

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK – 1999, 2001, 2005, 2010.

PREFACE

The Development of the Conceptual Framework

The faculty of the College of Education formally adopted a conceptual framework in October 1999 following a year of faculty effort composing documents that articulated faculty commitment to preparing students to demonstrate professional **integrity, competence, and servant-leadership** to those they teach and serve.

In 1998, as the College of Education embarked on the process of developing the framework, a major goal guided its development. That goal was to create a conceptual framework that promoted coherent, connected, and cohesive programs of professional education in the college that contributed to the professions and communities served. The College of Education's conceptual framework emerged as a result of collaborative dialogue among university faculty, P-12 faculty, candidates, and practitioners.

In fall 1998, the interim dean appointed an NCATE Council that represented a cross section of university faculty and school partners. At the initial meeting of this council, two subcommittees were formed – a coordinating subcommittee to coordinate all activities associated with our accreditation preparation and a conceptual framework subcommittee. The conceptual framework subcommittee was charged with developing a plan for the process to be used in developing the College of Education's conceptual framework and strategies to involve the entire professional community in its development. During the next two months, the subcommittee examined a variety of documents, including the University mission statement, state and professional organizations' standards, other institutions' frameworks, and professional literature that reviewed current thinking, research and practice regarding the nature of teaching and learning. A seminar conducted by faculty from another institution of higher education was also held for Concordia's faculty. In December 1998, the subcommittee presented a proposal to the NCATE Council that was based on three assumptions: (1) the conceptual framework should support and extend the university's mission statement; (2) the current framework that existed was in need of updating; and (3) the framework should reflect best practice and research. Based upon the documents and standards reviewed, as well as the above three assumptions, what emerged were rough drafts of vision and mission statements. These statements were then discussed and edited by the Council. In November 1998, input was sought from the College of Education's Advisory Council, a group made up of educator practitioners. In February 1999, the revisions went to the entire faculty for their input. As a result of faculty input, three areas emerged that guided the College of Education's philosophical beliefs, specifically **integrity, competence, and servant-leadership**. In March 1999, three subcommittees were formed to develop the concepts related to each of the three areas. In April 1999, all faculty were given the opportunity to review and provide input regarding the vision and mission statements, as well as the three conceptual areas. The Dean of the College of Education assigned two faculty members to write the knowledge base for the conceptual framework. Additionally, subcommittees were formed to begin working with the six NCATE standards. In May 1999, the framework was approved by the NCATE Council and the

two education departments. The vision and mission statements, as well as the framework, were then distributed to all university faculty, adjunct faculty, school principals, classroom teachers, student teaching supervisors, and the Office of Field Experience for further input. In September 1999, the conceptual framework and knowledge base, incorporating faculty and partner's recommendations, were adopted by the College of Education.

In preparation for state review, the CoE submitted its conceptual framework, knowledge base, and supporting documents for review. Based upon this review, the unit's conceptual framework was modified and the knowledge base was reworked. These revisions have been based upon the ISBE review and with input from the CoE's Advisory Council, its partners, and the entire faculty. (*Evidence: CoE minutes*)

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework that defines the Concordia University Chicago graduate is built upon three powerful concepts, integrity, competence, and servant leadership.

Outline

Conceptual Framework for the Education Unit:

Education Mission Statement

The education programs of Concordia University prepare candidates to demonstrate professional integrity, competence, and leadership to those they teach and serve.

1. **Integrity** is derived from Christian values and moral ethics and finds expression in respect for diversity and in professional ethics. Concordia educators:

A. respect and support diversity in educational settings as related to learning styles, family structures, religion, beliefs, disabilities, gender, race, ethnicities, values, and socioeconomic status.

B. demonstrate appropriate standards of conduct and ethical behavior congruent with the standards of their profession.

2. **Competence** is demonstrated in the areas of knowledge, skills, creativity, and dispositions.

Concordia educators:

A. meet the standards of their profession.

B. have a commitment to continuous professional development.

C. impact all students' learning and development in a positive way.

D. use a variety of assessment techniques appropriately.

E. engage in reflective practice.

3. **Servant leadership** is the ability to focus a school's mission, personnel and resources to meet identified needs. Concordia educators are servant leaders who:

A. develop an inclusive vision for students' learning and development.

B. create a school culture and programs that focus resources to support all students' learning and development.

C. build collaborative relationships that aid and support all students' learning and development.

Vision -Mission – Philosophy - Purpose

The College of Education and the College of Graduate and Innovative programs share the same conceptual framework for the preparation of teacher candidates and for the advanced preparation of educational personnel. These colleges together comprise the unit and as such support and extend the mission and goals of the university. The faculties of the colleges endorse the shared mission of the university and uphold the common vision to equip men and women to serve and lead with integrity, creativity, competence, and compassion in diverse classrooms and schools of the church and world.

The education programs of the unit also share a common philosophy and purpose. The vision of the faculty is expressed in program documents on the preparation of teachers and school personnel to demonstrate professional integrity, competence, and servant leadership to those they teach and serve. Integrity is derived from Christian values and moral ethics. It finds expression in respect for individuals in diverse communities and in the practice of professional ethics. Competence is demonstrated by teacher candidates and other candidates in advanced programs in the application of their knowledge and ability to use appropriate teaching, management, and assessment practices in the classroom and school. Servant leadership facilitates a vision and commitment to develop, implement, and support resources, personnel, and organizations for the benefit of all members of the learning communities we serve.

The conceptual framework is articulated as goals of the various unit programs and assessed within the program standards as embedded in various program curriculums. These standards are also identified in the performance expectations of fieldwork, clinical experiences, internships, practicum, and other professional development of candidates enrolled in all programs. The syllabi and assessments for these experiences documents the high level of success the unit expects of its candidates.

Knowledge Base

Integrity

Integrity is derived from Christian values and moral ethics expressed in respect for individuals in diverse communities and in the practice of professional ethics. Concordia candidates, whether in initial preparation or in advanced preparation programs, demonstrate integrity when they are respectful of diverse learning styles, disabilities, gender, ethnicity, religion, socio-economic status, and cultural practices. American society of the 21st century is a complex social system that is best served by educators who are caring and understand that differentiation of instruction and cross cultural social skills are necessary for successful teaching. America is a pluralistic society where schools must transition from traditional instructional methods to teaching methods and strategies for diverse learners that are treated with equity and equality.

Effective teachers have an understanding how children and adolescents develop and learn. This knowledge equips the educator to design appropriate learning experiences that promote intellectual and personal growth. Concordia Candidates are encouraged to be reflective educators whose integrity is strengthened through self examination of practices in the classroom. The caring educator explores how to effectively reach learners joined together in increasingly heterogeneous groups who are each at their own level and maximize the experience for each.

Instructional techniques and methods differ greatly on individual learner basis. These differences are accommodated and met because of strong moral and ethical convictions held by educators (Sergiovanni, 1992).

Many factors influence a person's self-concept (one's characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses) and self-esteem (one's belief that he/she is a capable and worthy person) (Greenleaf, 1996b). The spirit of a child is a gift from God that is to be developed and nurtured rather than broken (Groome, 1980). The educator is responsible to understand that gift and to encourage the child to develop his/her areas of interest and talent. Kohlberg (1986) suggests a six-stage theory of moral development. It offers educators insight into the logic and reasoning that their students might use to interpret events and situations. The more that is understood about the development of the child, the more likely a person centered course of action can be devised. Educators and school personnel have the responsibility and moral duty to address issues of gender, race, economic status, and ethnicity from an unbiased position. The value and dignity of all members in the school community have the right to be dealt with as individuals rather than grouped by assigned standards and labeled (Greenleaf, 1996b). It is through the exploration of diverse characteristics that the school is enriched and enabled to serve a pluralistic society (Neuschel, 1986).

Professional ethics provide guidance for educators and they make a myriad of decisions each day that affect the well-being of students. Ethical conduct is foundational to the creation of safe and nurturing learning communities. Arguments occur as to whose set of values and code of behaviors should be adopted in schools. As a society, Americans are not in agreement on issues of abortion or capital punishment, but pluralism itself is not possible without agreement on foundational values such as justice, honesty, civility, democratic processes, and a respect for truth (Lickona, 1991). These concepts inform the ethical practice of educators as well as the Christian teachings of care and value for all individuals. Further, the Christian educator is called to live a life that reflects the love that God has for mankind and live a moral life that values others and does not harm (Groome, 1990).

The center of ethical practice in schools informs members of the school community how to relate to one another in arenas of diverse opinion as expressed by staff, parents, students and other members of the community; and the diversity of cultures as expressed in the values, beliefs, and behavior of various groups. Issues of opinion often surface from the use or abuse of power to influence others to accept one point of view. This way often conflicts with interpretive beliefs related to multiple ways of knowing and critical theories focusing on issues of equity. The use of power also applies to issues of cultural diversity. It is the direct or indirect use of power to promote the cultural perspectives of those who control the school that relate to issues of equity (Greenfield, 1987). It is those values, norms, and beliefs of the community that should be modeled and tended to rather than issues of power. It takes reflective people to maintain ethical behavior within the school (Greenfield, 1990).

Competence

Competence is demonstrated by candidates' abilities to meet the standards of their profession and their abilities to positively impact students' learning. Educators must be competent and

knowledgeable of the content related to their positions and must be able to use this knowledge to support the learning of all students.

Competence in content knowledge

“A Nation at Risk: The imperative for Educational Reform” (1983) and other reform Documents of the 1980s pointed out the need for strengthening the academic qualifications of school-based professionals. In 1986, the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession concluded that teacher education programs must increase candidate’s depth of content knowledge. The Task Force also concluded that methods of teaching should model and promote that knowledge and demonstrate how it is transformed for teaching and learning at various grade levels. As Darling-Hammond stated, “Knowledge of the domain of study is critical: the teacher needs to understand what ideas can provide important foundations for other ideas and how they can be usefully linked and assembled” (1997, p. 295). Further, she supported the idea that there is a definite knowledge base, grounded in an understanding of the central concepts, educational foundations, methods of inquiry, and structures of disciplines that all teachers need to know if they are going to teach all students and have a positive impact on learning.

The foundations of education is an important content base for all educators. Knowledge of the history, supporting philosophies, and learning theories of American Education is necessary for the candidate to understand the current educational system in the United States. This content allows candidates to examine the system and its development from educational, sociological, anthropological, and political perspectives. The role that each of these areas has in the ultimate success or failure of a curriculum, program, or system aids candidates in reflecting on current specific situations or in understanding larger trends and movements. The understanding of these trends allows candidates to more fully understand how issues of diversity, ethics, technology, and professional development will affect the future needs of the system (Guttek, 1997).

Educators must be able to demonstrate current and extensive knowledge of the content areas that they teach if they are going to be successful in the development of student knowledge and performance in subject areas. Candidates need to know subject matter in depth. Well prepared and knowledgeable, teachers are able to organize content so that learners can create useful cognitive maps of the information under study. Beyond a procedural understanding of the core ideas in a discipline and how these help to structure knowledge, teachers also need to know how ideas relate to one another, and how to test, evaluate, and extend them. Ideas must be connected across subject areas and to everyday life (Foreman & Kushner, 1983).

In addition to understanding the generalizations and concepts with associated facts and examples and the relationships between and among them, a knowledgeable teacher must find the ways to make the content accessible and meaningful to students at the grade levels for which the teacher is licensed. This transformation of content for teaching

purposes results in what the profession has referred to as pedagogical content knowledge (Ball & McDiarmid, 1990, Shulman, 1987b).

Competence in Pedagogical Content Knowledge

It is not enough that teachers are knowledgeable in the content areas in which they are prepared. They must know how to teach. Pedagogical knowledge includes knowledge of subject matter combined with knowledge of human development, curricular and instructional strategies, classroom management, communication, assessment, and technology with skilled application in the classroom in order to create positive and effective learning environments that support students' learning.

Knowledge of human development is a critical element in a teacher's ability to design appropriate learning experiences for students. The works of Piaget (1954, 1964), Elkind (1976), Vygotsky (1978), Erikson (1980), Kohlberg (1981), Gilligan (1988), and Sylwester (1995) contribute to educators' understanding as to how children develop and learn. School administrators and counselors must draw on these knowledge bases in order to make informed decisions and recommendations.

Developmental theories of learning have examined the additional learning tasks individuals can accomplish as they mature mentally, emotionally, and physically. Piaget, Elkind, Vygotsky, Erikson, and Kohlberg/Gilligan are considered some of the most important researchers in the field of developmental theory. Piaget's theory is based on the idea that a child grows according to cognitive structures and that these structures increase in sophistication with development and maturity. Elkind's applications of that theory to classroom practice support the pedagogical content knowledge of teachers and candidates.

Vygotsky recognized that children's cultures shape cognitive development by determining what and how children will learn about the world. He believed that cognitive development depends on the people in a child's world and that children's knowledge, ideas, attitudes, and values develop through interactions with others. At any given point in development there are certain problems that children are on the verge of solving (zone of proximal development). With scaffolding, these problems can be solved a (Bruner, 1966). It is the area where real learning is possible.

Erickson (1963) posited that humans experience eight stages of psychosocial development that are based on common needs. Society must provide in some way for each of these needs. These stages depend on how conflicts are resolved in the earlier years. School can be a mediating factor in helping children to resolve their developmental conflicts in positive ways.

Kohlberg's theory of moral reasoning (1981) states that humans experience three general levels of development: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional. Each of these levels is divided into stages. Moral reasoning is related to both cognitive and emotional development. Earlier, Kohlberg and Mayer (1972) posited that the real purpose of all education was development.

Gilligan (1988) has also worked to develop a theory of moral reasoning that applies to females. She believes that girls develop an "ethic of care: that moves them from a focus of self-interest to

a moral reasoning based on commitment to specific individuals and relationships. These move to the highest level of morality based on the principles of responsibility and care of all people.

Using knowledge of human development, educators are able to develop theories of learning. These theories of learning guide how curriculum is constructed and how classrooms are organized and managed.

Piaget and Vygotsky were instrumental in developing the concept of constructivism. This approach reflects “the principle that the child constructs his or her own knowledge through interactions with the social and physical environment. Because the child is viewed as intrinsically motivated and self-directed, effective teaching capitalizes on the child’s motivation to explore, experiment, and to make sense of this or her experience” (Novick, 1996, p.3). Learning is the process of adjusting mental models to accommodate new experiences. Educators focus on making connections between facts and fostering new understandings for students, relying heavily on open-ended questioning and extensive dialog among students (Bruner, 1990; Arends, 1998). The teacher’s role in this approach to learning is one of guiding, observing, facilitating, posing problems, and extending activities. According to Vygotsky (1978), the teacher “creates a natural moment” in the child’s environment. The teacher acts as a “dispenser of occasions,” not a dispenser of knowledge (Phillips, 1993).

Sylwester has synthesized ground-breaking work in the area of brain research and the relationship between cognitive development and human development. The theory of brain-based development focuses on the structures and function of the brain. Neurons grow and develop when they are used actively. Vigorous learning stimulates neuron growth and development and can simulate intelligence (Caine & Caine, 1994; Sylwester, 1995). How the brain works has significant impact on what kinds of learning activities are most effective. Educators can help students capitalize on those experiences by providing appropriate experiences and helping students engage in complex interactive learning with meaningful challenges to analyze different approaches to problems. Teachers who use brain-based learning theory design learning events around interesting developmentally appropriate real world problems (Caine & Caine, 1994).

Learning styles theories emphasize that individuals perceive and process information in different ways. Each student has strong and weak modalities. When instructional methodologies and classroom structures support diverse learning modalities, children benefit. In McCarthy’s *4Mat System* (1996), an individual’s learning style is referred to as concrete, abstract, active, and reflective. Dunn, Dunn, and Price’s *Learning Styles Inventory* (1987) presents a wide array of factors that impact learning. These factors include environmental, emotional, sociological, and physical inputs. Gardner (1995) proposes a theory of multiple intelligences of at least nine categories. Through identification of a learner’s areas of intelligence, teachers can use that knowledge to differentiate instruction to meet the learner’s preferred learning styles.

As M. H. Dembo (1991) wrote in *Applying Educational Psychology in the Classroom*, all educators have theories that form the basis for their teaching. It is important that educators gain as much knowledge as possible regarding human development and theories of learning so they are better equipped to meet the needs of all children.

An important component of pedagogical competence is the educator's ability to use a variety of curricular models to support student's learning. The term curriculum has many different definitions. Some use the term to mean the documents that outline what is to be studied (Tyler, 1950). Others use the term to mean everything planned to help students learn and develop (Saylor, Alexander, & Lewis, 1981). Snyder, Bolin, and Zumwalt (1992) refer to curriculum as the lived experiences of students.

Traditional models of curriculum view it as that which is coherently planned and assessed. Units of learning are aligned with specific objectives that define what is to be taught and assessed. Those who attend to the effective schools research (Joyce, McKibbin, and Hersh, 1993) question the effectiveness of this model and have examined other models, particularly the developmental and standards-based models as alternatives. These models characteristically focus on establishing learning goals first and then shaping the system around them.

In the developmental model, curriculum is based on subject matter and instructional goals that are developmentally appropriate for each student. This model is apparent in classrooms that demonstrate a holistic approach to instruction. The model designs opportunities for learners to make connections across disciplines. The methodologies include a variety of hands on experiences for students with authentic assessments applied to measure learning outcomes. Students gain a deeper understanding of the concepts while experiencing less emphasis on textbooks. Students experience increased problem-solving opportunities in subject areas other than science and math.

Curricular planning and the decisions educators make as to how to implement the curriculum are vital to the instructional process. The traditional process of scope and sequence, the rational linear model, is based in the work of Tyler (1950), Gagne and Briggs (1980), and Ely (1992). However, whichever model is chosen research demonstrates that it is the student centered design that is most successful. Research informs educators that curriculum designs that are mindful of students' abilities, interests, and needs as well as the capacity to be adaptable and flexible are found to be the most effective in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 1997).

The standards-based model of curriculum is focused on the belief that all children can achieve the outcomes of learning if given a sufficient amount of time and the right amount and kind of instruction. Children are given many opportunities to achieve the standards until they are successful. Frameworks for standards-based curricula take many forms.

Curriculum is implemented by educators seeking to match subject matter with an instructional strategy. Educators must have a wide variety of instructional strategies in their repertoire. Joyce and Weil (1996) have developed models of teaching that describe the teaching strategies and procedures resulting from research on teaching over the past 40 years (Richardson, 1998). Some of the models have been developed by researchers examining how students learn and how teacher behaviors affect student learning. Other models have been developed by teachers experimenting in the classrooms to learn what is the most effective for their students. In *Models of Teaching* (1996), Joyce and Weil describe over 20 models of instruction. While beginning teachers cannot be expected to be proficient with all of the models, they can be expected to diversify their teaching strategies over the course of their career. Minimally, beginning teachers

need to enter their classroom proficient in their use of multiple teaching strategies that support students' learning styles and multiple intelligences. These strategies need to include some grouping strategies and graphing organizing strategies. Some examples of these that are commonly used are: cooperative learning strategies, KWL, and large and small group instruction.

Cooperative learning has a strong research base through the work of Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec (1986) and Kagan (1993) and Slavin (1995). Cooperative learning requires students to work together to accomplish a common goal. There are five components to cooperative learning: positive interdependence, individual accountability, group processing, social skills, and small groups. Research has shown that the use of cooperative learning in the classroom has positive effects on students including increased achievement and retention, increased time for critical thinking and high levels of reasoning, positive differentiated views of others, an understanding of other persons' understandings, increased liking for classmates, improved social skills, better understanding of the subject, and improved self esteem (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1986, Slavin, 1995).

KWL (Know-Want to know-Learned), a graphic organizer, was developed by practitioners and researchers in the reading and language arts fields (Ogle, 1994). As an instructional strategy it has high utility across the disciplines in ensuring active participation, revealing student preconceptions and misconceptions, and is useful to generate student-owned agendas for learning.

Large and small group strategies encompass diverse structures for instruction. Two common large group strategies are lecture and direct instruction. A good lecture is systematic, sequential, and conveys information in an orderly and interesting way. Direct instruction is usually used for skill work and consists of eight components. These eight components include a statement of the aims of the lesson, presentation of concepts or an operation, gives examples to illustrate concepts or demonstrates an operation, poses questions to check for student understanding, students practice with the concepts or operations with direct monitoring and feedback, has students work alone, corrects errors and determine whether to re-teach or move on, and gives frequent assessments. Neither lecture nor direct instruction has a theoretical basis. Instead, these preferences for instruction reflect values of efficiency and effectiveness (Saphier & Gower, 1997).

Small group instruction seeks to be responsive to student needs. Given the scarcity of instructional time, educators often find it difficult to meet all learners' needs individually. As a result, small groups are often used as a strategy to respond to as many needs as possible in the time available. Many of the strategies used within small groups are the same structures used in cooperative learning but without four of the five components found in cooperative learning. Some effective small group strategies include inquiry, jigsaw, and problem-base learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec; 1986, Rangachari, 1996).

The effectiveness of any instructional strategy and curricular plan hinges on the educator's ability to effectively manage the classroom. When research is examined regarding the difficulties experienced by beginning teachers, the number one issue cited is classroom management. Therefore, being competent in classroom management strategies is an area of high priority for

pre-service and in-service teachers. Traditionally the phrase “classroom management” is primarily associated with reactive techniques (“discipline”) used to address inappropriate behavior. The phrase, however, also includes proactive measures teachers use to prevent problems.

Classroom management encompasses many areas of successful instruction. It includes how teachers work with individual students as well as with the entire class as a group. Success in managing learning is directly connected to how effective a teacher employs various instructional strategies and methods. It also includes the procedures and rules teachers establish to manage activity in the classroom as well as disciplinary strategies to address disruptive behavior (McGinnis, Frederick, & Edwards, 1995).

Research has shown a strong relationship between teacher-student interactions and good classroom management. These interactions include high expectations for all students, use of incentives, recognition, and rewards to promote individual excellence. Mutual respect and care fosters interaction with students that are positive and caring. The building of respectful relationships between students and between teachers and students generates positive interactions and learning (Bamburg, 1994; Brophy 1987, Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1993-1994).

How teachers manage entire classes has been the focus of much research including the well known studies done by Kounin (1970), Doyle (1986), and Freiberg (1996). These studies have examined the ways effective teachers instill cooperation among students, utilize group management procedures, organize the physical space of the classroom, and create an environment of respect and rapport.

A strong relationship has been demonstrated between good classroom management and effective engagement of students in learning activities and on-task behaviors. Many studies have shown that more effective classroom management occurs when (1) students are productively engaged, (2) transitions between learning activities are smoothly orchestrated, (3) routines are established and followed, (4) assignments, requirements, presentations, and explanations are made clear to students, and (5) students’ basic needs are met (Danielson, 1996; Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980; Glasser, 1986).

As Danielson (1996) states, “The best instructional techniques are worthless in an environment of chaos” (p. 83). A vital part of classroom management is the establishment of classroom procedures and rules so that chaos does not occur. Effective classroom managers have procedures and rules governing student talk, student movement, instructional downtime, among other factors of classroom management (Doyle, 1986).

Student misbehavior is any action that the teacher perceives as disruptive to the order of the classroom. Responding to these wide range of misbehaviors, from daydreaming to aggressive behaviors such as fighting, teachers must have pre-established agreed upon standards of conduct and clear consequences for breaking the agreement. Teachers should respond to students misbehavior in the context of helping student develop self-control so they can function appropriately in the classroom (Bellon, Bellon, & Blank, 1992). Teachers need to have a repertoire of intervention strategies to handle the subtle misbehaviors as well as the aggressive

misbehaviors such as fighting (Cangelosi, 1993). Knowledge in some of the most commonly used strategies such as extinction, mild desists, reprimands, over-correction, and time-out will help teachers to re-establish a classroom environment conducive to learning (Hunter, 1990). A teacher who has a wide range of management strategies available will elicit greater gains in students, because an atmosphere can be created where learning can occur.

A competent teacher utilizes a variety of communication techniques, both verbal and nonverbal, on a continuous basis. Instructional effectiveness requires teachers to communicate clearly and accurately with students, as demonstrated in their ability to conduct effective classroom discussions, use appropriate questioning techniques, teach and model interpersonal skills and provide helpful feedback to students. Teachers also have the professional responsibility to communicate with parents, colleagues, and the school community as a whole. When teachers have used communication in the classroom effectively, discussions are prepared, presented, and concluded in a manner that supports learning for all students (Dillon, 1995, Gall, 1987).

Research has supported the use of classroom discussion as a means of affording students the ability to practice their thinking processes and critical thinking skills (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989). Discussion opens opportunities for students to practice active listening skills and provides opportunities for educators to check for understanding of the topic under study.

The most effective teachers maintain interactive classrooms characterized by the use of effective questioning techniques. Bellon, Bellon, and Blank (1992) state, "Questioning is the instructional process that is central to verbal interaction in the classroom. The questions teachers ask serve as the interface between teacher expectations and student responses" (p. 308). Questioning is a vital instructional strategy because it shifts the focus from the teacher to the students (Moore, 1992). A review of the research on teacher questioning demonstrates when questioning is used effectively, questioning influences the amount, level, and type of student learning. When teachers ask a variety of questions that employ higher-order thinking with adequate response time provided, student responses, student questions, and class dialog raise student achievement in the subject area (Danielson, 1996; Good and Brophy, 1987; Wilen & Clegg, 1986).

Verbal and non-verbal communication promotes active inquiry as well as collaboration and supportive interaction among students. Schmuck and Schmuck (1997) focused on the importance of interpersonal and group processes in the classroom. A positive learning environment is created when students are taught these communication processing skills. As Darling-Hammond (1997) states, "Learning-centered classrooms feature student talk and collective action" (p. 129). Open communication in the classroom provides and opportunity for collaboration that allows students to verbalize and sharpen their thinking skills (Hirschy, 1990; Slavin, 1995b).

Teachers need to use effective communication skills to build connections with students, families, and communities. This communication can involve many forms and topics, including sharing information about individual students, the instructional program, the unit under study, the sharing of professional expertise, and soliciting support for the school setting (stiller & Ryan, 1992; Walberg, Bole, & Waxman, 1980). Through these connections, teachers support the development and learning of all students.

Teachers are responsible for assessing and evaluating student progress in their classrooms and for communicating that progress appropriately and knowledgeably. Effective assessments, informal or formal, should inform educational practice and provide input to improve teaching and learning (Goodwin & Klausmeier, 1975; MacDonald, 1992).

The components of student assessment are congruent with instructional goals, have criteria that are aligned with learning outcomes and standards communicated to the students, and are used in the instructional process to determine student achievement (Danielson, 1996). School-wide assessment programs have traditionally relied on norm- and criterion-referenced testing. Norm-referenced tests have been used to classify students and highlight achievement differences between and among students (Stiggins, 1994). Criterion-referenced tests have determined what test takers can do and what they know, not how they compare to others (Anastasi, 1988). They report how well a student can do relative to a pre-determined performance level on a specified set of educational goals or outcomes (Bond, 1996).

Increased emphasis on accountability to the public and the application of standards in education have many educators examining other means of assessing student learning that include the use of authentic and performance-based assessments, including portfolios. These assessments are more closely tied to classroom work and the standards established for students (Calhoun, 1994; Wallace, 1996). These types of assessments demonstrate certain student knowledge, behaviors, or skills rather than use of the traditional paper and pencil tests. The benefits of performance-based assessments are well documented. The research indicates that when students are required to perform for an audience in meaningful contexts, they exhibit more effort and higher levels of understanding (Brown, 1994; Darling-Hammond, Ancess, and Falk, 1995; Sizer, 1992). Other benefits of alternative forms of assessment include: (1) encouraging the development of student's life skills, (2) enhancing the students' abilities to reflect, critique, and refine work, (3) meeting the needs of a diverse population of learners through the use of multiple methods of assessment (Gardner, 1991; Popham, 1995; Wiggins, 1989).

Competent educators engage in reflective practice in their teaching and work with students. When teachers examine whether their students are learning as a result of their teaching they are analyzing how theory and content coupled with methods and strategies can be evaluated against student performance as reported in assessment data (McLean, 1995). Teachers studying what they do in their classrooms and whether students are learning as a result of their teaching activities. Schon (1987) presents this reflective practice as two dimensional: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Effective teachers make decisions aimed at improving instruction based on accurate information obtained from examining students' abilities, attitudes, skills, and learning styles (Johnson, 1996; Darling-Hammond, 1997).

Black (1996) also encourages the use of teacher research, or what is referred to as action research to examine what is effective and ineffective practice. The research may be formal or informal, short or long term. Action research allows teachers to collect data on a set of students and apply what is learned from those data to improve student learning (Calhoun, 1994; Johnson, 1996; McLean, 1995; Watt & Watt, 1991).

Competent teachers spend much time assessing and evaluating students, curriculum, and the operations of the school. It is essential for effective practice that educators learn how to collect data that will improve schools, teaching, and learning. The current reform movement of standard-based practice encourages educators to develop practices that examine how the curriculum, teaching, and assessment data can help them make appropriate decisions that guide their practices.

Competent educators are knowledgeable about and skillful in the use of resources and technology. Effective educators are able to identify resources and match them to needs, instructional goals, and the vision of the school. Where resources are scant or lacking, the effective educator is able to identify alternative sources and resources to support the school and instructional process (Mortinmore, 1993).

Educational Technology

Educational technology, the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating (Januszewski & Molenda, 2008), using, and managing appropriate technological processes and resources, establishes the underpinnings for transforming American education in the 21st century.

This definition, along with the National Educational Technology Plan 2010, calls for continuous educational improvement by embracing innovation, prompting implementation, and using alternative evaluations. As the National Educational Technology Plan 2010 indicates that technology is at the core of virtually every aspect of our daily lives, educators must provide engaging and powerful learning experiences, content, resources and assessments that measure student achievement in more complete, authentic, and meaningful ways (Transforming American education: Learning powered by technology, March 2010). Recognizing that technology can transform education, the leadership of the educational technology specialist must be commandeered by the individual who is committed to the change that technology will bring to any given educational system.

The leadership role of the educational technology specialist has been redefined according to the demands and challenges of the current educational system. Within the next decade, the value of the educational technology specialist will rise, causing those who hold this position to be valued experts who coordinate learning within organizations. The four responsibilities of the educational technology specialist will fall into the areas of instructional leader, technical advisor, data analyzer, and an innovative and visionary leader. As an instructional leader, the educational technology specialist will assist with instructional needs of the organization by modeling, demonstrating, and/or explaining technology integration (Sugar & Holloman, November/December 2006). Whether the educational technology specialist provides options for technology integration into a lesson plan or program at the micro or macro level, he will model best practices that align with state and national standards. He will offer integration options that can be easily incorporated into the curriculum. Second, as a technical advisor, the educational technology specialist will need to maintain technology equipment, recommend the purchase of specific technology hardware, and implement cost effective, open-sourced tools and applications by reviewing, evaluating, and informing teachers of recent technology products (Twomey,

Shamburg, & Zieger, 2006). Third, as a data analyzer, the educational technology specialist will “need to offer direction for technology planning processes and implementation of specific technology policies in his respective schools and school districts”(Sugar & Holloman, November/December 2006). Finally, as an innovative and visionary leader, the educational technology specialist will need to assume an often revolutionary, sometimes evolutionary, stance in order to keep up with the fast-pace advancements in technology and the diverse needs of the learners. He will discover that through diplomatic and strategic planning, enterprising management, collaborative efforts, and community involvement, that he will provide solutions to critical education issues. By becoming such a leader, the educational technology specialist will help create an egalitarian environment for the specified community of learners.

Competence in Educational Roles Outside of the Classroom

There are many people serving in schools who contribute to the support and success of student learning. Two of these roles include positions designated as leadership and counselor. For both these roles, educators need to be able to effectively use knowledge of human development, curriculum, instruction, assessment, communication, resources, technology, and to be reflective about their work and their impact on children and their families.

Leadership

Competence in school leadership positions is demonstrated by successful administration of all facets encompassing the areas of management of facilities, supervision of curriculum and instruction, communication with the community, administration of school safety and the building environment, and management of change forces. Schools are part of larger community systems with responsibilities to the culture of the community and the setting and implementation of a vision for the future of the children (Bolman & Deal, 1997). The leadership role also includes the protector of the traditions, norms, purposes, and value that guide and hold the community together (Deal & Peterson, 1998).

Educators in formal leadership roles must be competent in their managerial responsibilities. These management responsibilities include budgeting/funding, coordination of resources and implementation of policies, legal requirements, and procedures. The manager is charged with ensuring that schools are orderly, well-run, and appropriately funded and resourced so that students’ are cared for in a safe and well equipped environment for learning (Deal & Peterson, 1994).

Supervision is the process of overseeing the capacity of people to meet the goals and support the mission of the organization in which they work (Daresh, 2001). How personnel are viewed impacts the type of supervision that is exercised. In Theory X, personnel are viewed as people who dislike work and who must be controlled and directed in their work. Theory Y views personnel as people who seek and accept responsibility when the appropriate conditions are present (McGregor, 1960). Within a professional community, such as found in schools, Theory Y supervision is better suited to inform the leader. Educators need to be empowered according to their talents, abilities, interests, and training. The goal and responsibility of the educational leader is to maximize the potential of all everyone connected with the school. This orientation

towards supervision of educational personnel focuses on professional development and resource allocation that supports on-going improvement (Barth, 1990).

Instructional leadership facilitates school improvement. Often thought of as a blend of supervision and staff development, effective instructional leadership increases teacher commitment, professional involvement, and innovativeness (Sheppard, 1996). This, in turn, leads to improved educational opportunities for students.

All leaders are confronted with change. Forces for change surround education and find their sources of pressure from government, community, and society. The greatest challenge for leaders is to direct these forces for change in directions that benefit students and learning. In these turbulent times, the key task of leadership is not to arrive at an early consensus or solutions to change, but to create opportunities for learning from dissonance. Mobilizing people to tackle tough problems is the key skill needed (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998). Meaningful change that improves schools and has a positive impact on student learning requires attention to many of these factors that leaders manage. Revisions of curriculum, improvement of instruction, standards-based assessment systems, and integration of technologies all require leaders to be resourceful. Successful leaders garner support, focus energy, apply resources, and where necessary change structure and policies to bring change and realize new visions in learning communities.

School Counseling

The role of school counselor was historically ancillary to the educational programs of the school. The counselor often performed duties and tasks that were not part of their educational training and many of the counselors' duties were of a quasi-administrative nature. In 1962, the American Personnel and Guidance Association appointed Gilbert Wrenn to chair the Commission on Guidance in the American Schools (Myrick, 1997). The commission studied the role and function of school counselors. The report, *The Counselor in a Changing World*, made some strong recommendations regarding the training of school guidance counselors and the role counselors play in schools. The commission's report recommended a definition of a counselor's role as providing counseling to individuals and groups as well as to parents and teachers. The report also recommended counselors be more involved in the curriculum of the school.

As the years have passed since the report in 1962, the needs of young people, adolescents, and society as a whole have changed. "While many problems apparently remain the same from one decade to another (e.g. conflicts with teachers, parents, and peers), contemporary youth are growing up in a different world, a different society, and one in which there is a need for different helpers" (Myrick, 1997, p.12). The response of the school counseling profession to the changes has been the promotion of comprehensive and developmental school counseling programs (Campbell & Dahir, 1997). The *National Standards for School Counseling Programs* requires a comprehensive approach in order to increase student learning and achievement by promoting student development in three domains: academic development, career development, and personal/social development. This approach moves the role of school counselor from that of ancillary service provider to integral part of the educational process and system. Comprehensive and developmental programs are an evolutionary product of what is and has happened in schools.

Developing and implementing such programs requires specialized knowledge and skills (Paisley & Benschhoff, 1996). The competencies of the effective school counselor encompass four core areas; counselor as developmental specialist, counselor as facilitator of behavior change, counselor as consultant, and counselor as program coordinator.

The emphasis of comprehensive and developmental school counseling programs is on prevention (Gysbers & Henderson, 1994; Myrick, 1987; and Paisley & Hubbard, 1989). Theories of human development make it clear that although heredity may provide a foundation for human growth and development how this process plays out is based upon the environment and experiences of the individual. Comprehensive and developmental counseling programs are purposeful and proactive efforts at promoting positive human development. School counselors rely heavily on developmental theory to better understand the needs of students and to conceptualize healthy human development. School counselors draw heavily on the works of Piaget (1970), Vygotsky (1978), Havighurst (1972), Hunt (1978), Kohlberg (1971), and Erickson (1963). Allan Ivey (1986) has written extensively on developmental and counseling theory and therapy. Significant contributions to understanding career development have been provided by various theorists. Ginzberg, Ginzberg, Axelrod, and Herma (1951) were some of the first to identify how career development and choice goes through a series of stages. Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) have tied career development to Erickson's theory of ego development. Donald Super's (1972) approach to career development is considered the most extensive. Super saw career development and a process of self-concept development. He also emphasized career maturity and the concept and the concept of readiness on the part of the individual to benefit from the environment and experiences. School counselors use such theories and constructs to organize comprehensive and developmental counseling programs that promote healthy development and prevention.

Comprehensive and developmental school counseling programs require counselors to be competent facilitators of behavior change whether this change is to promote prevention or whether it is a more remedial effort, such as crisis intervention. School Counselors work with students both individually and in groups. As facilitators of behavior change, school counselors are skilled in creating the conditions of behavior change (Ivey, 1999; Carkhuff, 1983; Egan, 1975). Individual theories such as Client-Centered Counseling (Rogers, 1951), Rationale-Emotive Therapy (Ellis, 1973), Behavior Counseling (Lazarus, 1971, Bandura, 1969; and Krumboltz, 1969) help counselors conceptualize "problems" of students. Because of time limitations in schools, counselors have developed "brief" therapeutic approaches such as Brief Problem Solving Therapy (Fisch, 1990) and Solution-Focused Therapy (DeShazer, 1990). In order to effect change in the greatest number of students, school counselors are encouraged to work with small and large groups. "In group work, counselors deal with sharing information, teaching skills to prevent problems, shaping new behaviors, enhancing development, and intervening in crisis" (Paisley & Hubbard, 1994, p. 34).

Young people are influenced by their environment. Counseling a student may only be partially effective unless attention is given to adults that are an integral part of a student's life (Myrick, 1997). School counselors must therefore work with both teachers and parents in helping children and in promoting positive healthy development. The role of counselor as consultant is relatively recent and an outgrowth of elementary school counseling. However the counselor is a competent

developmental specialist and facilitator of change. This knowledge and skill will be more effective in helping young people if it is shared with the adults that affect the student's life.

The work of Caplan (1970) is generally seen as the major reference point for describing consultation. In Caplan's work, consultation is considered a process among three parties. The client is the person with the problem. In school counseling, this is usually the student. The consultee is the person(s) that will work with the client to make the change. The consultee is typically that of the teacher or parents. The third party is the consultant who works with the consultee to effect change in the client. Some writers in the field have offered an even more expanded role for the counselor, which could include training, in-service, and skill development for teachers (Cunningham & Hare, 1989) as well as training for parents.

all school personnel. The role of Program Coordinator requires the counselor to manage different indirect services that are provided to the student as a means of fulfilling the school counseling program's goals and objectives. Since many of the counseling program goals are best achieved through infusion into the school's curriculum (Gysbers & Henderson, 1994) and therefore implemented by classroom teachers. Coordination also involves organizing and managing peer group projects, teacher-advisor programs, child study teams, appraisal, staffing, educational placement, student records, paraprofessionals and the like (Myrick, 1997). Kameen, Robinson, and Rotter (1985) identified over twenty different functions in the role of school counselor. Success of comprehensive developmental school counseling programs rests on the leadership and management abilities of the counselor. Gibson, Mitchell, and Higgins (1983) suggest that characteristics of a program leader include a past record of professional accomplishment and the ability to get things done. More credibility is generally given if the person is a proven practitioner in both individual and group work. According to Myrick (1997), comprehensive developmental programs are too new to have exemplary programs to have an impact on practice. Therefore, effective counseling leaders will have a thorough understanding of their role in comprehensive developmental programs and to be able to communicate this role as well as the philosophy of the program to others.

Servant Leadership

Educators who ascribe to the concept of servant leadership are committed to serving in a learning community that respect all individuals and support all learners. An inclusive vision for learning is a vision that prescribes equal treatment and respect for the integrity of individuals (Sergiovanni, 1992). This concept supports the idea that a pluralistic American society must value all people as individuals and treated with equity and equality. The caring educator committed to servant leadership is concerned with how best to educate and counsel an increasingly heterogeneous community of learners. Students who differ from each other in their learning styles, family structures, religion/beliefs, disabilities, race, ethnicity, cultural values, and socioeconomic status. School personnel and educators have the moral responsibility to serve these communities without bias or prejudice in their practice. The value of individuals and the dignity of all people need to be treated with honor. All students have the right to be dealt with as individuals rather than grouped and assigned to categories based on standards (Greenleaf, 1996b). It is through a school community's commitment to support diversity that schools become more enriched and capable of serving society (Neuschel, 1986).

Schools are complex multi-purpose institutions that serve a variety of social needs. Ballatine (1993) has suggested five specific functions that society has assigned to education:

1. Socialization – This is the process by which children become active and participating members of society. Social class, racial or ethnic backgrounds, and other variables affect both the process and outcome of education.
2. Transmission of culture – Often groups are in conflict over the programs, curricular values promulgated within schools. Groups of differing social class may be taught different norms, skills, values, and knowledge in order to assume different work force, career, or school-related goals.
3. Social control and personal development – This function involves the means of control within the school and preparing disciplined worker-citizens. Issues often vary based on the gender or racial-ethnic background of the student. Curricula that require schools to be agents of social change (drug use, sex education, etc.) often are in conflict with issues of students' rights and values.
4. Selecting, training, and placement of individuals in society – Critics of the educational process argue that schools merely perpetuate the existing class structure (Schmidt, 1991). The appropriate use of assessment and standardized testing often determine the placement of students and their ability to maximize the benefits of “equal educational opportunity.”
5. Change and innovation – This is an expected function of the education process. It often involves the issues of technology and its accessibility to the extent that certain students may have more access to it than others. This access, therefore, may afford some students an edge in future placements either in the workforce or in higher education.

It is necessary for educators to possess well thought out personal philosophies of education that informs the educator about his or her understanding of the purpose and place of education in society. The personal convictions and goals of education provide a foundation from which vision and leadership strategies emerge (Greenleaf, 1996b). In order to accomplish this, educators must have what Sergiovanni (1992) refers to as “personal vision.” This personal vision is grounded in the individual's beliefs, values, dreams, and also contains the concepts to which one is committed. This vision is at the very heart of leadership. From this vision evolves a dedicated belief in the goals and purposes of the school, both as agent of the society that supports it and the benefit that it brings to the individuals that it serves.

Vision requires enunciating and often restoring a clear sense of what the school stands for and what it wants to be known for. It includes concepts of image and reputation, as well as expected internal standards. The leader directs the attention of an often random collection of individuals toward a common purpose. Each person or group can then focus on the goal and work toward the achievement of institutional mission. The leader inspires the group to think in terms of results,

emphasizes accomplishments rather than specific activities, and avoids preoccupation with process and techniques alone (Neuschel, 1986).

For the Christian leader, it is not merely the transmission of the history of the school and the culture of the supporting community, it is the faith tradition of the church. The leader is committed to active participation in teaching the faith and worship of God as an integral part of the activities of the organization. The responsibility of leadership includes modeling the life of a faithful child of God and sharing His story and promise. The lessons and dialog become the response to God and also to God's response to His people in community (Groome, 1980). To reach this level of dialog requires leadership behavior that demonstrates living the life as prescribed by God's law but also living a life blessed by the Gospel rich in grace and mercy. This type of leadership goes beyond the management of people and organizations, it is leadership that invites community members to join in the gifts of God and to be His servant leader. Servant leadership in these communities are covenantal, moral, winsome, and religious in nature. It is directed more from tenets that are revealed by God rather than political or temporal in the foundation of practice (Jones, 1995). Servant leadership in the Christian school is a unique type of social bonding that builds on the shared relationship of saint in God's church which leads to a level of shared commitment and empowerment unmatched in many organizations.

The vision of educator-leader is one that must embrace the concept of servant hood. The purpose of the servant is to serve children, learners, their families, the community, and fellow educators. The servant leader is one who seeks to empower, not wield power for self promotion. Through empowering the members of the school, student, faculty, and families; their gifts are developed, talents used, and people valued (Greenleaf, 1996b). A servant orientation results in commitment by educators to support child-centered teaching and learning. Servant leaders create school climates that support all children's learning and development. The servant leader recognizes all children as equally valued regardless of race, socioeconomic status, gender, gifts, intellectual ability, whether or not they are developmentally challenged, or ethnicity.

Servant leaders seek collaboration as a means of informing practice, improving student achievement, and of garnering support for schools. It is through collaborative efforts focused on good schools and successful students that children thrive, learn, and become respectful of others. Each will learn more about self, others, and the world. Collaborative relationships help all persons to understand different views and can make it possible to inform and transform one another (Olson, 1997).

Relationship of Learning Outcomes to Professional and State Standards

The tables that follow map the alignment of the unit's conceptual framework to:

- The propositions of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS)
- The principles of the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC)
- Standards from the State of Illinois Leadership and School Counseling
- Illinois Professional Teaching Standards (IPTTS)

Relationship of Conceptual Framework to Professional and State Standards for Teachers

Conceptual Framework	NBPTS	INTASC	IPTS
<i>Integrity</i>			
Diversity	#1: Committed to students & learning #4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#3: Know how children differ in learning & create instructional opportunities adapted to diverse learners	#3. Know how students differ in learning & create instructional opportunities adapted to diverse learners
Ethics & professional behavior	#4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#9: Are reflective practitioners	#10: Are reflective practitioners #11: Maintain professional standards of conduct & leadership
<i>Competence</i>			
Knowledge of content areas	#2: Know subjects & how to teach them #4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#1: Know concepts, tools, structure of discipline & can create learning experiences	#1: Know concepts, methods of inquiry, & structures of discipline, & create learning experiences
Human development, theories of learning, appropriate practice	#1: Committed to students & learning #4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#2: Know how children learn & develop	#2: Know how people grow, develop, & learn & give opportunities that supports development of all students
Curriculum models & planning	#2: Know subjects & how to teach them #3: Manage & monitor student learning #4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#3: Know how children differ in learning & create instructional opportunities for them #7: Plan instruction	#3: Know how students differ in learning & create instructional opportunities for them #4: Understand instructional planning & design instruction
Models of instruction	#2: Know subjects & how to teach them #3: Manage & monitor student learning #4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#4: Understand & use variety of instructional strategies	#4: Understand instructional planning & design instruction #6: Understand & use variety of instructional strategies

Classroom management	#3: Manage & monitor student learning #4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#5: Create positive learning environment	#5: Create positive learning environment
Effective communication	#3: Manage & monitor student learning	#6: Use effective communication	#7: Use effective communication
Assessment practices	#3: Manage & monitor student learning #4: Think about practice & learn from experience	#8: Use formal & informal assessment strategies	#8: Use formal & informal assessment strategies
Instructional resources, tools & technology	#2: Know subjects & how to teach them #5: Member of learning communities	#4: Understand & use variety of instructional strategies	#4: Understand instructional planning & design instruction
<i>Servant Leadership</i>			
Inclusive vision for learning	#3: Manage & monitor student learning #4: Think about practice & learn from experience #5: Member of learning community	#2: Know how children learn & develop	#11: Maintain standards of professional conduct & provide leadership
School culture and instructional program	#1: Committed to students & learning	#3: Know how children differ in learning & create instructional opportunities for them	#3: Know how students differ in learning & create instructional opportunities for them
Functions and resources	#1: Committed to students & learning #5: Member of learning communities	#4: Understand & use variety of instructional strategies	#4: Understand instructional planning & design instruction #11: Maintain standards of professional conduct & provide leadership
Collaborative relationships	#3: Manage & monitor student learning #4: Think about practice &	#10: foster relations with colleagues, parents, & agencies	#9: understand role of community & work collaboratively to support

	learn from experience #5: Member of learning communities		students
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Relationship of Conceptual Framework to Administrative Standards

Conceptual Framework	IL School Leader	Principal	Superintendent
<i>Integrity</i>			
Diversity	#4: Collaboration with families & communities	#4: Collaboration with families & communities	#4: Collaboration with families & communities
Ethics & professional behavior	#5: Acting with integrity, fairness, & ethics	#5: Acting with integrity, fairness, & ethics	#5: Knowledge of laws, regulations, & ethics
<i>Competence</i>			
Organizational facilitation	#1: Vision of learning	#1: Vision of learning	#1: Vision of educational excellence
Organizational management	#3: Management #6: Political, social, legal, economic & cultural context	#3: Management #6: Political, social, legal, economic & cultural context	#3: Management #5: Knowledge of laws, regulations, & ethics
Supervision	#2: School culture & instructional program	#2: School culture & instructional program	#2: Learning environment & instructional program
Instructional leadership	#2: School culture & instructional program	#2: School culture & instructional program	#2: Learning environment & instructional program
Managing change	#1: Vision of learning #2: School culture & instructional program	#1: Vision of learning #2: School culture & instructional program	#1: Vision of educational excellence #2: School culture & instructional program
<i>Servant Leadership</i>			
Inclusive vision for learning	#1: Vision of learning	#1: Vision of learning	#1: Vision of educational excellence
School culture & instructional program	#2: School culture & instructional program	#2: School culture & instructional program	#2: Learning environment & instructional program
Functions & resources	#3: Management	#3: Management	#3: Management
Collaborative relationships	#4: Collaboration with families & communities	#4: Collaboration with families & culture	#4: Collaboration with families & community

Assessment of Candidate Performance

Each candidate's performance is assessed on a regular, continuous, and systematic basis through course work, tests, performance rubrics, and a standards-based portfolio. This not only serves to strengthen candidate performance but also to provide data for program revision and improvement. Assessments are based on criteria for admission to education programs, admission to professional instruction courses, admission to clinical practice, and a portfolio which is used to assess the desired learning outcomes in the categories of knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Data from standardized instruments and follow-up surveys of graduates and their employees are to be used for both candidate and program assessment.

Assessment of the Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is assessed for relevancy through the unit's continuous assessment practices, goals and programs, professional standards, and candidate performance. The unit's goals and programs are regularly scrutinized by advisory councils. Candidate performance is continuously assessed (as indicated above), most notably through capstone portfolios, formative and summative assessments used throughout the program, state professional test scores, and employer surveys. Consistent weaknesses in any of these areas trigger a reassessment of programs, supporting experiences, and the conceptual framework itself. (*Evidence: Conceptual framework alignments in assessment documents*).

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