extensive research on parent involvement to improve student learning. They also emphatically conclude that parents' participation in the life of the school and in their children's schoolwork has a positive impact on student outcomes. Bucknam, as cited in Marzano (2003), states that schools that involve parents and community in their day-to-day operations have lower absenteeism, truancy, and dropout rates.

Research in favor of maintaining parental connections with the school is so overwhelming that the national Parent Teacher Association (PTA) developed standards for parent/family involvement programs (Chadwick, 2004). Therefore, it is essential for teachers to regularly communicate with parents and engage them in the total school experience.