EDC/HRE Volume I

Rolf Gollob, Peter Krapf, Wiltrud Weidinger (editors)

Educating for democracy

Background materials on democratic citizenship and human rights education for teachers

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Background materials on democratic citizenship and human rights education for teachers

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Volume I
of
EDC/HRE Volumes I-VI
Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights in school practice
Teaching sequences, concepts, methods and models

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1. All references to Kosovo, whether to the territory, institutions or populations, in this text shall be understood in full compliance with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244 and without prejudice to the status of Kosovo.

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Introduction

1. The purpose of this manual

The objective of this manual is to support teachers and practitioners in Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education (EDC/HRE) – teacher trainers, head teachers, inspectors, textbook authors and editors. It focuses on key questions about EDC and HRE, including the following:

- What competences do citizens need to participate in their communities?
- What are the objectives of EDC/HRE?
- What are the basic principles of EDC/HRE?
- What do the key concepts that form the core of this EDC/HRE edition mean?
- In what way is the concept of constructivist learning linked to EDC/HRE?
- Why does EDC/HRE emphasise a whole-school approach?
- How can teachers prepare, support and assess their students' processes of learning in EDC/HRE?

The manual offers background materials and tools to cover these questions. As this book is not a treatise on EDC/HRE, it allows the user to read and use the chapters and materials selectively.

This manual differs from the other five in this EDC/HRE edition. Volumes II-IV contain model descriptions of small projects and learning sequences, generally designed as four-lesson sequences. A set of nine key concepts sets the framework for a spiral curriculum from elementary to lower and upper secondary level. Volume V offers model descriptions of nine short projects on children's rights from kindergarten to lower secondary level. Volume VI contains a collection of models for interactive and task-based learning.

Part 1 of this manual, on the other hand, outlines the basic principles of EDC/HRE as far as they are helpful and meaningful for the practitioner. Part 2 gives guidelines and tools to design, support and assess the students' processes of constructivist learning. Part 3 provides toolboxes for teachers and students in EDC/HRE. The user will find that these guidelines and tools not only give support in EDC/HRE, but for good teaching in general.

2. An outline of EDC/HRE

As reflected by the title of this manual, *Educating for democracy*, the objective of EDC/HRE is to enable and encourage students in their roles as young citizens to play an active part in their societies and political communities. To participate in a democratic community, students need to develop a wide range of competences including knowledge and understanding, technical and methodical skills, and values and attitudes, such as tolerance and responsibility.

"Education for democratic citizenship and human rights education are closely inter-related and mutually supportive. They differ in focus and scope rather than in goals and practices. Education for democratic citizenship focuses primarily on democratic rights and responsibilities and active participation, in relation to the civic, political, social, economic, legal and cultural spheres of society, while human rights education is concerned with the broader spectrum of human rights and fundamental freedoms in every aspect of people's lives."[2] EDC therefore focuses on the young citizen's role in the community, while HRE looks at the individual and his or her identity, wants and needs, liberties and responsibilities "through a human rights lens".

2. Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education adopted in the framework of Recommendation CM/Rec(2010)7 of the Committee of Ministers (www.coe.int/edc).

EDC/HRE emphasises the active role of students as young citizens, insisting that they need to know and understand their human rights, but also appreciate them, and through training in class and practical experience in school life feel confident to exercise them. In this respect, EDC/HRE takes a big step forward in comparison to a more traditional, solely knowledge-based concept of civic or citizenship education. EDC/HRE addresses students as experts, valuing their interests and experience in everyday life.

EDC/HRE adopts a holistic approach to teaching and learning. The EDC/HRE teacher's task may be summed up in three principles:

- teaching "about" democracy and human rights;
- teaching "for" democracy and human rights;
- teaching "through" democracy and human rights.

2.1 Teaching "about" democracy and human rights

Students need a sound understanding of what democracy means, and what human rights they enjoy, in which documents they have been laid down, and how they may be protected and enforced. As young citizens, they need to know how their country's constitution functions as a political system.

2.2 Teaching "for" democracy and human rights

Young citizens need to learn how to participate in their communities and how to exercise their human rights: "Democratic values and practices have to be learned and relearned to address the pressing challenges of every generation. To become full and active members of society, citizens need to be given the opportunity to work together in the interests of the common good; respect all voices, even dissenting ones; participate in the formal political process; and cultivate the habits and values of democracy and human rights in their everyday lives and activities. As a result, citizens come to feel useful and recognized members of their communities, able to participate in and make a difference to society."[3]

2.3 Teaching "through" democracy and human rights

Students need a supportive learning environment. They require methods of teaching and learning that allow them to exercise their human rights, such as freedom of thought and expression. They require opportunities to participate in governing their school, exercising their human rights and fulfilling their responsibilities. They rely on their teachers to provide role models for mutual respect, tolerance and peaceful resolution of conflict. In all these respects, democracy and human rights serve as a pedagogical guideline, both for EDC/HRE as a curricular school subject and school as a micro-society.

EDC/HRE poses a challenge for learners, teachers and schools. This manual offers teachers and school practitioners guidance and support in meeting this challenge.

3. Hartley M. and Huddleston T. (2009), *School-Community-University Partnerships for a Sustainable Democracy: Education for Democratic Citizenship in Europe and the United States*. EDC/HRE Pack, Tool 5, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, p. 8 (www.coe.int/edc).

Part 1

Understanding democracy and human rights

Unit 1

What the concepts mean

Unit 2

The key to a dynamic concept of citizenship

Unit 3

Educating for democracy and human rights

Unit 4

Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education – A short history of the Council of Europe approach

The idea of education for democratic citizenship and human rights education is not new. Civic or citizenship education has been present in various European countries for many years and has been implemented in many different ways. Mainly this has consisted of informing learners about the political system – that is to say, the constitution – in place in their country, using formal methods of instruction. The underlying model of citizenship has therefore been a passive and minimal one. Citizenship for the vast majority of ordinary people has consisted in little more than the expectation that they should obey the law and vote in public elections. These responsibilities have been prescribed by the legal and cultural environments that citizens live in. Some countries have also included human rights education in their curriculum. Increasingly, educators across Europe are becoming aware of the links between education for democratic citizenship and human rights education.

In recent years, however, events experienced and changes taking place across Europe have challenged this model of citizenship. They include:

- ethnic conflicts and nationalism;
- global threats and insecurity;
- development of new information and communication technologies;
- environmental problems;
- population movements;
- emergence of new forms of formerly suppressed collective identities;
- demand for increased personal autonomy and new forms of equality;
- weakening of social cohesion and solidarity among people;
- mistrust of traditional political institutions, forms of governance and political leaders;
- increasing interconnectedness and interdependence – political, economic and cultural – regionally and internationally.

In the face of challenges such as these, it has become clear that new kinds of citizens are required: citizens that are not only informed and understand their formal responsibilities as citizens, but also active – able to freely contribute to the life of their community, their country and the wider world, and actively participate in ways that express their individuality and help to solve problems.

Unit 1
What the concepts mean

1. Politics, democracy and democratic governance of schools

The goal of EDC/HRE, Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education, is to enable and encourage young citizens to participate in their communities. The goal of democratic citizenship refers to a concept of democracy and politics. Democratic school governance plays a key role in EDC/HRE, as it offers students opportunities to learn how to participate in a community. This unit therefore outlines these three concepts, as they are crucial for EDC/HRE as it is conceived in this manual.

1.1 Politics

1.1.1 Politics – power play and problem solving

Newspaper readers or TV news watchers will find that many media reports on politics fall into one of the following two categories:

- Politicians attack their opponents. In doing so, they may question their rivals' integrity or ability to hold office, or deal with particular problems. This perception of politics – as a "dirty business" – makes some people turn away in disgust.
- Politicians discuss solutions to solve difficult problems that affect their country or countries.

These two categories of political events correspond to Max Weber's classic definition of politics:

- Politics is a quest and struggle for power. Without power, no political player can achieve anything. In democratic systems, political players compete with each other for public approval and support to win the majority. Therefore, part of the game is to attack the opponents, for example in an election campaign, to attract voters and new party members.
- Politics is a slow "boring (of) holes through thick planks, both with passion and good judgement".[4] The metaphor stands for the attempt to solve political problems. Such problems need to be dealt with, as they are both urgent and affect society as a whole, and are therefore complex and difficult. Politics is something eminently practical and relevant, and discussion must result in decisions.

Politics in democratic settings therefore requires political actors to perform in different roles that are difficult to bring together. The struggle for power requires a charismatic figure with powers of rhetoric and the ability to explain complex matters in simple words. The challenge of solving the big problems of the day, and our futures, demands a person with scientific expertise, responsibility and integrity.

1.1.2 Politics in democracy – a demanding task

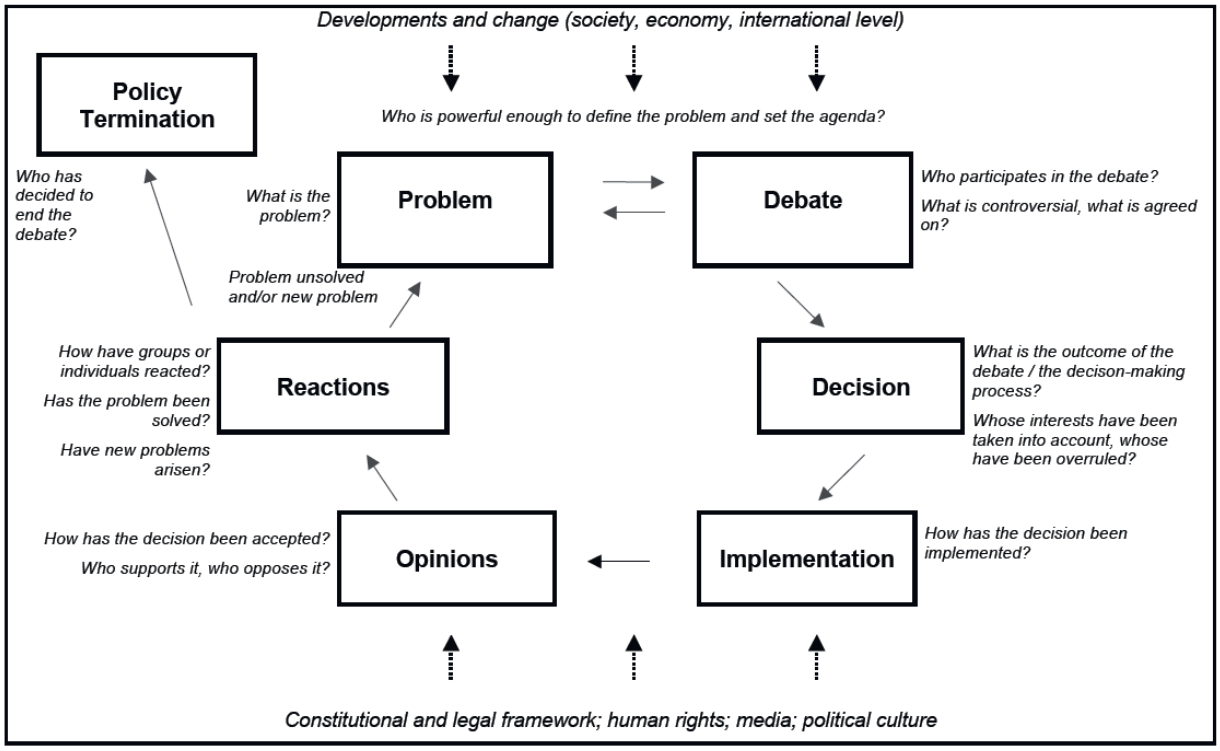
Of course, we first think of political leaders who must meet these role standards that tend to exclude each other. There are prominent examples of leaders who stand for the extremes – the populist and the professor. One tends to turn politics into a show stage, the other into a lecture hall. The first may win the election, but will do little to support society. The second may have some good ideas, but only a few will understand them.

However, not only political leaders and decision makers face this dilemma, but also every citizen who wishes to take part in politics. In a public setting, speaking time is usually limited, and only those speakers will make an impact whose point is clear and easy to understand. Teachers will discover that there are surprising parallels between communication in public and communication in school – the scarcity of time resources, the need to be both clear and simple, but also able to handle complexity.

4. Weber M. (1997), *Politik als Beruf (Politics as a vocation)*, Reclam, Stuttgart, p. 82 (translation by Peter Krapf).

Exercising human rights – such as freedom of thought and speech, taking part in elections – is therefore a demanding task for all citizens, not only political leaders. In EDC/HRE, young people receive the training in different dimensions of competences, and the encouragement that they need to take part in public debates and decision making. As members of the school community, students learn how to take part in a society governed by principles of democracy and human rights.

1.1.3 The policy cycle model: politics as a process of solving problems in a community



The policy cycle model is a tool to describe and understand political decision-making processes; thus it primarily focuses on one aspect in Max Weber's definition of politics, the "slow boring of holes through thick planks".

Politics is conceived as a process of defining political problems in a controversial agenda-setting process, and both in defining a political problem and excluding other interests from the agenda, a considerable element of power is involved. The model gives an ideal-type description of the subsequent stages of political decision making: debating, deciding on and implementing solutions. Public opinion and reactions by those persons and groups whose interests are affected show whether the solutions will serve their purpose and be accepted. Minorities or groups too weak to promote their interests who have been overruled may be expected to express their protest and criticism. If the attempt to solve a problem has succeeded (or has been defined as successful), the policy cycle comes to an end (policy termination); if it fails, the cycle begins anew. In some cases, a solution to one problem creates new problems that now must be seen to in a new policy cycle.

The policy cycle model emphasises important aspects of political decision making in democratic systems, and also in democratic governance of schools:

- There is a heuristic concept of political problems and the common good; no one is in a position to define beforehand what the common good is. The parties, groups and individuals taking part in the process have to find out and usually agree to compromise.
- Competitive agenda setting takes place; in pluralist societies, political arguments are often linked to interests.

- Participation is imperfect in social reality, with certain individuals and groups systematically having less access to power and decision-making processes, thus being a model that requires attention to increasing the access of less powerful.
- Political decision making is a collective learning process with an absence of omniscient players (such as leaders or parties with salvation ideologies). This implies a constructivist concept of the common good: the common good is what the majority believes it to be at a given time.
- There is a strong influence of public opinion and media coverage – the opportunity for citizens and interest groups to intervene and participate.

The policy cycle is a model – a design that works like a map in geography. It shows a lot, and delivers a logic of understanding. Therefore models are frequently used in both education and science, because without models we would understand very little in our complex world.

We never mistake a map for the landscape it stands for – a map shows a lot, but only because it omits a lot. A map that showed everything would be too complicated for anyone to understand. The same holds true for models such as the policy cycle. Nor should this model be mistaken for reality. It focuses on the process of political decision making – "the slow boring of holes through thick plants" – but pays less attention to the second dimension of politics in Max Weber's definition, the quest and struggle for power and influence.

In democratic systems, the two dimensions of politics are linked: political decision makers wrestle with difficult problems, and they wrestle with each other as political opponents. In the policy cycle model, the stage of agenda setting shows how these two dimensions go together. To establish an understanding of a political problem on the agenda is a matter of power and influence.

Here is an example. One group claims, "Taxation is too high, as it deters investors," while the second argues, "Taxation is too low, as education and social security are underfunded." There are interests and basic political outlooks behind each definition of the taxation problem, and the solutions implied point in opposite directions: reduce taxation for the higher income groups – or raise it. The first problem definition is neo-liberal, the second is social democrat.

Citizens should be aware of both. The policy cycle model is a tool that helps citizens to identify and judge political decision makers' efforts to solve the society's problems.

1.2 Democracy

1.2.1 Basic principles

In Abraham Lincoln's famous quotation (1863), democracy is "government of the people, by the people, for the people"; the three definitions can be understood as follows:

- "of": power comes from the people – the people are the sovereign power that exercises power or gives the mandate to do so, and whoever is part of authority may be held responsible by the people;
- "by": power is exercised either through elected representatives or direct rule by the citizens;
- "for": power is exercised to serve the interests of the people, that is, the common good.

These definitions can be understood and linked in different ways. Political thinkers in the tradition of Rousseau insist on direct rule by the citizens (identity of the governed and the government). The people decide everything and are not bound by any kind of law. Political thinkers in the tradition of Locke emphasise the competition between different interests in a pluralist society; within a constitutional framework, they must agree on a decision that serves the common good.

No matter how long the democratic tradition is in a country and how it has developed it cannot be taken for granted. In every country, democracy and the basic understanding of human rights have to be permanently developed to meet the challenges that every generation faces. Every generation has to be educated in democracy and human rights.

1.2.2 Democracy as a political system

Core elements of modern constitutional democracies include:

- a constitution, usually in written form, that sets the institutional framework for democracy protected in some countries by an independent, high court; human rights, usually not all, are protected as civil rights;
- human rights are referred to in the constitution and then relegated to civil rights as guaranteed constitutionally. Governments that have signed human rights conventions are obligated to uphold the range of rights they have ratified, regardless of whether they are specifically referred to in the constitution;
- the equal legal status of all citizens: all citizens are equally protected by the law through the principle of non-discrimination and are to fulfil their duties as defined by the law.
- universal suffrage: this gives adult citizens, men and women, the right to vote for parties and/or candidates in parliamentary elections. In addition, some systems include a referendum or plebiscite, that is, the right for citizens to make decisions on a certain issue by direct vote;
- citizens enjoy human rights that give access to a wide range of ways to participate. This includes the freedom of the media from censorship and state control, the freedom of thought, expression and peaceful assembly, and the right of minorities and the political opposition to act freely;
- pluralism and competition of interests and political objectives: individual citizens and groups may form or join parties or interest groups (lobbies), non-governmental organisations, etc. to promote their interests or political objectives. There is competition in promoting interests and unequal distribution of power and opportunities in realising them;
- parliament: the body of elected representatives has the power of legislation, that is, to pass laws that are generally binding. The authority of parliament rests on the will of the majority of voters. If the majority in a parliamentary system shifts from one election to the next, a new government takes office. In presidential systems the head of government, the president, is elected separately by direct vote;
- majority rule: the majority decides, the minority must accept the decision. Constitutions define limits for majority rule that protect the rights and interests of minorities. The quorum for the majority may vary, depending on the issue – for example, two-thirds for amendments to the constitution;
- checks and balances: democracies combine two principles: the authority to exercise force rests with the state, amounting to a "disarmament of citizens".[5] However, to prevent power of force to turn into autocratic or dictatorial rule, all democratic systems include checks and balances. The classic model divides state powers into legislation, executive powers, and jurisdiction (horizontal dimension); many systems take further precautions: a two-chamber system for legislation, and federal or cantonal autonomy, amounting to an additional vertical dimension of checks and balances (such as in Switzerland, the USA or Germany);
- temporary authority: a further means of controlling power is by bestowing authority for a fixed period of time only. Every election has this effect, and in some cases, the total period of office may be limited, as in the case of the US president, who must step down after two four-year terms of office. In ancient Rome, consuls were appointed in tandem, and left office after one year.

1.2.3 A misunderstanding of human rights and democracy

Democracy is based on the standards and principles of human rights. Human rights are sometimes misunderstood as a system in which the individual enjoys complete freedom. This, however, is not the case.

5. There is a notable example in which the principle of disarming citizens is modified, namely the USA.

Human rights recognise individual rights and liberties, which are inherent in being human. However, these rights are not absolute. The rights of others must also be respected, and sometimes there will be conflicts between rights. Democratic processes help to set up processes that facilitate the freedom of people, but also set necessary limits. In an EDC/HRE class, for example, a discussion is held. To give all students the opportunity to express their opinion, speaking is rationed, maybe quite strictly. For the same reason, speaking time is limited in parliamentary debates or TV talk shows.

Many rules in the highway code limit our freedom of movement: speed limits in town, having to stop at red traffic lights, etc. Clearly these rules are in place to protect people's life and health.

Democracy gives more freedom to the people, and also to individuals, than any other system of government – provided it is set in an order, that is, an institutional framework, and implemented as such. To function well, democracy relies on a strong state that exercises the rule of law and achieves an accepted degree of distributive justice. A weak state, or weak rule of law, means that a government is not able to carry out its constitutional framework and laws.

1.2.4 Strengths and weaknesses

Broadly speaking, the different types of democracies share some strengths and weaknesses including the following.

a. Strengths of democracies

- Democracy provides a framework and means for civilised, non-violent conflict resolution; the dynamics of conflict and pluralism support the solution of problems.
- Democracies are "strong pacifists" – both in their societies and in international politics.
- Democracy is the only system that facilitates an exchange of political leadership without changing the system of government.
- Democracies are learning communities that can accommodate human errors. The common good is defined by negotiation, not imposed by an autocratic authority.
- Human rights reinforce democracies by providing a normative framework for political processes that is based on human dignity. Through ratification of human rights treaties, a government can extend to its citizens "promises" that maintain personal liberties and other rights.

b. Problems and weaknesses

- Parties and politicians tend to sacrifice long-term objectives for success in elections. Democracies create incentives for short-sighted policy making, for example at the expense of the environment or later generations ("muddling through").
- Government for a people is government within the confines of a nation state. Increasing global interdependence, such as in economic and environmental developments, limits the scope of influence of democratic decision making in a nation state.

1.2.5 Conclusions

Democracies depend on their citizens to what extent the strengths of democracies are unfolded and their weaknesses are kept in check. Democracies are demanding systems, depending on their citizens' active involvement and support – an attitude of informed and critical loyalty; as Winston Churchill (1947) put it, "Democracy is the worst form of government except all those other forms that have been tried from time to time."

Both in established and in young democratic states, EDC/HRE contributes decisively to the political culture that democracies must be rooted in to thrive and survive.

1.3 Democratic governance of schools

1.3.1 School – a micro democracy?

Education for democratic citizenship and human rights education (EDC/HRE) is based on the core principles of teaching through, about and for democracy and human rights in school. School is conceived as a micro-community, an "embryonic society"[6] characterised by formal regulations and procedures, decision-making processes, and the web of relationships influencing the quality of daily life.

Is school then to be conceived as a miniature-size democracy? A glance at the list shows that schools are not small states, in which elections are held, teachers enact like governments, head teachers resemble presidents, etc. Therefore the question may be dismissed as rhetorical. So what can schools do for EDC/HRE?

1.3.2 Democratic school governance: four key areas, three criteria of progress

Elisabeth Bäckman and Bernard Trafford, head teachers in Sweden and the UK and authors of the Council of Europe manual "Democratic governance of schools",[7] have explored this question in depth. Schools, they argue, require both management and governance. School management is school administration – for example, the implementation of legal, financial and curricular requirements. The relationship between the head teacher and students is hierarchical, based on instruction and order. School governance, on the other hand, reflects the dynamics of social change in modern society. Schools need to interact with different partners and stakeholders outside school, and to answer problems and challenges that cannot be foreseen. Here, all members of the school community, including first and foremost the students, have an important role to play. The members of the community interact, negotiate and bargain, exercise pressure, make decisions together. No partner has complete control over the other.[8]

Bäckman and Trafford suggest four key areas for democratic school governance:

- governance, leadership and public accountability;
- value-centred education;
- co-operation, communication and involvement: competitiveness and school self-determination;
- student discipline.

Bäckman and Trafford apply three criteria based on the Council of Europe's three basic principles of EDC/HRE, to measure progress in these key areas:

- rights and responsibilities;
- active participation;
- valuing diversity.

1.3.3 Teaching democracy and human rights through democratic school governance

Bäckman and Trafford provide a detailed set of tools to meet the task of teaching and living out democracy and human rights in the whole school. Students experience democratic participation in school, but schools remain institutions for education; they are not turned into would-be mini-states although they are mini-societies.

6. See Dewey J. (2007), *The School and Society*, Cosimo, New York, p. 32.

7. Bäckman E. and Trafford B. (2007), *Democratic Governance of Schools*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

8. Ibid., p. 9.

2. Children's rights and the right to education[9]

Children's rights are comprehensively protected by a wide-ranging set of international and regional instruments spanning human rights, humanitarian and refugee law. Children benefit from the rights contained in general treaties. In addition, a number of specialist instruments have been created to accord extra protection to children given their particular vulnerabilities and the importance to society as a whole in ensuring the healthy development and active participation of its young members.

The European Convention on Human Rights ("the Convention") contains many provisions to protect the rights of children, for instance Protocol 1, Article 2, the "right to education". However, the overarching framework for children's rights is the 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). This was the first treaty specifically concerned with the rights of children and marked an important shift in thinking towards a "rights-based approach" which held governments legally accountable for failing to meet the needs of children. The CRC created a new vision of children as bearers of rights and responsibilities appropriate to their age rather than viewing them as the property of their parents or the helpless recipients of charity.

Children's rights cover every aspect of the lives of children and adolescents and can be broken down into the following main categories:

- survival rights: the right to life and to have the most basic needs met (for example, adequate standard of living, shelter, nutrition, medical treatment);
- development rights: the rights enabling children to reach their fullest potential (for example education, play and leisure, cultural activities, access to information and freedom of thought, conscience and religion);
- participation rights: rights that allow children and adolescents to take an active role in their communities (for example, the freedom to express opinions, to have a say in matters affecting their own lives, to join associations);
- protection rights: rights that are essential for safeguarding children and adolescents from all forms of abuse, neglect and exploitation (for example, special care for refugee children and protection against involvement in armed conflict, child labour, sexual exploitation, torture and drug abuse).

Education is viewed both as a human right in itself and an indispensable means of realising other human rights. An educational system that embraces a rights-based approach will be better positioned to fulfil its fundamental mission to secure high-quality education for all.

Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) stipulates:

> (1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
>
> (2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
>
> (3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

9. Author: Felisa Tibbitts (2009). Remarks of Felisa Tibbitts, prepared for the Council of Europe's Evaluation Conference of the European Year of Citizenship through Education, 27-28 April 2006, Sinaia, Romania.

As an extension of some of the ideas first articulated in the UDHR, Article 28 of the CRC defines education as a right and Article 29 comments that education should assist the child in developing her or his "personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential".[10]

Both the CRC and the UDHR recognise that one of the purposes of schooling is to develop respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. Certainly, to truly understand and promote human rights, one has to live them out in relation to others. This involves not only learning about human rights, but also to live in and through human rights. Thus a human rights-based approach (HRBA) to schooling includes the opportunity to learn about and practise human rights values and framework in the classroom. Schools that are reflective of children's rights are centred on the human dignity of children.

The right to education is intended to be implemented and enjoyed by all – regardless of ability, race, ethnicity, religion, gender, nationality, sexual preference, class, or any other identifying factor. In addition, such an education – as defined by the CRC – must be structured in a way that respects the dignity and fundamental human rights of students.

A key principle that is central both to human rights and the HRBA is non-discrimination. In the schooling sector the ramifications are manifold, including equal access to quality education with special attention to vulnerable or marginalised groups.

UNESCO's Child Friendly Schools initiative and HRBAs to schooling want to implement the CRC in and through education. To be able to use an HRBA we need to know more about human rights and child rights, as well as the implications for educational thinking, planning, and evaluation. It forces us to ask questions such as:

- Who is not getting educated? Where are they, and why are they excluded?
- Who should do what to protect, promote and fulfil the right to education?
- Whose capacity, in what, needs to be developed to ensure the right to education?
- Who has to do what to ensure this right and how can partnerships assist in this process?

Principle 1. Express linkages to rights

Questions for us: Are our educational efforts linked expressly to human rights? Do these efforts include the full range of human rights? Do the human rights that are explored in depth have genuine relevance for needs and issues in our communities, or can these connections be made? Are we willing to move beyond our personal "zone of comfort" in linking our work to human rights values?

Principle 2. Accountability

Do those of us who are government representatives or are employed by the state see ourselves as accountable for ensuring education for human rights? In what ways are we accountable? How can children and their guardians ensure such accountability?

Principle 3. Empowerment and participation

Let us think for a moment about those we feel responsible towards in terms of guaranteeing education for human rights. Have we incorporated the ideas of all those who are affected by our policies and activities? Who is absent during our decision-making meetings who has a stake in our conversation? If they are not here, or not involved in conversations back home, how can we bring them to the table? How can we facilitate their points of view on the when, how, who and what of education for democracy and human rights?

10. The right to education is referenced in numerous United Nations and human rights documents including the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Article 14) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Articles 28 and 29). Other key declarations, general comments and documents have expanded on the right to education, including the World Declaration on Education for All (Articles I, III, IV, VI, VII), the Dakar Framework for Action, and Education for All.

Principle 4. Non-discrimination and attention to vulnerable groups

Finally, and in relation to the last point, who are the groups that are least likely at the present time to benefit from our educational programming, and how can we help to ensure their participation? The very groups that have their human rights denied on a daily basis – the marginalised, the vulnerable, the discriminated against – are the ones who will benefit most from our educational efforts. How can we identify them, reach out to them, and create educational programmes that are genuinely meaningful for them?

Unit 2
The key to a dynamic concept of citizenship[11]

1. Challenges to the traditional model of citizenship

Since the end of the Cold War, several processes of modernisation that shaped our history for a long time before (see the box below) have accelerated and intensified, taking on a new quality. The events experienced and changes taking place across Europe have challenged the traditional model of citizenship:

- The globalisation of free trade and competitive market economies has brought a higher level of welfare to many people in many countries – but not to all. The gaps of unequal distribution between rich and poor have increased, both within and between societies, threatening social cohesion and solidarity among people.
- Competition drives enterprises to permanently increase their productivity to lower their costs of production. This has given rise to a permanent process of innovation, directly affecting products, technologies and jobs, and indirectly affecting our whole way of life. Joseph Schumpeter called this permanent process of innovation "creative destruction".[12] The transformation of whole economies in eastern Europe may be considered as a particularly striking example of such creative destruction.
- Economic growth has produced increasing welfare, but also increasing consumption of natural resources. Rising CO_2 emissions make it increasingly difficult and costly to avert, or to adapt to, climate change.
- New information and communication technologies have provided new ways to increase productivity, to exchange and obtain information, and to deliver entertainment, to name but a few. We live in a media culture, and media literacy – how to use the new media both for producing and receiving messages – is becoming an elementary skill like reading and writing.
- Due to economic growth and the achievements of modern medicine, the population in many European countries is ageing, while it is growing in the world as a whole. Both developments pose serious problems for the 21st century.
- Nations have the right to sovereignty and self-determination. But the concept of nations is both inclusive and exclusive. Since the end of the Cold War, we have seen the emergence of new forms of formerly suppressed collective identities.
- Modern societies are typically secular, pluralist societies. Migration across Europe – particularly within the European Union – has contributed to this development. Pluralist societies are more dynamic and productive, but also are more demanding in terms of social cohesion in order to integrate people with different beliefs, values, interests, and social and ethnic backgrounds.
- Democracy offers the best chances to meet these challenges, as any attempt to solve these and other problems by authoritarian rule will fail to take the complex reality of society, economy, environment, conflict resolution, etc., into account on a national, let alone a supranational level. On the other hand, democracy stands and falls with the pledge of equal participation. The more complex our world and the challenges that define our future become, the more difficult it is for the "ordinary citizen" to understand and take part in decision making. Mistrust of traditional political institutions, forms of governance and political leaders are rooted in the feeling of being

11. Based on Huddleston T. (2004), *Tool on Teacher Training for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, pp. 9f., revised by Peter Krapf.

12. Schumpeter J. (1942, 2008), *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy,* Harper and Brothers, New York, p. 83.

left out and not listened to. Democracy and human rights are precarious projects, and their survival depends on whether their heritage can be passed on to the younger generation.

These lines of development can only be briefly sketched out here. They are man-made, not natural, processes, linked to each other, mutually influencing and reinforcing each other. Because they have been "made", they can also be influenced and changed in their direction and outcome, but not in their complexity.

Modernisation

Modernisation is a sociological category referring to the multi-dimensional process of social change. It has increased in speed, scope and complexity in the last two decades, but in a historical perspective, its sources include the Reformation, the invention of the printing press, the era of Enlightenment, the English, American and French revolutions, and the industrial revolution. Modernisation has changed literally every aspect of human life, including the following: how we work and what we do there, where we live and how (often) we travel, our level and distribution of welfare, the development of human rights, globalisation, technology, the values and beliefs we adhere to or abstain from, and how we take part in society and politics.

Modernisation is an ambivalent process, but we cannot avoid it, it is our "fate", for good or for bad. Scientists and philosophers hold controversial views as to whether modernisation is, on the whole, to be considered a burden or a blessing. We judge modernisation as a challenge, holding both risks and opportunities. Challenges must be met to keep the risks under control.

For many people in many societies, modernisation creates potentials and opportunities to enjoy a higher level of welfare and liberty. On the other hand, citizens and their leaders face higher demands to stay abreast of the increasing risks and dangers involved in processes of modernisation.

Education plays a key role to equip people with the competences they need to achieve a positive balance between increasing gains and increasing demands.

In the face of challenges such as these, it has become clear that new forms of citizenship are required: citizens should not only be informed and understand their formal responsibilities as citizens, but should also be active – able and willing to contribute to the life of their community, their country and the wider world, and actively participate in ways that express their individuality and help to solve problems. Mounting challenges require strong societies, with competent – and therefore adequately educated – leaders and citizens.

Educators are optimists. They believe that through adequate education, young people, but also lifelong learners, can acquire the understanding and the means to influence the development of their communities and the planet. Active citizenship, however, is best fostered by learner-centred instruction, rather than instruction emphasising rote and passive learning.

1.1 A new kind of citizenship requires a new kind of education

Rote-learning oriented models that are simply reduced to instruction are insufficient in creating the kind of active, informed and responsible citizenship that modern democracies require.

What is required are forms of education that prepare learners for actual involvement in society – forms of education that are as much practical as theoretical, rooted in real-life issues affecting learners and their communities, and taught through participation in school life as well as through the formal curriculum.

The role of the active citizen corresponds to that of the active learner. The concept of constructivist learning provides support for learners who face problems that are new to them. In school, the teacher may already have found an optimal solution. Later, when dealing with the challenges addressed above, the future generation will act as pioneers.

The need to provide such learner-centred teaching presents important challenges for the teaching profession. It means learning new forms of knowledge, developing new teaching methods, finding new ways of working and creating new forms of professional relationships – both with colleagues and with learners. It emphasises teaching based on current affairs over the understanding of historical systems, critical thinking and skills teaching as well as knowledge transmission, co-operative and collaborative working rather than isolated preparation, professional autonomy instead of dependence on central diktat. It requires a change in how we perceive learning, from an idea of learning as teacher-centred to learning through experience, participation, research and sharing.

A didactic, teacher-led, textbook-dominated, knowledge-based orientation has to be replaced by one emphasising student involvement, a broader range of teaching methods and a more skills-based approach. That is what this EDC/HRE edition attempts to contribute to.

2. Political culture

2.1 Democracy comes to life through its citizens

An example:

Parliamentary elections produce winners and losers. The majority forms the new government, the minority the opposition. The former government may lose office, and a new government with a different political outlook replaces it.

The rules are clear, but this is not enough. The election system will only work if we can rely on the losers, the minority, to accept the result. If they do not, an election can spark off violent conflict, tearing a society apart, instead of strengthening cohesion among its members.

An election campaign gives parties the opportunity to communicate their ideas to the citizens. But what happens if parties that take part promote a racist, fundamentalist or antidemocratic agenda?

For elections to function as one of the most important ways for citizens to participate in democratic decision making, a society apparently needs more than just a framework of laws that put the election system into place. There needs to be trust in the political process and ways of ensuring that these processes have been carried out properly.

The example shows that democracy depends equally on a set of rules and on the citizens' attitudes towards democracy. They must understand and appreciate the system, and they must feel responsible for its stability. Parties must treat each other as competitors, but not as enemies. Only then can democracy show its strength as the only system in which a change of government is possible without changing the political system.

Democracy consists of a system of institutions and processes that include general elections, parliamentary representation and control of power through checks and balances. Some constitutions include direct participation through referenda or a constitutional court. This is the stage, and the citizens are the actors. Literally, the citizens must therefore be willing and able to play their part, and they must identify with the political system of democracy.

Democracy is a system of institutions rooted in a political culture. The institutional system can set the framework for this culture, but cannot create it or ensure its stability. The same principle applies to autocratic government. An autocrat also depends on a suitable political culture, based on politically docile subjects rather than active and committed systems.

2.2 The cultural dimension of human rights

Human rights that are civil and political in nature spell out what democratic processes are in practice, including freedom of opinion and expression, freedom of the media (that is, the prohibition of censorship), the right to vote, and the principle of equality and non-discrimination that applies to the enjoyment of every human right. When countries ratify a human rights treaty, they promise to harmonise national laws and practices so that they are consistent with these international standards. They do so out of free will.

What happens if the state fails to uphold its human rights promises? There are different mechanisms of protection that have been established by the UN and by regional human rights institutions that have promulgated regional human rights laws that governments can sign up to. For example, in Europe there is the European Convention on Human Rights, which concentrates on civil and political rights. Governments can also sign up to the European Social Charter, which specifies economic, social and cultural rights. If a government has signed up to the Convention but acted in a contrary manner, citizens (and, indeed, any person within the state's jurisdiction) of the member states of the Council of Europe can ultimately refer a complaint to the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg.

In most cases, the enjoyment of human rights takes place within governments organised as constitutional democracies through the usual mechanisms of democratic processes. These mechanisms involve evolving laws but also a culture of participation and engagement by citizens.

Democracy and human rights depend on an institutional framework that consists of two components: a set of rules and principles established in the constitution and legal system, and a political culture. Democracy and human rights are embedded in a set of principles, values and responsibilities. Democracy and human rights allow dissent on issues, but they can only do so if there is strong consent on the framework that allows and protects, but also limits liberties. You may disagree on almost anything, but this works only if all identify with the system that allows disagreement.

2.3 Teaching through democracy and human rights – democratic culture in school

There can be no democracy without committed democrats.

Each generation receives its democratic heritage, and will hopefully understand and appreciate it, and learn how to make active use of it. It is the task of EDC/HRE, and education as a whole, to support and encourage the young generation to become active and committed democrats.

The cultural traditions that are favourable for democracy develop slowly, as the historical experience in many countries has shown. Nation-building projects in post-civil war societies face their most serious obstacles in the absence of a democratic cultural tradition. A blueprint of a democratic institution can be imported, as it were, but the cultural roots of democracy cannot – they must literally stem from the society's cultural heritage.

Political culture can therefore be conceived in constructivist categories. It is acquired through processes of learning and socialisation. Therefore it makes a difference whether schools are governed democratically or autocratically, as the students may be expected to learn how to live in, or under, the form of government they experience in early life.

School as a micro-society can support its students to acquire and appreciate key elements of a democratic and human rights culture, including the following:

- The students are able to know and express their interests and views with confidence and self-esteem.
- The students treat each other with mutual respect, including listening and empathy, that is, the willingness and ability to switch perspectives.
- The students are able to settle conflict through non-violent means, that is, negotiation and compromise.
- The students appreciate the function of institutional frameworks that protect and limit their individual rights of liberty. They add the "soft", informal element of political culture to the "hard", formal element of rules.
- The students appreciate politics as a practical effort aiming to solve problems that require attention and a decision.
- The students participate in the process of electing representatives and in formal decision-making processes.
- The students engage in non-prescribed ways to influence decision making, such as through awareness raising, activism, lobbying and by handling problems on their own.
- The students take responsibility for their decisions and choices, considering their impact both for themselves and for others.
- The students are aware that if they do not participate in decisions that affect them, others will make them, and the outcome may be unfavourable for them.

Political culture is strongly linked to the attitudes and values that young citizens acquire through processes of socialisation, including their school experience. There are other agents that also strongly influence the socialisation process of young people, particularly the family, peers and the media. On the other hand, the school community offers children and adolescents the earliest opportunities to experience interaction in society and in public; we may therefore assume that school has a decisive influence on how the democratic heritage is passed on to the young generation. Through their learning and experience in the school setting, young people can develop the habits and skills for lifelong engagement with democratic process and human rights values, both through formal decision-making processes as well as through everyday interactions.

Unit 3
Educating for democracy and human rights

1. The three dimensions of EDC/HRE

Education for democratic citizenship and human rights education (EDC/HRE) focuses on what students should be capable of doing rather than on what teachers should teach them. The three basic principles that govern this student- and outcome-centred approach may be best illustrated by an example.

- Freedom of opinion and expression is a basic condition of democratic participation and is a fundamental civil and political right. In EDC/HRE, students know, understand and appreciate the right to free opinion and expression and they know how it is protected by their national constitution. This is the cognitive dimension of learning (knowledge, concepts and understanding).
- Students learn how to use this fundamental human right. Precisely because the active use of this right is essential for participation in a democratic community, students are also encouraged to reflect on their point of view and to be able to express this through a variety of ways, including the ability to make a public argument (skills-based dimension of learning).
- To exercise their freedom of expression, students need courage to express their views even when they are in situations where they are facing a majority opposing them. And they listen to the opinions of others in a spirit of tolerance and personal respect. By confining disagreement and controversy to the issues and not to personalise differences of opinion, conflicts can be resolved by non-violent means (attitudes- and values-based dimension of understanding).

What this example shows may be generalised, not only to what students should be capable of in exercising any other human right, but also to learning and education in general. To be relevant and to add to a person's competences, learning must unfold in these three dimensions that mutually support each other – knowledge, concepts and understanding; skills; and attitudes and values. For several decades, educators and teachers have agreed on this concept of learning.

If this is how students learn, what must EDC/HRE teachers do to provide adequate opportunities to learn? Briefly, the answer is as follows.

In EDC/HRE, the goal is to support students to be young citizens who:

- know their human rights and have understood the conditions they depend on (learning "about" democracy and human rights);
- have experienced school as a micro-society that respects the freedoms and equality of its students, and have been trained in exercising their human rights and respecting the rights of others (learning "through" democracy and human rights);
- are therefore competent and confident to exercise their human rights, with a mature sense of responsibility towards others and their community (learning "for" democracy and human rights).

1.1 The cognitive dimension of EDC/HRE: learning "about" democracy and human rights

EDC/HRE at secondary level requires students to study key documents such as the UDHR and the Convention. To summarise the example given above, they need to know that every person enjoys the right of free thought and expression, and free access to information through uncensored media, with exceptions possible only for good reason and in limited circumstances (Article 10 of the Convention). The state's constitution and legal environment should reflect and protect these human

rights standards, and can be studied by students from this perspective. In doing so, they can understand how important, indeed indispensable, just this one right is to make democracy come to life.

It is also necessary for students to understand Article 14 of the Convention, which addresses the key principle of equality and non-discrimination: women and men, rich and poor, young and old, nationals and immigrants – we all equally possess these rights. The enjoyment of these rights is an evolving process and one of the agendas of democratic systems of government based on human rights.

Finally, the students need to understand why liberties require a framework of laws and also carry responsibilities (UDHR, Article 29). Freedom of expression allows citizens to promote their interests in a pluralist society, and in such a competitive setting, there will be winners and losers. A constitution, rules and laws must provide a framework that limits the liberties of the strong and protects the weak – without legalising differences. However, rules cannot take care of every problem, so the members of a community must share an attitude of responsibility towards each other.

Human rights is a legal framework but it is also a normative one. This requires students to recognise to what degree human rights principles are actually realised within their school community as well as society at large.

European Convention on Human Rights (4.11.1950)

Article 10
Freedom of expression

(1) Everyone has the right to freedom of expression. This right shall include freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart information and ideas without interference by public authority and regardless of frontiers. This article shall not prevent States from requiring the licensing of broadcasting, television or cinema enterprises.

(2) The exercise of these freedoms, since it carries with it duties and responsibilities, may be subject to such formalities, conditions, restrictions or penalties as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society, in the interests of national security, territorial integrity or public safety, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of health or morals, for the protection of the reputation or the rights of others, for preventing the disclosure of information received in confidence, or for maintaining the authority and impartiality of the judiciary.

Article 14
Prohibition of discrimination

The enjoyment of the rights and freedoms set forth in this Convention shall be secured without discrimination on any ground such as sex, race, colour, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, association with a national minority, property, birth or other status.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (10.12.1948)

Article 29

1. Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

2. In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

In short, these three articles outline the tension between individual liberties and the need to balance the rights of individuals through a framework that both limits and protects these liberties.

Students who can explain this have learnt a lot “about” democracy and human rights; this is the cognitive dimension of EDC/HRE.

1.2 The participative dimension of EDC/HRE: learning "for" democracy and human rights

To be able to take part in democracy, the students should learn how to exercise their rights and freedoms – for example, their right of free access to information and of free thought, opinion and expression. They should also have active experience in interacting with others – such as promoting their interests, negotiating for compromise, or agreeing on how to define "the general welfare" (UDHR, Article 29). They should be able to act in a framework of rules and accept the limits they may impose on them. They should have developed an attitude of responsibility for the welfare of others and the community as a whole.

In short, they should not only have understood the implications and links between the three human rights articles addressed above, but also appreciate their underlying values and act accordingly. In doing so, through democratic decision-making processes that do not result in a violation of human rights, they must be able to balance their interests with those of others and their community as a whole.

Students who have been trained in this way have learnt how to take part in democracy. This is the action-based dimension of EDC/HRE – learning "for" democracy and human rights, that is, with a view to the promotion and protection of democracy, the rule of law and human rights.

1.3 The cultural dimension of EDC/HRE: learning "through" democracy and human rights

Knowledge and skills may enable a person to take part in democracy in technical terms, but they do not turn that person into a democrat. In the hands of racists, for example, this kind of expertise could be abused as a weapon to attack a democratic, human rights-based community. In a very literal sense, knowledge and skills that are not supported by human rights values are worthless for democracy.

EDC/HRE therefore includes a cultural dimension. The culture of teaching and learning must reflect the message of EDC/HRE.

While students acquire knowledge through instruction (listening to a lecture, reading) and competences through training (demonstration, practice and coaching), they develop values and attitudes through experience.

For example, young people build their self-esteem through encouragement by their parents and teachers. Only students who have experienced and enjoyed respectful treatment by their teachers may be expected to behave likewise toward their peers. Human rights values are acquired through a process of socialisation in school – teaching "through", or in the spirit of democracy and human rights.

Human rights values have been defined by the United Nations, the Council of Europe and other organisations, and include the principles of equality and non-discrimination; participation and inclusion; and accountability.

While teaching "about" democracy and human rights may be assigned to special subjects (such as social studies, history, civic education), the cultural dimension of EDC/HRE, teaching "through" democracy and human rights, is a challenge for the whole school – human rights and democracy become the school community's pedagogical guideline and the lens through which all of the elements of school governance are judged.

2. HRE and its connection with EDC[13]

> Education for democratic citizenship and human rights education are closely inter-related and mutually supportive. They differ in focus and scope rather than in goals and practices. Education for democratic citizenship focuses primarily on democratic rights and responsibilities and active participation, in relation to the civic, political, social, economic, legal and cultural spheres of society, while human rights education is concerned with the broader spectrum of human rights and fundamental freedoms in every aspect of people's lives.
>
> *Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education, adopted in the framework of Recommendation CM/Rec(2010)7 of the Committee of Ministers on 11 May 2010.*

The following section looks at the connection between HRE and EDC more closely.

Decades ago, the United Nations and its specialised agencies formally recognised the right to human rights education, that is, the right of citizens to be informed about the rights and freedoms contained in the human rights treaties ratified by their countries. Governments are accountable for the implementation of these human rights standards through laws, policies and practices. They report on their progress by making periodic reports to treaty bodies. Monitoring organisations such as human rights groups also help to keep track of progress.

It is self-evident that citizens should know and value their human rights and respect those of others. We need to understand the legal responsibilities of our governments to fulfil our rights. We should appreciate the ethical responsibilities of citizens to cherish and uphold human rights in everyday life. The knowledge and disposition to know and responsibly uphold one's rights and those of others begins early in life: in our families, in our schools and in our community.

UN agencies such as the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, UNESCO and UNICEF, along with intergovernmental organisations such as the Council of Europe and national human rights agencies, have referenced HRE, proposing specifically that the treatment of human rights themes should be present in schooling.

Human rights education has both normative and legal dimensions. The legal dimension incorporates sharing content about international human rights standards as embodied in treaties and covenants to which our countries have committed. These standards encompass civil and political rights, as well as social, economic, and cultural rights. In recent years, environmental and collective rights have been added to this evolving framework. This law-oriented approach recognises the importance of monitoring and accountability in ensuring that governments uphold the letter and spirit of human rights obligations.

At the same time, HRE is a normative and cultural enterprise. It is a value system that helps everyone to reflect on the degree to which their daily experiences are consistent with human rights norms and values. The infusion of a human rights-based approach to schooling is addressed later in this volume.

In terms of classroom learning, interactive and learner-centred methods are widely promoted in HRE, as they are with EDC. The following kinds of pedagogy are representative of those promoted in HRE:

- experiential and activity-centred: involving the solicitation of learners' prior knowledge and offering activities that draw out learners' experiences and knowledge;
- problem-posing: challenging the learners' prior knowledge;
- participative: encouraging collective efforts in clarifying concepts, analysing themes and doing the activities;
- dialectical: requiring learners to compare their knowledge with those from other sources;
- analytical: asking learners to think about why things are and how they came to be;
- healing: promoting human rights in intra-personal and inter-personal relations;

13. Author: Felisa Tibbitts (2009). Original source: Tibbitts F. (2008), "Human Rights Education" in Bajaj M. (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Peace Education*, Information Age Publishing, Charlotte, NC.

– strategic-thinking-oriented: directing learners to set their own goals and to think of strategic ways of achieving them; and
– goal- and action-oriented: allowing learners to plan and organise actions in relation to their goals.[14]

Human rights education in the curriculum of many countries intersects with democratic or global citizenship education, by taking the core concepts of citizenship education and applying them both more universally and more critically. Knowledge about key concepts and facts, and issues of civic disposition and civic skills are applied to the areas of global social responsibility, justice and social action.

In addition, human rights education explicitly fosters social responsibility and action among students. HRE moves beyond the promotion of participation as an element of representative democracy, however, by casting such actions along a spectrum of rights. Taking action can be intrinsically valued as an exercise of one's rights. Such actions can also be instrumental as a means of overcoming oppression or injustice.

The broad normative framework of HRE and the wide spectrum of potential learners have resulted in a great deal of variation in the ways in which HRE has been implemented. Although HRE is defined by the universal framework of international (and sometimes regional) standards, the specific topics and their applications depend upon local and national contexts. Moreover, human rights education in school settings is adapted to the age of learners and the conditions of national/local educational policies and schools.

Human rights themes and content in school curricula can take the form of cross-cultural themes mandated by educational policy or they can be integrated within existing subjects, such as history, civics/citizenship education, social studies and humanities. HRE can also be found in arts programmes and non-formal clubs and special events that take place in school settings.

As the Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education recommends, these educational areas are closely interrelated and mutually supportive. They differ in focus and scope rather than in goals and practices. Education for democratic citizenship focuses primarily on democratic rights and responsibilities and active participation, in relation to the civic, political, social, economic, legal and cultural spheres of society, while human rights education is concerned with the broader spectrum of human rights and fundamental freedoms in every aspect of people's lives.

Where HRE and EDC coexist in a school setting, they are mutually reinforcing. The International Education Association (IEA) Civic Education Study was published in 1999, and used data collected from 88 000 14-year-olds in 27 countries.[15] An analysis was carried out in order to examine country differences in students' knowledge pertaining to human rights compared with other forms of civic knowledge, and students' attitudes towards promoting and practising human rights.

This analysis showed that students' experiences of democracy at school and with international issues had a positive association with their knowledge of human rights. Factors that might be called "democracy at school" mattered for the human rights attitudes of individual students. The analysis of IEA data corroborated that students who have the most exposure to the practice of democratic ideals in their classrooms and schools are the most likely to hold positive human rights attitudes. Moreover, students with more knowledge of human rights had more frequent engagement with international topics and held stronger norms for participatory citizenship and were more politically efficacious.

Schools that offer EDC and HRE in tangent to one another are equipping learners to be empowered and responsible citizens who know and cherish their rights and freedoms.

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14. ARRC [Asia-Pacific Regional Resource Center for Human Rights Education] (2003), "What is Human Rights Education", *Human Rights Education Pack*, ARRC, Bangkok.

15. Torney-Purta J., Barber C. H. and Wilkenfeld B. (2008), "How Adolescents in Twenty-Seven Countries Understand, Support and Practice Human Rights", *Journal of Social Issues*, 64: 1.

3. Competences in EDC/HRE

3.1 "I would like my students to be able to ..."

"After we practised techniques of presentation, I would like all my students to be able to address the class without reading out their notes."

"After we have spent six lessons on the basics of our constitution, the least I would expect from all my students is that they can explain how our election system works, and what parties are running the government at the moment."

"A few months ago, we had problems in our class with students who wouldn't listen to each other in discussions and interrupted students they disagreed with. We have talked a lot about our right of free expression and that this only works for all of us if we treat each other with respect. By the end of the year, I hope most students will have understood this and know how to behave in discussions."

These examples show the kind of thoughts that an EDC/HRE teacher has in mind when planning lessons: they define objectives. They decide what their students should be able to do, and what is in their reach if they make an effort: they decide what objectives they would like their students to achieve, and then look at the process of learning and the students' learning needs at the starting point – their difficulties and abilities, their strengths and weaknesses.

This way of thinking is nothing new for teachers – it is a common practice. Most teachers do not only think about the topic and subject matter – "I've got to finish the 19th century before the next holiday break" – but also have in mind what kind of performance they want to see from their students.

Objectives that focus on the students and what they should be enabled to do refer to students' competences. In adult life, all students will have to cope without a teacher, coach or monitor beside them. The traditional teaching model – formal instruction, delivering a tight curriculum of knowledge – does too little to support students to become independent, confident and competent across the dimensions of skills and values/attitudes.

The three examples also point to different dimensions of competence development:

- The first – establishing eye contact with the audience and speaking freely – refers to skills that are not content-specific, but provide the tools that students permanently need to make use of any piece of knowledge and information. This is skills training, or teaching "for" democratic citizenship and human rights – to enable students to exercise their human rights and take part in democracy.
- The second – understanding the basics of the election system and who has won the last election and therefore formed the present government – is a case of teaching "about" democracy and human rights. Young citizens must know what human rights – for example, taking part in elections – have been integrated as a civil right in their country's constitution and what effect their vote has in their country's election system.
- Finally, the last example shows the importance of values and attitudes. Democracy relies on a political culture that is formed by the attitudes and values that citizens adhere to, in this case mutual respect and tolerance for views that they may disagree with. Students must be willing to accept that their right of liberty must take into account the rights of others. Therefore freedom carries responsibilities. A human rights culture reflects both the empowerment of individual learners and their teachers but also an understanding that we share mutual responsibility to respect the human rights of others. Values are learnt though experience and convincing role models – teaching "through" democracy and human rights.

3.2 Competences – a general definition

Competences refer to what a person is able to do, in three respects that form the core of a person's identity:

- what a person knows and has understood;
- the skills enabling a person to use her or his knowledge;
- the awareness and appreciation of the knowledge and skills that a person possesses, resulting in the willingness to use them both with self-confidence and responsibility.

The last point is of particular importance. Not only should the teacher know what the students have been enabled to do, but even more so the students themselves. They must know what they have in their mental toolbox and what tasks or problems those tools can be applied to. Above all, they need self-confidence to accept the risk of failure in their processes of lifelong learning.

3.3 How can teachers find out what competences students have? Competence and performance

Competences refer to abilities and potentials "inside" us. They are therefore invisible. Then how can teachers find out what competences their students have?

Here is an example. Noam Chomsky, a linguist, described the language competence of a native speaker. Native speakers permanently create and understand sentences that they have never spoken or heard before. We cannot see the language competence, but we perceive the native speaker's performance, and we must assume that the competence to communicate fluently must be there.

There is no competence without any visible performance, but also no kind of action without competences. Teachers assess their students' competence development by judging their performance – what they are capable of doing. Task-based learning enables students to train their competences, and teachers to assess their students' learning achievements and identify their learning needs. This applies not only to EDC/HRE, but to teaching and learning in general.

3.4 A model of student competences in EDC/HRE

We assess a student's competence development through our perception of the student's performance. Competences are invisible, and we can only gain access to them by designing models that support us in defining learning objectives and guiding our assessment of learning achievements.

In this EDC/HRE edition, we have adopted the following model of competences. It corresponds to the key principles of EDC/HRE – teaching through, about and for democracy and human rights.

In EDC/HRE, student competences include the following:

- political analysis and judgment;
- skills (See Part 3 of this volume);
- taking action and political participation;
- personal and social competences.

3.4.1 Competences of political analysis and judgment

Democratic citizenship requires citizens to understand the issues under discussion, which requires citizens to be informed and capable of analysing problems and lines of argument and conflict. This is the cognitive dimension of competence development (learning "about" political issues).

Without this level of understanding a citizen is easy prey for demagogues, lobbyists and populists, and will not be able to identify and negotiate his or her individual or group interests. We depend on media as sources of information, and we must be able to use them critically.

Taking action in politics, as elsewhere in life, is only possible if we know what we want to achieve. We must be able to define our interests and objectives, balancing wants and needs, values and responsibilities. Politics is a process of decision making to solve problems and settle conflicts; there is no option not to make a decision, and decisions are not possible without judgment.

Increasing complexity in our modernising societies tends to overstrain the "normal citizen's" competences of analysis and judgment. Personalising – trust or distrust towards political leaders – is one way of reducing complexity. Education, not only in EDC/HRE, is the key to enable citizens to keep abreast of the decisions that affect them.

3.4.2 Skills

Students need a set of mental tools – skills or techniques – to acquire and use information and to form their opinions independently and systematically. These tools enable students:

- to acquire information both through media and first-hand experience and research – techniques of using print and electronic media, interviews, research, reflection, etc.;
- to select and study information (constructivist learning) – techniques of planning, time management, reading, thinking, recording;
- to determine, present, share, and argue their views – techniques of creating handouts, posters, papers, PowerPoint presentations, lecturing, discussing, debating, etc. (joint constructivist learning and deconstruction);
- to reflect the outcomes and processes of learning and application.

To a considerable extent, these skills are necessary not only in EDC/HRE, but in school as a whole. They prepare students for more advanced academic studies and for qualified jobs. Cross-curricular training of these formal, content-unspecific skills is therefore both necessary and possible.

3.4.3 Taking action

In EDC/HRE, formal skills training supports learning for democracy and human rights, but is not sufficient. EDC/HRE conceives school as a micro-community in which the students learn how to take part in society and politics by practical experience. The competences they train in school include the following:

- reflecting their wants and needs, clarifying and promoting their interests;
- voting, taking part in elections as voters and candidates (class representatives);
- negotiating and decision making;
- influencing decision-making processes through awareness raising, lobbying and collective action;
- understanding and appreciating the need for a framework of rules and sanctions.

EDC/HRE, and school as a whole, play a decisive part in providing the learning opportunities for students to contribute to their communities. However, in assessing their performance and competence development, school has its limits. The decisive area of transfer lies beyond school, in society as a whole, and extends into adult life. It then becomes difficult, if not impossible, to link learning outcomes to inputs in school.

3.4.4 Personal and social competences

Perhaps the concept of competences is somewhat overstrained when it is extended to the dimension of values and attitudes. On the other hand, it is the performance, the way students behave, that counts, and the disposition to behave can be conceived as competence. This dimension of competence development corresponds to learning "through" democracy and human rights. It includes the following:

- self-awareness and self-esteem;
- empathy;

- mutual respect;
- appreciation of the need to compromise;
- responsibility;
- appreciation of human rights as a collectively shared set of values to support peace, justice and social cohesion.

3.5 Teacher competences in EDC/HRE

In EDC/HRE, teachers require specific competences to offer their students adequate learning opportunities.

The toolbox for teachers includes a tool to support teachers in defining competence-based objectives in EDC/HRE, very much along the lines that the introduction to this unit referred to. For further information, please refer to the Council of Europe publication *How all teachers can support citizenship and human rights education: a framework for the development of competences* (Strasbourg, 2009).

4. "We create the world in our minds": constructivist learning in EDC/HRE[16]

When we read a story in a book, we create something like a movie in our minds. We add details and scenes that the author hints at or leaves out, and we may even imagine the faces of the characters. Some novels appeal so strongly to our imagination that we are disappointed if ever we watch a "real" film based on the story. Our imagination had produced a far better one, and it is unique, as every reader's mind produces a different "film".

This is an example of our capability to "create the world in our minds". The world that we live in is the world as we perceive it – it consists of the images, experiences, concepts and judgments that we have created of it. As learners, people want to make sense of what they hear or read – they want to understand it. A brain researcher characterised the human brain as a "machine seeking for meaning". Things that do not make sense must be sorted out somehow. If information is missing, we must either find it somehow, or fill in the gap by guessing.[17]

With some experience, teachers find out that when they give a lecture, each student receives and remembers a different message. Some students will still remember the information when they are adults because it appealed to them so strongly, others may have forgotten it by the next morning because it did not relate to a knowledge or value structure that they had. From a constructivist perspective, it is important what happens in the students' minds.

Constructivism conceives learning as a highly individualised process:

- Learners construct, reform or create structures of meaning. New information is linked to what a learner already knows or has understood.
- Learners come to an EDC/HRE class with their individual biographies and experiences.
- Gender, class, age, ethnic background or religious belief and other identities can influence learner outlook.
- We possess different forms of intelligence that go far beyond the conventional understanding of being good at maths or languages.[18]
- There is no absolute standard for personal or political relevance.

Constructivist learning can be further differentiated into three sub-categories, and the teacher plays an important part in supporting them.

4.1 Learners "construct" meaning – they discover and create something new

Teachers can support their student by, among others:

- creating learning opportunities;
- designing challenging tasks;
- providing instruction through media and inputs (lectures) that represent the objects of learning;
- providing encouragement and support for the learner's self-esteem.

16. For a fuller treatment of this topic, see Volume IV in this edition.

17. See Gollob R. and Krapf P. (eds) (2008), EDC/HRE Volume III, Unit 1, *Stereotypes and prejudices. What is identity? How do I see others, how do they see me?*, Strasbourg, pp. 19-38.

18. See Howard Gardner's work on multiple intelligences.

4.2 Learners "reconstruct" what they have learnt – they apply it and put it to the test

To a large extent, we all create such applications ourselves, but in school, the teacher provides them by, among others:

- giving opportunities for sharing, presentation and discussion;
- formal testing and assessment;
- offering or demanding portfolio work;
- designing challenging tasks, for example in projects.

4.3 Learners "deconstruct", or criticise, their own results or each other's

Without this element of critical reviewing and testing any learning effort would become irrelevant for society, and for the individual learners themselves. Here, learning also has a social dimension.

5. Professional ethics of EDC/HRE teachers: three principles

If students come to an EDC/HRE class with their own opinions, and all of them come away from it with the teacher's point of view, this usually points to a problem. EDC/HRE teachers must take care not to press their students to adopt certain views or values that teachers personally adhere to. Schools are public institutions, and parents, and society as a whole, expect teachers not to abuse their power to indoctrinate their children.

The professional ethics of EDC/HRE teachers are therefore crucial to the success, and even the justification of EDC/HRE as part of the school curriculum. They may be summed up under the following three principles, originating from a debate on this issue in Germany during the 1970s.[19]

5.1 Principle of non-indoctrination

The teacher must not attempt to indoctrinate the students in any way to make them adopt a desired opinion, for example in terms of political correctness. Therefore the teacher should not silence or "overwhelm" any student by superior arguing. Rather, the students should judge freely without any interference or obstruction. Any attempt by the teacher to indoctrinate her or his students is incompatible with EDC/HRE and its objective of educating citizens who are capable and willing to participate in an open society and a free, pluralist democracy.

5.1.1 Practical implications

The teacher should therefore chair discussions in EDC/HRE classes, but not take part in them. On the other hand, if students ask their teacher for his or her view on a matter, we advise the teacher to express it. The students know that as a citizen, the teacher has a personal political standpoint like any other citizen, and quite often they are interested to hear it. Then the teacher should make clear that he or she is speaking not in a professional role, but as a citizen. Indeed the student may consider it somewhat strange if their EDC/HRE teacher remained a kind of political neuter, while the students are permanently expected to express their views.

A teacher committed to human rights may well suffer if a student expresses views that show leanings to racism, nationalism or any kind of fundamentalism. The teacher should refrain from overwhelming such students by superior argument, but rather try to understand why a young person has adopted such a line of thought and find ways to challenge the students to think differently and in non-conventional ways.

5.2 Principle of controversial discussion

Whatever is a controversial issue in science or politics must be presented as such in EDC/HRE classes. This principle is closely linked to that of non-indoctrination: if differing points of view are omitted and alternative options are ignored, EDC/HRE is on the way to indoctrination. EDC/HRE classrooms should allow for complexity, controversy and even contradictions. For example, even though human rights are universal, individual rights can actually be in conflict with one another.

In a pluralist society, disagreement, differing values and competing interests are the rule, not the exception, and therefore students must learn how to deal with controversy. In democracy, debate and discussion are the medium for solving problems and resolving conflicts. Agreement and a certain degree of harmony through compromise is the result of negotiation. Enforced harmony without open discussion simply suggests suppression.

5.2.1 Practical implications

In EDC/HRE, the teacher must therefore at least present two points of view on an issue. An equal balance (for example, in the length of texts) is important.

19. See "Der Beutelsbacher Konsens" (www.lpb-bw.de).

In plenary discussions, the teacher should welcome differing points of view among the students. If one position is voiced only by a minority – or even no student at all – the teacher should adopt this view for argument's sake, clearly stating that she or he is enacting a particular role, not expressing a personal opinion. The teacher should take care to adapt his or her power of argument to that of the students.

5.3 Empowering students to promote their interests

Students must be able to analyse a political situation and to identify their interests, and to find ways and means to influence such a situation in favour of their interests. This objective requires students to be well trained in skills and competences of taking action and participation. It may only be achieved if the two other principles of non-indoctrination and controversial discussion are observed. This principle must not be misunderstood as encouraging egoism and neglect of responsibility. Every community relies on these values, but the point here is that the teacher must not discourage students from promoting their interests by confronting them with calls to observe their duties and responsibilities.

5.3.1 Practical implications

School is a micro-society where the students learn how to participate. This can be done in many ways, beginning in class, allowing students to choose topics that interest them and to participate in lesson planning, and include more advanced forms like democratic school governance (teaching through democracy and human rights) and taking action.

Task and problem-based learning support students in developing their powers of independent judgment and decision making.

6. Key concepts in EDC/HRE

6.1 Why do we need key concepts in EDC/HRE?

We conceive EDC/HRE as a process of constructivist learning.[20] Learners create or construct meaning and understanding by linking information to concepts. Learning and thinking takes place on the levels of the concrete and the abstract. Abstract thinking is based on concepts. Without reference to a shared set of concepts whose definitions we understand and have agreed on, no sharing and exchange of ideas, or debate, discussion or judgment would be possible.

Concepts are therefore indispensable, both for constructivist learning and ultimately for political decision making. Which concepts should we therefore choose? We live in pluralist societies, which means that individuals and groups promote different or even competing interests and values. Moreover, philosophy and social science comprise different, including controversial approaches. Therefore it is impossible to draw a set of key concepts from any one source. In constructivist learning, focusing on competence development, concepts are indispensable, and concept models in citizenship education are under discussion. We believe our model is one possible approach.

We have chosen the following set of nine key concepts because they refer both to the students' experience in a micro-society and the political community as a whole:

- identity;
- diversity and pluralism;
- responsibility;
- conflict;
- rules and law;
- government and politics;
- equality;
- liberty;
- media.

The key concepts create a spiral curriculum, as the volumes shift in focus from the school community (elementary level, Volume II) to the political community (upper secondary level, Volume IV), with Volume III including aspects of both (see Part 1, Unit 4, in this volume). The concepts of democracy and human rights – the core concepts of EDC/HRE – permeate all nine key concepts; they have been addressed in separate units in this manual. All key concepts can and must be linked to further concepts and categories, depending on the learners' age level and the subject matter. All three volumes include nine model units of four lessons each that address the same set of key concepts. They do so in different ways, showing how the same concept can be adapted to the level of understanding of students and to students at different age levels. If two or three volumes are combined in this way (vertically), a constructivist learning process guided and supported by a particular key concept is possible. At the same time, the key concepts are linked horizontally, forming a network of understanding. A rough indicator of the potential links is to what dimensions of politics[21] they refer.

6.2 The essence of the key concepts

This section briefly outlines the essence of the nine key concepts in this EDC/HRE edition, addressing their significance for EDC/HRE at the micro and macro level (school and the political community).

20. See Unit 3 on constructivist learning in Part 1 of this volume.

21. For more information on the three basic dimensions of politics, see the work file in this volume (How can I address politics in my EDC/HRE classes?).

6.2.1 Identity

As natural rights, human rights focus on the individual. All human beings are endowed with human dignity and the right to live in freedom and to enjoy their rights free from discrimination. The state serves the individual and not vice versa. Personal liberty gives individuals the right to develop their personality freely, including key life choices such as values, partners, professions, and having children. In modern secular society, this liberty is a challenge, as the weakening of ties and traditions (family, religion, etc.) means making choices. Our choices affect others and vice versa, and therefore in shaping our identities we also carry responsibilities. In the school community, the students share their experiences and work on life choices that all young people must make, such as further education and careers.

The concept of identity is closely linked to diversity and pluralism, liberty, equality, and responsibility.

6.2.2 Diversity and pluralism

Modern societies are pluralist societies. Individuals exercising human rights of liberty will literally produce pluralism – a multitude of individual identities with different choices of lifestyle, priorities and interests, limited or supported, as the case may be, by the material resources available – income and property. Diversity includes difference based on gender, ethnic origin, class, age, types of learner, region, religious confession and values. Pluralist societies pose a challenge: what set of values can the members of a community accept? The stability of human rights-based communities depends on conditions that democratic states cannot ensure (the liberty–stability dilemma). The same applies to school, where students should learn to perceive and deal with diversity and pluralism as a challenge – it must be met, and it combines problems and risks with opportunities.

The concept of diversity and pluralism is closely linked to government and politics, liberty, conflict and responsibility.

6.2.3 Responsibility

Liberty is to be enjoyed by all, and therefore everyone must accept certain limits. This begins, for example, with an equal share of speaking time and attention to every student in class. In societies based on free trade and competition, the unequal distribution of income and welfare leads to an unequal distribution of opportunities to exercise liberty. In democracy, the principle of majority rule must be balanced with the protection of minority interests to ensure social cohesion.

Liberty and equality may be difficult to balance. One way to reconcile them is through personal responsibility, the other is through binding political decision making; both modes are necessary, as each have their limits. Laws cannot take care of every incident in daily life, and it is neither feasible nor desirable to have our lives completely monitored and controlled by state authority. A human rights-based community relies on our willingness and ability to take responsibility for our behaviour and the needs of others.

Responsibility is closely linked to liberty, equality, identity, rules and law, and conflict.

6.2.4 Conflict

Differences of opinion, competing needs and interests and conflicts are part of human life, and particularly so in pluralist societies. Many people consider conflict to be something harmful, standing in the way of harmony, that should therefore be avoided or even suppressed. However, conflict as such need not be harmful, but rather some modes of dealing with it. In EDC/HRE students should learn that in a framework of procedural rules, supported by a political culture of mutual respect, there is room for plenty of dissent and argument. Individuals and groups may, and indeed should, articulate their interests, to ensure that they will be taken into account. In the discussions and negotiations to follow, however, all sides should be prepared to negotiate for compromise. Without this dialectic, or constructive attitude towards one's own interests, no compromise would be possible.

In principle, any conflict over distribution of resources that can be reduced to a sum or figure can be solved by compromise. On the other hand, in conflicts involving ideology, values or even ethnic origin, a solution by compromise is impossible. A culture of civilised, that is, non-violent conflict resolution based on mutual respect is therefore indispensable for democratic citizenship. Conflict arises in school as in any other workplace or community, giving students the opportunity to learn how to resolve conflict peacefully and not to be afraid of it.

Conflict is closely linked to diversity and pluralism, government and politics, rules and law, and responsibility.

6.2.5 Rules and law

Laws provide the formal institutional framework for democratic, human rights-based communities. In principle everybody is expected to obey the law because it has been passed by majority rule. This is usually by parliamentary vote, which in turn rests on majorities in general elections, but it can also be by plebiscite. Laws are intended to reflect and protect human rights and set procedural rules for conflict resolution and political decision-making processes. Rules serve the same purposes, but are created by other bodies, and may exist in written or unwritten form.

We are expected to obey the law, but what happens if we feel the law is unfair or unjust? There are many cases of social and legal reform that were sparked off by civil disobedience: citizens deliberately disobeyed the law to challenge what they felt was unfair or a breach of human rights, to bring about a discussion and amendment of the laws in place.

Students must understand, and appreciate, the dialectics between rights of liberty and their protection and limitation through institutional frameworks. If the framework were lifted, liberty would turn into anarchy, and anarchy in turn into the rule of violence. In task-based learning, students experience this principle in school. A tight setting of tasks, time frames and rules does not stifle the students' creativity, but on the contrary, opens the door to a great realm of freedom and creativity. Students may also participate in reforming school laws that do not reflect democratic or human rights values.

Rules and law are closely linked to conflict, liberty, and equality.

6.2.6 Government and politics

In EDC/HRE, the key concept of politics focuses on the aspect of politics as a process of settling conflict and solving problems. Government covers the institutional aspect of politics, that is, political decision making within an institutional framework. Democratic government of school gives students the opportunity to learn how to influence and take part in decision-making processes to manage a community and define its objectives. The policy cycle model may be applied to decision-making processes both at the micro and macro level, that is, the school community and the political community as a whole (regional or national level). The media play a decisive role in controlling political decision makers, and also in agenda setting. The same applies to school, as the units on media in the three manuals (Volumes II-IV) show.

As a pair of concepts, government and politics refer to the different settings of political decision making. While government emphasises the hierarchical, institutionalised dimension, politics also includes the informal dimension – wider in scope, but also with less, or without, regulation of procedures. The informal, subsidiary side of politics is important for the efficiency of the institutional system. Both in school and in politics, institutions could not cope with all problems and issues, and they therefore depend on citizens to settle interpersonal disputes and conflict themselves.

Government and politics are closely linked to conflict, rules and law, responsibility and media.

6.2.7 Equality and liberty

These two key concepts are considered here together, for two reasons.

First, human dignity is the core value of human rights. The two basic principles of justice that make up human dignity in legal terms are equality (non-discrimination) and freedom (as experienced

through civil and political rights). A person's dignity is threatened through discrimination and through imprisonment. The first two generations of human rights focused on rights of liberty and equality of distribution and opportunity.

Second, there can be tension between liberty and equality. For example, freedom of expression implies that a student should be given the opportunity to state his or her opinion in class as he or she thinks right. Equality of opportunity for all students, on the other hand, requires speaking time to be fairly and evenly shared between all students. For the individual student, this may result in one or two minutes before the next student takes the floor. Individual freedom of expression must therefore be limited, perhaps quite strictly, to guarantee every student a chance to participate in the debate. To what extent a student suffers under such restrictions depends on how well she or he can make the point briefly and clearly. Therefore in EDC/HRE, students need to develop the competences to balance freedom of expression and equality of opportunity. These competences involve language skills, a clear understanding of the issue under discussion, and an appreciation of the framework of rules that provide the balance between liberty and equality.

Students must learn how to exercise their rights of liberty, for example freedom of thought, expression, and access to information. They must also learn to challenge discrimination, both on their own behalf and that of others. Teachers should be aware of unequal conditions and opportunities of learning rooted in difference, for example income and education of parents, or cultural background and ethnic origin. School and society cannot achieve equal distribution, but they should ensure equal starting conditions. In school, this sets teachers the task to account for students' specific learning needs. Equality means not treating everybody in the same way, but treating everybody in a way that serves his or her needs. This is, then, what teaching through human rights amounts to in practice.

Like democracy, liberty and equality are closely linked to all key concepts. No aspect of EDC/HRE is imaginable without addressing an issue related to liberty and equality, that make up human dignity, and the tension between them.

6.2.8 Media

This concept refers to the experience that, in modern society, we live in a media culture. Media are indispensable in our exercise of human rights – including freedom of expression, the exchange of information, access to information, political participation, control of government and political decision making, and agenda setting. The more complex our societies and structures of mutual global interdependence become, and the more support and guidance we need to understand the challenges and issues of the present and the future, the more we rely on media. Media pose a challenge – they open up new opportunities and tools for communication and participation, but also for manipulation and crime.

Media are commercial enterprises, and "telling and selling" tend to appear as one. Media transform information that they transmit. Students must therefore train competences both in using media devices (how to construct a message) as well as in deconstructing media-transmitted messages. Media also play an important part in the school community. Students may well be more aware of the fact that media are part of their daily lives than the generation of their parents and particularly their teachers may be willing to admit. Some young people are therefore often more experienced media users than their parents or teachers. In EDC/HRE, media competence is the key to participation and competence development in many other fields.

The key concept of media is closely linked to government and politics, identity, liberty and responsibility.

7. The method carries the message: task-based learning in EDC/HRE

7.1 The shortcomings of traditional citizenship education

In traditional content-based teaching, citizenship education focused on giving the students facts and information about the country's institutional framework. The contents were more or less "timeless" and could be taught and tested systematically. From the student's point of view, however, there was little difference between memorising facts about parliament or the different species of freshwater fish – "learnt" for the test today, forgotten tomorrow. Such a teaching approach adds very little to educating citizens in democratic, human rights-based communities.

7.2 Teaching though and for democracy and human rights requires active learning

In EDC/HRE, information on the country's political system has a purpose – it enables students to take part in it (teaching "for" democracy and human rights). However, political participation requires training and experience. Therefore, in EDC/HRE, the method must carry the message. Teaching "about" democracy and human rights needs to be supported by the way students learn – teaching "through" democracy and human rights. Students need learning settings that support interactive, constructivist learning and competence training. In short, students must be active and interact – so teachers must allow them to get busy and to communicate.

7.3 Tasks – the teacher's tool to support active learning

From the teacher's point of view, carefully designed tasks are the main tools to support active processes of learning. In designing or adapting learning tasks, a teacher takes into account all major aspects of teaching and learning: the structure of contents and learning objectives, the students' initial levels of achievement, understanding and skill, learning opportunities, media, and the working atmosphere in class.

EDC/HRE is essentially organised as task-based learning. Volumes II-VI give many demonstrations and descriptions of task-based learning – integrated into a sequence of four lessons to allow realistic planning. Task-based learning falls into three basic categories: simulation of reality, exploration of reality and production. The following table gives some examples for these categories.

Task-based learning		
Simulation of reality in class	Exploration and taking action in real-life situations	Production
Role plays Decision-making games Playing statues Conferences Talk shows Debates Hearings Tribunals	Interviewing an expert Interviews in the street Surveys and research Internship Job shadowing Case studies Taking part in school government Taking part in lesson planning	Presentation Handout Poster Flyer Wall newspaper Video or music clip Internet site Presentation Report: news of the week Exhibitions Portfolios
Skills training		

7.4 Task-based learning is problem-based learning

Experience has shown that students greatly appreciate the liberty they enjoy in such settings, and the trust the teacher places in them to use the time efficiently. Students only learn to take responsibility if they are given the liberty to do so. The risk of failure is always present – but without risk, there is no progress. Moreover, the students may achieve results that do not meet the teacher's expectations, but the teacher gains valuable insights into the students' level of competence development and their future learning needs. The process of learning is as important as the result.

In task-based learning, the students face problems – not only related to content and subject matter, but also in organising their work. They must become aware of them, and find a solution on their own. Due to this challenge of solving problems, every form of task-based learning offers rich potential for skills training, for example time management, work planning, co-operating in teams, obtaining materials and selecting information, finding and using tools, etc. Task-based learning is flexible, as students can adapt the task to their abilities.

7.5 The teacher's roles in task-based learning sequences

Task-based learning comes close to adult life – we all must cope without a teacher or coach at our side. The teacher should take care not to spoil this big learning opportunity by intervening too soon or too much. The teacher acts as a coach or trainer rather than in the traditional role of a lecturer and examiner.

- The teacher watches how the students cope with the problems they encounter, and should not give in quickly to any calls to deliver the solutions. The teacher's role is rather to give hints and make the task somewhat easier, if necessary. But to a certain degree, the students should "suffer" – as they will in real life.
- The teacher observes the students at work, with two different perspectives of assessment in mind – the process of learning and the achievements at work.[22] Students at work deliver first-hand raw material for the assessment of the students' learning needs. While the students are working, the teacher takes the first steps in planning future EDC/HRE lesson sequences.
- The teacher can also offer to be "used" as a source of information on demand, briefing a group on a question that needs to be answered quickly. The roles are reversed – the students decide when and on what topic they want to hear an input from their teacher.

7.6 Active learning requires a follow-up

Task-based learning must be reflected, and also may require an immediate debriefing, for example if the students have strong feelings – joy, disappointment, anger – after a role play.

In a plenary session chaired by the teacher, the students share their ideas and reflect their activity. What have we learned? How have we learned? For what purpose have we learned? Without this reflection effort, task-based learning is merely action for its own sake. In terms of constructivist learning, the reflective follow-up is the time for abstract and systematic analysis and judgment. The teacher can give instruction – concepts, additional information – for which the task-based learning activity has provided the context.

22. See Part 2, Unit 5, Work file 3: Perspectives and forms of assessment, in this volume.

8. A human rights-based approach to schooling[23]

Human rights education, which has primarily focused on teaching and learning, can also be seen as part of an overall HRBA to schooling. An HRBA draws our attention to overall school culture, policies and practices through the lens of human rights values.

There are two articles in the CRC that mention education directly. Article 28 defines education as a right and Article 29 comments that education should assist the child in developing her or his "personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential". Another purpose of schools, according to the CRC, is to develop respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. We know one thing: to truly understand and promote human rights, one has to live them out in relation to others.

The core values of "dignity, respect and responsibility" should be the driving force behind the school. This means not only exposing students to human rights values and content in the classroom. The human rights framework is intended to create a child-centred school where these values inform how students learn, how they are treated by their teachers, how they treat one another, and how they will take their rightful place in the world, with a special sense of mission for promoting social justice – a tall order, no doubt, but one that has placed human rights front and centre in the school.

Teachers can bring human rights alive in their classrooms through examples they use, questions they raise, through active discussion, critical thinking and reflection, project-based work and enriching field trips. Teachers are challenged not only in learning about human rights content itself but in figuring out how to present human rights in a way that is meaningful and empowering for their students. One of the key challenges is not only helping to make human rights less abstract but also having students fall in love with the idea of human rights.

The human rights-based approach to schooling that the school aspires to includes the following characteristics, which you might identify as being core to school-based approaches to human rights in general. These are taken from a framework developed by UNICEF.[24] It:

- **Recognises the rights of every child.**
- **Sees the whole child in a broad context**. The staff are concerned about what happens to children before they enter the school system (in terms of health, for example) and once they are back home.
- Is **child-centred**, meaning that there is an emphasis on the psycho-social well-being of the child.
- Is **gender-sensitive and girl-friendly**. Staff are focused on reducing constraints to gender equity, eliminating gender stereotypes and promoting achievement of both girls and boys.
- Promotes **quality learning outcomes**. Students are encouraged to think critically, ask questions, express their opinions, and master basic skills.
- Provides **education based on the reality of children's lives**. The students have unique identities and prior experiences in the school system, their community and families, which can be taken into account by teachers in order to promote student learning and development.
- Acts to ensure **inclusion**, respect and equality of opportunity for all children. Stereotyping, exclusion and discrimination are not tolerated.
- Promotes **student rights and responsibilities** within the school environment as well as activism within their community at large.
- Enhances **teacher capacity, morale, commitment and status** by ensuring that the teachers have sufficient training, recognition and compensation.

23. Author: Felisa Tibbitts (2009). Original source: Tibbitts F. (2005), "What it means to have a 'school-based approach to human rights education' and a 'human rights-based approach to schooling'" in Amnesty International USA, *Article 26 Newsletter*, August.

24. *Child Friendly Schools Manual*, Programme Division/Education, UNICEF, www.unicef.org/publications/files/Child_Friendly_Schools_Manual_EN_040809.pdf. Accessed on 23 September 2010.

– Is **family focused.** The staff attempt to work with and strengthen families, helping children, parents and teachers to establish collaborative partnerships.

These are abstractions, but they are an organising framework that the educator can apply to her or his own school. These principles can also be questions that we can use in evaluating a particular practice in the school. Is our discipline policy child-centred? Does it enhance student rights and responsibilities? Are there sufficient opportunities for student participation in the school? Is this participation meaningful and student-led? These principles can also lead to a whole school engagement of the infusion of human rights values in various dimensions of school life: learning, school development and management, and school and community policies.

Maybe we can agree that human rights in schools is not merely about education in the classroom, but a way of life in the school. This is not something created out of the goodwill of a few teachers. It is a commitment from leadership and a critical mass of teachers in the schools and, thus, is rather rare so far. Some initial results are promising, however.

The "Rights, Respect, Responsibility" (RRR) initiative of Hampshire County Council in the United Kingdom is a whole-school approach based upon the CRC.[25] Its universal principles emphasise the need to protect the rights of all children, to help children understand their responsibilities and to offer a framework for teaching and learning. These principles are used to promote the practice of democratic citizenship and respect for human rights among all members of the school community. Hundreds of primary schools, as well as 50 secondary and special education schools, are actively participating in the RRR programme. Its key features are as follows:

– The CRC is taught as a body of knowledge and promoted as a framework for school ethos, teaching and learning.
– Children and young people are treated as citizens.
– Children's identities and self-esteem are promoted so that they see themselves as bearers of rights, just as adults do.
– A human rights perspective is built into a range of subjects, including literacy, maths, science and history, and rights-based language is developed through the regular work of teachers.
– More democratic approaches to teaching and learning (emphasising participation and rights) are created.
– Class charters on rights and responsibilities are signed by both students and teachers.

Schools report that RRR acts as a framework for much of their citizenship work (for example, healthy schools, relationship education, drug education, emotional literacy, school councils), which can be related to articles in the CRC. School community members appreciate that they can point to a higher authority (international human rights standards) in relation to their school values and codes of conduct.

A three-year external evaluation was completed in 2008 and demonstrated a significant impact on the school environment where RRR has been fully implemented. These impacts include positive results on students' awareness of their rights, respect for the rights of others, and levels of participation and engagement in school. Teachers reported feeling less stressed and an enhanced enjoyment of their classes. Thus, the human rights-based approach enhanced both the human dignity of community members and the ability of schools to meet their academic mission to successfully engage learners in their education.

25. Hampshire County Council (2009), "Rights, Respect, Responsibility: A Whole School Approach" in *Human Rights Education in the School Systems of Europe, Central Asia and North America: A Compendium of Good Practice*, Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, Warsaw, pp. 72-74.

Unit 4
Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education – A short history of the Council of Europe approach[26]

1. Background

The Council of Europe, which is the oldest European organisation, was set up in 1949 in the aftermath of the Second World War. Its primary aim is to protect and promote human rights, democracy and the rule of law in Europe. The Council of Europe is active in many fields, including culture and education. Over 50 years, it has launched a number of co-operation projects in education in order to promote a culture of democracy and human rights throughout Europe.

At the beginning of the 1990s, as a result of the accession process of the new democracies of central and eastern Europe, the Council of Europe underwent a considerable transformation: the Organisation's membership more than doubled within a period of 10 years. In such times of change, more systematic work on democracy learning was needed. In 1997, a new project, Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC), was launched by the heads of state and government of the Council of Europe. This project has since grown considerably, acquired a strong human rights dimension and is now called the Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights (EDC/HRE) project.

By launching this project, the governments of European states acknowledged that people must learn how to become democratic citizens, that they are not born with these skills. At the end of the 20th century, European societies were faced with many problems, such as political apathy, migration movements resulting in increased social diversity, environmental threats and increasing violence. EDC/HRE was seen as a contribution to solving such issues. EDC/HRE is about promoting concrete participation in public life throughout one's life, about responsibility, solidarity, mutual respect and dialogue. It is in the unique pan-European setting of the Council of Europe that the best experts in the field from all over Europe have met over the last 13 years to work on this issue.

2. Outcomes of the EDC/HRE project

The first years of the project were devoted to defining concepts. Several basic publications were issued on the necessary strategies and skills for practising democratic citizenship. In 2002, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe adopted a Recommendation on education for democratic citizenship (Recommendation Rec(2002)12). This was the first political text issued on this topic at the European level (with the second major one being the Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education,[27] see below). It specifies that EDC should become "a priority objective of educational policy-making and reforms".[28]

In 2002, a network of EDC/HRE co-ordinators, which is composed of one person nominated by each member state, was set up in order to facilitate exchange and co-operation among the member states in this field. This network soon became an invaluable asset for the development and promotion of EDC/HRE. Specific projects were implemented in regions such as south-eastern Europe. 2005 was proclaimed the European Year of Citizenship through Education with the slogan "Learning and Living

26. By Ólöf Ólafsdóttir, Acting Director, Council of Europe Directorate of Education and Languages.

27. Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education adopted in the framework of Recommendation (CM/Rec(2010)7 of the Committee of Ministers.

28. Recommendation Rec(2002)12, Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to member states on education for democratic citizenship.

Democracy". The 2005 "Year" was a special moment for raising awareness in member states about EDC/HRE. Almost all member states took part in the "Year" in one way or the other, and the feedback from the various partners has been overwhelmingly positive.

However, it was clear from the beginning that giving education for democratic citizenship and human rights higher priority in education policies in member states is not an easy task, even if the situation varies considerably in different member states. Making EDC/HRE a key objective of education systems implies a new philosophy in terms of methodologies and work organisation. Studies carried out in the framework of the project, including the *All-European Study on EDC Policies*,[29] pointed to a strong need for practical instruments to help bridge policy and practice. Therefore, the preparation of instruments and tools, exchange of good practice and increased co-operation among and within member states were the priorities of the project in 2006-2009. There were three main areas of work: policy development, the training of education professionals and the democratic governance of educational institutions. For all areas the Council of Europe has developed a series of practical instruments like this series of manuals for teachers.

In May 2010, the many years of work outlined above culminated in the adoption of the Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education adopted in the framework of Recommendation (CM/Rec(2010)7 of the Committee of Ministers by all 47 member states of the Council of Europe). This framework policy document will be an important reference point for all of Europe and will be used as a basis for the Council of Europe's future work in this field in the coming years.

29. Bîrzea et al. (2004), *All-European Study on EDC Policies*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg.

3. Practical instruments

3.1 The EDC/HRE pack

The different tools prepared by the Council of Europe include essential background information on various aspects connected with integration of EDC/HRE in educational systems. The major ones, called the "EDC/HRE Pack", are the following:

- Tool 1: Policy tool for EDC/HRE: strategic support for decision makers;
- Tool 2: Democratic governance of schools;
- Tool 3: How all teachers can support citizenship and human rights education: a framework for the development of competences;
- Tool 4: Quality assurance of education for democratic citizenship in schools;
- Tool 5: School-community-university partnerships for a sustainable democracy: Education for Democratic Citizenship in Europe and the United States.

These instruments have been developed by experts from the Council of Europe member states on the basis of the feedback and comments received from various target groups including the EDC/HRE co-ordinators. In addition to the EDC/HRE Pack, a host of supplementary material can be found on the Council of Europe website (www.coe.int/edc).

These practical instruments prepared by the Council of Europe in the field of EDC/HRE are generic instruments. In other words, it is recognised that they might need to be adapted to the various situations, developed and used as best suits the needs of each country.

3.2 Six volumes on EDC/HRE in school projects, teaching sequences, concepts, methods and models

In many countries, teachers need assistance with the implementation of EDC/HRE. This is why the Council of Europe is also developing a series of manuals for teachers on citizenship and human rights

Volume II:
Growing up in democracy
Lesson plans for primary level
on democratic citizenship

Volume III:
Living in democracy
EDC/HRE lesson plans
for lower secondary level

Volume V:
Exploring children's rights
Nine short projects
for primary level

Volume I:
Educating for democracy
Background materials
on democratic citizenship
and human rights education
for teachers

Volume IV:
Taking part in democracy
Lesson plans for upper secondary level
on democratic citizenship and human rights

Volume VI:
Teaching democracy
A collection of models
for democratic citizenship
and human rights education

education. The volumes have been published in partnership with the Zurich University of Teacher Education, International Projects in Education. The Swiss Agency for Development and Co-operation co-funded the manuals with the Council of Europe. This book, Volume I, *Educating for democracy – Background materials for teachers*, is the first in this series of six volumes. On the previous page an overview of these six manuals and its different target groups can be seen.

The manuals include lesson plans for all levels of education, with a view to promoting active citizenship based upon participatory and task-based learning in a democratic school community.

The unique feature of these manuals is that they are the outcome of a truly European project. The idea and the first version were developed in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where many teachers and educators took part in the manuals' development. The authors and editors of the final version of the manuals come from many European countries and even further afield, and the manuals themselves have been tested and revised by a large number of people of different origins and different sensitivities. We hope that they will be useful to teachers and learners all over Europe.

Part 2

Teaching democracy and human rights

Unit 1
Conditions of teaching and learning

Unit 2
Setting objectives and selecting materials

Unit 3
Understanding politics

Unit 4
Guiding processes of learning and choosing forms of teaching

Unit 5
Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Students should, for example, not only know their rights of participation, they must also be able to use them. Students therefore need practice and training opportunities within school life by participating in decisions and influencing the school environment in other ways. For example, teachers must give students the opportunity to state their opinions, both on topics in class and on issues related to teaching and running the school. This type of teaching and learning needs preparation. A teacher therefore needs to think beforehand about different elements of his/her profession. This is the case for all teaching. Especially in teaching EDC/HRE this is needed, because the students' life experience is permanently part of this approach. How do I integrate this? How do I ensure that all students are heard? How can I be sure that I will not overwhelm the students with my opinion? Therefore, we suggest five steps that have to be considered:

- What are the conditions of teaching and learning?
- What are the objectives I have to set and which materials shall be selected?
- What are the specific concepts of politics that have to be considered?
- What is my understanding of processes of learning and which forms of teaching do I choose?
- How can the outcomes be assessed (students, teachers and schools)?

We support the teachers in finding answers to these basic questions by supporting them with work files they can use like tools in case of need.

Unit 1
Conditions of teaching and learning

1. Introduction

When planning your lessons, you need a sufficiently clear idea about the characteristics and learning conditions both in the class as a whole and among individual students. It is important to understand the children with their differences: the scope of variation in their skills and abilities, their strengths and weaknesses, their beliefs, attitudes and interests.

On the one hand, you will clarify the learning conditions in a class in terms of the teaching objectives you have in mind. On the other hand, when selecting objectives and topics, you will draw on your knowledge of the characteristics of individual children and the whole class.

By identifying the conditions of learning you will have completed the first part of preliminary clarifications. In your further planning, you must also take into account the general conditions under which your teaching will take place. Finally, you should not forget your own teaching skills; this is to ensure that you will make effective use of them, and develop them further without placing too demanding a burden on yourself in your teaching work.

At the beginning of this unit you will find key questions followed by work files that can be used whenever needed.

2. Task and key questions for conditions of teaching and learning

2.1 Task

At the beginning of this unit you will find the key questions. The subsequent questions for your self-control offer a more detailed approach to different aspects of learning conditions.

2.2 Key questions

- What knowledge and skills do the students already possess?
- What knowledge and skills do I possess?
- What external conditions must I be aware of?
- What do I know about the students as individuals?
- What elements of knowledge and information must the students command to enable them to tackle the new task ahead of them?
- Referring to the new subject matter, what (advance) information, skills and experience have the students already acquired? What is new for them, what is repetition, what is essential and what is supplementary?
- What techniques of working and learning may I expect the students to master, and what experience do they have with different teaching methods and forms of social interaction?
- What positive or negative attitudes, habits, prejudices or convictions may, or must I, expect to encounter?
- How can I overcome learning difficulties, learning barriers and resistance against learning?
- Have I adequately considered the children's willingness to learn, their state of feelings, their responsiveness, their learning needs, their expectations, their interests, their free-time activities, and their living conditions?

– What socio-cultural conditions and influences, and what systems of support are of importance for the work in the classroom? What role do parents, brothers and sisters, peers or other people of psychological importance play?

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 1: How to take students' skills and knowledge into account

- What do I know about the class?
- What characteristics of the class should I take into account and respond to?
- How do I want to, or how must I lead the class (communication, social behaviour, disturbed relationships, etc.)?
- What is the class atmosphere like (developments in the group, ties of friendship, outsiders, etc.)?
- Which conventions are to be adhered to (language, duties, seating, rules of social interaction, rituals, special occasions, ceremonies and parties, etc.)?
- What is the size of the class, and what is its structure (gender, multicultural variety, etc.)?

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 2: How to take my teaching skills and knowledge into account

- What general experience, skills and knowledge do I have?
- To what extent is my knowledge incomplete – referring to contents and subject matter, objectives, suitable teaching methods and the processes of learning?
- In which fields do I wish to learn myself (knowledge, teaching methods, professional skills, personal qualities, routine, etc.)?
- Which concept of human nature serves as my general guideline?
- What is the theoretical framework, or the simplified version of a theory, which guides my work as a teacher?
- How would I describe and classify my relationship to my students?
- Where are my personal limits, as far as working hours, stress, etc., are concerned? How do I make use of my personal working capacity?
- How can I reduce my workload by better planning, both of my work and other activities?
- How do I use, and economise on, my time budget, and how do I deal with sources of personal stress?

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 3: Considering general teaching and learning conditions

- How do I account for the time of the day or year, and the disposable teaching time?
- How has the classroom been designed?
- How is the school equipped: quantity and variety of rooms, available media, materials, etc?
- What framework is provided in terms of school culture (joint projects for different age groups, team work and team obligations, co-operation with parents, authorities or experts for children with specific needs, etc.)?

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 4: What are my basic attitudes towards students?

- Empathy, devotion (responsiveness to feelings, thoughts, views and needs), benevolent acceptance (personal esteem does not depend on any conditions), sincerity, stability, reliability
- Leadership in a spirit of esteem and respect (emotional devotion, inductive reasoning, authoritative control, support of social integration and democracy)

Relationships and communication in the class

- Mutual understanding
- Symmetric relationships
- Sexually non-discriminating co-education
- Meeting other people
- Friendship
  - → Verbal and non-verbal communication
  - → Adopting other perspectives and points of view
  - → Self-perception and perception by others

Atmosphere of conflict prevention

- Fair and caring community, community of learners, shared responsibilities (teachers and students – both male and female)
- Co-operation, not competition
  - → Social learning
  - → Rules and conventions
  - → Meta-communication and meta-interaction
  - → Limitation and reinforcement

Educational measures

- Conflict resolution talks
- "Round table"
- Games
- Co-operation as guideline for modifying personal behaviour
- Supportive feedback
- Individual responsibilities
- Punishment
- Dealing with bullying and violence and in the class or school

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 5: Rethinking discipline and order from a democratic point of view

- Order is necessary under all circumstances. A group without order and basic rules cannot be democratic.
- Limits are necessary. Rules may be wrong or inappropriate. But as long as they have not been replaced they must be respected. It must, however, be possible to change them.
- From the very beginning, children should participate in setting up and enforcing rules. Only in this way is it possible for them to identify with the rules.
- A classroom community cannot function without mutual trust and respect. In some cases it may prove difficult to create such an atmosphere.
- Team spirit must replace competition in the classroom.
- A friendly classroom atmosphere is of vital importance.
- The social skills of the teacher have an essential contribution to make (democratic leadership, developing a feeling of belonging to the group, building up relationships, etc.).
- Group communication is a permanent reality in a democratically led class.
- Students, both boys and girls, must be encouraged to explore something new and to learn from mistakes.
- Within the limits set, it must be possible to exercise liberties. Only in this way is it possible for individual responsibility to develop.
- Discipline and order will be accepted and complied with most willingly if they help each individual to express himself or herself, and if they support the group in developing satisfying relationships and working conditions.

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 6: Rethinking the teacher's role from a democratic point of view

Teachers have to lead and accompany the class. This is their task. They have to decide on various things and also control everything. What teachers should not do is to aim at also controlling thinking processes and personal development of their students. Especially in EDC/HRE, the teacher becomes a role model for his/her students. How does he/she deal with conflicts? What idea of people does he/she promote? The following list gives a clue where one can position oneself. But it is clear, however, that according to learning situation, mood of the day, moments of danger or set-up of the group of students, etc., it can make sense to be more autocratic or to be more democratic. Generally it is important to note: my idea of a person as a teacher will leave an imprint on my daily work with the students.

Learning situation

Rather autocratic	Me					Rather democratic
Ruler						Leader
Sharp voice						Friendly voice
Order						Invitation, request
Power						Influence
Pressure						Suggestion
Demand of compliance						Winning over to co-operation
Imposition of tasks						Offering of ideas
Predominant mode of criticism						Frequent encouragement
Frequent punishment						Frequent support and help
"I'm telling you!"						"Let's talk it over."
"I decide, you obey!"						"I make a proposal and help you to decide."
Sole responsibility for the group						Shared responsibility with and in the group

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 7: How to develop a democratic atmosphere in the classroom

If a teacher decides to organise the classroom more democratically this is connected with a big goal. The following table shows the steps that could be taken.

1. Where do I stand in which aspects?
2. Which aspect do I choose for tomorrow, for next week, next year?
3. How do I act as a teacher in order to make my school benefit from my learning progress?

Short-term objectives	Medium-term objectives	Long-term objectives
Teacher reduces use of extremely authoritarian expressions	Teacher develops habitual use of reversible expressions	Mutual understanding between students and teacher
Teacher gives reasons for his/her selection of subjects and materials	Teacher offers alternative subjects and teaching materials	Joint lesson planning by students and teacher
Teacher explains learning objectives to students	Teacher presents alternative learning objectives to students	Joint selection of learning objectives by students and teacher
Teacher gives reasons for his choice of teaching methods	Teacher presents alternative options of teaching methods	Joint decision on teaching methods by students and teacher
Teacher gives reasons for his marking of students' performance	Teacher explains problems of marking	Self-assessment by students
Introduction to democratic modes of conflict resolution	Teacher ceases to make authoritative use of power to resolve conflict	Conflict resolution by means of co-operation and communication
Teacher explains principles of how work in the classroom is organised	Students' suggestions on work organisation are considered	Students participate in decisions on organising work in the classroom

Conditions of teaching and learning

Work file 8: How to develop school as a democratic community

EDC/HRE and the way to a democratic atmosphere cannot only take place in the classroom but also have to be developed within the school. In this respect, the most important key player is the school principal.

Within the Council of Europe EDC/HRE materials the tool "Democratic governance of schools" suggests key areas to work in and steps to take on the way to school as a democratic community (see also Unit 5 in this part, Work files 15-18).

These four key areas are:

1. Governance, leadership, management and public accountability
2. Value-centred education
3. Co-operation, communication and involvement: competitiveness and self-determination
4. Student discipline

Governance, leadership, management and public accountability

Various stakeholders such as legislators, local school boards, trade unions, students and parents as well as local communities make demands of school leadership. How are these challenges met by the school leader? What kind of management is applied by him/her in the school? Is leadership built on consensus and trust or is leadership characterised by mistrust and rivalry? How are responsibilities shared in the school? How is diversity dealt with by the school leader? And how does the school show accountability towards different stakeholders?

Value-centred education

How do values such as democracy, human rights and respect for diversity appear in formal and informal contexts in a school? How are values and social skills promoted as a prerequisite for peaceful co-existence in the modern globalised society? How are these values given thought in the school?

Co-operation, communication and involvement: competitiveness and self-determination

School is not separated from the rest of society or from the real world. How does a school communicate internally and externally? How does a school co-operate internally and externally? Does the school resemble more a dissociated company or does it resemble a door to the rest of society through its ways and modes of communication and involvement? What does a school mission statement say? How much is the school determined to put into practice its set goals when communicating and opening itself to the rest of society?

Student discipline

A lot of people work together in a school. What forces should be used to maintain discipline and order in a democratically governed school? What makes students follow given rules, and what makes them oppose them? Does a democratic school mean chaos without the students following any rules?

Unit 2
Setting objectives and selecting materials

1. Introduction

Teachers repeatedly face the problem of justification: what are the reasons for my selection of possible objectives and topics? Identifying a teaching objective and selecting topics mean making a fundamental decision related to teaching. Objectives should not simply be copied or adapted, nor should they merely be dogmatically imposed. Rather, they should be scrupulously questioned, and their choice should be based on sound reasoning and justification. And then you make – maybe together with the students – a deliberate choice of topics and objectives for teaching, you reflect your decision in a range of wider contexts and you check on your selection of topics to identify their educational value. This task is of crucial importance, as the number of possible teaching topics is endless, while the time disposable for planning and teaching is limited.

The following key questions are intended to guide and assist you in this complex task of selecting and preparing topics for teaching.

2. Task and key questions for setting objectives and selecting materials

2.1 Task

Teachers with a sense of responsibility in their work repeatedly face the problem of justification: what are the reasons for my selection of possible objectives and topics?

Identifying a teaching objective means making the most fundamental of all decisions related to teaching. Objectives should not simply be copied or adapted, nor should they merely be dogmatically imposed. Rather, they should be scrupulously questioned, and their choice should be based on sound reasoning and justification. It is important for a teacher to relate the teaching objectives he or she is considering to the students' learning conditions and to adjust them accordingly (see Unit 1, Conditions of Teaching and Learning).

As soon as the objectives have become more concrete, aspects of content need to be included. Not until you have decided on the desired level of attainment concerning content matter, that is, the topics to be included, will it be possible for you to define your teaching objectives.

In the planning process, the work on aspects of contents in teaching is both difficult and time-consuming. At first sight, little effort might seem necessary, as the curriculum sets clear guidelines and some teaching media offer detailed suggestions. The main task, however, is left to you, the teacher: you must be well informed on the whole field of knowledge that you wish to teach, you must structure it, acquire a comprehensive understanding of it, analyse it thoroughly, evaluate it critically, make a deliberate choice of topics and objectives for teaching, reflect your decision in a range of wider contexts, check on your selection of topics to identify their educational value, etc. This task is of crucial importance, as the number of possible teaching topics is endless, while the disposable time for planning and teaching is limited.

The following key questions and follow-up questions for your self-control are intended to guide and assist you in this complex task of selecting and preparing topics for teaching. We suggest you co-operate with other teachers, and perhaps also with the students.

2.2 Key questions

For setting objectives:

- What objectives do I wish to achieve?
- What competences will be most important at the end of the unit?

- What reasons do I give for the selection of these objectives?
- What priority do I give to my objectives (primary and secondary objectives)?
- What objectives are important now – for the class as a whole, for individual students, male and/or female?
- Have I ensured that the objectives that I have selected serve the main interests and needs of my students? Do my lessons really respond to what my students are preoccupied with?
- Is it possible for the students to participate in the definition or selection of the learning objectives?
- How much time (lessons and weeks) has been assigned to achieving the objectives?
- What objectives should be achieved by all the students within the disposable teaching time (general standard of attainment)?
- Are specific levels of attainment to be defined for individual students (education according to individual ability)?
- Have I enabled the students to move forward from knowledge to action, that is, can they confidently apply the knowledge they have acquired?
- What do I focus on in my teaching – cognitive, personal or social competence?
- Have I got a clear idea of the short- and long-term objectives which are of primary importance for my class, for learning groups, for individual male and female students?
- Have I clearly and explicitly stated the objectives?

For selecting topics and materials:

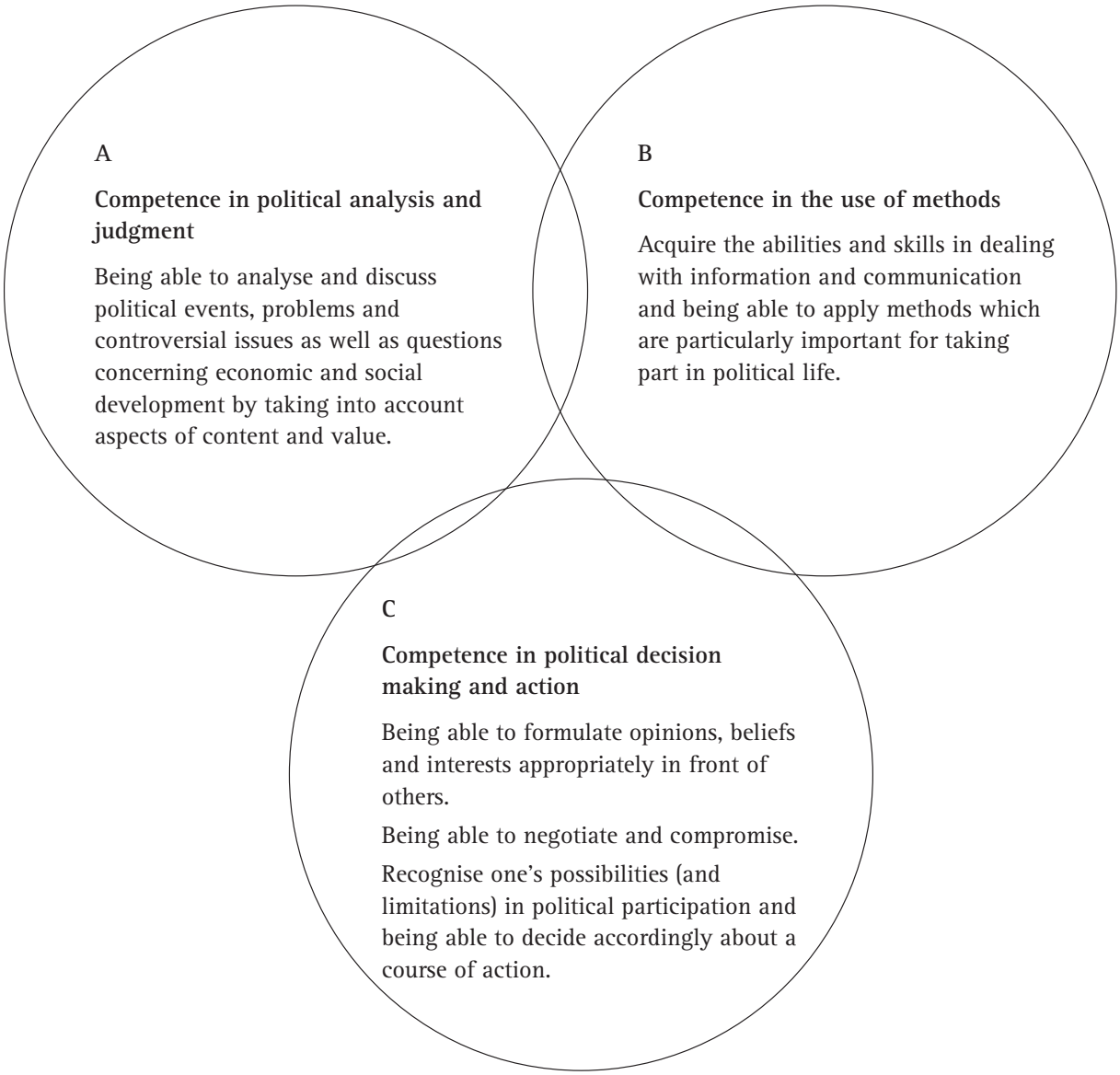
- Which topic have I chosen?
- What are the reasons for my choice?
- What is the structure of my topic?
- Does my choice of topic comply with the syllabus?
- Which aspects of my topic are interesting for my students?
- In what way is learning in school linked with learning out of school?
- Is there a connection between the topic and real life and the students' environment?
- Do I have a general understanding of the whole subject matter which enables me to select a specific topic? How can I become better informed? Do I need to carry out any studies or experiments before treating the subject in class?
- What teaching materials are available for the specific aspects of the topic?
- Will there be a chance for the students, both boys and girls, to draw on their personal experience, knowledge and skills in the lessons (for example, children with a different cultural or linguistic background)?
- Will the topic be equally suitable for the specific needs of the two sexes?
- Does the selected topic interest me?

Setting objectives and selecting materials

Work file 1: Students' competences for EDC/HRE

Three areas of competence for living and learning democracy and human rights education

The aim of Education for Democratic Citizenship is to support the development of competences in three areas, which, however, are always strongly interconnected and therefore should not be treated separately.



Competence in political analysis and judgment

The aim is to develop the competence to analyse political events, problems and controversial issues and be able to explain the reasons for one's personal judgment. School can contribute to this process by supporting students to use structured analysis to attain a more sophisticated understanding of matters.

In order to be able to do this, the following skills are necessary:

- recognising the importance of political decisions for one's own life;
- recognising and judging the consequences of political decisions;

- recognising and presenting one's personal point of view and the point of view of others;
- recognising and understanding the three dimensions of politics:
  a) the institutional,
  b) the content-bound,
  c) the process-oriented dimension;
- analysing and assessing the different phases of political processes at micro-level (for example, school life), meso-level (for example, community) and macro-level (national and international politics);
- presenting facts, problems and decisions with the help of analytical categories, identifying the main aspects and relating them to the fundamental values of human rights and democratic systems;
- identifying the social, legal, economic, ecological and international conditions, interests and developments in the discussion about current controversial issues;
- recognising the way politics are presented by the media.

Competence in the use of methods

In order to be able to take part in the various political processes not only basic knowledge about political contents, structures and processes are needed but also general competences which are acquired in other subjects (such as communication, co-operation, dealing with information, figures and statistics). Special abilities and skills such as being able to argue for or against an issue, which are particularly important in taking part in political events, must be trained and promoted in Education for Democratic Citizenship. The aim is to use these skills in methods which are widespread in the political discourse (discussions, debates).

In order to be able to do this, the following skills are necessary:

- being able to find, select, process and present autonomously information given by the mass media and/or new media in a critical and focused manner (collect, organise, evaluate statistics, maps, diagrams, charts, caricatures);
- using the media with a critical eye and being able to develop one's own media products;
- applying empirical methods in a basic way (for example, survey and interview techniques).

Competence in political decision making and action

The aim is to acquire the competences to appear and act in a confident and adequate manner in the political context and in public.

In order to be able to do this, the following skills are necessary:

- being able to voice one's political opinion in an adequate and self-confident way and to master different forms of dialogue;
- taking part in public life and being able to act politically (oral communication skills such as explaining one's point of view, discussing, debating, leading or moderating a discussion; written presentation and visualisation techniques for posters, wall newspaper, minutes of a meeting, letters to the editor, etc.);
- recognising one's own possibilities to exert political influence, forming a team and working together;
- asserting oneself, but also being able to compromise;
- recognising anti-democratic thoughts and tendencies and being able to respond to them adequately;
- being able to behave naturally in a intercultural context.

Setting objectives and selecting materials

Work file 2: Two categories of materials in EDC/HRE

Teaching and learning without materials of some kind is impossible, as materials are the media that provide the subject matter, the topics, the information and data. Students develop their competences by activities, which means they "do something" with an object. What first comes to mind is perhaps the school textbook or a handout, and indeed they are important in EDC/HRE.

Two categories of materials in EDC/HRE

However, the specific profile of EDC/HRE is reflected by the wider concept of materials and media. The school textbook and the handout are examples of printed media. In interactive constructivist learning, a different category of materials is created by teachers and students. They are authentic, as they are first-hand materials, produced on the spot, in a particular situation, for the people present there and then. In EDC/HRE, therefore, teachers and students are not only users of materials, but also producers. Volumes II to VI of this EDC/HRE edition give many examples for this category of materials, very often created by students in settings of task-based learning or in projects, and the unit and lesson descriptions explore their rich learning potentials for the students.

A matrix of learning requirements and materials

The following matrix links some typical examples for these two categories of materials – delivered by media, and produced in the processes of interaction involving teachers and students – to different aspects of competence development in EDC. We do not recommend any kind of bias towards one type of material, but rather an integrated approach. However, teaching through democracy and human rights requires teachers to take the products created by students seriously.

Aspects of competence development	Materials transmitted through media	Materials produced in processes of learning	
		Materials produced by teachers	Materials produced by students
Students' previous development	(Such media and materials exist, of course – for example, children's books or films – but they are beyond the teacher's scope of perception)		Preconcepts, previous experience and socialisation processes in the family or with peers, previously acquired information in and outside school
Defining a topic, setting the agenda for a lesson or topic			Brainstorming and discussion inputs
Information	Current news reports (printed media, TV, DVD, Internet) School textbook	Lecture Provision of basic materials (such as flipcharts, markers, coloured paper)	Student inputs (such as deconstruction of messages transmitted through media, summaries, follow-up homework, presentations, arguments in discussions and debates, comments, questions)
Analysis and judgment	Issues and controversies in politics and science (handout, school textbook)	Instruction on key concepts Criticism demanding deconstruction	
Skills training	Handout (training instructions)	Demonstration and coaching	Feedback
Participation and action		Chairing of sessions	Experience Questions, comments, insights, interests
Assessment and evaluation	Test sheets Questionnaires Portfolios	Observation	Self-assessment Feedback Expression of learning needs

Setting objectives and selecting materials

Work file 3: Selecting and using materials in EDC/HRE

Selection of materials transmitted through media

The wider concept of materials implies that both teachers and students select materials. Students do so in their processes of constructivist learning. Here, we focus on the teacher's role in selecting materials that are to be used in EDC/HRE classes.

Criteria for selecting materials produced by media

- Reliability: are the author, source, date of production, etc., clearly identifiable? Have the text, data, etc., been taken from the original version, and can the students (at secondary level) see if alterations have been made?
- Suitability: does the material meet the student's level of understanding and competence development, including their experience in deconstructing messages transmitted by media? The materials should be neither too easy nor too difficult; they should demand an effort that improves the students' skills and adds to knowledge, understanding, and power of judgment.
- Relevance: does the material meet the students' interests? Does it address a topic or issue that the students regard as important? Can they link the contents to their preconcepts or experience?
- Principle of non-indoctrination or pluralism of perspectives: do the materials show different perspectives? Do they avoid the trap of indoctrinating students – in whatever direction of thinking, judgment or interests (see the file on the professional ethics of EDC/HRE teachers in this volume)?

Handling materials produced by students

Written materials, images, etc: the teacher can study these before or after lessons and decide what steps to take.

Spoken student inputs set considerably more difficult tasks for the teacher, as she/he must react spontaneously and often improvise. See the file on chairing plenary discussions in this volume.

Unit 3
Understanding politics

1. Introduction: what must students learn?

The objective of EDC/HRE is to enable students to take part in decision-making processes that affect their interests and the community as a whole.

I can only take action when I have made up my mind, that is, when I know what I want. In somewhat more analytical terms, I must have identified or prioritised my interests or must have judged an issue, a conflict or a problem and decided which line of action to support. Judging in turn requires understanding, and understanding requires sound information.

Students should therefore understand important political topics – both for their own sake (learning "about" politics), but also to learn the competences that enable them to work independently in taking the necessary steps themselves: acquiring information, analysing and understanding a political issue or problem, and judging. This then enables a young citizen to participate and take action (learning "for" democratic participation).

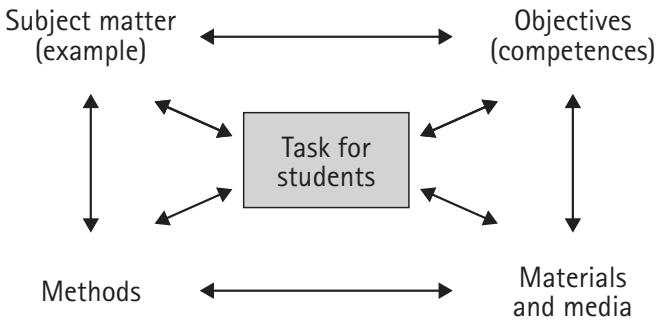
2. Task and key questions to understand politics

2.1 Task for teachers in EDC/HRE

In all domains of teaching and learning, not only in EDC/HRE, students understand complex subject matter best by studying well-chosen examples. The teacher's manuals in this EDC/HRE edition for elementary, lower and upper secondary level (Volumes II-V) demonstrate this principle in every unit and show different possible approaches. The manuals also show that these examples can be taken from the context of school governance or political decision making from any level – depending on the age of the students, the material that is available or can be produced by the students, and the desired learning outcome.

These examples are basically of two types – the analysis of a political problem or issue, or the analysis of a political decision-making process. The teacher must decide what examples are suitable and clarify what material is at hand or can be obtained.

The EDC/HRE teacher's task is to link the following elements in planning a lesson sequence on politics:



No lesson planning is possible without thinking about all of these teaching and learning elements and linking them. A change in one position will affect the others. On the other hand, the subject matter can be exchanged to achieve a certain objective, and vice versa.

2.2 Key questions

- What should my students be able to do after this teaching unit? What should they have understood and be able to explain to others, and what criteria should they be able to use in judging a political issue?
- In what way can I assess their competence development?
- In what way can students draw on their experience in everyday life or in school to understand politics?
- How do my students perceive political decision making?
- To what extent are my students aware of their interests?
- What current issues affect my students?
- What current issues are my students able to understand?
- Are these issues linked to school governance, or politics on a local, regional, national or international level?
- How can I encourage my students to participate in the choice of an issue?
- What media or materials will I choose to present different opinions on the issue?
- What tasks will I set my students to work by themselves?
- What inputs can my students give?
- What key concepts can they apply to the topic or issue?
- What opinions do I expect my students to express on an issue?
- What is my opinion? What criteria have I given priority to in my judgment?
- How will I ensure that I will not overwhelm my students by persuading them to adopt my point of view?
- In what way could my students take action?

Understanding politics

Work file 1: How can I address politics in my EDC/HRE classes?

In EDC/HRE, students should learn how to understand politics. But what is politics? What makes a topic a political one? The following example may serve as an introduction.

A case story

A small town in a rural area has one school that serves not only students who live in the town, but also up to 20 km away. They use a bus service to shuttle between their homes and school. The municipal government supports families with a low income, particularly if they have two or more children at school. The families receive a relief on the bus fare, ranging from 25% to 75%.

The economic crisis has now led to a sharp drop in tax revenues. The representatives in the municipal parliament are now discussing how spending can be cut to avoid financing by credits as far as possible. Some influential politicians and commentators have suggested reducing the bus fare allowance, or even cutting it completely. They argue that the total spending cuts are considerable, but it is spread among many families who would hardly "feel the pinch". But many parents disagree with this view and want the system of family allowances to stay as it is.

This case story is fictitious, but probably quite typical for the discussions on reducing public spending in times of economic recession. What is political about this story?

A three-dimensional model of politics

Different definitions for the concept of politics are possible. A quite common one that is useful for teaching and learning applies a three-dimensional model of politics: issues, decisions, and institutions.

The dimension of political issues: in politics, people argue for their interests or about the question how a problem or a dilemma is to be identified and solved. Sometimes people organise themselves in groups in order to express their collective interests. Debate and controversy are something normal in politics; they reflect different interests and opinions in a pluralist society, and no one need fear them if such issues are resolved peacefully.

The dimension of political decision making: in politics, problems are urgent – they affect the interests of the community as a whole, or a big group of people. They demand action to be taken, so the discussion must lead up to a decision, with subsequent action.

The institutional dimension of politics refers to the framework in which politics take place. What powers are given to whom? How are elections held? How are laws made? What rights does the parliamentary opposition have? How do individuals and special interest groups influence these political processes? This dimension therefore includes the constitution, rules and laws that define how political issues are dealt with peacefully in democratic decision-making processes. A wider concept also includes a cultural dimension, the values and attitudes that govern the citizen's political behaviour.

Key questions from three political perspectives

The three dimensions allow us to view politics from different perspectives. This helps to bring order to the complexity that political subject matter may have. Each of these three political perspectives leads to interesting key questions. The questions asked here serve as an example and should be adapted as the case being studied requires.

The dimension of political issues	**Answers**		
What is the problem that must be solved?	The danger of rising public debt in times of economic recession		
Who is involved, and what objectives or interests do they advocate?	Local politicians: avoid credits by reducing public spending Families with low income: continue support for families in need		
What human rights are at stake?	Equality and non-discrimination Right to education Right to social security		
What solutions have been suggested or are being discussed to solve the problem?	Reduce or cut school bus fare allowances for families		
The dimension of political decision making			
Who is taking part in the process of decision-making?	Politicians	Media commentators	Families
Who is in agreement or disagreement with each other?	Agree in suggesting cuts on family allowances		Oppose cuts
What chances do different players have to influence the final decision?	Direct access to members of municipal parliament		May find support among citizens or in the media
Who has more power, who has less?	That depends. The case story gives no information on this point		
Who has bigger or smaller chances to find a majority?	Politicians may find a majority in parliament quite easily; however, if the decision is unpopular, they may lose support at the next election and may therefore be careful		
The institutional dimension (framework)			
What key principles of the constitution or legislative environment are relevant or are being applied?	Checks and balances, rule of law, social security, freedom of the press, freedom of expression (parents)		
What are the relevant international and/or regional human rights standards?	Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) European Convention on Human Rights (1950) Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)		
What political institutions are involved, and what are their powers of decision?	Municipal parliament as legislator		
What laws and legal principles are to be applied?	The case story delivers no information; this is, however, a standard question that should always be included		

How does this analysis support EDC/HRE?

A structured and systematic analysis of a political topic helps the teacher in preparing EDC/HRE lessons, and the students in understanding politics.

The teacher:

- can decide whether to focus on one dimension only, using a case story such as this to demonstrate how the system of political institutions works, how a political decision is made, or what a political issue is and how it may be resolved;
- can turn this case story into to a decision-making game; the students act in different roles, and they negotiate a solution;
- develops a keener eye to identify suitable materials on current issues in the media.

The students:

- train their competences to understand and select information on political issues, decision-making processes and political institutions;
- learn to ask questions that guide their analysis;
- learn how to deal with complex subject matter by focusing on parts of it at a time and analysing it from different perspectives.

Understanding politics

Work file 2: How can I support my students in judging political issues?

The core objective of EDC/HRE is to enable students to take part in their community and in politics. To take action in this way, the students must know what they want to achieve; objectives and strategies of political participation rest on analysis and judgment.

How can EDC/HRE teachers therefore support their students in judging political issues? Students permanently judge issues and decisions, perhaps emotionally, perhaps intuitively. How can the students develop a more reflected approach to political judgment?

What criteria are appropriate for political judgment?

The same case story that has already been used in the preceding work file is used as an example to demonstrate how criteria in political judgment may be set in contrast and balanced. By using the same case story, the two work files show how a political topic may be analysed from different perspectives. Political judgment focuses on the dimension of political issues (see the preceding work file), probing it in more depth.

A case story

A small town in a rural area has one school that serves not only students who live in the town, but also up to 20 km away. They use a bus service to shuttle between their homes and school. The municipal government supports families with a low income, particularly if they have two or more children at school. The families receive a relief on the bus fare, ranging from 25% to 75%.

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This case story is fictitious, but probably quite typical for the discussions on reducing public spending in times of economic recession. How is the issue to be judged?

The local government must attempt to achieve two objectives that are difficult to achieve at the same time.

1. Families with low income need support; this implies that a certain amount of the budget is reserved for family benefits.
2. The government must address the problem of falling tax revenues in a period of economic recession; this raises the question to what extent spending, including family benefits, should be reduced.

The objectives are in conflict with each other because their ways of achievement mutually exclude each other. While the first requires spending, the second requires saving. The way out – financing by debt – has serious undesired consequences. It provides short-term relief, but the interest payments, plus paying back the credit loan, tends to strangle public finances. Moreover, credit financing may add to inflation.

Two basic criteria for judging political decisions

In a democratic state, not only political leaders, but also citizens should judge the options in decision making. Only then will citizens be able to support or to oppose the decisions made by the government.

We may conceive political judgment as a process of constructivist thinking that resembles an inner debate. Different inner speakers propose different values or principles that lead to different decisions. The individual is like a judge who listens to all the speakers, balances or prioritises their arguments and then passes a verdict that opens up a path of action. We may imagine an ideal-type inner debate on the political issue about family allowances like this.

First speaker

Our community is devoted to human rights and has integrated many of them in our constitution. They include the right to education[30] and to an adequate standard of living.[31] Families in particular enjoy the protection of the state. Families serve society as a whole by taking responsibility for the upbringing of the young generation. Therefore we are bound by obligation to care particularly for families living on low incomes. I therefore demand that the allowances for school bus fares remain untouched, particularly in these difficult times.

Second speaker

Taking responsibility for the community means that we must identify the problems and dangers that threaten us and make sure that we solve them. In the medium run, we cannot spend more than we earn. If our tax revenue goes down, so must our spending. We are doing the families a favour if we finance their allowances through credits. All of them, and particularly their children, will have to repay their part, plus the interest. An efficient solution of our finance problem will serve everyone. I therefore request that spending be reduced to the extent that credit spending can be avoided, and ask the families to contribute their part.

More speakers can take the "inner floor", expressing further basic points of view. A third speaker, for example, considers the desired and undesired long-term impact of a decision, for example, in terms of sustainability. What is the impact on the planet, the interests and living conditions of the next generation, on economic growth, or on social groups at the bottom of the social ladder?

Two basic perspectives of political judgment

The first two speakers argued for different understandings of responsibility. The first speaker's definition of responsibility was normative, based on the value system of human rights. Poverty is a serious violation of human dignity, and therefore the state must not reduce support for low-income families. The second speaker's definition of responsibility was not values based, but purpose based. The efficient solution of an urgent problem is important, and no taboos are acceptable to distract from this priority.

The third addresses aspects of both in considering the long-term consequences of a decision.

Put in simple words, people want to be treated as humans by authority and have a say in how the country is run (first speaker), and they want to be governed well and efficiently (second speaker).

Discussions may lead to a dead end if speakers resort to different points of reference, such as values and purpose. Both points are justified in their way, but they do not meet unless linked by judgment.

Political judgment in EDC/HRE classes

In school, students exercise their freedom of thought and opinion.[32] Students who have listened to their inner debate are therefore free in their decision. The teacher should not intervene as a further speaker in this process of judgment and give his or her view on the "right" decision;[33] in democratic

30. Protocol to the European Convention on Human Rights (20 March 1952), Article 2.

31. Universal Declaration of Human Rights (10 December 1948), Article 25.

32. Convention on the Rights of the Child (20 November 1989), Articles 13, 14; European Convention on Human Rights (4 November 1950), Articles 9, 10.

33. See the work file on the EDC/HRE teacher's professional ethics in this volume.

politics, no-one possesses absolute standards of judgment to define the right decision. In particular, the teacher should not moralise or urge the students to take action in a certain way, or even to take action at all. This remains for the students to decide, not the teacher.

The students are therefore free in their choice of criteria. In reflecting their political judgment, they should become aware of them. This is a big step forward, compared with judgments based on emotions or intuition ("good" and "bad"). At an even more advanced level, they can give reasons for their choice of criteria.

However, the students should realise that in politics decisions must be made, and in effect, not judging amounts to a decision as well. Therefore, it is not enough for them to listen to their inner debate and dismiss their speakers without deciding which decision to make. Basically, when considering conflicting objectives as in the case here, the students may:

- prioritise, that is, decide to keep up family allowances or adopt a policy of tight spending cuts;
- find a compromise: in this case, this would amount to mild cuts in family allowances and moderate credit spending; by thinking more carefully how to spend a smaller budget in a way that those who help most still receive it gives technical details a new significance in the light of human rights.

Different methods, but not all, support the students in carefully thinking about questions of political judgment. They include:

- plenary sessions – critical thinking, debates and discussions;
- written work with feedback by the teacher;
- task-based learning followed up by a phase of debriefing and discussion.

The topics that the teacher chooses should allow convincing choices of controversial views and be within the students' reach, that is, not too complicated. Current issues arouse the students' interests, but are more difficult as both teachers and students act as pioneers.

Unit 4
Guiding processes of learning and choosing forms of teaching

1. Introduction

Initiating and supporting processes of learning in students is one of the most fascinating tasks that our profession has to offer. If you do not have a sufficiently clear idea which processes of learning your students embark on to achieve the learning objectives you (and/or they) have decided on, you will not be in a position to adequately plan the modes and settings of teaching, learning activities, tasks and methods of work. In EDC/HRE these ways can be very varied and whoever devotes time and effort to questioning how individuals learn something best will, in time, develop into an expert on learning.

2. Task and key questions for guiding processes of learning and choosing forms of teaching

2.1 Task

Initiating and supporting processes of learning in children is one of the most fascinating tasks that our profession has to offer – but also one of the most demanding!

Your thoughts and ideas on processes of learning form, as it were, the backbone of your whole planning effort. If you do not have a sufficiently clear idea which processes of learning your individual students embark on to achieve the learning objectives you (and/or they) have decided on, you will not be in a position to adequately plan the modes and settings of teaching, learning activities, tasks and methods of work.

Dealing with the question how individual students learn something best is a time-consuming and often difficult task. But whoever devotes time and effort to this question, discusses it with his or her students, and finally evaluates and reflects on the accumulated experience will, in time, develop into an expert on learning. Learning processes are complex, and their success and perfection depend on many factors.

2.2 Key questions

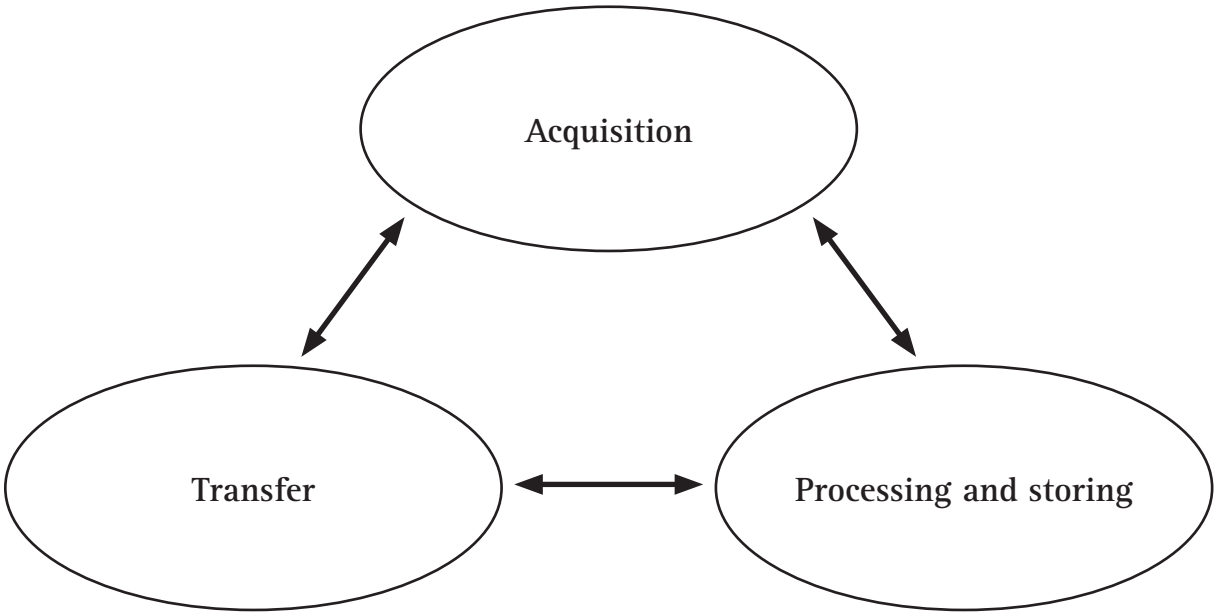
- Which learning processes will allow the students to achieve the objectives?
- How can I enable the students to fully take in (acquire), understand (process) and remember (store) new information?
- Does the form of learning encourage the students to apply their newly acquired knowledge and skills to new tasks?
- Does the planned learning setting or sequence primarily focus on the absorption, processing and storing of information or on transfer tasks?
- In planning this learning sequence, have I considered the important aspects (ideal learning conditions)?
- Is the main objective of the learning process for the students to build up structures of meaning, to acquire skills or to develop attitudes, and have I provided for adequate forms of teaching and learning to achieve these respective objectives?
  - → by action (by being active, producing or forming something, etc.)?
  - → by thinking (by mental experimenting, by “creating” new insights)?

- → by observation?
- → by being verbally taught (lecture, story-telling, etc.)?
- → by instruction, assistance and co-operation?
- → by discussion and debate?
- → by producing a written documentation (report, learner's diary, etc.)?
- → by a medium?
- → by specific events in real life and experience?
- → by experiment, trial and error?

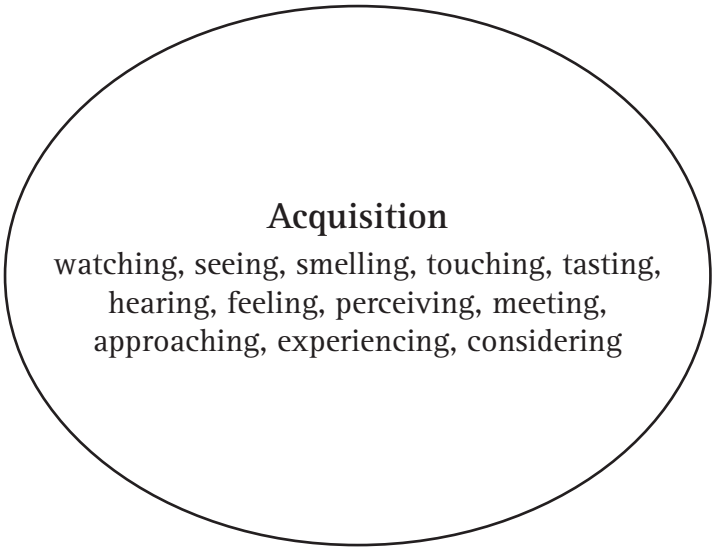
Guiding processes of learning and choosing forms of teaching

Work file 1: Three stages in a learning process

In every learning process we may distinguish between three closely linked phases which support one other.



Acquisition of information



Questions on the students' acquisition of information

Previous knowledge

How can the students (re-)activate their previous knowledge?

Asking questions

Can the students deal with the topic in a way that they may think of questions?

Senses

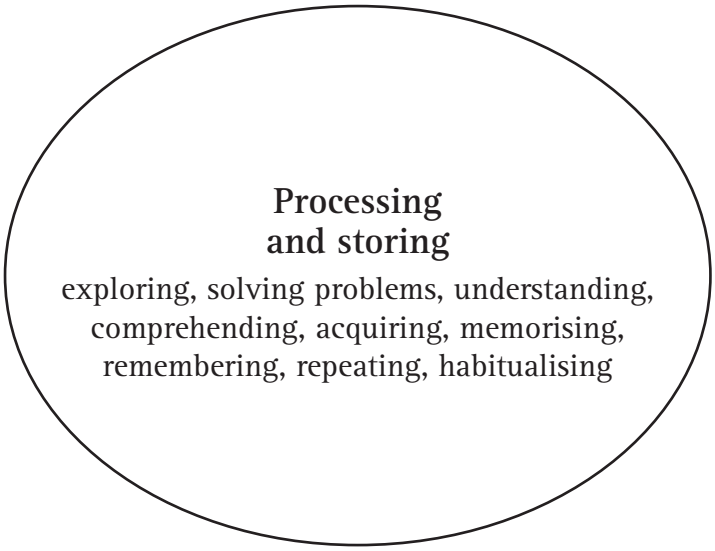
Can the students use their different senses to acquire new information?

Do the students learn by seeing, looking, perceiving, hearing, listening, feeling and emotion, touching, tasting, smelling, etc?

Illustrating (adding appeal and colour to a topic)

Are illustrations, models or replicas used?

Processing and storing of information



Questions on processing and storing of information

Structure

Are the contents organised in a way that the preceding steps of learning facilitate the following ones?

Points of reference

Can the students link new information to their previous knowledge?

Level of attainment

Are the tasks set for the individual student – male and female – demanding and challenging, but still within their reach?

Deepening of understanding

Are the assigned tasks and settings suitable for the students to reinforce and deepen what they have learnt?

Record

Do the students produce a record of their results (report, poster, notes, drawing, diagram, rough sketch, etc.)?

Practice

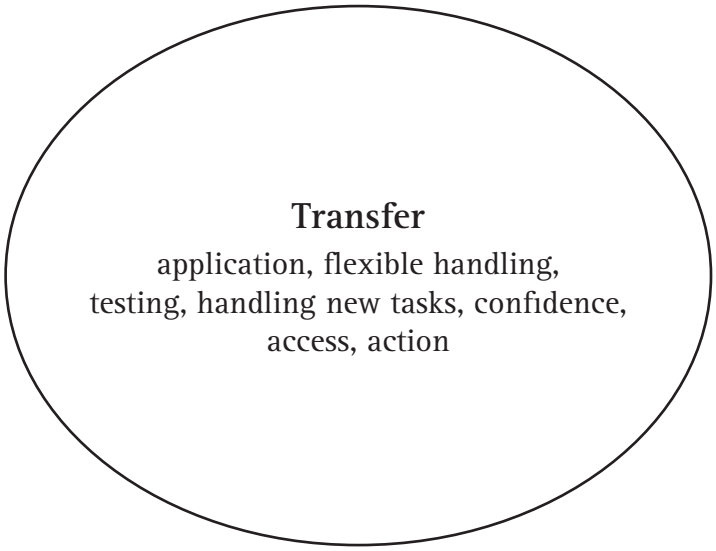
Do the students have the opportunity to practise their newly acquired abilities and skills in as wide a variety of contexts as possible?

Intensity

Have the students been given sufficient time and opportunity to thoroughly work their way through new information and experiences?

Do we spend sufficient time on a subject to allow the students to probe its depths?

Transfer of information



Learning must always include transfer opportunities for the students – to avoid assessments like "learned, but already forgotten", or "known, but not understood or reflected", "accomplished yesterday, already lost today", or "learned, but not used".

Questions on the transfer of information

Usefulness

Do the students appreciate and experience the usefulness of what they have learned?

Experience of efficiency (motivation)

Have the students directly experienced the relation between their effort and their progress in learning? Do the students realise that they themselves are responsible for their extension of knowledge, understanding and skills, that is, that they can achieve something by their learning efforts and activities?

Controlling

Are conclusions reviewed and reconsidered?

Further and more advanced studies

Does the learning sequence which the students have completed stimulate their interest to engage in further and/or more advanced studies?

Do the students remain emotionally involved?

Application

Are the students, both boys and girls, offered a wide variety of opportunities to apply what they have learned? Do the students know in what ways their abilities may be applied and if there are limits to the application of their knowledge and skills?

Guiding processes of learning and choosing forms of teaching

Work file 2: Why chalk and talk is not enough, or "taught ≠ learned" and "learned ≠ applied in real life"

Teachers who have been trained along traditional lines of teaching tend to overestimate the impact of spoken instruction on their students – "taught is learned". This view is particularly common at secondary level, where teachers often face curricula packed with large amounts of complex knowledge. Then it seems tempting to teach the way that seems fastest and most effective – the teacher lectures, the students listen, and a history teacher may think, "Now I have finished the 20th century."

But do students learn by listening to lectures? And have they all learned what the teacher had in mind – what he or she wanted them to learn?

"Taught ≠ learned"

From a constructivist perspective, the answer to these questions is no. "Taught ≠ learned." Learning is an individual process. The students literally construct their individual systems of knowledge. They link what they already know and have understood to new information, using concepts, creating ideas, judging in the light of their experience, etc. They seek for meaning and logic in what they learn, they define what is relevant and worth remembering, and what is not, and can therefore be forgotten.

And they also make some mistakes.

A teacher lecturing to an audience of 30 students should therefore be aware that in the students' minds, 30 versions of the lecture are being produced and integrated into the students' systems of meaning – cognitive structures, as Jerome Bruner, a noted professor of psychology, called them.

But learning is not only construction of meaning, but also deconstruction of errors. Young students, for example, may believe that night comes because the sun sets, because that is what they see. Of course teachers are right in attempting to correct this way of thinking. From the learner's point of view, it is a difficult, and sometimes unpleasant effort of deconstruction. The teacher's lecture therefore may be a piece of new information for one learner, while another becomes aware of an error or misunderstanding that needs to be corrected.

From a constructivist point of view, we must therefore expect faults of logic and thinking and misunderstanding of information to be the rule, not the exception – not only in our students' minds, but also our own.

A revision of our cognitive structures is therefore more complex than merely substituting "old knowledge" by "new knowledge" that a teacher can bring about by "telling the students". Rather, it is a process continuing for a longer period of time, in which contradicting sets of ideas and notions compete with one another – and the students undertake the effort of deconstruction, not the teacher.

"Learned ≠ applied in real life"

Teachers who attempt to correct students' mistakes will therefore find that "telling" them what is "right" is often not enough. They face the following problems:

- Students do not seem to "listen": how do I deal with the problem that students often do not change their wrong ideas after they have been taught the correct facts, concepts, etc?
- "Students learn like parrots": how can I deal with the problem that school knowledge coexists alongside a sphere of naive thinking – including errors in logic and thinking, opinions drawing on incorrect information, reference to everyday experience – that the students do not link together? They memorise their school knowledge for tests "like parrots", and then forget it.

Every teacher knows these problems. To overcome them, even constructivist learning is not enough. Students must do something with what they have learned – they must apply it. For a teacher this means, for example:

- no teacher's lecture without a follow-up task;
- listen to student inputs, for example presentations, to assess their learning process and achievement;
- make students responsible for their development, for example in settings of task-based learning;
- listen to student feedback: what I found particularly important was ... I learn best when...

The teacher's task is to provide adequate opportunities for the students to learn, and to assess and communicate with the students what works well and what doesn't. Constructivist learning, including deconstruction, and follow-up application tasks take time. Therefore the teacher – perhaps together with the students – must make a choice what topics are worth devoting time to. "Do less, but do it well."

Guiding processes of learning and choosing forms of teaching

Work file 3: Selecting adequate forms of teaching and learning

In choosing a certain form of teaching you make decisions on how the sequences of teaching and the learning environment are to be created and organised. This raises the question which different forms of teaching, learning, and social interaction are to be included and combined with each other, which timing of learning steps and which selection of materials is appropriate. A list of questions supports the selecting process:

- What forms of teaching will support the intended processes of learning?
- What forms of social interaction do I choose?
- What structure and rhythm do I choose for the course?
- To what extent can the students participate in planning the lessons and the form of teaching?
- Given the existing framework of external conditions, which teaching approaches are feasible?
- Which methods and teaching style am I particularly good at?
- What else can I do to create a good learning atmosphere together with the students?
- Does the teaching approach do justice to both boys and girls?
- Do the lessons encourage co-operation in the class?
- Have free spaces (areas, corners) been left to which individual students or groups may withdraw?
- Is the classroom always the best place for learning? Must the classroom be altered or restructured? Are special-purpose rooms available? Might excursions or explorations be useful?
- How much liberty do I grant my students; how do I assess their abilities?
- Should all students learn according to one predetermined path? Is my teaching approach individualised and flexible enough to meet differing learning needs, speeds and abilities?
- Can the students be offered a choice of different procedures?
- Which piece of homework do I have in mind?
- Which forms of social interaction are appropriate, considering conditions, objectives, contents and learning processes (individual work, work in pairs, small or large groups)?

Guiding processes of learning and choosing forms of teaching

Work file 4: Five basic forms of teaching and learning

The five methodical approaches describe, as it were, five ideal types of settings for interaction between teachers and students.

Each of these approaches allows, or requires, teachers and students to react to and co-operate with one another in different ways.

The approaches are arranged on a scale beginning with a classic form of teacher-centred work (teaching by presentation), and then move on to increasingly student-centred forms.

We do not propose that teacher-centred forms be completely substituted by student-centred forms. Rather, we would argue that a mixture of these forms is adequate, and that, in the long run, a shift towards more student-centred forms of teaching and learning should take place.

A superficial viewer might come away with the impression that student-centred work means increasing idleness on the teacher's side. This, however, is not the case. The teacher's role changes, as will be explained in detail, but his or her role shifts from direct action in the classroom to careful preparation, assistance and supervision, rather increasing in the process than diminishing.

Students who are to learn how to learn should ideally be supported by all their teachers in all their subjects. A project of this magnitude must fall short if it were confined to an island of, say, project work in an ocean of methodical monotony endlessly repeating "teaching by presentation", condemning students to rote learning.

Basic forms of teaching and learning shown here are:

- teaching by presentation;
- guided exploratory learning (class discussion);
- open learning;
- individual teaching;
- learning in projects.

Form of teaching and learning	Activities	Typical features
Teaching by presentation	Narration, lecture, reading to the class, report, exposition, showing, displaying, teaching by example, demonstrating	– I (the teacher) can teach the subject-matter directly, according to the given situation in class, and the students' reactions are immediately evident. – All students are to achieve the same objective – in the same period of time, in the same room and setting, by the same method, and by the same means. – Pre-set subject-matter is passed on to the students.
Guided exploratory learning (class discussion)	Dialogue, questions, impetus, stimuli, guidance, support	– Interplay of expositions and stimuli by the teacher and contributions by the students.

Open learning	Teacher: advice, mediation, support Students: selection, planning, asking questions, discovering, research, drafting, designing, analysing, thinking, checking, controlling	– Students may participate in decisions. – Interests, needs and initiatives on behalf of the students have high priority. – Learning environment encourages students' activities (flexible allocation of room and space, a wide variety of learning materials, a corner for experimenting, painting, etc.). – Open arrangement of settings for learning. – Students are offered a variety of topics and materials for their personal choice. – External settings for learning are included. – Free choice of learning activities. – Individual work, or with a partner or in groups. – Open learning involves and encourages self-determination, personal responsibility, research, spontaneity, context-orientation.
Individual teaching	Teacher: diagnosis, guidance, instruction, support, advice, information, controlling, supervision, motivation Students: selection, modification and development of working programme, reading, achievement, review and evaluation	– The setting for teaching and learning is specified to meet the student's needs (as defined by the student's previous knowledge, abilities (skills and talents), interest, social and family background, etc.). – Optimal adjustment of all the elements in the learning process to the individual student's needs and abilities, that is, of requirements, objectives, procedures, methods, time, media, and aids (multi-dimensional specification). – Didactic materials, support by media (computers, learning software, video clips, worksheets, models, pictures for learners, textbooks, etc.). – Individual learning encourages efficiency, economy of time and effort, a systematic approach, independence of mind and personal responsibility.

Learning in projects	Teacher: mediation, observation, advice, stimulation, support, organisation, co-ordination Students: setting objectives, co-operation, planning, discussion, mutual agreement, collection of data and information, asking questions, application, studies, experiments, tests, modification, design, creativity, production, controlling, evaluation	– The students' shared interests, concerns and objectives are decisive for the choice of topic, approach, and tasks. – A (complex) genuine problem, taken from real life as perceived by the students, both male and female, serves as a starting point. – Priority is given to the production of results, and an interdisciplinary (cross-curricular) approach. – Students are encouraged to draw on their personal experience, learning is linked to practice in real life. – Long-term enterprise which runs through a typical order of stages and phases (initiative – assessment of interests and needs – decision on objectives – definition of limits, that is, exclusion of objectives which cannot be achieved – draft of project; planning – final schedule; execution; review and outlook on forthcoming activities after the project, controlling and perfection, evaluation). – Division and assignment of tasks: individual work, with partners, in small and large groups; co-operation. – Students visit sites outside school, and consult their parents and/or experts. – Project work encourages independence of mind and learning by discovery, personal and practical experience, and social interaction with others. – Teaching and learning encourage students to take action.

Unit 5
Assessment of students, teachers and schools

1. Introduction

For EDC/HRE accounts, what is true for all learning and teaching? How and why do students have to be assessed? Is assessment fair? Does assessment support learning and the process of learning? In EDC/HRE these questions have to be asked in detail for different reasons. Which competences can be assessed? What kind of knowledge is of central importance? Is it important to know the articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by heart or to know about the building up of the system of justice in their country? We cannot answer these questions here because we are all – internationally – in the middle of the discussion and nobody has got a definite solution (yet). Because every kind of learning has to be evaluated according to its success we would like to discuss this aspect carefully. One of the solutions to this question is which form of assessment we choose! If the teachers and students assess the achievement during and not after a learning process (formative assessment), assessment will function as a facilitator of learning and will lead to better achievement. We want to contribute to a wider understanding of learning in this article by presenting different approaches in a non-judgmental way. It is not the question whether we have to assess, but which form of assessment will be used at what point of time and what the specific goals of this assessment are. Therefore, we ask the questions just like asking the question of right choice of learning method: it is not the question of the right method that is important, but which one is used when. EDC/HRE are – as mentioned quite often already – not subjects. They are much more. They are concepts that co-determine the atmosphere of teaching and learning. When assessing the students' achievement and performance in EDC/HRE it is not only the acquired knowledge, the trained competences and the know-how within a subject area that is tested. Assessment also includes dynamic features such as attitudes, insights, cross-curricular abilities like flexibility, communication, interaction skills, argumentation, etc. Assessment therefore takes place in different dimensions. This is valid for all subjects. There are also certain elements of EDC/HRE that we simply may not be able to, or want to, assess, such as values and attitudes, even if we consider these as part of the set of competences that we would like to impress upon students.

2. Task and key questions for assessment of students, teachers and schools

2.1 Task

In the course of planning your lessons and teaching units, one aspect which deserves attention is the question of how to control and ensure the students' progress in learning, how to identify the progress they have made, and how to evaluate the results of the students' learning and your teaching activities. Before the lessons take place, therefore, you must plan how to establish or estimate, and improve the effect and quality of your teaching, and how to record, analyse, improve and judge the students' work and learning activities. In doing so, you will consider by what measures and instruments you will be able to find out to what extent the class as a whole or individual students have achieved the set objectives and, if required, on what criteria you will base your grading system.

In this chapter you will find out about assessment of students, of teachers and of the school as a whole.

2.2 Key questions

Learning process of students:

- How is successful learning identified and assessed?
- In what way is self-assessment and assessment by others applied?
- How do I ensure that the students have achieved the objectives?
- Did the students regularly experience success while they were learning?
- Are they aware of the progress they have made?
- Does my teaching give boys and girls an equal chance of success?
- Do the students consciously watch, control and improve their learning and working behaviour?
- Were the students given any guidelines to assist them while learning?
- Can the students control and assess their learning behaviour and their results themselves?
- Can the students identify the learning behaviour of other colleagues through peer evaluation?
- In their self-assessment, do the students also refer to their own objectives, standards, criteria or needs?
- Do I perceive individual students' progress?
- How do I identify learning problems of individual students?
- How do I observe social interaction in the class?
- How do I keep a record of my observations and assessments of individual students and the class as a whole?

Learning process of teachers:

- How is successful learning identified and assessed?
- In what way is self-assessment and assessment by others applied?
- How, when and with whom do I reflect on my teaching?
- How do I let my students participate?
- How do I relate my students' success or failure to my teaching?
- How do I recognise my progress in teaching, and how do I learn as a teacher?

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

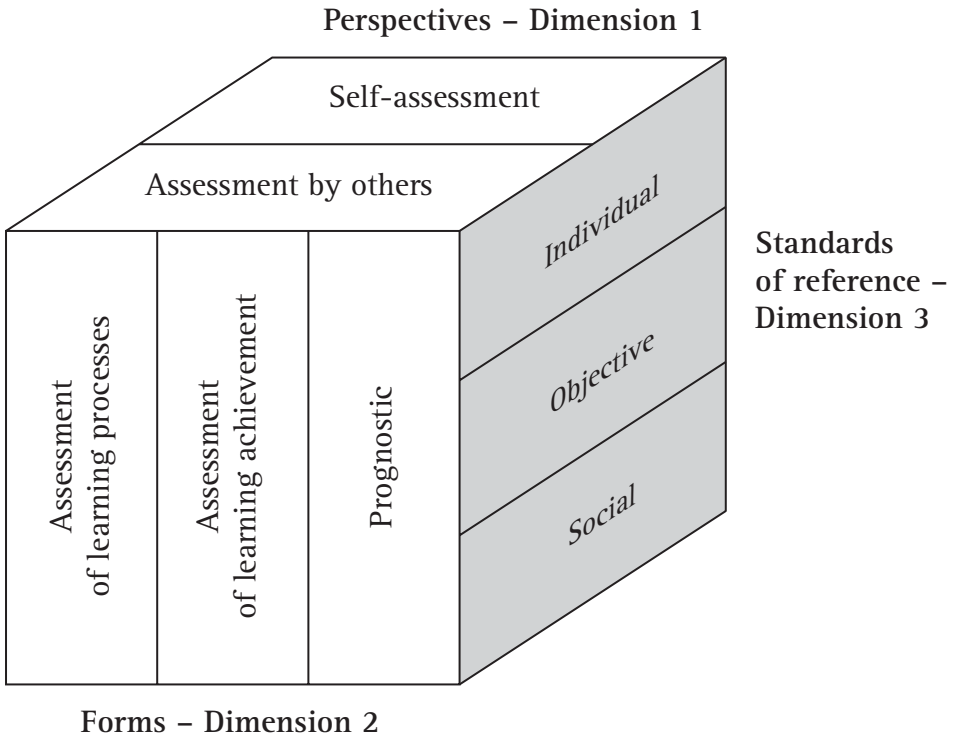
Work file 1: Different dimensions of assessment

The different dimensions of students' assessment include three levels. By using this cube model, the interdependence of the three dimensions can be explained.

Dimension 1 – perspectives: students can assess themselves (self-assessment) or they can be assessed by others (assessment by others).

Dimension 2 – forms: assessment can have three different forms – assessment of learning processes, assessment of learning achievements and prognostic. Each form has advantages and disadvantages.

Dimension 3 – standards of reference: for assessment a teacher can orient himself/herself on an individual standard (the student), on an objective standard (learning goal) or on a social standard (position of student in class). It depends very much on the standard of reference what impact assessment has on the future learning of the student.



Before we start reflecting upon the different dimensions we have to ask ourselves what competences we assess. In EDC/HRE this question is answered by the three competences already discussed: competence of analysis, competence of political reasoning and action competence.

In this respect we can also raise the following questions which revolve around the aspect of setting clear and objective criteria for evaluating and assessing:

- Is it the essentials which are tested in the assessment of students' performance (permanently stored information, facts of exemplary importance, and in excess of mere knowledge of facts, "the tools of thought and action", skills and abilities)?
- In marking the students' work, are the marks defined by unbiased criteria?
- Do the standards of performance in the test correspond to those of the syllabus?

- Have all the requirements which have to be met to achieve a certain mark been determined beforehand (different levels of achievement)?
- Does the test also enable the students to understand which parts of a learning objective they have achieved?
- Have different types of testing been developed for students with different starting conditions?
- Can the students carry out the tests individually where this seems appropriate (for example, can they choose the exact point in time)?

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

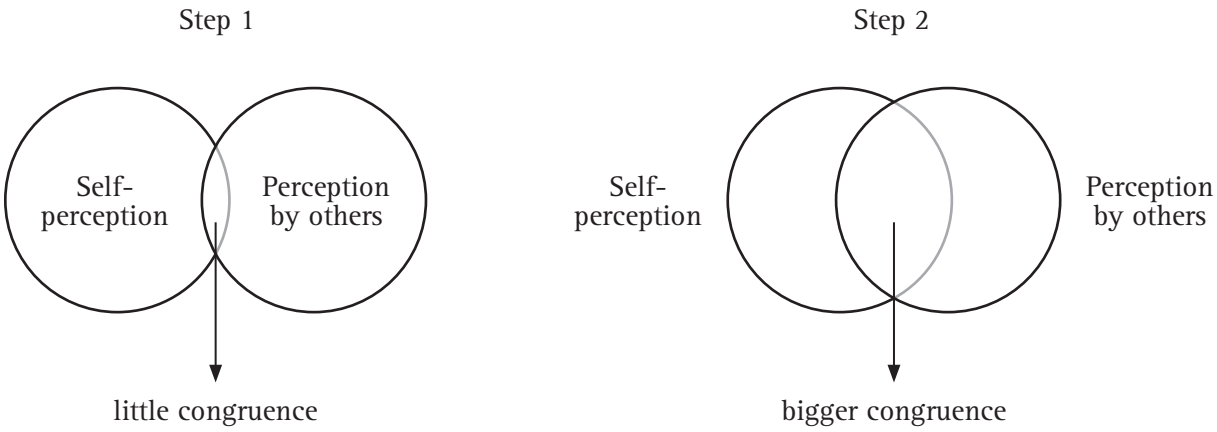
Work file 2: Perspectives of assessment

Internal and external assessments enable a person to get a picture about his/her own status of learning and to develop further steps on the way. Both kinds of assessment also help to set new goals.

All people are used to assessment by other people. By being assessed by other people one receives feedback from students, teachers or parents.

Self-assessment describes the ability to estimate oneself and to draw the consequences thereof. It is an essential instrument to support learners in their autonomy and to guide them out of the pure dependence on teachers' feedback. Students who are able to estimate themselves realistically develop a better picture of their own self and will be less endangered to feel insecure. They will be less dependent on feedback and praise and can interpret reactions of teachers more adequately.

Self-assessment and assessment by others do not have to be congruent completely but should be heard in joint meetings, thought over and discussed. A student does not see herself/himself automatically in the same way the teacher does. Different viewpoints have to be laid out and discussed. Thereby, blind spots, narrowed perspectives or fixed pictures can be corrected. Students have to learn step by step how to estimate their own competences and abilities as well as how to give feedback to other students, how to accept feedback and discuss it. Through this step-by-step approach self-assessment and assessment by others become more congruent.



Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 3: Perspectives and forms of assessment

Assessment of learning processes (formative)

This perspective serves to improve, control and check on a student's learning process, or the student's and teacher's activities to achieve a certain objective.

Assessment of learning achievements (summative)

At a certain point in time, a conclusive assessment sums up the knowledge and skills that a student has acquired. Its main purpose is to inform, for example, the student or parents about the student's level of performance.

Prognostic assessment

This type looks at a student's future development. At different stages during a student's school career, people involved in a student's education process (students, teachers, parents, in some cases school psychologists and authorities) recommend how a student should continue his or her school career.

Assessment of learning processes

The main goal in the assessment of learning processes (or formative assessment) is to support the individual student. Thus, efficiency of teaching is improved. Instead of fighting the symptoms the underlying reasons for learning difficulties are being investigated and are being tackled (these reasons can be cognitive as well as emotional). Mistakes are not corrected but analysed. In this way the ideas and mindset of a student can be understood and supported in a goal-oriented way. Difficulties have to be discussed together with the student and can be dealt with by using special support measures or tasks. By analysing the source of mistakes, students do not have to adapt superficially. By analysing these sources of mistakes, students do not feel at the mercy of their difficulties. Instead, they learn how to develop individual strategies for facing their problems.

In this respect successful learning means a continuous steering of the learning process and working on mistakes by both – teacher and student – and not merely the search for the best methods.

Possibilities of assessment of learning processes:

- observations;
- small, everyday tests;
- tests after a long working phase.

Tests that assess learning processes act as an indicator for the teaching and learning process. They enable the students as well as the teachers to check the level of achievement. Gaps and insecurities can be filled with additional tasks.

Possibilities of testing:

- observing students while solving a task;
- accurate viewing and analysis of the completed tasks;
- individual conversations about completed tasks;
- asking questions about the way a problem was resolved;
- short tests.

Out of observations and conversations about the way of working on tasks and about the sources of mistakes individual goals arise that the students set themselves, that they work out together with the teacher or that the teacher can set for them.

When applying this kind of assessment in our teaching, the logical consequence is also a shift towards:

- goal-oriented learning instead of purely content-oriented learning;
- individualised teaching instead of teaching where everybody works on the same task.

Assessment of learning achievements

Assessment of learning achievements (or summative assessment) gives an evaluation of a student's achievement in a nutshell. It sums up all acquired knowledge and competences. It acts as an instrument of feedback to the parents, the students and the teachers. It can be the basis of a goal-oriented support.

These kinds of assessments are used after long sequences of teaching and learning through observation and tests. They inform the different addressees to what degree the students have reached the different goals. Examples of assessment of learning achievements are all kinds of tests that ask for the students' accumulated knowledge or competences of a certain subject area over a certain period of time (for example, democracy quizzes, maths tests, vocabulary tests, social studies tests). Assessment of learning achievements is commonly used in schools in all subjects. Even though they are necessary for grading the students and give the teacher selective information about the students' overall performance, they bear various problems.

As a means of feedback grades are used. In connection with grades there are several unsolved problems:

- Different teachers evaluate the same student's product differently. Assessment is not objective. In this respect it is not relevant which subject it is. A maths test will be evaluated as differently by different teachers as a written story. Thus, assessment is strongly influenced by the teacher who evaluates. It can be a question of faith for a student and his or her individual future school career in which class and with which teacher he or she spends his/her school time. It can be stated that objectivity is not fulfilled as a criterion.
- A teacher tends to evaluate the same work of a student differently at different points in time. Assessment is not reliable. No matter which subject is the object of assessment, a teacher will evaluate differently at different points in time. It can be stated that the criterion of reliability is not fulfilled.
- It is not clearly defined what is expressed through a grade (skills, competences, knowledge, attitudes?). When teachers use grades in their assessment of achievements they integrate various aspects into the given grade, such as effective achievement in the past semester, estimated achievement ability, learning progress or deterioration in comparison to the class average and motivational, as well as disciplinary aspects. It is very difficult for the student to really find out what the given grade stands for. Usually, students do not know about the different assessment strategies of their teachers. Contents can be multidimensional and the space for interpretation can be big. Bearing in mind the different functions of grades in our society such as qualification, selection and allocation, interpreting given grades gets even more complex. It can be stated that the criterion of validity is not fulfilled. For most of the above functions grades according to an assessment of learning achievements are not usable indicators for future school, study or professional success.
- The common practice of grading according to an assessment of learning achievements has got a very important undesired effect: giving grades within a class according to a normal distribution leads to even more experiences of failure for the academically weaker students. Because the few places in a normal distribution for the very good and good ones are reserved for the same students, the same students will always remain on the other end of the scale. Even if they improve their academic achievement they will still remain at that end. Therefore, ranking the students according to their measured performance within the class will only lead to demotivation and loss of interest as situations remain unchangeable, especially for the weaker ones.

- Grades are not applicable to certain situations or phenomena: it may be simpler in subjects like mathematics to come to a right or wrong answer but it becomes more difficult in arts subjects or any other creative area of learning as well as language. This is due to missing or unclear criteria for evaluation and due to the fact that different subjects trigger different competences or skills. In EDC/HRE the discussion of different forms of solving a problem may lead to very creative or innovative ideas whereas in other subjects only one answer can be viewed as the correct one. So, there is the danger that grades, and the wish to be able to grade everything in an assessment of learning achievements method, can lead to uniformity. A creative search for new ways of solving the task cannot take place.
- Grading arithmetic is mathematically not valid: ideally, grades can be not more than rough estimates for an approximate rank of a student within his or her class. In this respect, even very accurate mathematical methods cannot serve as a means for improving this situation. Calculating the average of a grade by adding different grades and dividing again by the number of grades given can only serve as an additional source of security in a superficial way. It also depends on the time a grade was given. A student who started off the semester with a rather low grade and improved during the time should be evaluated differently from a student whose grades deteriorated during the semester. Even though the calculated average might be the same, the status of achievement and learning progress of these two students are not.

Following the above-mentioned problems, assessment of learning achievements should not be the only way of collecting information about the students' performance in EDC/HRE. Competences and skills that have been acquired by the students should also be measured by applying methods of formative assessment.

Prognostic assessment

Prognostic assessments act as a means of estimation and prediction of the future career. Prognostic assessment combines basic aspects taken from an assessment of learning processes and an assessment of learning achievements and tries to formulate a diagnosis for the student's future. It asks questions like: how can we support the individual development and the positive learning processes? Prognostic assessments become very important at different stages in a student's academic life:

- school enrolment;
- repetition of a year;
- switching classes/schools;
- transfer to a different type of school (for example, special education);
- transfer to a higher school.

In this respect discussions have been going on for the past decades as to whether prognostic assessment can really be described as a form of assessment or can rather be viewed as a function of assessment.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 4: Standards of reference

There are three different basic standards of reference for the assessment and marking of students' performance:

1. Individual criterion: the student's present performance is compared with his or her previous work.
2. Objective criterion: the student's performance is compared with the learning objectives that have been defined.
3. Social criterion: a student's performance is compared with that of the students within the same class or the same age group.

Type of criterion	Individual criterion	Objective criterion	Social criterion
Reference figure	Learning progress	Learning objective	Normal curve of distribution, arithmetic average, deviation
Information	How much has been learned between time 1 and time 2?	To what extent has the student approached the learning objective?	How big is the deviation of the individual progress from the average?
Type of assessment	Tests, verbal assessment, learning progress report, structured form of observation	Goal-oriented test, learning progress report, structured form of observation	Test including a grade oriented on the average of the class
Pedagogical implication	Very high	Very high	Is often used for selection; is not important for orientation towards support for students

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 5: Assessment of students – the influence of assessment on self-concepts

Assessment in school is a wide-open field. It not only has influence on explicit things that can be observed such as students' qualifications, their positioning in society because of grades and thus their academic career. Assessment in school also has influence on other aspects within the individual such as self-image, self-esteem and the general concept one has about his or her own competences and abilities. School has got enormous influence on the self-concept of competences. Its direct influence depends on the way assessment is chosen and carried out in school.

Social criterion

Because of the social context in which learning in school takes place, using the social criterion as a measure can give essential information about competences in comparison to other students. At the same time estimates about competences in a comparative social perspective strongly influence the self-image and self-concept of students.

Individual criterion

Using the individual criterion for assessment means comparing intra-individual differences with each other. What is the difference between the student's achievement in EDC/HRE last month and now? It is a temporary comparison that is used here. Young students especially tend to prefer this criterion as a tool for assessment. The amount of "added value" is being recorded over a certain amount of time. This makes it possible to give feedback to the student about the range of his or her achievement as well as the way in which it has increased or decreased. Achievement is not compared to the achievement of other students. It is the progress which is in the focus. This way of assessment also corresponds with the informal learning processes that take place out of school where the student evaluates his or her own competences autonomously.

Objective criterion

Academic achievement is being compared with a learning objective. An individually achieved learning progress is being compared with a realistically reachable goal. This way of assessment is an objective-based norm and informs about the approach to a goal which is defined as the perfect achievement. Comparing the student's achievement with other students' learning progress is not of importance. Criteria-based tests are oriented towards clearly defined goals. They measure the achievement with reference to a certain characteristic decided by the teacher. This also means that the teacher has to set and present the goals the students have to approach in their achievement. Thus, achievements of the student will not be compared to the ones of other students. According to various studies in this field, social processes of comparisons between students only start when there is no objective criterion used in assessment.

What are the results of this discussion? If a teacher wants to strengthen the self-image and self-concept of his or her students, assessment should happen following an objective criterion. Goals given by the teacher have to be clear and have to be communicated to the students.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 6: Checklist "How do I assess my students?"

When assessing students teachers should bear in mind the key principles in the following checklist:

- Assessment should be a means of support: help for individual defining of position, hints for further work, strengthening the self-concept and self-image of students.
- Assessment should help students and enable them to evaluate themselves.
- Assessment has to be transparent: students have to know the basis of assessment, the criteria of assessment as well as the norms used.
- Assessment has to be adequate to the contents and goals. Knowledge has to be evaluated differently from competences and skills.
- Teachers have to bear in mind the function of selection they fulfil when grading. Instead of only summary assessment, conversations and reports should become the future methods and tools of assessment. Only by doing so can permeability within the school system be improved.
- Tests should be designed in a way that they test the approach towards the set goals. (Tests also give information about the quality of the teaching which was used for approaching these goals: test results therefore not only give information about the students' performance but also about the quality of the teacher's teaching.)

Questions for self-evaluation

Learning process of the students:

- How do I ensure that the students have achieved the objectives?
- Did the students regularly experience success while they were learning?
- Are they aware of the progress they have made?
- Does my teaching give boys and girls an equal chance of success?
- Do the students consciously watch, control and improve their learning and working behaviour?
- Were the students given any guidelines to assist them while learning?
- Can the students control and assess their learning behaviour and their results themselves?
- In their self-assessment, do the students also refer to their own objectives, standards, criteria or needs?
- Do I perceive individual students' progress?
- How do I identify learning problems of individual students?
- How do I observe social interaction in the class?
- How do I keep a record of my observations and assessments of individual students and the class as a whole?

Some questions about the teacher's learning process:

- How, when and with whom do I reflect on my teaching?
- How do I let my students participate?
- How do I relate my students' success or failure to my teaching?
- How do I recognise my progress in teaching, and how do I learn as a teacher?

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 7: Assessment of teachers

Getting feedback about achievement of students is one of the central principles of school.[34] Getting feedback about the quality of teaching is part of professional training. In the same way as we evaluate the learning process and the acquisition of competences, skills and knowledge of our students it is of high importance to get teachers to evaluate their own EDC/HRE teaching.

Without a solid basis of understanding the current situation of teaching it will not be possible to make any recommendations for future improvements or any steps into a further development of teachers' skills, methods and practices. But how good are teachers in evaluating their own teaching? In fact, the majority of teachers tend to underestimate their students' forthcoming achievement. Furthermore, they are often not able to shift their methods and style of teaching into a different direction if the need arises. It gets even more interesting when different perspectives of assessment are taken into account: in comparison to all other groups of school assessment (students, parents, school administrators, etc.) teachers' estimation of their own teaching differs to a great extent from all other formulated opinions.[35] Do we have to strengthen teachers in their own beliefs? Or do they have to acquire any new competences in order to take a step back and evaluate their own teaching critically but also realistically?

34. Helmke A. (2003), "Unterrichtsevaluation: Verfahren und Instrumente", *Schulmanagement*, 1, 8-11.

35. Clausen M. and Schnabel K. U. (2002), "Konstrukte der Unterrichtsqualität im Expertenurteil", *Unterrichtswissenschaft*, 30 (3), 246-60.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 8: Self-assessment of teachers

For daily school practice, self-assessment of teaching is the most pragmatic and easiest method of assessment. Usually, these kinds of assessment take place automatically among teachers, though not systematically. In most cases, teachers reflect on their teaching whenever they feel it is necessary or according to their own intuition, mostly in cases where they were not satisfied with the outcomes. In order to facilitate these self-reflective processes checklists like the following one could be of some help:

- How have I stimulated the learning process?
- How could I keep up the content interest of the students?
- Were the students led to central problems or tasks?
- Is a focus visible in the taught lesson?
- How many questions did I ask?
- What kind of questions did I ask?
- What kind of questions did the students ask?
- Were the questions related to the problems or the tasks?
- Which contributions triggered which questions?
- Did I listen to the students?
- Were the agreed rules of communication in the class kept?
- How did I react to the students' contributions?
- Did I repeat students' contributions word for word?
- Did I use stereotypical forms of reinforcement?
- Was interaction between students stimulated?
- What was the approximate percentage of my contributions?
- What was the approximate percentage of the students' contributions?
- Were there any students with an extremely high percentage of contributions?
- What was the participation of girls in comparison to boys like?
- What kind of contributions did so-called "difficult" students deliver?
- Did I concentrate on certain students?
- How did situations of conflict arise?
- What was the course of conflicts?
- How were the conflicts dealt with?
- Were the given tasks understood by the students?
- How were the tasks integrated into the process?
- What kind of means of support did I provide?
- How were the results presented?
- How was knowledge, how were insights or findings recorded?
- Other questions?

When using checklists like this, it has to be noted that its use only makes sense if it takes place on the basis of a solid, scientifically founded and empirically secured knowledge about teaching and its effects. In all other cases the mere answering of the questions will lead to an obligatory act and nothing else. Secondly, most of the used checklists are something like a medley of different aspects, but do not represent a full collection of all aspects that could arise in the given lesson. Therefore, when using checklists it is of high importance always to leave them incomplete or to reserve some space for aspects that cannot be foreseen.[36]

36. Becker G. E. (1998), *Unterricht auswerten und beurteilen*, Beltz, Weinheim.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 9: Working with journals, logbooks, portfolios[37]

Reflecting on one's own teaching with the use of journals, logbooks or portfolios can be an ideal method for self-assessment and a good basis for starting didactical and pedagogical discussions.

Journals

Usually, a journal is constructed in a way that allows some kind of dialogue (with a peer teacher, a colleague from another school, etc.). In a journal the teacher writes about his or her experiences in a diary-like way also expressing his or her personal interpretations and feelings about a certain lesson or a certain behaviour or way of interaction that he or she showed. A journal leaves room for personal remarks and is open to another person's remarks. The act of going into a dialogue with somebody else and reading another person's remarks, interpretations and thoughts about something one has already thought about creates a high level of reflection about teaching and learning processes and gives further room for discussion. For reflecting on EDC/HRE lessons it is recommended that the peer-teacher or colleague herself or himself is familiar with EDC/HRE.

Logbook

A logbook is a description of a process without any comments or personal remarks. In a logbook pure facts find their place and can be read again by the teacher and thus create a degree of reflection. In this sense, a logbook can be compared to a diary or a journal without the element of personal interpretation and dialogue. Using logbooks only makes sense when the teacher really goes through them again relatively soon. As a logbook does not include any kind of remarks or interpretation it can become rather difficult recalling certain elements of a lesson which took place a long time ago.

Portfolio

A portfolio for teachers is a collection of materials that have been created and put together by the teacher. It is meant to show the strengths of his or her EDC/HRE lessons as well as his or her identified fields of further development. A portfolio is meant to be an instrument that shows the competences of a teacher in a certain field. In modern teacher training and in-service training portfolios have become a common instrument for qualification. In a second sense, a portfolio is an instrument of reflection. It gives room for criticism and evaluates the effect of lessons, methods, interaction with students, etc. Things that can be included in a portfolio:

- short biography of the teacher;
- description of the class;
- chosen lessons (including worksheets, students' materials);
- evaluated products of students;
- test results (if there are any);
- personal statements about the teacher's philosophy of EDC/HRE teaching;
- products such as videos or photos from certain EDC/HRE lessons;
- peer feedback of colleagues who visited EDC/HRE lessons;
- project documentation if the teacher has conducted any in relation to EDC/HRE.

37. The suggested methods in this work file can also be used for students and are common tools in the teaching and learning culture of various European countries.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 10: Co-operative teaching and peer feedback

Without a doubt, co-operative planning of EDC/HRE lessons together with a fellow teacher can be a useful tool for mutual information and co-ordination as well as for the development of class including the evaluation of effectiveness of such processes.[38] Co-operative planning can be restricted only to mere preparation of a lesson (as it is done in the majority of countries) or can lead to joint teaching of the lesson (together through team teaching). Initiating co-operative measures for planning and teaching lessons still has a minor priority in teacher training institutions in a lot of European countries. The culture of leaving each other's doors open is a process that takes a long time to develop.

It remains an interesting phenomenon that a lot of teachers are hesitant about working closely together with another colleague.[39] Is this the case because good practice models are missing? Is this the case because teachers fear they would have to spend even more time in school? Is this the case because teachers are afraid of being evaluated by colleagues?

As one form of co-operative planning and teaching, collegial group sit-ins in EDC/HRE lessons could be one solution to saving precious time. The following suggestion could act as a guideline:[40]

Group size:	Three teachers visit each other twice every half year (everybody receives two visits and makes four visits – they always go in twos).
Organisation:	The three teachers plan the visits together according to the actual timetable in a decentralised way.
Subject relevance:	Teachers observe each other's EDC/HRE lessons. What their core subjects are (or the subjects they used to teach) is not relevant.
Compilation of group:	Coming together into a group can happen because of sympathy. This secures a minimum amount of trust.
Task of principal:	The principal's role is to keep track of the minimum amount of visits between them. The principal should not get involved in content questions about teaching issues.
Thematic focus:	The questions that can be the focus points of these peer sit-ins can arise out of different interests or relations: a) a teacher wishes to receive feedback to a certain question, b) a new method/activity has been decided or introduced and should be evaluated now or c) pedagogical principles (for example, formulated in the school's programme or profile) should be evaluated.

There are several reasons for adding the element of peer feedback and joint lesson observation and analysis to co-operative planning of teaching. Observing colleagues teach EDC/HRE will add positively to gain more insight into one's own teaching of this subject. Not only does it act as a tool for diagnosis, but also as a tool for improving one's own styles and methods.

38. Helmke A. (2003), "Unterrichtsevaluation: Verfahren und Instrumente", *Schulmanagement*, 1, 8-11.

39. Ibid.

40. Klippert H. (2000), *Pädagogische Schulentwicklung. Planungs- und Arbeitshilfen zur Förderung einer neuen Lernkultur*, Beltz, Weinheim.

These are the reasons for this:[41]

- Learning how to teach is more effective in a real-life class than in joint reflection or a hypothetical, real but not experienced class.
- There are many details which cannot be easily explained when talking about a lesson such as action routines, body language, mimics, behaviour of communication, etc.
- Changing the perspective and taking a more distanced view on a lesson allows viewing of one's own teaching.
- Observing a lesson unburdens oneself from taking action. It is possible to perceive more details and to receive more space for reflection.
- It is possible to take a number of suggestions out of every lesson viewed for one's own teaching. The variety of personalities and teaching styles can be an interesting source for impulses which a teacher does not receive on the job after pre-service teaching was completed.
- Observing class and all elements of planning and reflection involve the discussion of didactical and methodical questions and are part of school development which has its starting point at the level of the teacher.

41. Leuders T. (2001), *Qualität im Mathematikunterricht der Sekundarstufe I und II*, Cornelsen, Berlin.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 11: Assessment of EDC/HRE in schools

Democracy is not an automatic mechanism. Democracy is on the one hand a historical achievement in old democracies and on the other hand a result of a long-lasting process which depends on the specific situation in a country. Democratic attitudes are not given by nature but have to be acquired by every single person through experiences in social contexts, in family and in school. Democracy cannot only be learned in EDC/HRE lessons. Democracy has to unfold itself in the various informal and formal structures of a school. Therefore, school has a key role for a stable democratic society. Furthermore, "a democratically structured and functioning school will not only promote EDC/HRE and prepare its students to take their place in society as engaged democratic citizens: it will also become a happier, more creative and more effective institution".[42]

Schools can be assessed using certain criteria to identify the quality of EDC/HRE teaching as well as the degree of lived and practised human rights values and democracy in the school. This can be done using self-evaluation practices.

For evaluating EDC/HRE in schools one needs indicators which reflect different areas of expression. These three main areas are:[43]

- curriculum, teaching and learning;
- school climate and ethos;
- management and development.

Furthermore, these indicators present EDC/HRE as a principle of school policy and school organisation, and as a pedagogical process.

In this volume we suggest instruments and tools for the self-evaluation of a school, involving all participants of school, not only external evaluators. Self-evaluation in this context also means viewing evaluation as the starting point in a process of improvement, not as an end to something that has happened.

For a more detailed description of measuring a school in terms of democratic school governance please see work files 12 to 18.

42. Council of Europe (2007), *Democratic Governance of Schools*, Strasbourg, p. 6.

43. Council of Europe (2005), *Democratic Governance of Schools*, Strasbourg.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 12: Quality indicators of EDC/HRE in a school

The Council of Europe tool "Quality Assurance of Education for Democratic Citizenship in Schools" includes a set of these indicators divided into subthemes and descriptors which reflect a desired quality of EDC/HRE in a school. These criteria can be used for judgment and evaluation. Applying this will deliver a comparison between the status quo of a school in terms of EDC/HRE and the desired goals.

The table below – part of the above-mentioned tool – can be used for assessing the status quo of EDC/HRE in a school according to quality indicators.[44]

Areas	Quality indicators	Subthemes
Curriculum, teaching and learning	**Indicator 1** Is there evidence of an adequate place for EDC/HRE in the school's goals, policies and curriculum plans?	• School policies • School development planning in EDC/HRE • EDC/HRE and the school curriculum • Co-ordinating EDC/HRE
	Indicator 2 Is there evidence of students and teachers acquiring understanding of EDC/HRE and applying these principles to their everyday practice in schools and classrooms?	• EDC /HRE learning outcomes • Teaching and learning methods and processes • Monitoring EDC/HRE
	Indicator 3 Are the design and practice of assessment within the school consonant with EDC?	• Transparency • Fairness • Improvement
School ethos and climate	**Indicator 4** Does the school ethos adequately reflect EDC/HRE principles?	• Application of EDC/HRE principles and values in everyday life • Relationship and patterns of authority • Opportunities for participation and self-expression • Procedures for resolving conflicts and dealing with violence, bullying and discrimination, including discipline policies
Management and development	**Indicator 5** Is there evidence of effective school leadership based on EDC/HRE principles?	• Leadership style • Decision making • Shared responsibility, collaboration and teamwork • Responsiveness
	Indicator 6 Does the school have a sound development plan reflecting EDC/HRE principles?	• Participation and inclusiveness • Professional and organisational development • Management of resources • Self-evaluation, monitoring and accountability

(Council of Europe, *Democratic Governance of Schools*, 2005, p. 58)

44. When the tool was developed in 2005, indicators in the table above were only described as EDC indicators. The extension to EDC/HRE was added to the table for this volume.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 13: General principles for evaluating EDC/HRE

"EDC/HRE is a dynamic, all-inclusive and forward-oriented concept. It promotes the idea of school as a community of learning and teaching for life in a democracy, which goes far beyond any particular school subject, classroom teaching or traditional teacher–student relationship" (Council of Europe, *Democratic Governance of Schools*, 2005, p. 80).

Values, attitudes and behaviour

As pointed out in Part 1 of this volume, EDC/HRE is primarily concerned with changes of values and attitudes – and behaviour. As in all evaluations – be it students, teachers or schools – assessing dimensions like values and attitudes is extremely difficult as it bears the risk of a very subjective interpretation. Moreover, values and attitudes not only express themselves explicitly through direct behaviour but are included implicitly in the way a school works, communicates and organises itself.

How to collect data

Evaluating EDC/HRE in a school can be done in various ways. The EDC/HRE indicators only provide the general framework for developing the different ways of collecting data or for defining the different methods to be used for getting information.

For this, the following questions can be helpful (ibid., p. 81):

- **What:** What information and evidence is to be looked for?
  - → organisation of the school
  - → dominant values in the classroom
  - → understanding of key concepts
  - → relationships of authority, etc.
- **Where:** Which EDC/HRE learning setting does the relevant indicator/subtheme refer to and where can evidence be found?
  - → class teaching
  - → morning assembly
  - → group work within EDC/HRE class
  - → school celebration
  - → project week, etc.
- **Material:** Which documents will provide the necessary information?
  - → school policy document
  - → school curricula
  - → school statute
  - → students' charter
  - → teachers' code of ethics, etc.
- **Who:** Which persons/groups of stakeholders will provide the necessary information?
  - → students
  - → teachers
  - → parents
  - → local administration
  - → NGOs, etc.

- **How:** How are data to be collected, which method is going to be used?
  - → questionnaire
  - → focus group
  - → discussion
  - → individual interviews
  - → observation, etc.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 14: Guidelines for self-evaluation of schools

When a school decides to go through a self-evaluation in terms of EDC/HRE it has to be aware of the fact that this will take a longer period of time, maybe even a school year. This may also be a challenging period which involves many different steps and activities.

The following list, taken from the tool "Quality Assurance of Education for Democratic Citizenship in Schools" (Council of Europe, *Democratic Governance of Schools*, 2005, p. 73) might be of help in order to remember the main guidelines:[45]

- raising awareness of all stakeholders about the need for and process of self-evaluation of EDC/HRE as a means for personal, professional and school improvement;
- making sure that all stakeholders are informed about the evaluative framework in EDC/HRE and its purpose;
- selecting the most appropriate approach for self-evaluation in consultation with a broad range of stakeholders and experts;
- designing valid and reliable evaluative tools (such as questionnaires, interview questions) with the assistance of experts from education research institutes or teacher-training facilities;
- preparing school staff and other stakeholders for evaluation, including their training in the use of evaluation tools; and
- creating a climate of truthfulness, honest reflection, trust, inclusion, accountability and responsibility for outcomes.

- Recognise and diminish threatening connotations of evaluation.
- Understand the challenge of self-evaluation as a learning process.
- Develop evaluation knowledge and skills.
- Strengthen the commitment of all to school improvement.

45. When the tool was developed in 2005, the guidelines were only described as EDC guidelines. The extension to EDC/HRE was added for this volume.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 15: Involving the different stakeholders in evaluating EDC/HRE in a school

When a school decides to go through a self-evaluation, good organisation is needed. Ideally, there should be one person responsible for steering and keeping the overview of the whole process. In most cases this will be the school principal or another person clearly appointed for this task. The responsible person has to be aware that guiding this process will need a high degree of co-ordination and facilitating, rather than top-down leadership. As pointed out in the guidelines for self-evaluation of schools (Work file 14) a self-evaluation process should not be hindered by threatening teachers or students with aspects of power or control.

Therefore, a participatory and collaborative approach has to take place (Council of Europe, *Democratic Governance of Schools*, 2005, p. 74).

The following recommendations conclude the most important facts when involving the different stakeholders.

Setting up an evaluation team

Seven to nine people form the evaluation team. This could include the school principal, one or two teachers, one or two student representatives, a school-based adviser (in some countries this is a pedagogue or a school psychologist), one parent, one local community representative (or NGO representative) and one representative from a research institute or a teacher training institution.

The tasks of the evaluation team are as follows (ibid., p. 75f):

- prepare evaluation tools;
- provide training of school staff in evaluation techniques and the use of evaluation instruments in EDC/HRE;
- provide information and counselling for evaluators and stakeholders throughout the process;
- monitor the implementation of evaluation tools;
- analyse and interpret the findings in co-operation and consultation with a broad range of stakeholder groups and outside experts;
- prepare different forms of reports for different groups of stakeholders;
- receive and analyse the stakeholders' comments and suggestions upon their review of the reports.

Important note: generally, the opinions of the different stakeholders should be sought and compared (for example, through parallel questionnaires). Essential in this context are the views of the students in terms of acquisition of EDC/HRE competences such as self-reflection, critical thinking, responsibility for improvement and change (ibid., p. 77). What has to be considered by the evaluation team is the phenomenon of "politically correct" answers given by students in the teaching and school context. Through clearly defining the methods used, this can be somewhat reduced (peer-interviews, very open questionnaires, undisclosed names, confidentiality, etc.).

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 16: Governance and management in a school[46]

A school can also be measured by looking at the way EDC/HRE processes are reflected in the way it is governed. In this respect the term "democratic school governance" is used. In this context two kinds of processes are relevant and have to be distinguished from one another:

Governance	Management
Openness of school and educational systems	Technical and instrumental dimensions of governing
"We govern things or beings, the behaviour of which cannot be predicted totally."	"We manage things or beings, the behaviour of which is easier to predict."
We negotiate, persuade, bargain, apply pressure, etc., because we do not have full control of those we govern.	We instruct and order because we think we have strong and legitimate power to do so.

Management, therefore, describes the organisational aspects and technical as well as instrumental dimension in a school or educational system. Through introducing more and more open processes in schools which are characterised by different needs and interests, the term "governance" is used (Council of Europe, *Democratic Governance of Schools*, 2007, p. 9).

The benefits of democratic school governance can be summarised in the following points (ibid., p. 9):

- to improve discipline;
- to reduce conflict;
- to make school more competitive;
- to secure the future existence of sustainable democracies.

46. For evaluating a school in terms of EDC/HRE we have presented indicators in Work file 11.

Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 17: Focus on democratic school governance

For assessing the status quo of a school with regard to EDC/HRE practice and its relation between theory and practice or between policy and lived democracy we suggest the following matrix (Council of Europe, *Democratic Governance of Schools*, 2007).

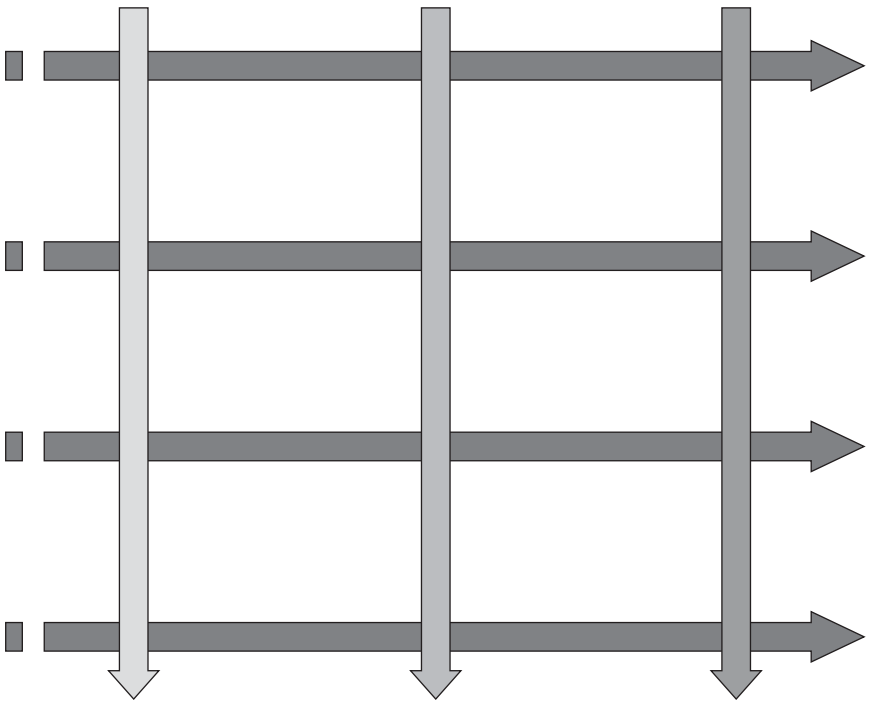
Every school encompasses three main principles in connection with EDC/HRE. These are:

- rights and responsibilities;
- active participation;
- valuing diversity.

In every school there are also key areas where these principles are shown. These are:

- governance, leadership and public accountability;
- value-centred education;
- co-operation, communication and involvement: competitiveness;
- student discipline.

As the following matrix shows, in all key areas different levels of expression of the key principles can be looked at.

	Rights and responsibilities	Active participation	Valuing diversity
Governance, leadership, management and public accountability			
Value-centred education			
Co-operation, communication and involvement			
Student discipline			

For detailed understanding and use of this matrix the tool "Democratic school governance" will give further information (www.coe.int/edc).

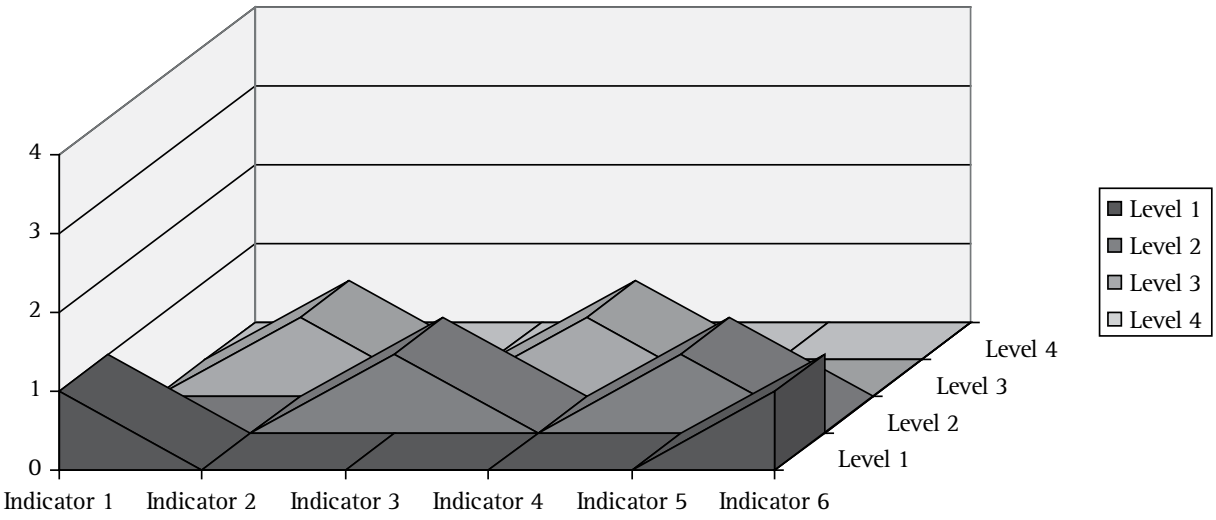
Assessment of students, teachers and schools

Work file 18: How to analyse and interpret EDC/HRE evaluation results

There are many ways to analyse, categorise and interpret evaluation results. When using the set of quality indicators for EDC/HRE suggested in Work file 12, one of the most effective and easiest ways is to start identifying strengths and weaknesses in EDC/HRE. The Council of Europe suggests using a four-level scale for this purpose and thus basing each indicator according to this scale (Council of Europe, *Democratic Governance of Schools*, 2005, p. 88):

- Level 1 – significant weakness in most or all areas;
- Level 2 – more weaknesses than strengths;
- Level 3 – more strengths than weaknesses;
- Level 4 – strengths in most or all areas and no significant weaknesses.

One possible way to present the results out of such an analysis is using diagrams which show the overall performance in EDC/HRE but also list the different indicators. The example below of a fictional school illustrates this:



When trying to come to a conclusion, this should cover four basic areas (ibid., p. 91):

- the school's achievement in EDC/HRE in general;
- the school's position on each quality indicator;
- the most successful and the weakest aspects of EDC/HRE in the school;
- the most critical points that may threaten further development of EDC/HRE in a school.

Part 3

Tools for teaching and learning democracy and human rights

Unit 1

Toolbox for teachers

Unit 2

Toolbox for students

In EDC/HRE, as generally in teaching, it is important for the teacher to reflect on the objectives and to clarify the reasons for the choices and priorities that must inevitably be made. He or she wants to know, what must students learn in EDC/HRE? If students should learn how to participate as citizens in their democratic community, they need to develop competences of political analysis and judgment when dealing with political problems and issues, competences of participation in political decision-making processes plus a repertoire of methodical skills. This is only possible if they can learn in different ways and independently. To do so, they need support. The same is true for the teaching profession. Each specialist uses his or her special tools. We introduce some for teachers and some for students that especially support EDC/HRE. They make the individual independent. Independence is a goal in itself for each human being.

Unit 1
Toolbox for teachers

1. Introduction

EDC/HRE is a distinctive form of educational activity that aims to equip young people to participate as active citizens, and as such employs distinctive forms of learning. Teachers need to be fluent in these forms of learning and able to put them into practice in different settings. They include different forms:

- inductive – presenting learners with concrete problems to resolve or make a decision on, and encouraging them to generalise from these to other situations – rather than by starting from abstract concepts;
- active – encouraging learners to learn by doing, rather than being told or preached at;
- relevant – designing learning activities around real situations in the life of the school or college, the community or the wider world;
- collaborative – employing group-work and co-operative learning;
- interactive – teaching through discussion and debate;
- critical – encouraging learners to think for themselves, by asking for their opinions and views and helping them develop the skills of argument;
- participative – allowing learners to contribute to their own learning, for example by suggesting topics for discussion or research, or by assessing their own learning or the learning of their peers.

To fulfil these plans, teachers need tools to support the students. Some of them are especially important for EDC/HRE. Therefore they will be described here in a very practical form.

Toolbox for teachers

Tool 1: Task-based learning

How to support learning by setting tasks

Interactive teaching and learning plays a key role in most of the activities in the teaching suggested in this manual. The objectives of interactive teaching are cognition (that is, thinking and understanding), learning, and action. Every stage of planning the lessons, monitoring the tasks, evaluating the results and reflecting the whole process has a lot of hidden learning potential for the students.

The basic approach of integrating thinking and doing has implications for the whole process of learning. It does not mean that active handling of learning objects is confined to the preliminary stages of "real" learning, which is then understood to involve only the minds of learners. Rather, integration of learning and doing can give all learners a clear idea of why they are learning by doing: they have a task to do, and this requires many abilities and skills. In this kind of teaching, the learner must define his or her learning needs in each new situation that arises. Learners will then also require instruction by the teacher, which means that students set their teachers tasks, and not vice versa. Task-based learning produces ideal combinations of constructivist learning and learning by instruction.

In task-based learning, students face problems that they wish to solve. Learning is not an end in itself, but leads to something useful and meaningful. Students learn by exploring ways to solve a problem, setting themselves, and their teacher, the tasks that pave the way to the solution of the problem. School is life – this *leitmotif* of EDC/HRE also applies in task-based learning. Many real-life situations consist of finding solutions for problems. Task-based learning prepares students for life by creating real-life situations as settings for learning.

Task-based learning follows a pattern that can be described in general terms. If the teacher keeps to this pattern, the potentials of learning by doing, that is, active learning, will unfold almost by themselves:

Elements of task-based learning

The students face a task that needs to be solved (presented either by the teacher or a textbook).
The students plan their action.
The students implement their action plan.
The students reflect on their process of learning and present their results.

It is important for the students to experience the principles of task-based learning frequently in different contexts. A good task that gives rise to many problems that need to be solved is the best means to create a productive and exciting learning environment.

Toolbox for teachers

Tool 2: Co-operative learning

This form of teaching is not about simply letting students work in groups in the hope that the work will somehow get done. What is meant by this is a learning process in some shape or form which is delegated to the area of social learning for lack of visible cognitive success. The expression "co-operative learning", however, is concentrated on the achievement of the learners.

Clear role distribution among the members of the group is a prerequisite for successful teaching according to a co-operative model. In this, formal tasks that provide equal status among the members are distributed and practised and this thus leads to successful learning. It is, however, clear that not every task is suitable for this type of teaching and therefore a polarised relationship between co-operative learning forms and teacher-centred teaching is not meant. In this model of teaching, the teacher plays a clear and meaningful role. The success of co-operative learning, as many class comparisons have shown, is dependent on basic elements. The following procedure seems to be tried and tested by many teachers:

Co-operative learning: how to go about organising a group

1. The names of the group members are listed alphabetically.

2. Each person in the group is assigned one of the following roles.

Moderator:	This person ensures that all the members understand the task and is, as well, the group's speaker.
Reporter:	This person organises the presentation or final product.
Materials manager:	This person ensures that all the necessary materials are available and makes sure that everything has been cleaned up at the end.
Planner:	This person makes sure that the group manages its time well and checks that the group sticks to its schedule. This person makes sure that the group plans out its course of action in a reasonable way at the beginning of the assignment and adapts this plan accordingly.
Mediator:	This person solves any problems within the group.

3. Rules:

a) Some members of the group have special tasks/roles, but every single person is responsible for the entire process and the group's results.

b) If a question is to be asked to the teacher or student-leader, then the whole group must decide which question is to be asked. Like this, the group decides upon the question collectively. The leaders do not answer any individual questions during this group process.

c) Each group is responsible for the presentation. Each member of the group is responsible for answering any questions.

Teachers who often work with the group method say that it often makes sense for learners to keep their roles for a longer period of time. This provides a certain security, speeds up learning, and improves group performance.

Toolbox for teachers

Tool 3: Chairing plenary sessions (discussion and critical thinking) in EDC/HRE classes

Introduction

Students share their thoughts and ideas, guided by their teacher. That is all. The setting is simple, and it requires only a blackboard or flipchart, but the teacher's task is a demanding one. Plato's "Socratic dialogues" mark the long tradition of this mode of teaching, and Socrates focused on problematising and deconstructing his partner's false or dogmatic views. We suggest a role more fitting for a teacher in EDC/HRE – a more supportive one like that of a coach. The aspect of competence development – students learn how to think and share their thoughts – is a goal as important as the contents.

The students are engaged in a process of thinking and interactive constructivist learning. The teacher supports them. Generally speaking, thinking is the effort to link the concrete to the abstract. Plenary sessions train the students' ability to think. Thinking takes time. Careful students are often slow thinkers.

Only school can offer guided plenary sessions as a format of learning. Like a teacher's lecture, it can be adapted precisely to the learner's needs, much more so than any textbook or video. Critics have rightly pointed out the abuse of this format: it is applied too often, and too long; teachers ask questions that students are uninterested in and unable to answer; teachers enact a crude Socratic type of role, treating students as inferiors who are expected to deliver what the teacher wants to hear.

But if used thoughtfully, and with a certain amount of practice, plenary sessions are one of the most powerful and flexible, and indeed indispensable, learning formats in EDC/HRE. The following checklist outlines the learning potentials and gives the teacher some tips what to do and what to avoid. Volumes II-V in this EDC/HRE edition offer numerous descriptions of plenary sessions with students and students from elementary to upper secondary level. Therefore no example is included in this tool.

The students' role

The students:

- enter the session with some expertise – on different levels, and they are interested in the topic under discussion;
- know that their contribution is welcome, and no grades are given for "wrong" ideas or suggestions;
- have the lion's share of the speaking time;
- have different learning needs (example: "slow thinkers" – "fast talkers").

The teachers' role

The teacher:

- communicates with the class, and is able and willing to improvise, reacting to whatever the students say;
- fully grasps the topic and has a clear idea of the outcome of the session;
- controls, but does not dominate, the plenary session, taking a small share of speaking time;
- gives the students sufficient time to think;
- listens without taking notes;

- listens actively, "fleshing out" ideas that students hint at;
- encourages students to participate and addresses students who tend to stay silent;
- acts as time keeper, group manager, process manager;
- gives structure to the discussion by using the blackboard (preferable to a flipchart), offering images, symbols, examples, information, concepts and frameworks;
- identifies the students' learning needs and reacts accordingly. He or she instructs students on matters they do not know, and makes sure that arguments and lines of thought that are wrong or incomplete are criticised and deconstructed by a student or the teacher.

Suitable topics and contexts in EDC/HRE

Suitable topics include:

- working with student inputs (questions, comments, presentations, homework, experience and feelings);
- working with teacher inputs (question, prompt, picture, lecture);
- introduction of a new concept;
- follow-up to a reading or research task;
- follow-up to a phase of task- or problem-based learning (debriefing, reflection);
- feedback;
- developing a hypothesis for further research.

Learning potential

The students:

- create the context for a new concept that the teacher delivers by instruction (constructivist learning);
- experience how thinking takes place – asking questions, carefully considering answers, linking the concrete to the abstract and vice versa (competence development through demonstrations of analytical thinking and critical judgment);
- students share their criteria for judgment and reflect the reasons for their choice of criteria (competence of judgment or interactive constructivist learning);
- experience their class as a learning micro-community in which they are encouraged to participate (learning through democracy and human rights);
- are addressed as experts (strengthening self-esteem);
- pass judgment after having considered controversial views on a political issue (simulation of political decision making).

Preparation

Criteria for choosing a topic:

- The students must be informed on the topic (links to students' expertise).
- The students see why the topic is worth discussing (relevance, personal interest).
- Controversy: the topic poses a problem and allows the students to take different views; the teacher has a personal view, but is not in possession of "the correct solution".

- The teacher has a matrix in mind that allows her or him to anticipate most of what the students are likely to say and to integrate their ideas into a conceptual framework (for example, pros and cons, criteria of fairness and efficiency, concrete and abstract, interests and compromise).
- If the discussion does not begin with a student input, the teacher thinks about the starter (a question or a prompt, for example).
- The teacher drafts the summary of the session – for example a diagram with a new concept, a thesis, or a set of keywords that the students work out into a text as a follow-up homework task.

Some "do's"

- When you give a prompt or ask a question, give your students time to think – wait for several seconds. Then give the floor to several students in succession.
- Variants (they require more time, but greatly improve the quality of student and teacher inputs): when you give a prompt or ask a question:
  - → give your students time to write down their ideas, and then let them have the floor; the students read their statements, or collect their written ideas on the floor or a poster and cluster them;
  - → let your students share their ideas in pairs, and then let them present their results.
- Basic rule: "One teacher input – many student responses." In terms of time management, this may already be the whole plenary session, rounded off by the teacher's summary or conclusion.
- Make sure your students are seated in a square or circle, allowing everyone to address and to see each other.
- Make sure the students can understand each other. Encourage them to explain their ideas and any terminology that other students do not know.

Some "don'ts"

Avoid:

- asking yes/no questions. You will then have to ask the next one immediately after. Prefer open questions or prompts. Follow-up questions can then be tighter and more specific;
- getting drawn into a discussion with one or two students. Rather, pass on their questions to the class;
- side-stepping or ignoring statements by students that catch you unprepared. They may be the most interesting ones! Here again, get the class involved;
- commenting on every single statement by students that you agree or disagree with. Rather, give a prompt to help students identify strengths or weaknesses in each other's arguments;
- restricting your role to calling on students in the order of their showing hands. Quite often, students will address different aspects and sub-topics, and the discussion may slip into confusion or chaos. Therefore, take the initiative and decide or suggest which topic to focus on first. Point out the dilemma that time and concentration is too limited to discuss everything if students question the need to prioritise.

The teacher as improviser – students spark off a discussion

So far, we have considered plenary sessions that the teacher has included in planning an EDC/HRE lesson.

However, students may ask for a discussion spontaneously, often by making an observation or comment that sparks off a controversy. If ever time allows, the teacher should give the students the

opportunity to go ahead. Their learning needs are apparent – they, or at least some of them, are interested in an issue.

Examples:

- "In the end, you can only rely on your family."
- "I think for some people the death penalty would be a good idea."
- "What happens to politicians who break their election promises?"
- A student refers to a current issue from the daily news.

In such a situation, the students set their teacher a task. She or he must chair a discussion without prior preparation, by improvisation only. Teachers need not be afraid of such a situation. Usually the teacher will have a grasp of the topic, and the modes of interaction are the same as in any plenary session included in a lesson plan. A similar situation arises when the students ask a teacher to deliver an explanation unprepared ("what does democracy mean?").

Here are some tips on how to react in spontaneous discussions:

- Ask the student(s) who started the discussion to explain the issue to the class. This gives everyone the chance to take part, and gives you time to think as well.
- Clarify how much time you want to set aside. Decide how to continue with the topic(s) and the lesson after the discussion.
- When you listen to your students, watch out for what they know and have, or have not, understood.
- Take the initiative to deliver a summary or conclusion of the discussion. This may not be of the same quality as one that you have had time to think about beforehand, but it serves the students better than ending a discussion without at least a preliminary statement on why it was held and what it led to.
- Alternatively, you can set this as a follow-up task for your students, but only if you have a solution in mind.

Toolbox for teachers

Tool 4: Interviewing an expert – how to collect information

In EDC/HRE there are many situations when students need to acquire information by interviewing people who come from outside the classroom.

These interviews may take place within class, or the class or a group of students can visit them outside.

The interview partners may be experts in the strict sense of the word, such as a member of national or local parliament, a representative of an administrative board or a scientist. But interview partners could also be people who have a specific background of social or professional experience, such as a shiftworker, a single mother, a migrant or an unemployed person.

Here we will leave aside the question of who contacts the expert. In most cases this will be the teacher, but of course this task could be delegated to students, particularly at secondary level. Rather, we will focus on the question of how the students can prepare and carry out the interview.

Clearly a scenario should be avoided in which the teacher or a handful of students interview an expert, with the rest of the class looking on, not understanding why certain questions are being asked. An interview involves competences that are useful in any kind of project work, field studies or more advanced work in science or the media.

A standard model procedure for the preparation of an interview with an expert includes the following steps:

1. The students identify an important issue that deserves more detailed study.
2. The teacher suggests that the students interview an expert. He or she contacts the expert and arranges a date for the interview, either in the classroom or at a place outside school.
3. The teacher explains to the students what their task will be: in the time available for the interview (45-90 minutes), the students can raise a number of key questions. As each of these key questions will need some time to be answered, and the answers will prompt some follow-up questions, the students will have to decide which questions and issues to focus on. The students will form groups, each of which will be responsible for one key question. Each group will be assigned a time slot (10-15 minutes) to interview the experts. It is important for the students to understand this framework and its purpose, so the teacher should answer any questions patiently and carefully.
4. In the plenary round, the students engage in a brainstorming session. They write all the questions they would like to ask and that they can think of on cards or slips of paper, using a new card for each question. To avoid consuming too much time, the teacher can limit the number of cards for each student to two or three. After five to eight minutes, these questions are collected on the blackboard or flipchart, with the students coming forward and presenting their ideas.
5. Questions referring to one topic are clustered under a key question. The students then decide which key questions will be used in the interview and in which order they will be addressed. In a session of 60 minutes, not more than four key questions should be asked. As a rule, the first one should be about the person himself so that the students have an idea of who they are talking to. The last 10 minutes should be left to a round of open discussion or additional questions by individual students.
6. The students enter groups. They take the cards with the students' suggestions from the board or flipchart, and they decide whether to include them in the interview.
7. If the students have no experience of interviewing, the teacher should give a brief instruction on the basic technique of interviewing. The opening question should be broad in scope, allowing the partner to offer a lot of information and keywords. The students can then ask follow-up questions that are tighter in focus. Generally questions that can be answered by yes or no should

be avoided, as a new question has to follow immediately after. The students should also make sure not to mix discussion and interview ("Don't you agree with me that ...?").

8. In the end, the students should have a list of four to six questions which they have ordered and ranked. To build confidence, the class can rehearse the interview in a role play, with the teacher acting as the expert.
9. It is important to clarify the roles of the team members during the interview. Who will ask which question? Who will record the answers? Who replaces a team member who is absent on the day of the interview? The interviewers should be able to maintain eye contact with the partner, so they should be supported by one or two note-takers (see the model questionnaire below). It is not advisable to use a cassette recorder, as the transcription is too time-consuming for the students. Rather, they should concentrate on the essentials and translate their notes into a full text from memory immediately after the interview.
10. After the interview, the teams report in class, orally and/or in writing. Depending on the media available, this could be by handout, wall newspaper or electronic document. Now is the time to refer to the context that gave rise to the interview. Have we received the information we needed? What have we learned? What new questions have arisen?
11. The students should also review the process and the skills they have acquired, and the problems they have incurred. This will give the teacher important feedback for planning future tasks.

Planning sheet for an interview team

Interview with _____

Date: _____ **Place:** _____

Time available per group: _____ minutes.

Team no _____ **Topic:** _____

Team members:

No.	Key question	Interviewer	Note-taker
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			

Toolbox for teachers

Tool 5. Defining competence-based teaching objectives[47]

1. Curriculum standard (only one):		
2. Please answer the following question: What is a student capable of doing when she or he has acquired the competence that you have in mind?		
Description:		
3. Please describe what a student should at least be capable of doing, and then think of more advanced levels of achievement.		
After my students have taken part in the EDC/HRE classes on ... consisting of x lessons ...		
... the least I would expect from every student is that she/he is able to ...	... what I would like my students to be able to do is ...	... actually I hope that my students will be able to ...
"Minimum standard" (acceptable)	"Regular standard" (satisfactory)	"Expert standard" (good)

47. See the chapter in this volume on competences in EDC/HRE. This tool is based on Ziener G (2008), *Bildungsstandards in der Praxis. Kompetenzorientiert unterrichten* (2nd edn), Seelze-Velber, p. 56.

4. First steps to planning EDC/HRE classes		
Objective	Input by the teacher	Student activities, tasks

Unit 2
Toolbox for students

1. Introduction

Teachers who teach EDC/HRE classes can be perfect in their planning and lesson preparation. But despite the best preparation a lesson can go wrong if they forget to consider the students' skills in certain techniques. This can happen to the best and most experienced teachers. A lesson can only work well if the students have a certain repertoire of methods and know how to use them.

From the experience gained in the various programmes for teachers of EDC/HRE all over Europe we decided to include this toolbox in this volume. This set of instructions, worksheets, instruments and checklists can act as something like a database to which students have access when they are not familiar with a certain method or technique.

It is the teacher's task to explain when and how to use which tool. And it will also be the teacher's task to decide when to present which tool to the students, whether the toolbox is a fixed instrument displayed in the classroom, easily accessible at all times, or whether the toolbox can also be used for homework.

The following set of tools can help the students with a number of different things, such as:

- how to gather and search for information;
- how to sort your information;
- how to produce creative work;
- how to present your work;
- how to work with other students.

Each tool starts on a separate page. It can be read individually by the students or – if the teacher so decides – together in pairs or small groups.

Toolbox for students

Tool 1: Worksheet for students to plan their learning schedules

- I will set myself the following objective – for the next chapter/unit/today, etc: ...
- I will tackle the following tasks today: ...
- I am particularly interested in: ...
- I have particular difficulties with: ...
- I have set up the following plan: ... (What will I do first? What will I do after that? Where will I learn? When will I have a break? When will I finish my work?)
- I will talk my plan over with: ...
- I will be satisfied with my learning if I succeed in the following: ...
- I will provide for the following learning materials: ...
- To ensure that I can work undisturbed, I will take the following measures: ...
- To improve my learning, I will ask the following children for support: ...
- When I am tired, I will pick up new energy by ...
- If I don't enjoy learning any more I will ...

Toolbox for students

Tool 2: Worksheet for students to reflect on their learning

- What were my first learning activities?
- What were my next learning steps?
- When did I allow myself to have a break?
- How long did I learn by myself?
- How long did I learn together with another child?
- When did I learn in a group?
- Did I learn well in the group?
- Did I carry out my learning activities according to my plan?
- Could I concentrate on my work without being disturbed? Was I distracted at any time? Must my concentration improve?
- Did I ensure that I learnt well?
- Did I feel bored while I was learning?
- Did I learn happily?
- When did I enjoy learning?
- Did I feel sure while learning that I would be successful? (Learning with self-confidence)
- How did I take an interest in the subject-matter and come to enjoy learning?
- Which learning strategies and techniques did I apply?
- Did I learn well? What did I do well, what did I do badly?
- What was difficult for me? How did I overcome these difficulties?
- Should I work faster or more slowly?
- Is there anything I ought to change?
- How can I improve my life?
- This is what I will try to achieve in my next learning task: ...

Toolbox for students

Tool 3: Worksheet for students to reflect on their achievement

- What have I learned?
- Have I actually made progress?
- Have I really understood what I have learned?
- Am I able to apply my newly acquired abilities in different situations?
- Where and when can I make use of what I have learned?
- Am I personally satisfied with what I have succeeded in?
- Would I like to understand or be able to apply anything even better?
- Have I achieved my learning objective?
- What must I still learn?
- Will I set myself new objectives for future learning?

Toolbox for students

Tool 4: Researching in libraries

In libraries you can find lots of information that you need when researching a topic. In order to be able to use this information you need to be able to pick out the most relevant bits. The following checklist can help you to find information (research).

1. What is my goal?

- What am I creating? What should the final product look like? Should it be a presentation? A report? A poster?
- You will need to look for different types of information depending on what the goal of your work is. To make a poster, you have to find pictures you can cut out; for a report you need to find exact information about a topic.

2. What information do I need?

- Write down everything that you know about the topic (a mind map can help you with this).
- Write down everything that you'd like to know about the topic (highlight points on your mind map). Define precisely what aspect of the topic you would like to learn about. Depending on what your final product will be, you may need to define a lot of aspects or only a few.

3. How do I find information and how do I organise it?

- Look through the books, magazines, films, etc., that you have found in the library and decide if they can answer the questions you asked. Looking through the index or the tables of contents can help.
- On a separate sheet of paper, note down the title of the book and the page number where you found the information. You can also mark the page with a bookmark or Post-it note.
- It can often be useful to photocopy the page. However, don't forget to note down the title of the book on the copy.
- Look at the pictures from magazines. Photocopy them or mark the page with a bookmark.
- If using a film, watch the film and stop it each time something interesting is described.
- Gather the materials and put them all together in a plastic folder.
- Highlight the most important information.
- In your own words, write down the most important information about a topic on a sheet of paper.

4. How do I present the information?

You can, for example:

- make a poster;
- hold an exhibition;
- give a speech;
- create a transparency;
- write a newspaper article;
- show video clips.

5. How do I evaluate my research?

- Did you learn anything new?
- Did you find enough useful information?
- Which steps in your research went well? What was difficult?
- What would you do differently next time?

Toolbox for students

Tool 5: Researching on the Internet

You can find information about every imaginable subject on the Internet. You have to consider how you want to go about finding the most essential and accurate information about your topic.

Finding information

Jot down keywords about your given or chosen topic on a piece of paper. Try to think what exactly you want to know about this topic.

Examples:

- EDC/HRE;
- Council of Europe;
- minorities;
- democracy.

Combine search terms, for example "medieval town markets", using quotation marks.

- Which word combinations help you to find the most relevant information about your topic? Note down these criteria on a piece of paper.

Checking your information

Because anybody can access the Internet and create information, it's important to double-check the information you find before you actually use it.

Try to clarify the following problems:

- Can you find this information on other pages on the Web?
- Who made the information publicly accessible?
- What interest could this person or organisation have in making this information publicly accessible?
- Is the person or organisation reliable?

Compare the information from the Internet with information from other sources:

- Can you find the same information in a book, through an interview or through your own experiences?
- Is the information on the Internet up-to-date, comprehensible, more comprehensive than what you can find in a book, interview or through your own observation?
- Which information suits your purpose best?

Saving the information

Once you've found a good Internet site that you want to go back to later or that you want to use as a source for your work, make your own personal list of websites:

- Open a separate document.
- Highlight the URL (address).
- Copy the URL by pressing CTRL (control) and C at the same time.
- Paste the URL into the document by pressing CTRL (control) and V at the same time.
- Save your document under "weblist_topic" – for example, "weblist_democracy".

Toolbox for students

Tool 6: Carrying out interviews and surveys

You can gather information about a topic when you question people about their knowledge of the subject or when you ask them for their opinion.

You can ask:

– specialists – if you want to find something specific about a subject;

or

– people who don't have any special expertise in the subject but you are interested in knowing what they think about your topic.

Interviews or surveys are best done together in a small group. That way you can help one another with the questions and with recording the answers.

Go through the following points on the checklist:

– Write down a short answer to every question.

– Mark the questions to which you don't have an answer.

– Discuss any open questions with your class.

Steps to take

1. The goal

– What is our topic? What do we want to know?

– What should the final product look like?

2. Preparation

– Who should be interviewed? How many people? Does age or gender play a role?

– How do we choose the right people?

– When should the interview/survey take place?

– How should it take place?

– Who has to be informed or who do we have to get permission from?

– How will the answers be recorded (recorded on tape, notes, questionnaires)?

3. The questions

– What questions shall we ask?

– How many questions can we ask? How much time do we have?

– Put the questions together to form a survey.

4. Conducting the survey/interview

– How do we begin with the questions?

– Who plays what role in the group (asking questions, noting down answers, starting and stopping the tape recorder)?

– How do we end the interview?

5. Evaluation

- If you interviewed a specialist, think about the most important things he or she said and highlight them.
- If you asked several people about the same topic and would like to know how many people gave similar answers, then sort the answers accordingly.

6. The presentation

Decide whether the presentation will be for:

- sharing in class; or
- writing a newspaper article; or
- creating a poster; or
- something else.

Toolbox for students

Tool 7: Interpreting images

Just like texts, pictures contain a lot of information. The following tips will help you to interpret and understand pictures.

Discover information about the picture

- What are the most important colours in the picture?
- Where are noticeable shapes, patterns, lines?
- What is larger or smaller than normal?
- How big is the thing/person in the picture in reality?
- What time period (the past, the present) and what time of the year or day are presented in the picture?
- From what perspective do you see the subject of the picture: through the eyes of a frog, a bird or a person?
- What can you recognise in the picture?
- What type of picture is it (a picture, a poster, a painting, a wood engraving, a graphic, a collage, a portrait, a landscape, a caricature, etc.)?
- What is exaggerated or emphasised in the picture (light/dark, proportions, foreground/background, colourfulness, movement/stillness, gestures, facial expressions)?

Take in the picture

- What is particularly noteworthy about the picture?
- What do you like about it?
- What is characteristic of the picture?
- How do you feel when you look at the picture?
- Which part of the picture is the most beautiful?
- Which words come to mind when you look at the picture?

Discuss the picture

- Describe the picture in your own words.
- Tell one another what is meaningful, striking or important in the picture.
- Ask one another questions about the picture.
- Give short commands to one another, such as search for, find, show, explain ...
- Discuss such questions as: Why were these pictures chosen? Which pictures complement the text that belongs to the pictures? Which pictures clash with what is written in the text?

Work with the pictures

- Choose a picture and act out the scene you see there.
- Introduce the person that you see in the picture.
- Alter the pictures and comment on them.
- Compare historical pictures with the pictures you have.

- Explain what would have been difficult to understand in the text if you hadn't had the pictures to help you.
- Add suitable pictures that complement the text.
- Compare the pictures and appraise them. Do you like them? If not, why not?
- Write a description of the picture.
- Think about what happened just before the picture was taken or painted/drawn.
- Think about what would happen if the picture were to come alive.
- Add some speech bubbles with text to the picture.
- Describe the smells and sounds that the picture makes you think of.
- Collect pictures of similar subjects.

Interpret the picture

- What title would you give the picture?
- Where was the picture taken or painted/drawn?
- What did the photographer/artist want to say with this picture?
- Why was this picture taken or painted/drawn?

Toolbox for students

Tool 8: Mind maps

A mind map helps you to organise your thoughts. This is what the term literally means. Mind maps can be useful in many different situations when you have to think about a specific topic: gathering ideas, preparing for a presentation, planning a project, etc.

Look at the mind map below:

- What are the main categories? What are the subcategories?
- Would you have added more terms? If so, which ones?

Instructions for creating a mind map

- Write the name of your topic in the middle of your piece of paper and draw a circle around it. Be sure to use paper that is large enough.
- Draw a few thick lines radiating out from the circle. On each line, write the name of one sub-topic related to the main topic in the middle.
- From the thick lines, you can draw additional, thinner lines that represent subcategories or questions related to the sub-topic written on the thick line.
- Try to find as many different terms as you can and place them in the correct categories. You can use different font sizes, symbols and colours.

Compare your mind map with those of your classmates

- What do you notice?
- In what ways are your mind maps similar?
- In what ways are they different?
- What are the most important terms?
- Does the organisation of the subcategories make sense?
- Is anything important missing?
- What would you do differently next time?

Toolbox for students

Tool 9: Creating posters

A poster allows you to record your work and present it to your classmates. It is important that a poster is organised in a way that makes people pay attention. It should make the observers curious to find out more.

In a small group, examine the important features of a successful poster and think about what elements you can integrate into your own poster.

If you have already prepared your poster, you can use these features as a checklist to evaluate another poster.

Checklist

Title: should be short and interesting; visible from a distance.

Writing: should be large enough and legible. If you use the computer, don't use too many different fonts. Write short sentences that are visible from a distance.

Pictures, photographs, graphics: these should support what you have to say and make the poster interesting. Limit yourself to a few impressive ones.

Presentation: where should the title, headings, bullets, symbols, boxes, photographs or pictures go? Sketch out your poster before you begin.

Put it together carefully: the poster should fill the chosen format but shouldn't be cramped.

Toolbox for students

Tool 10: Holding exhibitions

An exhibition helps groups of students to present their work so that others (the class or invited guests) can get an idea of what the groups did. The following checklist can help you plan and hold an exhibition.

Checklist

1. What do we want to demonstrate?

- What is the main message that our exhibition is trying to get across?
- What could the title of our exhibition be?

2. Who is the audience?

- Children and teachers from our school?
- Parents and siblings?
- Clients from a tourist office?

3. Where will the exhibition take place?

- In the classroom or somewhere in the school?
- In a public place (at the town hall, for example)?
- Will there be enough space and light?
- Will we be able to have the infrastructure we need?

4. How do we hold a memorable exhibition?

- Allow models and objects to be touched?
- Allow room for playing, trying things out, observing, or experimenting?
- Play music or perform it ourselves?
- Offer snacks?
- Offer a guided tour of the exhibition?
- Create a flyer as a guide to the exhibition?
- Create a contest or a quiz?

5. Who has to be informed beforehand?

- Teachers in our school?
- Caretakers?
- School board members?
- The head teacher?
- Experts who can help us?
- Guests?

6. What do we have to do?

- Create a personal checklist?
- Create a list of materials?

- Create a time plan (who does what by when)?
- Know how much money is available and how much has been used?
- Create a flyer or an invitation?
- Inform the local newspapers?

7. How will the exhibition be evaluated?

- What are the most important criteria?
- Who will evaluate the exhibition (teachers, classmates, guests)?

Toolbox for students

Tool 11: Planning and giving presentations

You can make a speech to your classmates, your parents or other children in your school. In any case, you've got to prepare your speech well. The following checklist will help you do this.

Planning a speech

1. Who will be listening?

– Where should you give your speech?

2. Who is making the speech?

– Are you making your speech alone or with a group?

– How has the group organised itself?

3. What is the goal of the speech?

– What should the audience learn?

– Should the audience give you feedback?

4. How much time do you have?

– Should you leave time for the audience to ask questions?

– Should you leave time for the audience to provide you with feedback?

5. What resources are available?

– Blackboard/whiteboard?

– Overhead projector?

– Computer and projector for a PowerPoint presentation?

– Posters (flipchart)?

– Stereo?

6. How can you involve your audience?

– Give time for asking questions.

– Create a puzzle or a quiz.

– Pass around objects.

7. What do you want to say?

– Think about three to six headings that are important for your topic and write them down on an individual sheet of paper.

– On each piece of paper, note down a few key words about each heading.

Giving the speech

A presentation can be divided into different parts: an introduction, the main part and a conclusion. Here you are some ideas to help you give your speech.

1. Introduction

– Start with a relevant quotation, or by showing a relevant picture or object.

- Present the main topic.
- Explain how the speech will be structured.

2. Main part

- Inform the audience about the subject of the speech.
- Put the previously prepared sheets showing the headings and information in order.
- Organise the speech according to these headings.
- Each time you begin with a new heading, make this clear using a picture or explanation.
- Present a relevant picture, object, or piece of music under each heading.
- Think about how you will show the pictures – for example, whether you will pass them around, draw them on a transparency or display them on a poster.

3. Conclusion

- Say what was new for you.
- Say what you learned.
- Show one final picture.
- Quiz your classmates.
- Allow time for questions.

Toolbox for students

Tool 12: Preparing overhead transparencies or a PowerPoint presentation

PowerPoint presentations or overhead transparencies shown on an overhead projector are often used during presentations and the same rules apply to both.

When creating a transparency/slide, pay attention that:

- the font is clear and legible;
- only one font is used;
- the print is large;
- there's enough space between the lines;
- there's not much text on each transparency/slide;
- the transparencies/slides are clean with no black toner or copy marks;
- there are enough large, visible pictures, maps and graphics;
- there are only a few different colours and symbols;
- there are not too many transparencies/slides.

Which is better: overhead transparencies or a PowerPoint presentation?

There are advantages and disadvantages to each. Here you will find a few important hints that can make it easier for you to choose between using overhead transparencies or a PowerPoint presentation.

Which form of presentation is right for your needs?

Read through the following points to help you choose.

Overhead transparencies are good if:

- you have fewer than five transparencies to show;
- you want to show or explain something in between showing the transparencies;
- you want to write on a transparency during the presentation;
- you only want to show one picture on each transparency;
- you want to cover and uncover something on the picture;
- you want to share the task in your group and assign one transparency to each group member.

PowerPoint presentations are good if:

- you have a lot of information to present;
- you have a large number of slides;
- you want to show pieces of information one after another on the same slide;
- you want to show something from the Internet during your presentation;
- you want to show a video clip, a digital image or something that has been saved onto your computer;
- you want to use the video at a later point in time or put it together in another way.

Toolbox for students

Tool 13: Writing newspaper articles

In order to inform others about your topic, you can try playing the role of a reporter and write an article for a newspaper. In EDC/HRE, writing an article is also a way of making topics public. This can help to change things that are bad in society.

A newspaper article is divided into different sections:

- headline: should be short and clear;
- lead paragraph: an introduction to the topic in very few and rather short sentences;
- authors: who wrote the article?
- running text: the article itself;
- headings: to help the reader to see “chapters”;
- picture: a meaningful picture relevant to the text with a short explanation underneath.

Checklist

- Compare a newspaper article from today’s newspaper with the example you see above. Can you find the different sections?
- Highlight the sections using different colours.
- Pay attention to the font styles (bold, normal, italics).
- Compare your newspaper article with those of your classmates.
- Use these sections in your own newspaper article.

Toolbox for students

Tool 14: Putting on performances

Acting out stories is a good way of reflecting human life. You can also create scenes using a picture, a piece of music or an object. When you act, you take on a role. This means that you try to take on the feelings of a specific person and act these out. After the performance, everybody will be able to think about which parts of the performance appeared "real" and which parts were imagined.

"Free" performing

- Write down key words that represent the performance.
- Decide who will play which role and what is important to remember in each role.
- Gather all the necessary materials.
- Rehearse the performance.
- Get the stage ready.
- Enjoy the show.

Afterwards, discuss the following questions:

- What could you see?
- Did everybody understand everything?
- What was particularly good?
- Was something missing in your opinion?
- What was a bit too exaggerated?
- What questions do we have about the content?

Creating a performance from a text

Read the story together and create scenes:

- Who was involved? Where did it take place?
- How did the people deal with the situation? What did they say?
- How did others react?
- How did the story end?
- Decide upon the number of acts in the performance.
- Who will play which role? What costumes will be necessary?
- Rehearse your performance.
- Evaluate your performance together with your classmates.

Creating a performance from an image

- Look for a picture that could be used as the basis for a play.
- Imagine yourself in the picture.
- Gather ideas: how did/do the people you see in the picture live? What are they happy about? What are they unhappy about?
- Create a performance using this picture and note down key words for each scene.

- Decide upon the number of acts in the performance.
- Decide who will play which role and what is important in this role.
- Rehearse the performance and find props.
- Get the stage ready and invite the guests.
- Evaluate your performance together with your classmates.

Toolbox for students

Tool 15: Holding debates

A debate can help to make us aware of various opinions about a topic and to understand the advantages and disadvantages of controversial issues. In order to hold a debate, there needs to be a controversial question that can be answered with a yes or a no. In a democracy, there is always more than one solution or one opinion.

Two opinions – a debate

Here's how it works:

- Divide your class into two groups. One group is "for" (in favour of) the issue, the other group is "against" the issue.
- Each group finds possible arguments[48] to support their opinion. They should also put together arguments that go against the opinion of the other group.
- Note down your argument using key words.
- Each group designates two speakers.
- The debate is organised in three parts: the opening round, an open debate, and the closing round:
  - → the opening round: each speaker briefly explains his or her argument. The "pros" group and the "cons"[49] group take turns presenting;
  - → the debate: the speakers present their arguments and try to counter the opposing side's arguments;
  - → the closing round: this round has the same procedure as the opening round. Each person has the possibility to summarise his or her opinion.

The timekeeper

Choose someone from your class who is responsible for keeping the time during the debate.

- The opening round should last no more than eight minutes (each person can speak for two minutes).
- The debate should last no more than six minutes.
- The closing round should last no more than four minutes (one minute per person).
- If somebody goes over the allotted time, a bell is rung.

Observers

Students who are not speakers during the debate observe what happens. After the debate, they say what they noticed using the following points as a basis:

- Which arguments were presented?
- Who will implement what and how?
- Was each speaker allowed to speak or were they interrupted?
- How did different speakers try to get their message across?
- Which arguments were convincing?
- What examples of good arguments were presented?
- Which words were used frequently?
- How did the speakers speak (using body language, were they loud enough, with inflection)?

48. Argument: a statement that is formulated to support a claim.

49. Pros and cons: this means "for" and "against".

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