



Rolf Gollob, Peter Krapf, Wiltrud Weidinger (editors)

Taking part in democracy

Lesson plans for upper secondary level
on democratic citizenship and human rights education

Publishing
Editions



Taking part in democracy

EDC/HRE lesson plans for upper secondary level

Edited by Rolf Gollob, Peter Krapf and Wiltrud Weidinger

Author: Peter Krapf

Illustrated by Peti Wiskemann

Volume IV

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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Collaborators

Emir Adzovic – Bosnia and Herzegovina

Manuela Droll – Germany

Christian Fallegger – Switzerland

Rolf Gollob – Switzerland

Sarah Keating-Chetwynd – Council of Europe

Sabrina Marruncheddu Krause – Switzerland

Olöf Olafsdottir – Council of Europe

Karen O'Shea – Republic of Ireland

Wim Taelman – Belgium

Wiltrud Weidinger – Switzerland

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Introduction

1. What does this manual offer? – A brief outline

This manual contains nine teaching units in Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) and Human Rights Education (HRE). As both the title, *Taking part in democracy* and the cover picture indicate, the units in this manual address students in their role as young citizens. Each unit offers a specific approach to empower and encourage the students to participate in their communities.

Each unit can be used by itself, or combined with other units in many different ways. The whole manual comprises a curriculum of competence training for taking part in democracy.

The units, consisting of four lessons each, are intended for students at upper secondary level (grades 10-12). Each unit focuses on a key concept related to EDC and HRE: identity – responsibility – diversity and pluralism – conflict – rules and law – government and politics – equality – liberty – media. This set of nine key concepts links this manual to the companion volumes for primary level and lower secondary level (EDC/HRE, volumes II and III).¹ Together, the three volumes provide a spiral curriculum of key concepts in EDC and HRE.

Each unit focuses on a key concept and consists of four lessons. For each lesson, a sequence of suggested teaching steps is described in detail, as far as this is reasonably possible. Handouts are supplied in a separate manual for students.

This book therefore addresses teachers, not students. We hope that trainees and those new to the teaching profession will appreciate the detailed lesson plans, but perhaps experienced teachers will find also ideas and materials they may integrate into their classes. Teacher trainers might use this book as a manual for training EDC and HRE teachers.

This manual also addresses curriculum developers and textbook editors and translators in the member states of the Council of Europe. It may be translated and adapted to meet the specific requirements within their education systems.

The Council of Europe presents this manual in a revised version. The first edition was developed in Bosnia and Herzegovina to support a newly introduced school subject, Democracy and Human Rights (2002). Since 1996, the Council of Europe had been engaged in training teachers and teacher trainers in EDC and HRE by providing in-service training and developing materials. Rolf Gollob and Peter Krapf (co-editors), belonged to the international team of trainers that participated in this project.

2. What is EDC/HRE? – The three dimensions of EDC/HRE


The goals and principles of Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education (EDC/HRE) are linked to three dimensions of teaching and learning. Students at upper secondary level are young citizens who:

- should know what their human rights are and have understood the conditions they depend on (learning **about** democracy and human rights);
- have experienced school as a micro-community that respects the liberty and equality of its students, and have been trained in exercising their human rights (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. EDC/HRE Volume II: *Growing up in democracy* – EDC/HRE lesson plans for primary level; EDC/HRE Volume III: *Living in democracy* – EDC/HRE lesson plans for lower secondary level.

This brief outline of EDC/HRE can be best explained by an example – the right to free opinion and expression. The introduction to EDC/HRE Volume III (p. 5) addresses the same example; in this manual, reflection on this human right is taken a few steps further (spiral curriculum).

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

In EDC/HRE classes at secondary level, students should surely study key documents such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (European Convention on Human Rights; ECHR) (see  student handouts 2.5 and 2.6). They should know that every person enjoys the right to free thought and expression, and free access to information through uncensored media (ECHR, Article 10). The students should understand how important, indeed indispensable, this right alone is to making democracy come to life.

Students should also understand Article 14 of the ECHR. It adds to the freedom of thought, expression and information the key principle of equality and non-discrimination: men and women, rich and poor, young and old, nationals and immigrants – we all enjoy these rights equally.

Finally, the students should understand why liberties require a framework of laws and that they 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 equalising differences. Rules cannot take care of every problem, so the members of a community must share an attitude of responsibility towards each other.

Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (European Convention on Human Rights; 4 November 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.

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 December 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 framing of liberty through a public order that both limits and protects these liberties.

Students who can explain this have learnt a lot about democracy and human rights, and the reader will see that this key theme runs through all the units in this manual. This is the cognitive dimension of EDC/HRE.

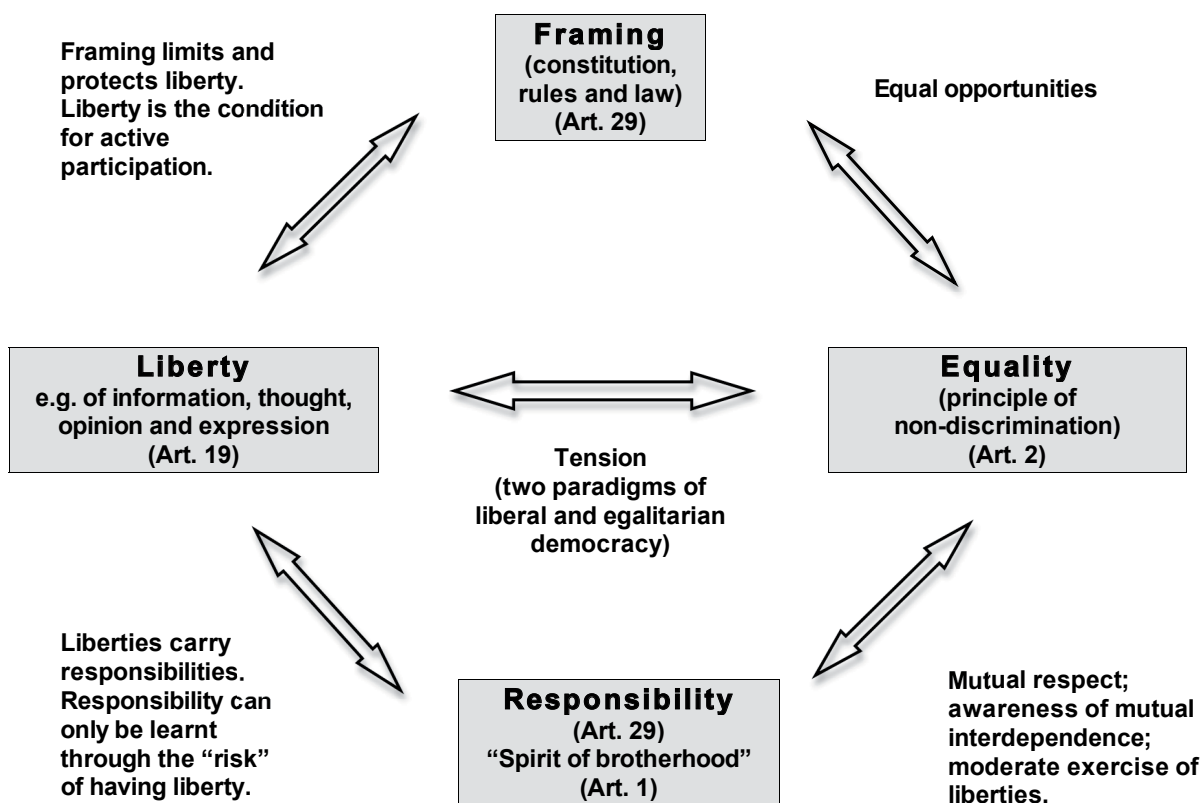


Diagram: The "architecture" of human rights – the leitmotif of this manual

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

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, reminds us that students should learn how to exercise their rights to liberty, for example their right to free access to information, and to free thought, opinion and expression. They should also have active experience in interacting with others – for example, 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 that may be imposed 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 of and links between the three human rights articles addressed above, but also have learned to appreciate their underlying values and act accordingly. In doing so, they must be able to balance their own 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.

Young citizens who wish to take part in democracy need a set of multidimensional competencies that are shown in the model below.

| | |
|---|--------------------|
| Competencies of participation and political decision making | |
| Competencies of analysis and judgment | Methods and skills |
| Human-rights-based attitudes and values | |

These competencies should be value-oriented; in the hands of racists, for example, they would turn into a threat to a democratic community.

This manual focuses on developing such competencies. The introduction to each unit includes a matrix that allows users to combine units so as to design curricula of competence training, depending, for example, on their students' learning needs or specific requirements of their school curriculum. Here is the competence chart for unit 2 (key concept: responsibility).

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|---|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Political decision making and action | |
| 2 Responsibility | Understanding dilemma issues Analysing consequences of a decision Defining priorities and giving reasons | Careful consideration and thinking Sharing reasons and criteria for a decision | Making decisions with incomplete information Awareness of the risk of failure | Switching perspectives Recognition of the interests and rights of others Human-rights-based community |
| 1 Identity | Understanding the impact of our choices on others | | | Switching perspectives |
| 4 Conflict | Sustainability dilemma | Negotiation strategies | Conflict resolution | |
| 6 Government and politics | Politics – a process of solving problems and resolving conflict | | | |
| 7 Equality | Appreciation of the cultural dimension of democracy | | Balancing majority and minority rights | Mutual recognition |

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

Taking part in democracy is a demanding business – the competencies can, and must, be learned and developed in school. EDC/HRE therefore has a cultural dimension. The culture of teaching and learning must reflect the message of EDC/HRE. One way to acquire knowledge is through instruction (listening to a lecture, reading); competencies are developed through training (demonstration, practice and coaching). Self-esteem and values of mutual respect are acquired through a process of socialisation in school. The experience in class and the role models set by parents, teachers and peers influence a young person's development of attitudes and values. While teaching about democracy and human rights is a task assigned to special subjects (e.g. social studies, history, civic education), teaching through democracy and human rights is a challenge for the whole school – human rights and democracy become the school community's pedagogical guideline.

This manual adopts the approach of task-based learning: each unit contains a key task that gives the students the opportunity to develop specific competences. We develop our competencies as we need them, which is why these tasks address problems for which no clear-cut solution exists – as is the case in real life. In EDC/HRE, the method carries an important part of the message.

3. The conceptual framework of this manual – the three “Cs” in EDC/HRE (Challenges, Constructivism, Competencies)

Young citizens who take part in democracy do so as free individuals with equal rights, but unequal opportunities.

As members of dynamic pluralist societies that are globally interdependent, they face increasingly complex **challenges** (e.g. climate change, exhaustion of natural resources, failing states) for which school cannot provide any concrete solutions, but can offer **competence training** to equip the young generation with tools with which to develop solutions.

How such challenges are to be met is a matter of trial and error and negotiation of compromises between different interests. The outcome of such decision-making processes can be understood as an attempt to achieve the goal of the common good. The result is always incomplete, and immediately open to critical discussion and improvement. A pluralist democracy therefore has a **constructivist** approach to policy making. Democracy is therefore a precarious state that literally depends on the competencies and responsibility of every generation. And **constructivism** is also the principle behind competence development – again a never-ending process.

These then are the “three Cs” – the core concepts that run through every unit and every learning step of this manual:

- **Challenges** in dynamic pluralist democratic communities;
- **Competencies** of taking part in democracy;
- **Constructivism** as a paradigm of democratic decision making and competence development.

Within each unit, a key concept of EDC/HRE is linked to specific challenges that create learning opportunities for constructivist competence development. Therefore, the concepts do not deliver nine isolated modules of cognitive learning. Rather, they create a network of skills, values and perspectives that are linked with each other in many ways. The following matrix outlines the conceptual framework of the manual.

| | Constructivist reading... | |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| Unit No. Key concept | ... of key concepts as challenges: | ... of competence development as a lifelong process. The students are trained ... |
| Unit 1 Identity | What job shall I choose? Who will my partner be? Do we want to have children? ... | to reflect on, articulate and prioritise their personal interests and goals |
| Unit 2 Responsibility | What are the consequences of my decisions? What is my priority in a dilemma? What values and principles do I adhere to? | to take responsibility in handling dilemmas – collecting information, considering consequences, defining priorities, making choices |
| Unit 3 Diversity and pluralism | What are my interests? What compromise do I suggest? What do we define as the common good? | to negotiate fair and efficient compromises in pluralist and competitive settings |

| | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| Unit 4 Conflict | What is the problem? What interests are involved? What solution is desirable, and feasible? | to resolve conflicts of interest by non-violent means |
| Unit 5 Rules and law | What rules do we need to govern our behaviour? What rules can we agree on? | to appreciate the function of institutional frameworks – constitutions, laws, rules and shared values |
| Unit 6 Government and politics | What issues are taken onto, and excluded from, the political agenda? What problem is under discussion? What is the solution, and how is it implemented? | to understand and participate in democratic decision-making processes – within and outside of institutional settings |
| Unit 7 Equality | What are the interests of the majority and the minority? What compromise do I suggest? What must the minority accept? In what way are the interests of a group protected by human rights? | to support social cohesion by balancing the interests of majority and minority groups |
| Unit 8 Liberty | What is my key point? What is my strategy of argument? What is my opponent's strategy? | to exercise freedom of thought and speech through their debating skills |
| Unit 9 The media | Whom do I want to address? What is my goal? What is my message? Where do I find the information? | to make use of the potential of media-based communication |

4. The "European approach" to EDC/HRE

For over a decade, the Council of Europe has initiated the development and implementation of EDC/HRE in its member states. EDC co-ordinators, experts, teachers and trainers from many member states have participated in the discussions that have encouraged the editors and authors to produce this six-volume series for practitioners.

EDC/HRE stands for a "European approach" to teaching democratic citizenship and human rights. In the specific contexts of our schools and education systems, our traditions of teaching and learning, the dimensions of teaching "about" and "for" democracy and human rights may differ. But we share the understanding that EDC/HRE stands for a pedagogical guideline for the school as a whole. We agree that in EDC/HRE the method carries the message – teaching through democracy and human rights.

With this EDC/HRE edition, the editors and authors attempt to reap the harvest of the EDC/HRE process in the Council of Europe. The sources of support that I received when writing this manual reflect the "European approach". In particular, I wish to mention the following.

Ms Manuela Droll and Ms Karen O'Shea were my co-authors in producing a forerunner version to this manual for EDC teacher training in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Mr Emir Adzovic, the co-ordinator of the Council of Europe EDC/HRE project in Bosnia and Herzegovina, provided the organisational

framework for our project. We developed the framework of key concepts with Mr Don Rowe, Mr Ted Huddleston and Mr Wim Taelman. Don read some of our first drafts, and Ted was one of our most critical, and constructive, partners in discussion.

Ms Olöf Olafsdottir and Ms Sarah Keating-Chetwynd were our partners and co-ordinators for this project in the Council of Europe. With patience and determination, they saw this project through.

Peti Wiskemann has enriched this manual with a cover image that provides rich and stimulating comment on the key topics of the nine units, and a puzzle on the corresponding key concepts. Ms Wiltrud Weidinger and Mr Rolf Gollob supported me as co-editors and partners in countless discussions.

My co-operation with Mr Christian Fallegger stands out in several respects. He had discussions with me during the early stages of writing, contributing valuable ideas and suggestions, and later read the final draft of this manual; all the way along, his critical and constructive feedback kept me busy.

Without the support and inspiration of all these colleagues, collaborators and friends I could not have written this book. I am deeply grateful to all of them; however, I remain responsible for any fault or error that the reader may find.

Peter Krapf
Zürich and Ulm,
December 2009

Key to the symbols used in the text

The two symbols below are intended to help the reader to identify the categories of materials included in this manual, as their numbers may be confusing.



Materials for teachers

Materials for teachers have been added as supplements at the end of each unit.



Student handouts

The unit descriptions frequently refer to student handouts. These have been included in a separate manual for students that has been integrated into this volume and which can be printed out as a whole or in parts and distributed to the students.

Interactive constructivist learning in EDC/HRE

Outline

1. Key questions on didactics in EDC/HRE
2. An example of interactive constructivist learning – young pupils imagine their ideal world
3. Every person learns differently – “We create the world in our minds”
4. Constructivist learning and social interaction
5. What is the teacher's role in processes of constructivist learning?
6. What is the teacher's role in EDC/HRE?
 - 6.1 The teacher as lecturer and instructor – to support and enrich construction
 - 6.2 The teacher as critic and corrector – to support deconstruction
 - 6.3 The teacher as creator and provider of application tasks – to support reconstruction
 - 6.4 The teacher as chair in plenary sessions – to support all forms of constructivist learning
7. Democracies as communities of learners – a constructivist approach to the key concepts in EDC/HRE

Interactive constructivist learning in EDC/HRE

1. Key questions on didactics in EDC/HRE

In EDC/HRE, as in teaching generally, it is important for the teacher to reflect on the objectives of and to clarify the reasons for the choices that must inevitably be made and the priorities that must be set.

1. What must students learn in EDC/HRE?

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.

2. Why and for what should students acquire these competences?

Democracy depends on citizens who are willing and able to take part in decision making, and to take office in its institutions. Students need these competences and skills to be able to exercise their human and civil rights and to perform their roles as active citizens (“learning for” democracy and human rights).

3. This raises a further question. If this is what young citizens should learn – in terms of learning output – what must EDC/HRE teachers do to ensure this?

EDC/HRE teachers must deliver inputs to support their students’:

- knowledge and conceptual learning – “learning about” democracy and human rights;
- skills training; and
- teachers must also provide role models and learning environments for attitudes and values that are supportive of a democratic culture (tolerance, mutual respect, appreciation of human rights) – “learning through” democracy and human rights.

4. The three questions above have already been addressed in the introduction to this manual. However, one important question remains: how do students learn in EDC/HRE?

As EDC/HRE teachers, we must have some understanding of how our students’ processes of learning take place and how we can support them. To answer the question on how our students learn, we have adopted a conceptual framework of **interactive constructivist learning**. With this approach, we link “learning through” democracy and human rights in EDC/HRE classes to political decision-making processes in democracy. Decision-making processes in democracies are essentially collective processes of learning. This is the reason why John Dewey conceived of school “as a miniature community, as an embryonic society”.² In this chapter we put forward our understanding of interactive constructivist learning. We believe it helps EDC/HRE teachers to better understand:

- their students’ processes of learning in EDC/HRE;
- their role to support their students in learning;
- that democratic decision making is a process of collective learning.

Teaching and learning in EDC/HRE and politics in democracy can both be perceived from a constructivist perspective. This is possible and useful due to the structural analogies between constructivist learning and democratic decision making. Both EDC/HRE classes and democratic communities are,

2. John Dewey, *The School and Society*, New York, 2007, p. 32.

or at least should be, learning communities governed by human rights. Therefore interactive constructivism reinforces the basic approach of EDC/HRE – teaching through, for and about democracy and human rights: it is good teaching, it serves human rights, and also supports the learning needs of students and citizens.

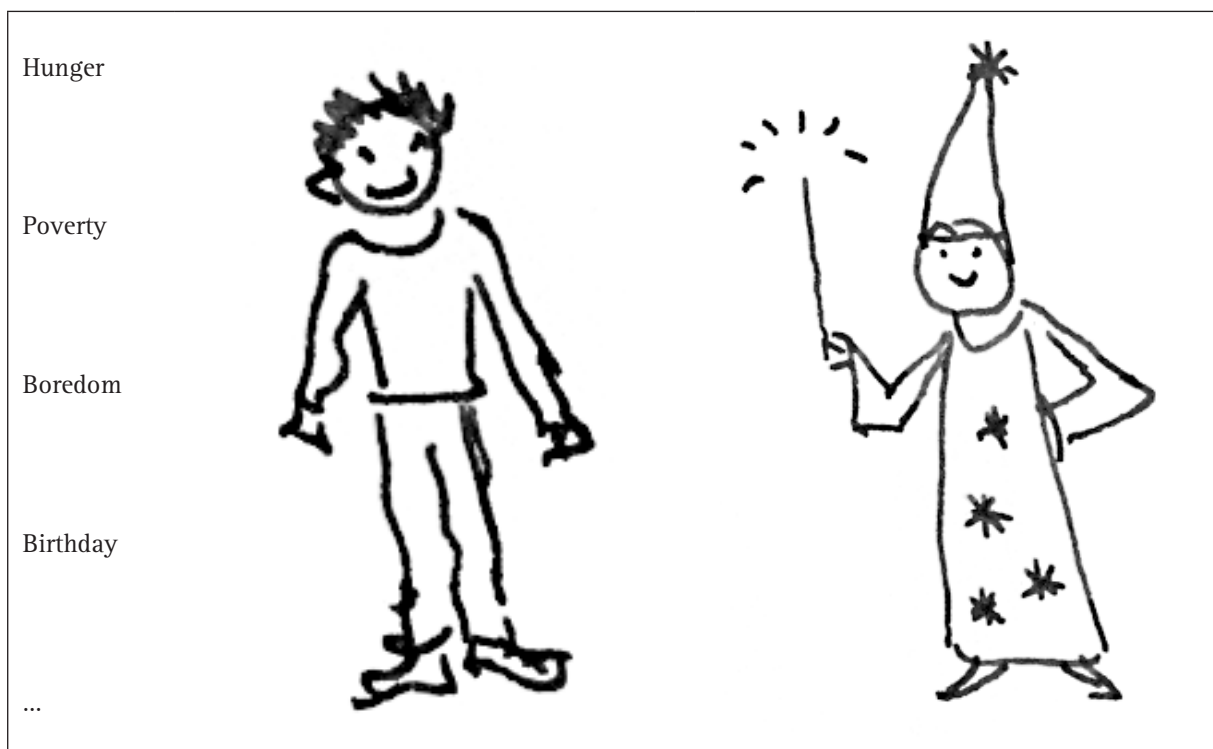
Theory is best introduced by a concrete example. The following section therefore illustrates the potential of interactive constructivist learning in children’s rights education.

2. An example of interactive constructivist learning – young pupils imagine their ideal world

Volume V of this EDC/HRE series, *Exploring children’s rights*, includes a four-lesson unit for third grade pupils entitled, “We are wizards!”³ It encourages the pupils to express their wishes and ideas as to how the world should be, and in the follow-up discussion, they explore the moral and political implications of their wishes for the future world.

The first lesson begins in the following way:

“The teacher draws two persons on the board: an ordinary woman or man and a wizard.



In pairs, the children should also draw the two figures and try to answer the following questions together:

- What does the ordinary person do in certain situations?
- What does the wizard do in the same situations?

After a few minutes, the teacher assembles the pupils in a semicircle in front of the blackboard to give every child a good view (in big classes, a double semicircle may be necessary). He or she collects all the pupils’ answers in a list on the board – without commenting or judging. We suggest the following table to integrate the pupils’ ideas.

3. Rolf Gollob / Peter Krapf, EDC/HRE, Volume V: *Exploring children’s rights*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, 2007, “We are wizards!”, pp. 22–26; c.f. EDC/HRE Volume VI, *Teaching democracy*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, 2008, Exercise 6.3, “If I were a magician”, p. 59.

We look at the solutions and let the children give their comments. Of course, now questions will arise! The teacher wants to know:

- Can you see any solutions or ideas that have been made by a good or a bad wizard?
- When did you last wish you were a wizard, and what did you want to change then?
- What is your biggest wish right now?

The teacher encourages the pupils to come forward with their ideas and gives them all positive support. (...)"

This example demonstrates some important aspects of how students and teachers interact in constructivist learning settings:

| The teacher ... | The pupils ... |
|---|--|
| ... sets an open task that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – requires the pupils to switch perspectives (reality–utopia); – supports the pupils’ freedom of thought and expression. | ... develop and share their ideas; |
| ... collects the pupils’ ideas on the board; | ... express and share their ideas; |
| ... adds structure (keywords and concepts); | (in the example, their ideas have a personal and a political dimension) |
| ... improvises in doing so, reacting to the pupils’ inputs; | ... think about their wishes and their experience of limits and restrictions on those wishes in real life; |
| ... asks questions to help the students explore the reasons for and implications of their ideas; | ... discover the difference between “good” and “bad” wizardry. |
| ... encourages the pupils and gives positive feedback. | |

A basic principle of constructivist learning is that the pupil’s outlook matters. In this case:

- How do pupils perceive the world they live in?
- How do they judge what is happening around them?
- What would they change if they could?
- What is their most serious concern – the one at the top of their personal agenda?
- What views do they share in class – in what respect do they differ?
- It is also apparent that the pupils judge what is happening in their world, and their judgment strongly influences the way in which they will take action and participate.⁴

In constructivist learning, learners are allowed to act in the role of experts. Teaching arrangements focus on what students already know, rather than what they do *not* know. In the role of wizards, every child can contribute an idea, and there is no “right or wrong” standard. Rather, the reasons why a child expresses a certain vision is important – what experiences are involved? What concerns the child? What are the boy’s or girl’s wants and needs? Constructivist learning takes the individual learner’s perspective and process of learning and thinking into account.

Constructivist learning is an exercise of human and children’s rights – freedom of thought, opinion, and expression; equality of opportunity; principles of mutual recognition and non-discrimination; and the right to education.

4. EDC/HRE can, and therefore should, be taught to very young children. EDC/HRE Volume V begins with a unit for children at kindergarten level who have not yet learnt to read and write. See Unit 1, “I have a name – we have a school”, pp. 13-16.

In constructivist learning settings, the teacher's task is to support the pupils in many ways – he/she provides a task-based and/or problem-based framework, respects the pupils' rights of liberty and equality, gives guidance, encouragement and instruction (concepts). The teacher does not know the answers the pupils will give, and is willing and prepared to work with their inputs (improvisation). The pupils must have the opportunity to share and compare their ideas, and often their topic or task requires them to reach a joint understanding or to make a decision. The teacher acts as a facilitator; he/she can anticipate, but cannot predetermine the outcomes of the students' processes of learning.

Constructivist learning supports competence development rather than the intake of a set of facts. From a constructivist point of view, every knowledge-based curriculum can be challenged, and it is doubtful whether anyone can "learn" by memorising isolated facts without understanding and appreciating them.

The following section explores this issue in somewhat more detail. It looks at some aspects of learning theory in interactive constructivism and links them to a constructivist concept of democratic decision making.

3. Every person learns differently – "We create the world in our minds"

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" movie based on the story. Our imagination had produced a far better one, and it is unique, as every reader's mind produces a different "movie".

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. 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, or fill in the gap by guessing. Stereotypes help to simplify complicated matters.⁵

With experience, teachers find out that when they give a lecture, each student receives and stores a slightly 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 was not meaningful for them. From a constructivist perspective, it is important what happens in the students' minds.

Constructivism conceives learning as a highly individualised process:

- Learners construct 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 give each learner a unique outlook.
- We possess different forms of intelligence that go far beyond the conventional understanding of being good at maths or languages.⁶
- There is no absolute standard for personal or political relevance. Something becomes a problem because a person defines it to be so, and the learner's mind selects the information that will be remembered or forgotten.

5. See Rolf Gollob / Peter Krapf (eds), EDC/HRE Volume III: *Living in democracy*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, 2008, Unit 1, "Stereotypes and prejudices. What is identity? How do I see others, how do they see me?" pp. 19-38.

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

4. Constructivist learning and social interaction

So far we have looked at the individual learner's perspective. Learners seek for meaning, but learners also make mistakes. How are they to be corrected? From a constructivist perspective, it is the learner who must deconstruct, or dismantle, what is wrong and rebuild it. But how does an individual learner become aware of the mistakes he or she has made? There two ways for a learner to overcome shortcomings and mistakes.

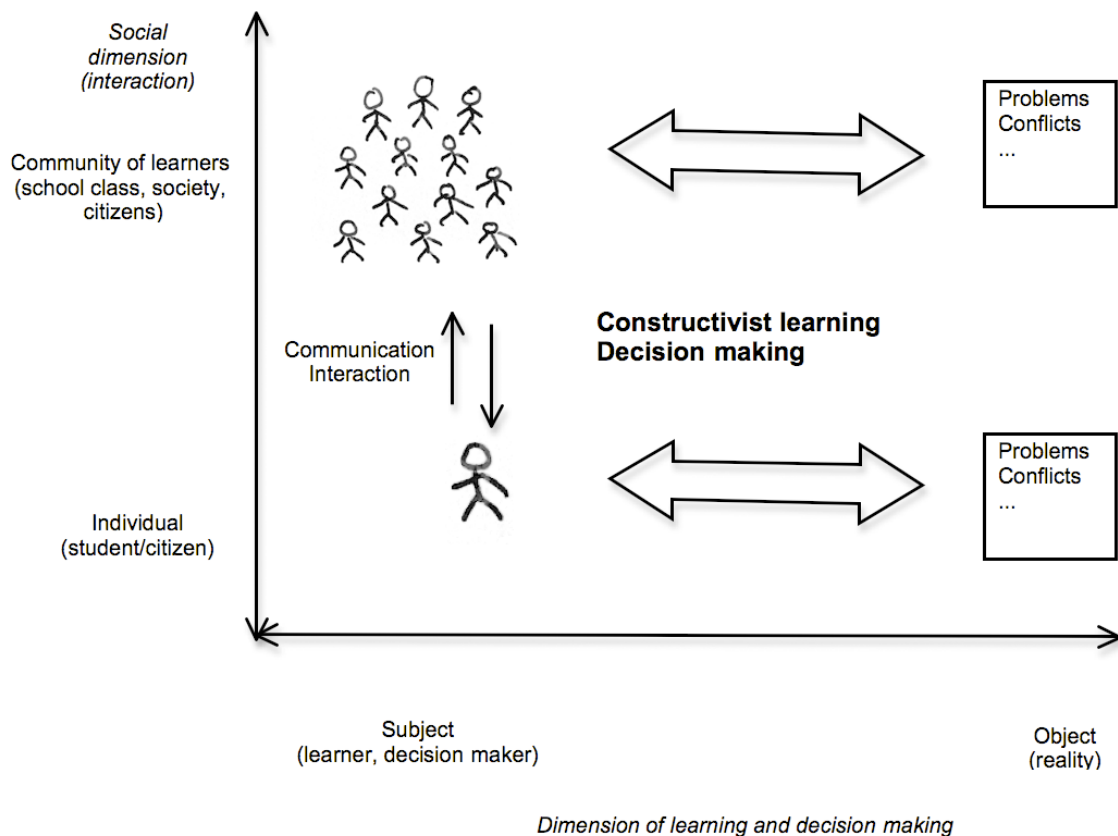
First, we discover our mistakes ourselves. We find out that our solution to a problem does not work, or a line of argument does not make sense.

Second, we depend on others to tell us, and often to help us.

Constructivist learning is therefore not only a highly individualised process. It also has a second, equally important, dimension of collective learning. Learners must share their ideas through interaction and communication with each other and with their teachers. For this reason, we have termed our concept **interactive constructivist learning**.

The following diagram illustrates the individual and social level of constructivist learning; this is the social dimension of constructivist learning.

It also shows that learners always refer to the world outside their minds. When they put their ideas and plans to the test, it is the world of objects that is their point of reference. This is the subject-object dimension of constructivist learning.



Both students in class, and citizens in a democratic state interact as communities of learners. We already referred to John Dewey, who conceived of school "as a miniature community, as an embryonic society".⁷ Therefore the interaction that students experience in school with each other and with their teachers is part of real life, rather than an artificial arrangement to prepare them for real life later on.

7. John Dewey, *The School and Society*, New York, 2007, p. 32.

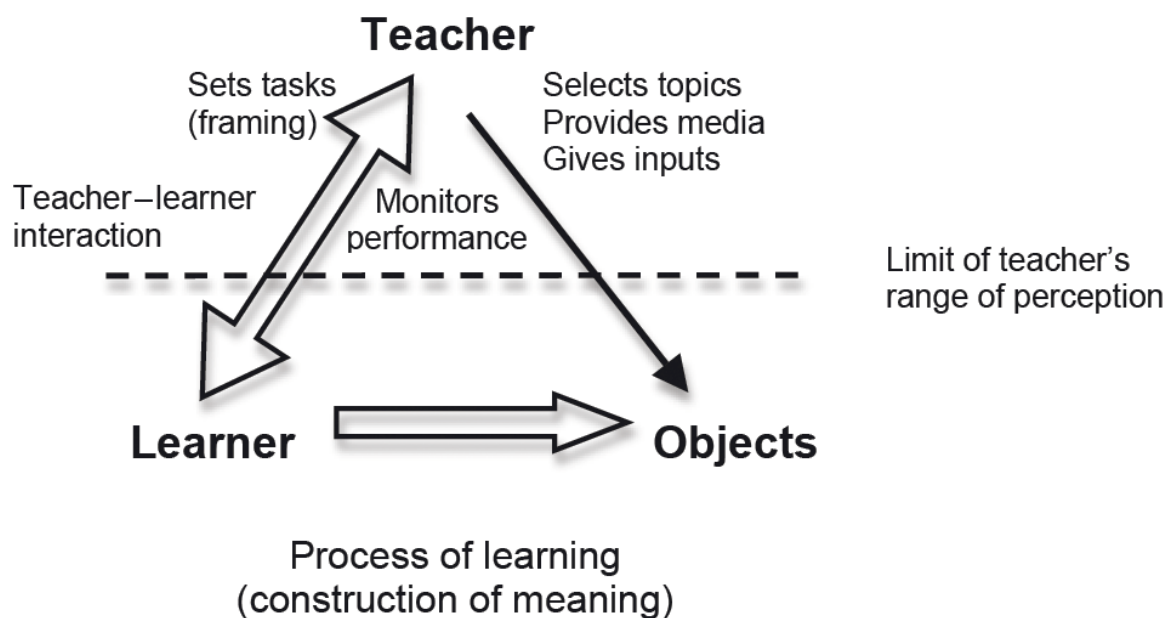
Both in politics and in school, there are always members present with higher levels of experience, knowledge, understanding, and also power – teachers, political leaders, managers, scientists and so on. However, in modern societies none of these players exercises absolute power. Democracy and the rule of law (should) set limits to any player’s powers, and these limits are reflected by the division of labour, confining every player to being a specialist in a certain field.

However, there is a serious threat to the democratic pledge that everyone has the equal opportunity to take part in democracy. The more complex our societies and the problems to be solved become, the more the individual citizen depends on his or her competences to take part in democracy. More than ever before, education has become the key to participating in the adult community of learners.

5. What is the teacher's role in processes of constructivist learning?

Learners search for meaning, and each learner does so in a highly individual manner. A learner links new information – a piece of information, a lecture, an interesting idea in a book, etc. – to the existing structures of knowledge and experience in the learner’s mind. Constructivism means we create our systems and structures of knowledge, understanding and experience.

From a constructivist point of view, the well-known didactic triangle takes on a new meaning:



In triangular relationships, one party is sometimes excluded. In processes of constructivist learning, it is the teacher. It is the learner who creates his or her understanding of the objects of learning. The construction of meaning takes place in the learner’s mind, beyond the teacher’s range of perception. What the teacher sees is the outcome – what students produce, and how they behave. The teacher sees the performance, not the competence. And it is the students, not the teacher, who will ultimately decide what they find interesting and worth learning, and what they will remember for life, or forget.

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

1. Learners **construct** meaning – they discover and create something new. Teachers can support their students by:
 - creating learning opportunities;
 - designing challenging tasks;

- providing instruction through media and inputs (lectures) that represent the objects of learning;
 - encouragement and support for the learner's self-esteem;
 - ...
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:
 - giving opportunities for sharing, presentation and discussion;
 - by formal testing and assessment;
 - by offering or requiring portfolio work;
 - by designing challenging tasks, for example in projects;
 - ...
 3. Learners **deconstruct**, or criticise, their own results or each other's. As already outlined above, without this element of critical review and testing any learning effort would become irrelevant for society, and for the individual learner himself.

6. What is the teacher's role in EDC/HRE?

A key element of teaching and learning is how students communicate and interact with each other and with the teacher. The teacher's professional competence enables him/her to reflect on the effect of a certain activity, and to employ such patterns of behaviour like tools. The teacher performs in different roles, and these are more differentiated than in traditional content-biased frontal instruction ("chalk and talk"). Instruction is one role that a teacher must perform, but in this case less often. Rather, constructivist learning requires the teacher "to teach with his mouth shut", giving more time, and more of the floor, to the students.

The following sections outline four key roles that a teacher typically performs in constructivist learning settings:

1. The teacher as lecturer and instructor.
2. The teacher as critic and corrector.
3. The teacher as creator and provider of application tasks.
4. The teacher as chair in plenary sessions.

Rather than giving abstract instructions on how to perform these roles, the examples refer to the lesson descriptions in the manual where the reader will find detailed descriptions of the context in EDC/HRE classes.

6.1 The teacher as lecturer and instructor – to support and enrich construction

A basic rule for a lecturer is the "60:40" principle; 40 per cent, preferably more, of what you are talking about should be familiar to the students. Without this high degree of redundant information no constructivist learning is possible.

In this manual, the key concepts form the didactic backbone, as it were, of the EDC/HRE curriculum. These concepts must be introduced to the students, and this means the teacher must instruct the students by giving a lecture or a reading task, or both. As constructivist learners, they must have already created a context of meaning into which the teacher's instruction will fit. Typically this open, unfinished structure of meaning consists of questions or experiences in need of explanation. The following table shows where the teacher's role as lecturer and instructor is addressed in the lesson descriptions of this manual.

| Unit No. / Key concept | Examples and references to the materials |
|---|--|
| Unit 2 Responsibility | Lesson 4: The teacher selects a topic that the students have focused on in their discussion and gives a conceptual framework for reflection. 📖 Materials for teachers 2.3 provides the lecture modules to support the teacher in his/her preparation. |
| Unit 3 Diversity and pluralism | Lesson 2: The teacher introduces the concept of the common good (see 📖 materials for teachers 3B). |
| Unit 4 Conflict | Lesson 3: The students have reported on their experience of conflict. The teacher helps them to understand the problem that gave rise to this conflict by introducing the model of sustainability goals (see ✍ student handout 4.2). |
| Unit 4 Conflict Unit 5 Rules and law | The students have taken part in one or two decision-making games. The teacher helps the students to reflect on their experience in the debriefing session by introducing the concept of modernisation (see ✍ student handout 5.5). |
| Unit 6 Government and politics | Lesson 2: The teacher introduces the policy cycle model (✍ student handouts 6.1 and 6.2). In a brainstorming session during the previous lesson the students have discussed the issue of political agenda setting and are now ready to receive this input. |
| Unit 9 The media | Lesson 1: The students have expressed their preference for a certain type of newspaper. The teacher links their statements to the concept of gatekeeping. Not only the media act as gatekeepers, the users do so too. Lesson 4: The students reflect on their role in constructing media messages. The teacher addresses two key points in media news production: all media messages are carefully constructed, and media editors and news producers act as gatekeepers and agenda setters (see 📖 materials for teachers 9A). |

6.2 The teacher as critic and corrector – to support deconstruction

As far as the teacher is concerned, no examples of her or his role as critic and corrector are included in the lesson descriptions in the manual – for the obvious reason that the occasion may arise at any time and cannot be anticipated. The teacher must realise what needs to be set right. Some general guidelines can be discussed, however.

Is the error relevant? In other words, is it necessary to correct the mistake at all?

Preference for student feedback: will the students have the opportunity, for example during a presentation or discussion, to discover the mistake later and correct it then?

However, in certain circumstances the student must correct – deconstruct – his/her construction of meaning and begin again. Example: the whole class will rely on the student's presentation.

Principle of mutual respect: we may criticise each other's mistakes – but we respect the person. This is important in order to support the students' self-esteem, and to encourage them.

Unit 8 stages a debate among students. Here, the students put each other's arguments to the test, and deconstruct them if they find any fault.

6.3 The teacher as creator and provider of application tasks – to support reconstruction

Interactive constructivist processes of learning depend on adequate learning opportunities – including suitable objects, materials, time, rules, task instructions, monitoring, and individual support. In EDC/HRE the teacher has the task of providing such opportunities of task and problem-based learning for

the students. The following table shows which examples are included in the lesson descriptions of this manual.

| Unit No. / Key concept | Examples and references to the materials |
|---|--|
| Unit 1 Identity | Lesson 4: The students engage in a job-shadowing project to find out which job fits the criteria that they have defined in reflecting on their personal strengths and interests. |
| Unit 3 Diversity and pluralism | Lesson 3: The students have been introduced to the concept of the common good by the teacher. Now they engage in a decision-making game to negotiate compromises in terms of the common good. |
| Unit 4 Conflict | Research task: The students are introduced to a model of sustainability goals by studying the problem of overfishing. They carry out case studies to explore further sustainability issues, such as CO ₂ emissions or nuclear waste disposal. |
| Unit 4 Conflict Unit 5 Rules and law | The teacher acts as game or process manager. He/she sets the time frame, and ensures that the rules of the game are observed, but does not deliver the solution to the problem that the students are dealing with. |
| Unit 5 Rules and law | Lesson 4: The teacher gives the students a questionnaire (see student handout 5.6) to help them reflect on their process of learning. |
| Unit 6 Government and politics | Lesson 3: The teacher sets the students the task of applying the policy cycle model (see student handouts 6.1 and 6.2) to a concrete example. |
| | Lesson 4: The teacher selects one of three key statements that fit the context of the students' feedback (see materials for teachers 6.2). In each key statement, a concept is introduced that helps the students to reflect on their work. But they should work with it thoroughly, so the teacher should decide which concept to select. |

6.4 The teacher as chair in plenary sessions – to support all forms of constructivist learning

Teaching and learning through democracy and human rights perhaps becomes most apparent in plenary sessions when the students share ideas or hold discussions. Here they exercise their freedom of thought, opinion, and expression. Without thorough training in making use of these basic democratic rights, they will be unable to take part in democratic decision making.

In the lesson descriptions, we generally suggest that the teacher chair these sessions. It is a challenging task, as the students confront the teacher with inputs and ideas that he/she must then work with. To a considerable extent, the teacher can anticipate the conceptual framework that will serve as a tool to give structure and meaning to the students' inputs, but the teacher must also improvise.

The manual includes many descriptions of how to perform the role of chair. In broad terms, the teacher chairs two types of plenary session. First, he/she can start a lesson or unit off so as to allow the students to get involved quickly. Second, the teacher can chair a plenary session that begins with student inputs – homework results, a discussion, or feedback. The following tables show the examples included for both types of plenary sessions.

a. The teacher gives the first input to a plenary session

| Unit No. / Key concept | Examples and references to the materials |
|---|---|
| Unit 1 Identity | Lesson 1: Every day, throughout our lives, we make choices and decisions – what examples come to the students' minds? |
| | Lesson 3: Why do you attend school at upper secondary level? |
| Unit 2 Responsibility | Lesson 1: What would you do if you faced this dilemma? |
| Unit 3 Diversity and pluralism | Lesson 1: The teacher supports the students in a brainstorming session. He/she guides the students to link and group ideas under new headings. |
| Unit 4 Conflict | Research task: The students are introduced to a model of sustainability goals by studying the problem of overfishing. They carry out case studies to explore further sustainability issues, e.g. CO ₂ emissions or nuclear waste disposal. |
| Unit 4 Conflict Unit 5 Rules and law | The teacher acts as game or process manager. He/she sets the time frame, ensures that the rules of the game are observed, but does not deliver the solution to the problem that the students are dealing with. |
| Unit 5 Rules and law | Lesson 4: The teacher gives the students a questionnaire (≈ student handout 5.6) to help them reflect on their process of learning. |
| Unit 6 Government and politics | Lesson 1: The teacher supports the students in a brainstorming session ("Wall of silence"). He/she guides the students to link and group their ideas and opinions and to give them structure by grouping them and adding categories. |
| Unit 8 Liberty | Lesson 1: The teacher announces, "Every child should spend an additional year at school." The students express their point of view on the issue – they agree or disagree. It is a political decision, so there is no alternative to "Yes" or "No". |

b. The students give the first input to a plenary session

| Unit No. / Key concept | Examples and references to the materials |
|------------------------|--|
| Unit 1 Identity | Lesson 1: The students give reasons for their choice of a quotation. The teacher shows the students how to record their ideas in a mind map. |
| | Lesson 3: The students present their thoughts on how they will shape their future. The teacher cannot anticipate what the students will say, but a conceptual framework will allow him/her to work with the students' inputs. |
| Unit 4 Conflict | Lesson 3: The teacher chairs a debriefing session after a decision-making game. He/she listens to the students' feedback, identifies the key statements and takes them down on the blackboard or flipchart. |
| | Lesson 4: The students begin the lesson with their inputs that they have prepared at home. They set the agenda and create the conceptual framework for the whole lesson. The lesson description helps the teacher to anticipate the main points that the students will address and how to react to them. |
| Unit 7 Equality | Lesson 1: The teacher reads a case story and asks the students just one question, "What is the problem?" The students think in silence and write down their answers. Many students then come forward with their ideas. The teacher encourages them to explain their reasoning. Then he/she links their ideas to a conceptual framework that can be anticipated. Unit 7, lesson 4 gives another example of this method. |
| Unit 8 Liberty | Lesson 1: The students have run through an exchange of arguments on an issue. The teacher asks, "What makes a good issue for a debate?" He/she sums up the students' ideas, which can be expected to correspond to the criteria in ≈ student handout 8.1. |

7. Democracies as communities of learners – a constructivist approach to the key concepts in EDC/HRE

The concept of interactive constructivist learning not only conceives of an EDC/HRE class, and a school as a whole, as a community of learners governed by human rights, but also as citizens engaged in decision-making processes.

“Learning for” democracy and human rights therefore means that the students prepare for their roles as lifelong learners, both as individuals and as a community. There are two lines of argument to enforce this point.

The first is normative, referring to human rights. Citizens should have the opportunity to take part in democracy, and to express their views and interests when discussing any issue on the agenda. This implies that every decision-making process is open-ended; otherwise it would be a farce.

The second line of argument is analytical, referring to the complexity of our modern societies, their mutual global interdependence, and the daunting challenges of such issues as climate change, declining biodiversity, the security risks arising through failing states, or the increasing gap between rich and poor – to mention but a few. No one has a clear idea of how to solve the problems awaiting us – either in our individual lives, or at the global level. We are learners, beset with the task of finding viable solutions.

The key concepts in EDC/HRE in this manual are therefore defined from an interactive constructivist perspective. The following chart sums up the basic conceptual approach to each of the nine units.

| Unit No. / Key concept | EDC/HRE: constructivist concept of ... |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Unit 1 Identity | ... identity: we shape our identity through our key choices. |
| Unit 2 Responsibility | ... responsibility: we create our common set of values. |
| Unit 3 Diversity and pluralism | ... interests and the common good: we negotiate for what we consider to be the common good. |
| Unit 4 Conflict | ... conflict: problems and conflicts are what we consider as such. |
| Unit 5 Rules and law | ... rules and laws: they are tools that serve to solve problems and deliver the framework for peaceful conflict resolution. |
| Unit 6 Government and politics | ... political decision-making processes: their purpose is to find solutions for urgent problems. |
| Unit 7 Equality | ... inclusion and social cohesion. |
| Unit 8 Liberty | ... the way we exercise our human rights of liberty, e.g. freedom of thought and expression. |
| Unit 9 The media | ... our perception of the world through the media: producers and users of media as gatekeepers and agenda setters. |

Part 1

**Taking part
in the community**

Unit 1

Identity – Making choices

We shape our lives, and other people's too

Unit 2

Responsibility – Taking part, taking responsibility

Liberty carries responsibilities

Unit 3

Diversity and pluralism – Consent through dissent?

How do we agree on the common good?

UNIT 1
IDENTITY
Upper secondary level

Making choices
We shape our lives,
and other people's too

1.1 Views on choices and identity

Whose view do I agree with?

1.2 Looking back: what choices made me the person I am?

What choices have had the strongest impact on my life?

1.3 Looking forward: three choices that shape our future lives

Liberty consists in the ability to choose – or not to choose

1.4 Which job suits me?

My criteria for choosing a job

Extension: job shadowing

Unit 1

Identity

Making choices

Introduction for teachers

"Who will my partner be?"

"Do we want to have children?"

"Which job will I choose?"


The focus of this unit: choices shape identities

These are three of the most important choices we make in our lives. In our teens and twenties, we ourselves looked for answers to these questions – and so do our students. By making these choices, we shape our identities – we decide what our lives will be like. Reversing these choices is painful and difficult, and as far as children are concerned, impossible. Our decisions not only impact on our own lives, but other people's too.


Identity – An intimate, very personal topic

More than any other unit in this volume, this unit on the concept of identity probably comes closer to the students' most intimate experiences and wishes. The tasks in this unit are designed as choices. The method reflects the students' experience.

Outline of unit 1

Lesson 1 introduces the students to the importance of making choices. In lesson 2, the students look back: what choices have had the strongest impact on their lives and identities? In lesson 3, the students look into the future, addressing the three key questions above. In lesson 4, they focus on one of these questions – choosing a job. A job-shadowing project is suggested as an extension (see  student handout 1.4).

Constructivist concept of identity

In this unit the concept of identity is understood in a constructivist way. Our identity is not just there, as something static and complete, but rather our self develops throughout our lives, in a process of learning, and it is shaped by choices. Some choices are irreversible; others can be changed and corrected if we so wish (see  materials for teachers 1.3).

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy* focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 1 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 1?

How this matrix can be used

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, making choices, understanding the pluralism of identities, exercising rights of liberty, responsibility in making choices that affect others.
- The matrix makes teachers aware of synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|---|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Taking part in democracy Political decision making and action | |
| 1 Identity | Making choices and reflecting on their impact Choosing a job and reflecting on the criteria | Using models as analytical tools Presentations Taking part in discussions | Making up one's mind – identifying criteria, goals and priorities | Responsibility – being aware of how my choices affect others Willingness and ability to be aware of personal wants, needs, and obligations |
| 2 Responsibility | | | | Mutual recognition |
| 3 Diversity and pluralism | Individual choices create a rich diversity of identities | | | |
| 6 Government and politics | Political decision making corresponds to individual choices. The goal of individual happiness corresponds to the goal of the common good | | Arguing and debating in public (taking part when the community “makes up its mind”) | Willingness and ability to listen to people with different interests and points of view |
| 8 Liberty | | | Exercising rights of liberty | |

UNIT 1: Identity – Making choices

We shape our lives, and other people's too

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|--|---|--|---|--|
| Lesson 1 Views on choices and identity | Clarifying personal standpoints and choices. Through our choices, we tell others something about who we are, about our identities. | The students choose a quotation and give reasons for their choices. | 📄 Materials for teachers 1.1 (three copies, with quotations cut into separate strips before the lesson). | Group work. Plenary discussion. |
| Lesson 2 Looking back: what choices made me the person I am? | The autobiographic perspective. Our choices, and those of others, have a decisive impact on our lives. | The students reflect on what choices had a strong impact on their lives. | ✍ Student handout 1.1. Flipcharts and markers in different colours, strips of paper (A6), glue or tape. | Individual work. Plenary discussion. |
| Lesson 3 Looking forward: three choices that shape our future lives | Making decisions, setting priorities. Human rights give us options how to shape our future lives – we decide whether to take them. | The students reflect on key choices that affect their future lives. | ✍ Student handout 1.2. Flipchart, markers. | Individual work with a handout. Plenary discussion. |
| Lesson 4 Which job suits me? | Identifying, balancing and prioritising criteria for a decision. Key criteria for choosing a job are, “Which job corresponds to my interests and strengths?” | The students choose or refuse a job and give reasons for their choice. | ✍ Student handout 1.3. 📄 Materials for teachers 1.2 (cut up into a set of job cards, with approx. 10 more cards than students in class). | Individual work with a handout. Plenary discussion. |
| Extension: job shadowing | Interviewing an expert; planning a research project. Clarification of job options | The students plan and carry out a research project. | ✍ Student handout 1.4. | Project. |

Lesson 1

Views on choices and identity

Whose view do I agree with?

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.


Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The **learning objective** indicates what students know and understand.

The **student task(s)**, together with the **method**, form the core element of the learning process.

The **materials checklist** supports lesson preparation.

The **time budget** gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|--------------------------------|---|--------|
| Competence training | Clarifying personal standpoints and choices. | |
| Learning objective | Through our choices, we tell others something about who we are, about our identities. | |
| Student tasks | The students choose a quotation and give reasons for their choices. | |
| Materials and resources | Three copies of  materials for teachers 1.1, with the quotations cut into separate strips before the lesson. | |
| Method | Group work. Plenary discussion. | |
| Time budget | 1. The students make choices. | 15 min |
| | 2. The students give reasons for their choices. | 15 min |
| | 3. The students compare and reflect on their choices. | 10 min |

Information box

In this lesson, the students make choices, and are introduced to the topic of choices through their personal experience. This is a task-based approach to the complex concept of identity, rather than a theory or text-based approach, in order to help the students realise that the concept of identity is connected with their lives in a very practical way.

Communication among the students dominates the lesson. A frontal seating arrangement would be counter-productive; therefore, if possible, the tables and chairs should be arranged around the walls (in a horseshoe setting).

Lesson description

1. The students make choices

The students set the context

The teacher introduces the topic. Every day, throughout our lives, we make choices and decisions – what examples come to the students’ minds? The students answer and give examples from their experience. The teacher makes sure that they talk about the decisions, but that they do not go into further detail to discuss problems or their reasons behind their decisions. As many students as possible should take the floor for the first five minutes. The teacher need not discuss these statements; he/she observes what the balance is between everyday choices (buying a sandwich or a hot snack for lunch) and key decisions (choosing a job). The teacher points out what tendencies became apparent in the students’ choices.

The students choose a quotation

The teacher explains to the students that they will hear some quotations by authors from different countries, and from both ancient and modern times. Their task is the following:

- The students choose a quotation that they either strongly agree or disagree with.
- The students who have chosen the same quotation form small groups (no more than six members) and share their reasons for their choice. The groups appoint a speaker.
- After five minutes, the speakers each make a brief statement on the choices in the plenary round. They read the quotation and give the main reasons why the students in their group agreed or disagreed with it. If the students in a group hold different views, then the difference of opinion should be reported.

The teacher distributes the sets of quotations, presented on separate strips of paper, on the students’ tables around the room. In turn, each student who has been given a quotation reads it aloud to the class. Then the students begin with their task. The teacher watches them. If a group is too big he/she intervenes and makes sure that the students split into smaller groups. Several copies of the quotations are available in case this happens. The teacher takes note of which quotations the students have chosen and which they haven’t. He/she will not hear much of the students’ discussions, as many students will be talking at the same time, so the noise level will be like that in a café full of customers.

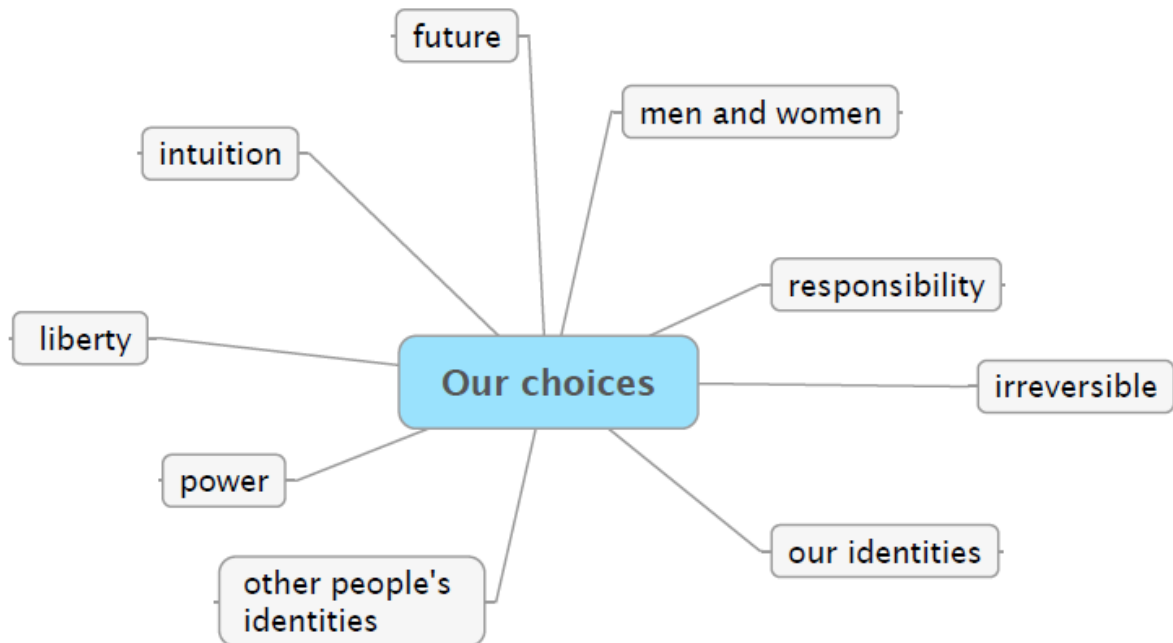
2. The students give reasons for their choices

The speakers make their statements

The teacher announces that discussion time in the groups is up and calls the students to attend the plenary round, chaired by the teacher. The students stay seated at their group tables. In turn, each speaker takes the floor. If necessary, the teacher reminds the speaker to report on the groups’ reasons for their choices, and the students may ask for more explanations. The teacher should make sure that no discussion starts before all speakers have spoken.

Teacher and students produce a mind map as a record

Before the next speaker takes the floor, the teacher asks the listeners to sum up the key statement that they have just heard, for example “Many of our choices are irreversible,” or “When making choices, we exercise rights of personal liberty.” The teacher – or a student – sums up the points in a simple mind map (see example below).



3. The students compare and reflect on their choices

The students read the mind map – a document of many choices

The mind map supports the concluding phase of reflection in this lesson.

The teacher asks one question to provoke thought – many different answers are possible, as the students are addressed as experts on their own behalf: the speakers have just reported on what the students think about the different quotations on making choices. The groups themselves were formed by the students' choices – so what does this mind map tell us about the students?

The students may need some time to think. They should have it – what could be better than a class full of students thinking hard in silence? Therefore this productive phase should not be terminated too soon by immediately giving the floor to the first student who puts up his or her hand. Several students may then speak. Many different views are possible, and they will vary depending on the context that the students have created through their choices and as is recorded in the mind map.

Conclusion: key statements

The teacher's task is to conclude the lesson by summing up the key statements for the students. They may be expressed directly, or they may occur as a leitmotif in several statements. The teacher notes keywords on the board or flipchart to support the summary:

1. In this lesson, the students have *made choices* when *talking about* choices.
2. The students have made *different choices*, for different reasons (here are some examples):
 - personal experience;
 - values;
 - gender;
 - concern for others, responsibility;
 - human rights;
 - ...
3. The students' choices show that they are different personalities – their choices tell us something about who they are, about *their identities*.

Lesson 2

Looking back: what choices made me the person I am?

What choices have had the strongest impact on my life?

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | The autobiographic perspective. | |
| Learning objective | Our choices, and those of others, have a decisive impact on our lives. | |
| Student tasks | The students reflect on what choices had a strong impact on their lives. | |
| Materials and resources | <p>✍ Student handout 1.1.</p> <p>Flipcharts, strips of paper (A6), markers in different colours, glue or tape.</p> | |
| Method | <p>Individual work.</p> <p>Plenary discussion.</p> | |
| Time budget | 1. The students explore what choices affected their lives. | 15 min |
| | 2. The students share their findings. | 10 min |
| | 3. The students discuss and reflect on their findings. | 15 min |

Information box

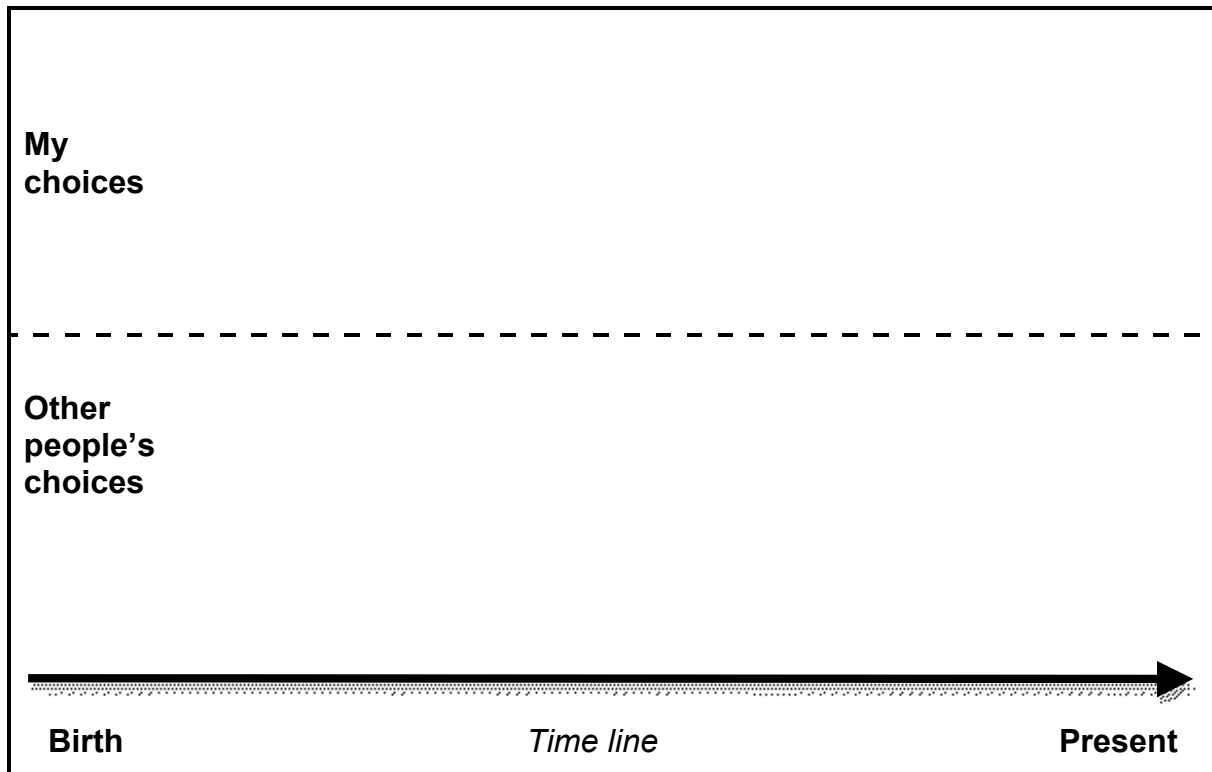
To a considerable extent, choices shape our identities. In this lesson, the students look back on their lives. In the following lesson, they switch their perspective and look forward into the future. The key question remains the same – by making choices, how do we shape our lives, and each other's too?

In this lesson, the students first reflect on their biographies in the context of this key question. Then they share some of their findings in the plenary session and compare them.

Lesson description

Preparations

Before the lesson begins, the teacher attaches a flipchart to the wall or the blackboard and copies the diagram from ↗ student handout 1.1.



1. The students explore what choices have affected their lives

The teacher introduces the task

The teacher introduces the key task of this lesson. The big version of the handout on the flipcharts serves as reference. The teacher recalls the last lesson: the students made choices, and this activity alone gave an insight into their different personalities. This lesson adopts a different perspective: what impact have choices had on our identities and our development in life? And who has made these choices? We ourselves? Or other people?

The chart on the flipcharts is the same as that on the handout that the students will receive. In the top half, the students note choices that they themselves have made, in the bottom half they note choices made by others. The timeline, running from left to right, covers their lifespan from birth to the present. The students can therefore indicate when a certain choice affected their identities.

The students adopt an autobiographic perspective

The students receive their copies of ↗ student handout 1.1 and work on their own in silence (10-15 minutes). They reflect on their personal experience from an autobiographic perspective. They are experts on their own behalf. Because of its intimate nature, the topic and the information is extremely important for each student, and they should decide what to share with the class in the following phase of the lesson.

2. Comparing the students' experience

Introduction to the task

The teacher introduces the next step. Now the students may share some of their findings. Each student receives two pieces of A6 size paper and markers (these can be shared, if necessary). Only one piece of information – one choice – is to be noted on each strip of paper, as the strips are to be linked to other student's notes.

The teacher adds years to the timeline, beginning with the birth year of the oldest student, and ending with the present.

Now the students select one or two points from their autobiographic reflections, using the following criteria:

- What choice has had a particularly strong impact on my identity?
- What piece of information am I willing to present in class?

The students should indicate who made the choice ("I", "mother", "friend" ...), and when it was made, but they should not add their own names.

The students produce a general survey of key choices

The students fill in one or two sheets of paper, as instructed by the teacher, and put them face down on their tables. A team of four students collects them and brings them to the flipcharts.

The students gather round the flipchart in a semicircle – in two rows, if necessary. One student from the team reads the entries to the class. A team member suggests where to attach it on the charts. If repetitions occur, the entry on the flipchart stands for all the others; these are counted, the amount is recorded, and the text on the flipchart is framed to emphasise its importance. The team co-operates with the class, so that all students take part in the emergence of their shared records, and participate in creating them.

3. The students discuss and reflect on their findings

Looking for patterns and significant elements

The material is new to all, so the content can hardly be anticipated. Quite often the students need no guidance or starting point, but begin to make comments immediately.

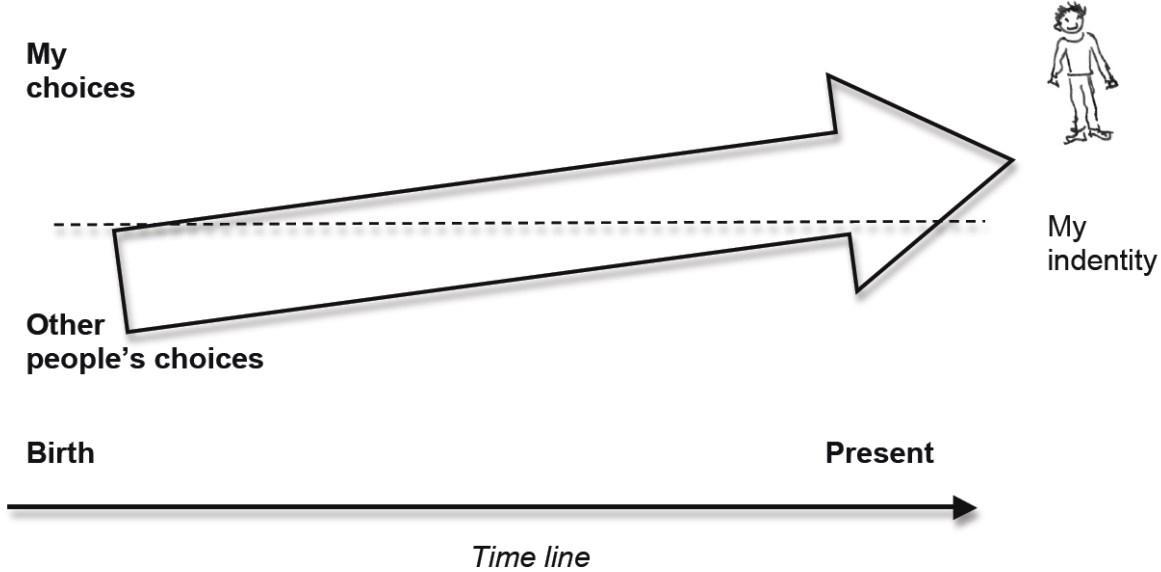
If necessary, the teacher points out that the next step is to identify striking patterns or details.

A few patterns are likely to appear:

Adolescence – increasing autonomy: In early childhood, others make choices (parents, family, teachers, doctors). As we grow older, we make more choices ourselves. Thus, there are likely to be clusters of entries on the flipchart, and these may be highlighted by the symbol of an arrow pointing upwards – the shift towards more autonomy and personal responsibility as we grow older. A student may add the arrow to the chart (see below).

"I owe my existence to my parents": This is the starting point in our biographies that we all share. It is as elementary as it is obvious. We have our roots in our families.

Diversity and pluralism: Perhaps no pattern can be detected. This points to the phenomenon of pluralism – we differ in our development, and our choices have made us become individual personalities.



As children grow up, their autonomy of choice increases.

Lesson 3

Looking forward: three choices that shape our future lives

Liberty consists in the ability to choose – or not to choose

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Competence training | Making decisions, setting priorities. |
| Learning objective | Human rights give us options how to shape our future lives – we decide whether to take them. |
| Student tasks | The students reflect on key choices that affect their future lives. |
| Materials and resources | ☞ Student handout 1.2. Flipchart, markers. |
| Method | Individual work with a handout. Plenary discussion. |
| Time budget | 1. Introduction to the topic and the task. 10 min |
| | 2. The students reflect on key choices. 10 min |
| | 3. Presentation and reflection. 20 min |

Information box

“Who will my partner be?” – “Do we want to have children?” – “Which job will I choose?”

In this lesson, the students will address these choices. In doing so, they switch their perspectives from the past to the future. In the lesson before, they looked back, dealing with the question of what choices were made (and by whom) that decisively affected their lives and shaped their identities during their childhood and adolescence. In this lesson they are going to look into the future. They will be making the key choices – on partnership, family and their profession – that probably have the strongest impact on their identities.

The students will become aware of the gender issue involved: the traditional role of women was to choose partnership and family – without a profession, while men focused on their role as income earners (profession) and partnership, with a reduced responsibility for family life. Today, young women exercise their right to education much more extensively, with the intention of choosing their profession. So while women attempt to find a way to balance all three options – profession, partnership, and family – many, but not all, men continue to adhere to their traditional understanding of their role.

Lesson description

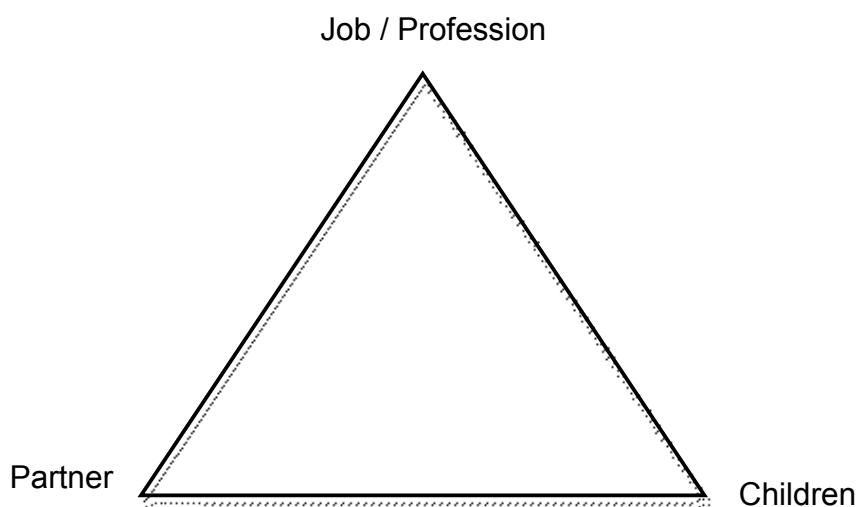
1. Introduction to the topic and the task

The teacher gets the students involved (inductive approach)

The teacher begins the lesson by asking a question that every student can answer, and that comes directly to the point: why do you attend school at upper secondary level?

The students, male and female alike, will surely answer that they wish to choose a profession. They also want to have access to advanced levels of study and training, such as university study.

The teacher lets several students take the floor, until a clear picture emerges. Then he/she sums up the students' responses by drawing the diagram on *≈* student handout 1.2 onto the blackboard or flipchart and adding the first choice – job.



The teacher explains that this is one choice that the students have just given top priority to, and it is clear how important it is for their identities. In doing so, they are exercising human rights – the liberty to make choices in general, and the liberty to choose a profession. Students may rightly point out that this liberty is restricted by the limited access to certain jobs, by unemployment or strong competition for example. This topic need not be followed up here, as it will be addressed in the following lesson.

The teacher addresses the other key choices: do I want to live with a partner, and if so, who will my partner be? (Or have I made that choice already?) And do I, or do we want to have children? The teacher adds the terms “Partner” and “Children” to the diagram, so that it resembles *≈* student handout 1.2.

The teacher explains that we all have to answer these questions one way or the other. We may choose to combine all three options, or to combine only two and leave one out. We will be leading completely different lives, depending on the choices we make or don't make. We exercise human rights, but we also carry responsibility for our lives, and the lives of others (our partners, our children).

The teacher introduces the task

The teacher distributes *≈* student handout 1.2. He/she makes the students aware of the human rights that grant the key options of choosing a job, a life with a partner, and having children (*≈* student handout 1.2, part 1). The students' task is to think about their choices, and to record their decision in the matrix in part 2 of the handout.

If they wish, they can compare their choices with the choices their parents made. This additional information will not be shared in class. The information on their choices will remain anonymous.

2. The students reflect on their key choices

The students work by themselves in silence. The teacher does not look at any handout, as discretion is important when such delicate matters are addressed.

The teacher prepares the follow-up phase. He/she attaches a flipchart to the blackboard or the wall. Ideally the students should be protected from view when writing on it. The flipchart shows a modified version of the matrix on \approx student handout 1.2.

The text can be reduced to letters, as the students know the matrix. The following legend is sufficient:

Job – **P**artnership – **C**hildren

| Options for our futures | | Women | Men |
|-------------------------|-----------|-------|-----|
| All three | P + C + J | | |
| Two out of three | P + C | | |
| | P + J | | |
| | J + C | | |
| One out of three | P | | |
| | J | | |
| | C | | |

The teacher leaves the marker for the students.

3. Presentation and reflection

The students present their choices

The teacher explains how the students may add their choice discretely. In turn, each student comes to the flipchart and marks his/her choice by a simple “one” symbol (1).

Female and male students use separate columns.

The students come forward to the flipchart in turn and mark their choices. When they have finished, two students count up the marks per section and add the figures.

The students comment on and discuss the results

The result can hardly be anticipated. It is interesting to see how many young men and women intend to combine all three options, and how many are going for two, and which two.

“Partner+Job”: The traditional male model “breadwinner+housewife”. The students should become aware of the implications if both partners make this choice – this is the “dink” model (double income, no kids).

“Job+Children”: An unlikely choice, as it means single parenthood, but as the students will know, a significant number of families have one parent – not as a matter of choice, but through divorce or death.

“Partner+Children”: The traditional female model if it lasts for a lifetime. Many young mothers, and to a lesser extent young fathers, accept this option for a while to care for their children when they are very small. It is understood that they will return to their jobs as soon as possible.

“Job+Partner+Children”: The students will know that this option is a challenge. Is there a difference in the choices made by each gender? Presumably more young women than men will choose this

option. If so, what are the reasons for this? The teacher should not press the students if they are unwilling to talk about the reasons for their choices. The teacher can point out, however, that this is an example of how individual choices may affect society as a whole: if many choose not to have children then the birth rate will fall. No moral pressure should be added, but the students should be made aware of the long-term effects that their individual choices will inevitably have (see extension below).

With these possible lines of thought in mind, the teacher awaits the results, and then responds – improvising, if necessary. Reflection beforehand, as outlined here, helps; and so does an evaluation of the lesson afterwards, to develop capacities and confidence in improvisation.

Extension

The problem of falling birth rates and ageing or shrinking populations besets many industrialised and developed countries around the world, including China, Germany and Italy. Serious problems for the economy and old age pension systems may arise. With statistical data, the students can investigate the situation in their country. They can analyse and judge solutions.

Lesson 4

Which job suits me?

My criteria for choosing a job

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Identifying, balancing and prioritising criteria for a decision. | |
| Learning objective | Key criteria for choosing a job are, "Which job corresponds to my interests and strengths?" | |
| Student tasks | The students choose or refuse a job and give reasons for their choice. | |
| Materials and resources | <p>✍ Student handout 1.3.</p> <p>📄 Materials for teachers 1.2 (cut up into a set of job cards, with approx. 10 more cards than students in class).</p> | |
| Method | <p>Individual work with a handout.</p> <p>Plenary discussion.</p> | |
| Time budget | 1. The students accept or refuse a job offer. | 20 min |
| | 2. The students share their criteria for choosing a job. | 20 min |

Information box

In lesson 1.3, the students addressed three key questions that will profoundly affect their future lives – making choices concerning their jobs, partnership, and family (parenthood). In this lesson, the students explore the criteria involved in one of these choices – choosing a job – in somewhat more depth.

Two criteria are of outstanding importance: which job interests me? Which job can I do best?

The relevance of these questions is obvious, but so are the difficulties in answering them, particularly the second one. Concrete information is necessary; the job-shadowing project is suggested to enable the students to overcome this problem.

Lesson description

1. The students accept or refuse a job offer

The teacher introduces the topic

The teacher introduces the topic, referring to the flipchart showing the triangle of key choices. Last lesson, the students discussed the complexity involved in making three key choices concerning their jobs, partnership and family.

In this lesson, the students will focus on one of these three choices – their future jobs.

The teacher explains that to get started, the students should simply imagine that they will now be offered a job. The teacher will present them their job offer on a card. They are free to decide whether to accept this offer or not.

The teacher introduces the method – a simple simulation of the job market

The teacher distributes *≈* student handout 1.3 and asks the students to fill in the first line: do they already have a job of their choice, or have they made their choice? If not, they wait for the next step.

The teacher explains the rules. When the students receive their job offer on a card, they decide whether to accept it or not. They note down their reasons in the handout.

Then they may look for another job. The students can swap their jobs with each other, or exchange their cards for one of the cards on the teacher's desk. They record all the jobs offered to them, and give their reasons for accepting or refusing them.

If they find a job that they like, then they just keep the job card. If they just put their card down without taking another, then they are unemployed.

Before the simulation of the job market begins, the students should have a clear idea of the rules and their roles.

The teacher distributes a job card to each student. Many will probably protest, and may wish to get rid of their job offers immediately. If necessary, the teacher reminds them of their task – to record in the handout their reasons for not wanting a particular job.

The students participate in the job market simulation – looking for a job

Once the students have been given the job cards, they are left to themselves. The teacher observes how many students accept their job offers, and reminds students to make short notes before swapping jobs.

2. The students share their criteria for choosing a job

The students identify key criteria for their job choices

The students are seated in an open square or a circle so as to support communication.

The teacher asks for a show of hands. Who has accepted a job offer? Who hasn't?

In a second step, the teacher asks the students to form groups of four to six and share their criteria. Their task is to present a list of three key criteria that they all agree on.

After five minutes, the group speakers present their results and a second team member notes their points on the blackboard or flipchart. Points that are addressed by successive groups are marked accordingly to emphasise their importance. The result may look like this:

Which job suits me? Criteria for choosing a job

Personal interests

Qualifications – job requirements

Good income

Working hours

Flexibility

Job security

...

The students identify key criteria for choosing a job

If the groups have repeatedly mentioned certain criteria for choosing a job, the students now consider whether these are particularly important. They share their opinions and give reasons.

On the one hand, the students are free to follow their personal preferences, so it is not necessary for them to agree. For example, a high income may be more important for one student, while another insists on free weekends and flexible working hours. There is one point, however, that the teacher should make the students aware of.

We all want to avoid being unemployed, so quite understandably, job security is often a top priority. However, business developments are hardly predictable, and the students will meet competition everywhere. Students must choose a job, or at least a job category (“law” – “doctor of medicine”) when they leave school, and they will apply for this job after having finished their studies or training. No one can reliably predict what their chances will be like in four or five years’ time.

Therefore the students should include two criteria:

1. What interests me, and what would I enjoy doing?
2. What am I good at? Where are my strengths? What can I do best when facing competition?

The teacher gives the students some time to think about these points and to respond.

The students problematise the application of the criteria

When reflecting on how to apply these two key criteria for choosing a job, the students will probably become aware of the difficulties involved. The second question above is the easier one for them to answer. With the help of their parents and friends, and also their teachers, they can explore their specific profile of competences.

The first question poses more problems, as the students need information on job requirements and job developments. Teachers are not professional career experts, so school is at its limits here, and the students must find information for themselves. They now experience liberty of choice and identity building as a demanding business indeed.

In many countries, schools support their students through job-shadowing schemes. This model is suggested as an extension that students, parents, and business managers will appreciate and support.

Extension: job-shadowing project

The problems that students face, and how job-shadowing projects can help

The students know how important their choice of a suitable job is for their future lives. They have understood what criteria are crucial when making their choices, but they have also realised that they cannot judge which job requirements meet their talents, competences and interests without reliable, up-to-date information. A job-shadowing project can give the students valuable support in obtaining that information.

The students' task

The students research a job that they believe meets their criteria. They spend several working days with a professional. They watch what he/she does and with whom they co-operate. Guided by a questionnaire (see ↗ student handout 1.4) they interview their job partner. If possible, they perform tasks to acquire first-hand experience (such as in an internship). The school schedule is replaced by the working hours of the job. So if a surgeon begins to operate at 6 a.m., the student should be next to him in the operating theatre (to find out, for example, if he/she can bear to watch an operation).

The students write a report, based on the questionnaire. The report can be handed in and marked, which creates a further incentive for the students to undertake their task properly. The students are advised to take notes daily and write their report during their week of work rather than later – an exercise in efficient time management.

The report should be a systematic account rather than a personal diary, to ensure that the students focus on the key criteria for their choice of a job.

The students must find their job partners themselves, with support from their parents, families and friends of the family. Ideally, they should not visit their parents or relatives at their workplace.

Support by the school and teachers

The student performs the main role, and is responsible for the result. The school provides the opportunity, sets the framework, authorises the project and clarifies legal matters (consent by a relevant ministry, insurances). At an early stage, the school also contacts the parents, who have an important role to play (see below).

On request, the students can be given a letter of authorisation when applying for a job-shadowing opportunity. After the project has ended, the principal writes a letter of thanks to all the partners that hosted their students.

If possible, the teacher should visit the students during their project. During the whole project, a teacher must be available on the phone to react quickly in case of an emergency.

Follow-up work

We recommend marking the reports to emphasise their importance. The teacher should treat the reports respectfully, as they are personal documents. He/she should realise that he/she was not present during the project and the interviews, so the students are experts here rather than the teacher. So assessment should focus on aspects such as clarity, coherence, care and completeness. From the student's point of view, this kind of task is much more rewarding than any test paper, and the teacher should be prepared to award more grades at the top of the scale than usual.

The students should have the opportunity to share their experiences. This requires more time than can be provided within regular EDC or social studies lessons. A useful platform is a job-shadowing event within the school. This is of particular interest for younger students who will carry out this project a year later, as well as their parents. The job partners or the local press, and local business representatives could also be invited.

Support by parents

First, parents can support their children in finding out what their strengths and interests are. Parents know their children from their very first day, and can recall their development from a perspective that differs from that of a professional at school. Parents generally welcome this kind of project, as they appreciate any kind of support for their children in finding a job. For very understandable reasons, parents tend to overemphasise job security. In a rapidly changing economy, parents are therefore less suitable as advisors in career planning.

How to find a job partner for the students

Usually the students are required to find a mentor for their job-shadowing project. Their parents, and in some cases other relatives or friends, can provide valuable help by providing links to potential partners. The students should not compromise too soon if the search proves difficult. They are looking for a job-shadowing opportunity, not a job. If no one who performs a particular job can be found, e.g. a broadcasting journalist, then a compromise would be to look for an alternative within the same job category, for instance a journalist working for the local newspaper.

Support by local businesses and institutions

For any professional, hosting a student for a working week takes a lot of effort, and this should be appreciated. However, many employers are interested in attracting qualified and well-informed job applicants, and from their point of view, job shadowing is an opportunity to test the students and perhaps even approach them with a follow-up offer.

The students need a mentor or supervisor. This could be their job partner, or someone else. The students have been given leave from school, so they must not be paid while carrying out their project. They are not there to do regular work, but to follow their own agenda, as outlined by the questionnaire (see student handout 1.4).

Long-term learning effects for the students

Experience has shown that this project will help many students to adopt a more serious, more mature approach to their final years at school. They have become aware of their interests, and can appreciate certain subjects more now that they can link them to their future after school. It also makes a difference if someone outside school has told them that “spelling and handwriting *do* matter.” And it is a rewarding and thrilling experience if students discover that they can actually already cope with quite a lot of tasks in the professional world.

The students may come back to school with a clear answer. Perhaps they now know what their job will be, and they can take the next steps in planning their studies or training after leaving school. On the other hand, if their project has showed them that they must look for a different job, this is also a valuable step forward, as they have got rid of some illusions and can now ask more precisely what kind of job would suit them.

Information on job-shadowing schemes

United Kingdom: www.prospects.ac.uk

Baden-Württemberg, Germany: www.schule-bw.de/schularten/gymnasium/bogy

Materials for teachers 1.1: Quotes on choices and identity



| |
|--|
| <p>By the choices and acts of our lives, we create the person that we are and the faces that we wear.</p> <p>Kenneth Patton</p> |
| <p>Decision is a risk rooted in the courage of being free.</p> <p>Paul Tillich</p> |
| <p>Everything you now do is something you have chosen to do. Some people don't want to believe that. But if you're over age twenty-one, your life is what you're making of it. To change your life, you need to change your priorities.</p> <p>John C. Maxwell</p> |
| <p>I believe that we are solely responsible for our choices, and we have to accept the consequences of every deed, word, and thought throughout our lifetime.</p> <p>Elisabeth Kubler-Ross</p> |
| <p>If you want anything said, ask a man. If you want something done, ask a woman.</p> <p>Margaret Thatcher</p> |
| <p>Liberty, taking the word in its concrete sense, consists in the ability to choose.</p> <p>Simone Weil</p> |
| <p>The greatest minds are capable of the greatest vices as well as of the greatest virtues.</p> <p>Rene Descartes</p> |
| <p>The main thing history can teach us is that human actions have consequences and that certain choices, once made, cannot be undone. They foreclose the possibility of making other choices and thus they determine future events.</p> <p>Gerda Lerner</p> |
| <p>The power of choosing good and evil is within the reach of all.</p> <p>Origen</p> |
| <p>The self is not something ready-made, but something in continuous formation through choice of action.</p> <p>John Dewey</p> |
| <p>The thing women have yet to learn is nobody gives you power. You just take it.</p> <p>Roseanne Barr</p> |
| <p>When choosing between two evils, I always like to try the one I've never tried before.</p> <p>Mae West</p> |
| <p>Women and cats will do as they please, and men and dogs should relax and get used to the idea.</p> <p>Robert A. Henlein</p> |
| <p>You must train your intuition – you must trust the small voice inside you which tells you exactly what to say, what to decide.</p> <p>Ingrid Bergman</p> |

One ship sails East,
And another West,
By the self-same winds that blow,
'Tis the set of the sails
And not the gales,
That tells the way we go.
Like the winds of the sea
Are the waves of time,
As we journey along through life,
'Tis the set of the soul,
That determines the goal,
And not the calm or the strife.
Ella Wheeler Wilcox

www.wisdomquotes.com

 **Materials for teachers 1.2: Job cards**



| | | |
|---|------------------------------|------------------------|
| Civil servant (local municipal administration) | Advertising copywriter | Veterinary surgeon |
| Architect | Fashion photographer | Primary school teacher |
| Mechanical engineer | Water operations manager | Banker |
| Hospital doctor | Fast food restaurant manager | Public librarian |
| IT sales professional | Police officer | Solicitor |

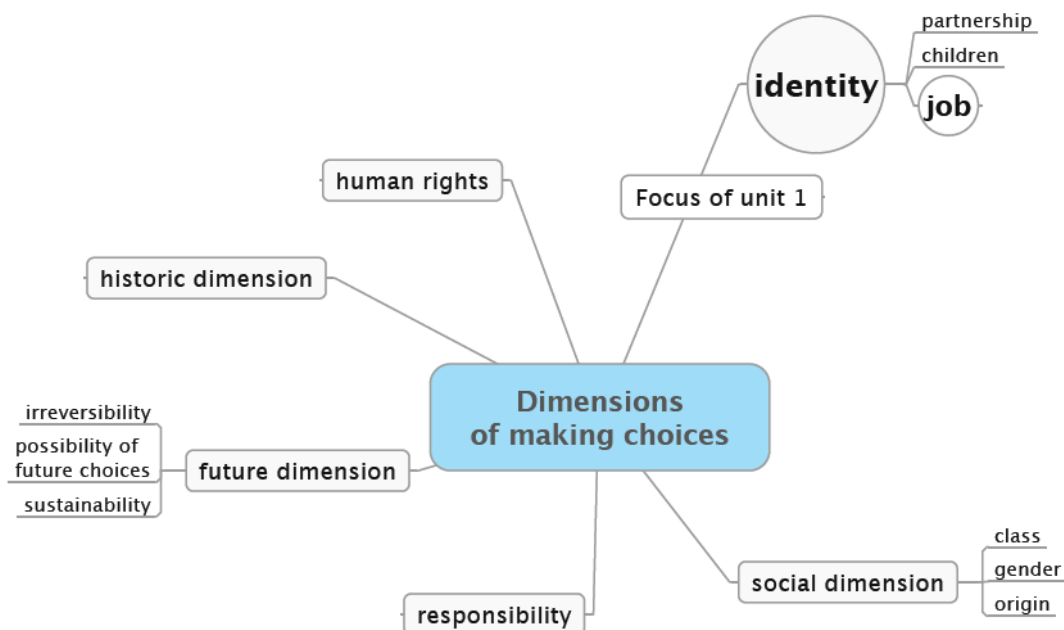
| | | |
|---------------|----------------------|----------------|
| Tourist guide | Shop assistant | Hospital nurse |
| Economist | Cartographer | Hairdresser |
| Dancer | Newspaper journalist | Bookseller |
| Meteorologist | Psychotherapist | Airline pilot |
| Room cleaner | Bus driver | Electrician |

Source: www.prospects.ac.uk

Unit 1.3 Background information for teachers

The constructivist concept of identity

Linked to the concept of identity, constructivism means that we shape our identities by the choices and decisions that we make. Constructivism emphasises the active role of the individual, and points to the element of learning involved. In life, we make mistakes, and so we also become aware of mistakes in the choices we made. We may be able to undo some choices (deconstruct them), and correct them, but some choices are irreversible. Time, above all things, can only be spent once in life. Constructivism links the dynamics of making choices to the result, our identity, which becomes static and stable to a certain extent.



This unit focuses on the active role we perform in shaping our own identities – and each other’s, in which we also have a passive role. Of course, identity development is far more complex, and depends on many other factors (variables) that define or limit our chances to shape our lives and identities. These include origin, class, gender, economic and cultural conditions, and the natural environment.

There are two reasons why this unit focuses on the constructivist dimension of shaping our identity by making choices. First, this approach links identity to human rights. Making choices is an act of liberty. Second, the students understand this approach best, as it corresponds to their experience and the questions they are asking themselves.

Not only the concept of identity is much more complex than it appears in this unit; the same applies to the concept of choices. The diagram above describes the didactic approach of this unit: the students explore the links between two complex concepts, but neither of the concepts in its entirety.

UNIT 2
RESPONSIBILITY
Upper secondary level

Taking part, taking responsibility
Liberty carries responsibilities

"Quidquid agis, prudenter agas, et respice finem."
[Whatever you do, do wisely, and consider the outcome.]
Latin proverb; origin unverified

2.1 Risk losing a friend – or break a rule?

We face dilemmas everywhere

2.2 and 2.3 What would you do?

We take responsibility for our decisions

2.4 What values must we share?

Taking responsibility in a human-rights-based community

Unit 2

Responsibility

Taking part, taking responsibility

Introduction for teachers

Taking responsibility – a perspective that affects everything

We permanently make decisions, both big ones and small ones. What shall we have for lunch today? Will we take the car, or the bus? What party will I vote for? What do I want to do after finishing school?

In every decision that we make, we pick certain options and turn down others. And whether we are aware of it or not, our decisions affect others. Whatever we decide and do can be questioned, as there are alternatives that we could have chosen.

Taking responsibility means considering these alternatives, and the consequences of our decisions. In this respect, taking responsibility is a perspective that literally affects everything we do in life – in our personal sphere, in our relationships and links to our family, friends, colleagues, and the community as a whole.

Taking responsibility – a human right and a challenge

When we make decisions, we exercise our human right to liberty. Liberty carries responsibility, but we can and must decide for ourselves what principles and guidelines we want to follow. Liberty means that we are alone in our decision, and therefore taking responsibility can be very difficult. To a certain extent, there are skills involved that can be trained, and this is what the students will do in this unit.

The students will communicate with each other what in practice we often have to decide on our own – attempting to understand dilemmas of varying complexity, making choices, and defining priorities.

A constructivist concept of responsibility

Taking responsibility is best learnt and understood in concrete situations that demand a decision to be made. Dilemmas are particularly interesting in this respect, as they require particularly careful consideration of the consequences of a decision.

In an open, secular and pluralist society, we cannot take for granted that there is a framework of values that everyone will immediately agree to – but for the stability of a community, such a framework is essential. We must therefore communicate and negotiate the basic principles that we share in taking responsibility.

Taking responsibility is a challenge, and a permanent process of learning; in this respect, this unit adopts a constructivist concept of responsibility.

Traps in teaching responsibility – and how they are to be avoided

There are two traps in teaching responsibility – abstract moralising and indoctrination.

Moralising means talking about being “a good citizen” without looking at a concrete issue. The students are given the message that taking responsibility is only a matter of wanting to or not. They

never learn how difficult this task can be, and how important it is to share their reasons for making a choice.

The trap of indoctrination refers to teachers who attempt to impose a certain set of values. They have no mandate to do so, and whatever set of values they choose, it can be questioned and deconstructed.

To avoid these traps, this unit is designed around a key task that gives the students the opportunity to make decisions on their own. The teacher is their coach and facilitator.

The students discuss how to solve dilemmas. The case stories refer to the students' everyday experience, which puts the students in the role of experts.

Preparation of the unit

We recommend that the teacher perform the same task as the students (see ✎ student handouts 2.1-2.4, and 📖 materials for teachers 2.1-2.3). In this way, the teacher will best understand the learning opportunities and become aware of the difficulties for his/her students. The result itself – the decision how to solve a dilemma – is not the “right” answer, as there is a strong element of subjective choice involved that the students may, or may not share.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 2 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 2?

How this matrix can be used

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, analysis, reflexive use of the media, and responsibility.
- The matrix helps teachers make use of the synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways. In this case the teacher selects and combines several units.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|---|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Political decision making and action | |
| 2 Responsibility | Understanding dilemma issues Analysing consequences of a decision Defining priorities and giving reasons | Careful consideration and thinking Sharing reasons and criteria for a decision | Making decisions with incomplete information Awareness of the risk of failure | Switching perspectives Recognition of the interests and rights of others Human-rights-based community |
| 1 Identity | Understanding the impact of our choices on others | | | Switching perspectives |
| 4 Conflict | Sustainability dilemma | Negotiation strategies | Conflict resolution | |
| 6 Government and politics | Politics – a process of solving problems and resolving conflict | | | |
| 7 Equality | Appreciation of the cultural dimension of democracy | | Balancing majority and minority rights | Mutual recognition |

UNIT 2: Taking part, taking responsibility

Liberty carries responsibilities

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|---|---|--|---|---|
| Lesson 1 Risk losing a friend – or break a rule? | Competence in political decision making and action: making choices and giving reasons. We are responsible for the choices that we make in our everyday lives. Concepts of dilemma and responsibility. | The students think of the choices they make in everyday dilemma situations and share their reasons. | 📄 Materials for teachers 2.1 and 2.2. ✍ Student handouts 2.1 and 2.2. | Plenary discussion, lecture, group work. |
| Lessons 2 and 3 What would you do? | Competence in making decisions and taking action: handling dilemmas. We make different choices in dealing with dilemmas. In doing so, we exercise our human right to liberty. | The students discuss dilemma case stories and reflect on their personal experience. | ✍ Student handouts 2.1-2.4. 📄 Materials for teachers 2.2. Flipcharts, markers. | Group work. |
| Lessons 2 and 3 What would you do? | Taking responsibility involves handling dilemmas – collecting information, considering the consequences, defining priorities, making decisions. | The students discuss dilemma case stories and reflect on their personal experience. | ✍ Student handouts 2.1-2.4. Flipcharts, markers. | Group work. |
| Lesson 4 What values must we share? | Judgment: reflecting on criteria and values. A democratic community relies on a shared set of values. Human rights provide a set of values that we can agree on. | The students select dilemma case stories, report on their decisions, compare and discuss their priorities. | 📄 Materials for teachers 2.2. Flipcharts (prepared in the previous lesson), markers. ✍ Student handout 2.5; alternatively, UDHR, Article 1 on a flipchart or overhead transparency. | Joint planning discussion. Presentations. Discussion. |

Lesson 1

Risk losing a friend – or break a rule?

We face dilemmas everywhere

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.



Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|---|--------|
| Competence training | Competence in political decision making and action: making choices and giving reasons. | |
| Learning objective | We are responsible for the choices we make in our everyday lives. Concepts of dilemma and responsibility. | |
| Student tasks | The students think of the choices they make in everyday dilemma situations and share their reasons. | |
| Materials and resources |  Materials for teachers 2.1 and 2.2.  Student handouts 2.1 and 2.2. | |
| Method | Plenary discussion, lecture, group work. | |
| Time budget | 1. The students deal with an everyday dilemma. | 10 min |
| | 2. The students are introduced to the tool for dilemma analysis. | 20 min |
| | 3. The students share their decisions in the school test dilemma. | 10 min |

Information box

This lesson introduces the students to the importance, and the necessity, of taking responsibility. In a trial run, so to speak, they apply the tool to reflect on their decisions in taking responsibility, and they are introduced to the key concept of dilemma.

All the students are immediately actively involved through the inductive approach. Within a few minutes, all students in class are thinking about how to solve a dilemma that is familiar to them from their experience in school.

The first lesson deals with the key theme – facing dilemmas, making choices, reflecting on the priorities involved in those choices. Rather than adding additional topics, the following lessons explore this theme of dilemma resolution. Like all the units in this manual, this unit also follows the didactic principle of thorough treatment of a selected piece of subject matter – “Do less, but do it well”. The reason for selecting so little, and omitting so much, is abundant experience. It is the intensity of the learning effort that yields the richest results, not the extensive coverage of ground.

Lesson description

Stage 1: The students think of their choices in everyday situations

📄 Materials for teachers 2.1

The teacher announces the beginning of a new unit and, as an introduction, tells the following case story.

Imagine the following situation. In your class, a written history test is being held. You are one of the best students in the class in history, and even you think that this test is quite difficult.

Your friend whispers from behind and asks you to show him your test paper. You know that cheating in tests is forbidden, and both you and your friend could be severely punished if you do it.

What would you do? Would you risk losing a friend – or break a rule?

The teacher writes down the dilemma question – the topic of this lesson – onto the blackboard or flipchart.

He/she makes the students aware that their answer must be either yes or no – there is no alternative or intermediate solution, nor can the students communicate – and then asks for a show of hands. The students vote, and the teacher records the results on the blackboard or flipchart.

A discussion round follows. The students give their reasons, and after some minutes the teacher sums up the points on the board. We may expect arguments like the following:

| Would you risk losing a friend – or rather break a rule? | |
|--|---|
| Yes (vote x) | No (vote y) |
| Good friends always help each other. | Cheating is unfair on those who stick to the rules. |
| I will need help from friends too one day. | By cheating I risk being punished myself. Friends should not expect that from each other. |
| We need help from each other. It would be a cold unfriendly world in which no one cares for the other. | It depends on the friend how big the risk is. I can talk to a good friend, and he/she will respect my decision. |
| ... | ... |

Stage 2: The students are introduced to the tool for dilemma analysis

📄 Student handouts 2.1 and 2.2

The teacher distributes 📄 student handouts 2.1 and 2.2 to the students and introduces the dilemma concept (handout 2.1) in a brief lecture. The arguments that the students have used outline a conflict of loyalties: either I stay loyal to my friends when they ask me for help, or I follow the rules because they guarantee equal chances for everyone in a school test. The reasons that the students have given – and may be expected to give – refer to values: my understanding of friendship, loyalty, willingness to help others, fairness, respect for rules and law.

Now I face a situation in which I am going to violate one of these ties of loyalty, and the values underlying it – either I risk losing a friend and my reputation may suffer, or I risk punishment, and I may have a bad conscience because I broke a rule that I actually support. This type of situation, in which you can only choose what to do wrong, rather than doing everything right, is called a dilemma. This example is typical for many dilemmas:

- No compromise is possible. You must define your priority.
- Time pressure forces you to act immediately, which makes it difficult to consider your decision carefully.

- You cannot change your decision later, so its effects are irreversible.
- You take responsibility – both you and others must cope with the consequences.

In our everyday lives, just as in political decision making, we constantly face dilemmas. Handling such dilemmas is difficult, because the issues are often complicated, and we must act under time pressure.

However, solving dilemmas and reflecting on our responsibility is, to a certain extent, a skill that can be trained. Training takes place in a slow motion mode, as it were. We spend a few lessons on the consideration of dilemmas that must be settled immediately in real life situations.

✍ Student handout 2.2 offers a tool to help deal with dilemmas. The students are given the task of applying this tool to the school test issue. Taking approximately 5 to 10 minutes, the students should therefore select between one and three questions that they think are relevant and useful, and consider these carefully. They should make a decision and share their reason(s) in the plenary round which will follow. They work in groups of three or four.

Stage 3: The students share their decisions on the school test dilemma

In the concluding plenary round, the group speakers present their groups' decisions and the priorities that led to them. The teacher chairs the session and pays particular attention to the students' choices of questions and criteria.

To conclude the lesson, the teacher comments on this point, making the students aware of their shared, or different, priorities. By thinking about the priorities that guide their decisions, the students are taking responsibility.

Lessons 2 and 3

What would you do?

We take responsibility for our decisions

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|---|--------|
| Competence training | Competence in making decisions and taking action: handling dilemmas. | |
| Learning objective | We make different choices in dealing with dilemmas. In doing so, we exercise our human right to liberty. Taking responsibility involves handling dilemmas – collecting information, considering the consequences, defining priorities, making decisions. | |
| Student tasks | The students discuss dilemma case stories and reflect on their personal experience. | |
| Materials and resources | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✍ Student handouts 2.1-2.4. 📄 Materials for teachers 2.2. Flipcharts, markers. | |
| Method | Group work. | |
| Time budget | 1. The teacher introduces the key task of the unit. | 10 min |
| | 2. Key task: the students discuss dilemmas. | 70 min |

Information box

Taking responsibility in secular democratic communities has a constructivist dimension: we must find out how to take responsibility in a given situation. Taking responsibility in dilemma situations, often under time pressure, is difficult, but it is something that can be developed.

The key task of this unit serves this goal. The students share and discuss the problems and choices of priorities in given dilemma situations. Taking responsibility is a concrete matter, and therefore the students deal with four dilemma case stories that differ in content (see ✍ student handout 2.3): taking responsibility for something that someone else should have taken care of, a conflict of loyalties to a teacher and a friend, a conflict between loyalty to a friend and the obligation to obey the law, deciding whether or not to support a project without being completely informed.

The students prepare presentations of their choices, in which they are to focus on their reasons (see ✍ student handout 2.4). To support these presentations, the teacher prepares flipcharts based on this handout, with an adapted layout (see 📄 materials for teachers 2.2).

Extended project-type tasks offer the teacher the opportunity to assess the students' levels of competence development (see stage 3 below).

Lesson description

1. The teacher introduces the key task of the unit

The purpose of this exercise is to analyse the ways to solve dilemmas and the criteria used for this. Under real life conditions, we often have to make these decisions in seconds, and may regret them later if we cannot correct them. In politics, decision-making processes also often deal with dilemmas – with conflicting goals.

In this key task, the students can study this complex decision-making process in slow motion, as it were, and reflect on the responsibility they take when settling a dilemma one way or the other.

They should record their decisions and their reasons on *↯* student handout 2.4. If they cannot agree on a certain decision within their group, both views should be recorded and presented.

The students form groups of four to six. They appoint a group manager, a presenter and a writer who will support the presenter. They discuss the four dilemmas on *↯* student handout 2.3 by selecting some questions and criteria from the toolbox (*↯* student handout 2.2). The groups are free to discuss further dilemmas from their personal experience or from politics.

2. Key task: the students discuss dilemmas


The students work in groups. They are responsible for their work, including any decision on breaks, homework tasks, research for materials, etc.

3. Teacher's activities

The teacher observes the students at work. The students' activity is an opportunity for the teacher to assess their level of competence development – co-operation and team work, time management, understanding of dilemmas, level of reflection, analysis and political judgment.

He/she does not support them unless the students ask for help; in such cases, the teacher should not give a solution, but rather assist the students in finding an appropriate approach.

Preparation of lesson 4:

- The teacher prepares a set of six presentation charts (see  materials for teachers 2.2). Each of these is prepared on a separate sheet of flipchart paper. On four of them, the teacher enters the titles of the dilemma case stories and the alternative options.
- The teacher observes the students, and perhaps also asks them how they are coping with their task. If they find it difficult, or even feel they are being taken to their limits, the teacher should address this problem in the reflection phase (lesson 4, stage 3).

Lesson 4

What values must we share?

Taking responsibility in a human-rights-based community

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.


| | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|--|-----------------------------|--------|----------------------------------|--------|----------------------------|--------|
| Competence training | Judgment: reflecting on criteria and values. | | | | | | |
| Learning objective | A democratic community relies on a shared set of values. Human rights provide a set of values that we can agree on. | | | | | | |
| Student tasks | The students select dilemma case stories, report on their decisions, compare and discuss their priorities. | | | | | | |
| Materials and resources | 📄 Materials for teachers 2.2. Flipcharts (prepared in the previous lesson), markers. ✍ Student handout 2.5; alternatively, Article 1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights on a flipchart or overhead transparency. | | | | | | |
| Method | Joint planning discussion, presentations, discussion. | | | | | | |
| Time budget | <table border="1"> <tr> <td>1. Joint planning decision.</td> <td>10 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. Presentations and discussion.</td> <td>15 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Reflection on the unit.</td> <td>15 min</td> </tr> </table> | 1. Joint planning decision. | 10 min | 2. Presentations and discussion. | 15 min | 3. Reflection on the unit. | 15 min |
| 1. Joint planning decision. | 10 min | | | | | | |
| 2. Presentations and discussion. | 15 min | | | | | | |
| 3. Reflection on the unit. | 15 min | | | | | | |

Information box

The key task gave the students the opportunity to produce a lot of material, and it is quite likely that this is more than can be properly discussed in one lesson. Therefore a choice must be made. The students should participate in this decision, as the problem and responsibility is theirs as much as the teacher's. A quick decision saves time for the following lesson sequences.

However, if the students question the need to select some of their work for the follow-up discussion, their objections have priority. To avoid disappointment among the students, it is important for them to understand that they will learn more from a thorough discussion of a few choices than from hearing brief inputs on everything that was discussed. The class must solve a dilemma, as time and public attention are scarce resources – not only in class management, but also in public life. Gatekeeping and agenda setting are a necessity, as well as an exercise of power (see unit 9 for an extensive treatment of this issue).

This is an important learning opportunity in class management – in teaching in the spirit of democracy and human rights. The sooner the students can choose what issues to focus on the better, but no one should feel overruled. The students must find a balance between efficiency and fairness of participation. In the end, the majority will decide (see unit 8 on the problem of outvoting minorities).

In the final stage of reflection, we suggest focusing on one of two key issues that are always involved in taking responsibility in open societies: the dilemmas of complexity and stability (see  materials for teachers 2.3, lecture module Nos. 2 and 3).

The **complexity dilemma** refers to the experience that taking responsibility is a difficult task, and that these difficulties increase the more complex our social systems become. If the students articulate this experience, the teacher should choose this topic. The students may well need encouragement to accept the risk of fallacy, rather than trying to avoid taking decisions.

The **stability dilemma**, on the other hand, refers to the experience that we are very much on our own when making decisions, and we cannot take for granted that we all adhere to the same basic values. To what extent is such an agreement necessary, and how can we achieve it? Human rights offer a set of values that is confined to the principle of respect for human dignity, which is acceptable to all major religious beliefs. In this respect, this is an important lesson in human rights education (HRE).

Lesson description

Preparation

The teacher has hung up the presentation charts in the classroom in advance of the lesson.

Stage 1: Joint planning decision

The teacher chairs the first stage of the lesson. He/she goes to each of the four flipcharts with the dilemma case stories in turn and refers to the two alternative options. The students vote for one of the options by a show of hands, and the teacher enters the results on the flipchart.

The groups which have reflected on their personal experience give a briefing on the issue and present the students' decision. They hang up their additional flipcharts.

The teacher points out that the students will not have sufficient time to discuss all their decisions in detail and they must therefore make a choice by a show of hands. If the students agree, no further discussion is necessary.

If the students have difficulty in agreeing on what issues to choose, the teacher suggests one or two. Criteria for such a choice could be:

- a discussion on an issue that the students found particularly interesting;
- a unanimous decision – do the students share certain values or priorities?
- a controversial decision – do the students agree on certain values or priorities?
- a preference for students' personal experience.

The criteria that apply depend on the choices recorded on the flipcharts.

Stage 2: Presentations and discussion

The presenters come forward and explain the reasons for their group's decision. A second group member supports the presentation by making brief notes on the flipchart.

The students compare their criteria, guided by the teacher, and discuss their choices. The teacher chairs the discussion.

The result of the discussion cannot be anticipated. The students may or may not agree on their principles for taking responsibility in a given situation. The bottom third of the flipchart can be used to record the result of the discussion.

Stage 3: Reflection

The teacher chooses one of the following issues based on observing and talking to the students during the key task, for example. A joint decision with the students is not appropriate, as the teacher would need to explain the options in a lengthy lecture.

Option 1: The complexity dilemma:

The students reflect on the difficulties in taking responsibility

The plenary session begins with a feedback round. What went well, what was difficult?

We may expect the students to point out that taking responsibility in this way is difficult and time-consuming. The requirement to understand the consequences of what we are doing – consider the outcome, *respice finem*, is often unachievable.

The teacher's response is that this objection is perfectly justified – but what are the alternatives? To stop making decisions and taking responsibility? To insist on complete information first?

Of course, life will go on, and we will have to run the risk of making mistakes in our decisions. But it makes a difference if we are aware of our risk of fallacy, and the challenge of complexity in modern society (see 📖 materials for teachers 2.3, lecture module No. 2). That is why education and training of the kind offered in this unit are so important.

Option 2: The stability dilemma:

The students reflect on their experience in the light of human rights

The teacher refers to the values and priorities that the students agreed or disagreed on in their previous discussion, which give rise to the following question:

⇒ What values do we share?

This is the topic of the lesson; the teacher writes it down as a headline above the flipcharts on the blackboard; otherwise a strip of A3 size paper is pinned up on the wall.

The students review their discussion as it has been recorded on the flipcharts.

This line of reflection leads to further questions:

⇒ What values do we disagree on? Do they mutually exclude each other?

⇒ What values should we agree on?

The teacher explains why this question is so important: we depend on each other to take responsibility along the same lines. What could such guidelines be?

The students will know, or realise, that there is no religious belief or philosophy of ethics that we all accept, and no one will accept any set of values that is imposed upon him or her. The only source that provides a set of rules or values that we may agree on are human rights.

The teacher refers to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 1:

“All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.”

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (10 December 1948), Article 1;

full text in ↗ student handout 2.5.

The students look up this article in ↗ student handout 2.5, or the teacher presents it to the class.

This article alone can take us very far:

- We are born with human rights; they are unalienable, no one can take them away from us.
- We are free.
- We are equal.

The teacher has just demonstrated how to read such an article – slowly, word by word. The students continue:

- We have human dignity: we should treat each other with respect.
- We have certain rights.
- We are “endowed with reason”: we can think for ourselves.
- We are “endowed with conscience”: we can take responsibility.
- We “should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood”: we should take responsibility for one another, which includes caring for those who depend on support by others.

The teacher points out that human rights not only have a vertical dimension – the relationship between state authority and the individual citizen – but also a horizontal dimension – the

relationship between individuals as members of a community. We can allow ourselves a lot of liberty and pluralism in a human-rights-based civil society that gives us the framework of basic values that we can all agree on.

Options for more extended study

Both options in the reflection phase are worth discussing. In an extension to this unit, the second key issue can be discussed.

The perspective of responsibility can be linked to literally every other unit in this manual. See the section on cross-references at the beginning of this chapter.

Materials for teachers 2.1

How to use the tool for dilemma analysis

(student handout 2.2): a model demonstration

The instruction advises the students to choose a few questions and think about them carefully. Therefore this model demonstration discusses some selected questions, but the reader should feel free to make different choices, or to answer the questions differently. In this demonstration, the method is more important than the line of thinking. That is one reason why no decision is suggested.

Case story No. 4: Which bananas shall I buy? ( student handout 2.3)

1. Collect information.

Who is involved?

What do they want? (What are their needs, goals or interests?)

| Who is involved? | Goals, interests |
|------------------|---|
| Me as a customer | Buy cheap food. Buy good quality food. |
| Supermarket | Attract customers. Make a profit. |
| Fair Trade | Support small banana producers. |
| Banana producers | Make a living to support family. Sell good products. Increase production. |

What is the problem/dilemma?

| Buy the cheaper bananas? | Buy the more expensive bananas? |
|---|--|
| Buying the cheaper bananas helps me save money for other purposes. Not helping people in need who, to a certain extent, also depend on my decisions gives me a bad conscience. | Buying the more expensive bananas will help small banana farmers. Buying expensive food has its limits. |

What does this case have to do with me?

I am directly involved in the globalised market. My decision what to buy has a direct impact on the lives of others.

What do we not know – what do we not understand?

I am directly involved in the globalised market. My decision what to buy has a direct impact on the lives of others. We do not know each other, but we know a bit about each other, and we are linked by what we do.

I do not know how urgently the farmers depend on my help. Perhaps other customers have already bought kilos of Fair Trade bananas, but the opposite may also be true.

How big would the effort be to find the missing information?

Under conditions of everyday life, I must make up my mind now. I need something to eat, so I must decide without knowing the full picture; this is the rule rather than the exception.

2. Consider the **consequences**.

What are the alternative choices?

What effect would each of these choices have, and for whom ...?

| Alternative choices | Alternative 1: Buy cheap bananas | Alternative 2: Buy expensive bananas |
|---------------------|--|--|
| Me as a customer | No matter how big or small my income is, I won't notice the difference. If necessary, I can easily compensate by saving on one hamburger or a bar of chocolate. The matter might be different if I am in debt and have to cut expenses wherever possible. | |
| Banana producer | No support. | Modest support, with considerable effect (Fair Trade information). |
| Supermarket | We do not have any accurate figures, but we may presume that the supermarket will earn a profit as long as we buy some bananas – be they cheap or Fair Trade. | |
| Fair Trade | No success for Fair Trade. | Success for Fair Trade. |

3. Define your **priorities**.

To what extent do I understand the consequences of my decision?

I do not have the full picture, and cannot undertake the effort to obtain it – unless I make it one of my few top priorities. Therefore I must decide whether to rely on the information given to me by others, in this case Fair Trade. They tell me that even a small donation would mean a lot for the banana farmers in a developing country.

What religious or moral principles are important for me?

This question is clearly of particular importance. We are free to answer it as we think right.

Is my decision irreversible (“point of no return”), or can I correct it later?

This kind of decision can be made many times. I can make one choice today, and the opposite choice tomorrow. I can think over my decision, but I cannot revise a decision made in the past.

4. Make your **decision**.

Must I opt for one goal and violate the other?

Yes. You usually buy cheap or expensive bananas, but not both. A compromise – buying some of each – is not very convincing.

Under the given conditions, what does my intuition tell me? With what decision can I identify most?

Under conditions of daily life, our intuition is probably our most important guideline, and is often more reliable than a big effort of thought. We do what we feel is best. Taking responsibility thus means trying to understand, and sometimes revise, what our intuition tells us.



Materials for teachers 2.2

Flipchart layout for the comparison of dilemma solutions (lesson 4)

One flipchart is required for each dilemma case story. For suggestions on how to phrase the alternative options, see *student handout 2.4*.

Dilemma case story:

(Add title from *student handout 2.3*).

| Alternatives | Reasons |
|---|---------|
| <p><i>(Enter first dilemma option here)</i></p> <p>Group No.</p> | |
| <p><i>(Enter second dilemma option here)</i></p> <p>Group No.</p> | |
| <p><i>(leave empty for additional entries)</i></p> <p>Group No.</p> | |

Materials for teachers 2.3

Liberty and responsibility – three lecture modules

This is a set of lecture modules to choose from in response to the students' learning needs – both within the four-lesson unit, or in an optional extension of the unit. The modules explore the conditions of taking responsibility in our modern societies:

Module No. 1: Learning how to take responsibility is impossible without taking risks.

Module No. 2: How do we succeed in taking responsibility in modern, increasingly complex societies that stretch most of us to our limits?

Module No. 3: The stability of democratic communities has a cultural dimension – a shared set of values among its members that cannot be enforced, but that must be agreed on.

1. The risk–responsibility dilemma

Making choices freely is a human right, but this liberty carries responsibilities. We must always be aware of the impact and consequences that our decisions and actions have for ourselves or for others, today and in the future, here or elsewhere in the world. (See the sustainability model in *≈* student handout 4.2).

On the other hand, we only learn how to take responsibility under conditions of liberty, which includes the liberty to fail. For example, young people want to go out at night and at weekends, as the students will know very well. Their parents expect them to be back at home at a certain time, and it is the young person's responsibility to keep to the agreement. Without the liberty to move freely, and to run all the risks involved, no one can learn how to take responsibility.

2. The complexity–democracy dilemma

In this unit, the students reflect on how to take responsibility in everyday situations. We must often decide in seconds how to solve a dilemma. The key task (lessons 2 and 3) allows the students to analyse the dimensions of responsibility in slow motion, and in this way, they train their intuition. Taking responsibility requires the skill to run through complex situations in seconds and then intuitively make a decision that will stand critical reflection. In our everyday experience, this is “normal”, and we are all aware of the risk of making mistakes when we must decide on difficult matters under time pressure. Training and experience helps to improve intuition, but the problem remains.

Complexity takes on a different quality on a social or global level. For example, we often have the choice how to travel from A to B, for instance from our homes to school. Driving by car is the most convenient option, while taking the bus or cycling takes longer, not to mention possible delays, getting wet in rainy weather, etc. What choice do we make? One criterion could be the consequences of driving for climate change. But would my car alone make such a difference, particularly if only a minority takes the bus or bicycle? The issue is too complex for an individual to handle (see unit 4). The same applies when we have to take part in political debates on such an issue – are we doing enough, or the right things, to avert climate change?

This increase in complexity is typical for modern societies. They are linked through globalised markets and depend on each other in the way they deal with global issues like climate change. Having to cope with complexity makes it more difficult to take responsibility. This is, in a way, the price we have to pay for the increase in our standard of living in modern societies, due to their achievements in science, technology, and education.

Intuition no longer helps us in taking responsibility in complex issues such as dealing with climate change. We need advice from experts. In democracies, citizens and politicians who must rely on experts to understand the world they are living in are in danger of slipping into a kind of modern, post-democratic oligarchy, a rule by experts whom the citizens can no longer control. This is the complexity–democracy dilemma.

Democracy stands and falls with the promise that every interested citizen can take part in decision making. To do so with responsibility requires educated citizens. Education is the only chance that we have to resolve the complexity dilemma. The expansion of education has not only been a driving force of increasing complexity in modern society, but is also the key to overcoming the complexity–democracy dilemma.

3. The liberty–stability dilemma: liberty, pluralism and our need to share certain values

Article 18

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (10 December 1948); full text in ↗ student handout 2.5.

Individuals who exercise these rights produce pluralism in many forms (see unit 3). One effect is that people adhere to different religious beliefs and value systems – even more so if immigrant communities are present. Modern societies are secular and pluralist – their members develop individual standpoints and identities (see unit 1). Responsibility has a constructivist dimension.

On the other hand, every community relies on a set of values that all members agree on. Democracy equally depends on a strong state and a supportive political culture.

This is the liberty–stability dilemma: a democratic and secular state depends on cultural conditions that its institutions and authorities cannot produce or enforce. A set of collectively accepted and appreciated values, rules and goals cannot be taken for granted. Rather, it is the citizens' responsibility to (re)negotiate and (re)define their values, rules and goals. Education, and EDC/HRE in particular, play a key role in meeting this challenge. Human rights offer perhaps the only set of rules and principles that may be universally accepted (see lesson 4 of this unit, which focuses on Article 1, UDHR). Human rights emphasise the principle of mutual recognition – the golden rule – but do not promote any particular religious belief or philosophy of ethics and morals. From this perspective, human rights are not only at the source of the problem, but also the key to the solution.

UNIT 3
DIVERSITY AND PLURALISM
Upper secondary level

Consent through dissent?
How do we agree on the common good?

"La multitude qui ne se réduit pas à l'unité est confusion;
l'unité qui ne dépend pas de la multitude est tyrannie."

[Diversity that cannot be reduced to unity is confusion;
unity that ignores diversity is tyranny.]

Blaise Pascal (1623–62)

3.1 If I were president ...

The students define their political priorities

3.2 What goals do we want to promote?

The students establish political parties

3.3 What is the common good?

Consent through dissent

3.4 Taking part in pluralist democracy

The students reflect on their experience

Unit 3

Diversity and pluralism

Consent through dissent?

Introduction for teachers

1. The links between diversity, pluralism and democracy

Diversity – some examples

- Workers and employers argue about wages and working hours.
- Environmentalists argue with the truck drivers' lobby about plans for a new road.
- Parents want more teachers to attend to the needs of their children. A lobby of taxpayers wants taxes to be reduced.
- Doctors and non-smokers want a complete ban on smoking in bars and restaurants. Landlords and cigarette makers promote free smoking everywhere.
- Young people would like an empty building to be turned into a youth centre. The residents nearby fear that there will be too much noise at night.

The concept of **diversity** refers to the ways in which people differ – in their interests, but also in many other ways too: in their lifestyles, ethnic origin, beliefs and values, in their social status, gender, generation, dialect and region (urban or rural, for example). Diversity also increases – as one feature of social and economic change.

Is diversity a problem?

According to the theories of **pluralism**, the answer is no. In democratic systems, anyone who promotes individual or group interests is exercising human rights – for example, demonstrating in public is exercising freedom of expression. The concept of pluralism therefore acknowledges diversity – it is a fact, something “normal”, but it poses a challenge. How can the different interests between different groups and individuals be reconciled? What is the best solution to the conflicts and problems that they articulate? This is the question of the **common good**.

What is the common good?

According to the theories of pluralism, no one knows what the common good is before a public discussion on this issue has taken place. We have to agree on what serves us best. The common good is something to be negotiated. Let us look at two of the examples above.

- Workers and their employers must agree on a wage that gives workers a decent standard of living, and allows the employers to keep costs under control.
- The issue on the youth centre might be settled by building the centre, but imposing rules so as to protect the neighbours from too much noise. The best solution must be found through dialogue and negotiation, and the result is most often a compromise.

Pluralism is therefore linked to a constructivist concept of the common good. First all the players articulate their different interests, and then they look for a solution that everyone can accept. Therefore there is nothing “egoistic” about clearly voicing one’s interests. On the contrary, this is part of the process, but no one must expect to see their interests completely fulfilled. The concept of constructivism emphasises that there is an element of learning involved, following the pattern of trial and

error. Practice will show how good a solution is, and it may have to be changed or improved – in a new round of discussions and negotiations.

In what way is pluralism linked to democracy?

Pluralism is a form of competition. The players compete with each other to promote their interests, and negotiation involves both power and reasoning. But this kind of competition also ensures that no player in the field becomes dominant. Diversity and pluralism create a structure of polyarchy (power in the hands of many), which is the social equivalent of the principle of checks and balances in a democratic constitution. Pluralism draws on liberalism by extending competition from economy to society and politics.

How does pluralism manage to resolve conflicts of interest peacefully?

Diversity and pluralism allow for a great deal of dissent on interests and issues (a “sphere of dissent”). This will only work if there is a “sphere of consent”. Pluralism requires the citizens to agree on certain basic values and rules:

- Mutual recognition: other players are viewed as opponents, but not as enemies.
- Non-violence: negotiations are carried out by peaceful means, that is by words, and not by physical force.
- Accepting compromise: all players realise and accept that a decision can only be reached through compromise.
- Rule of the majority: if a decision is voted on, the majority decides.
- Trial and error: if conditions change, or a decision is proved wrong, new negotiations take place.
- Fairness: decisions must comply with human rights.

Criticism of the concept of pluralism

Critics have pointed out that in the pluralist model, there is power in the hands of many, but due to diversity, it is unequally distributed. Therefore some players have better chances in the competition of interests than others.

This argument highlights a constitutive tension between liberty and equality – it is constitutive, which means it is ineradicable, both for democracy and human rights. Pluralists promote the liberal understanding of competitive democracy, the critics insist on the egalitarian reading of democracy.

Within the pluralist model, the tension between liberty and equality is the core of the question on the common good. Liberty means competition, and competition produces winners and losers, i.e. inequality. So when deciding on the common good, the players involved must consider the needs of the weak.

Is there an alternative to pluralism?

The rejection of pluralism implies giving in to the “authoritarian temptation”. The common good is defined by an authority, and whoever disagrees is oppressed as an enemy. Communist parties are an example in point. They claimed sole leadership on the grounds of being able to define the common good by scientific means. Both liberal and egalitarian democracy was rejected.

Ultimately, the alternative to pluralist democracy is a form of dictatorship. This is reflected in Winston Churchill’s remark that “democracy is the worst form of government except for all those others that have been tried”. Pluralist democracy is not without risks, but seems to be the best form of government to handle diversity among its members peacefully.

2. Taking part in democracy – what this unit offers

The students learn that they are taking part in a pluralist democracy:



- They must make themselves heard if they want their interests and ideas to be considered; taking part in democracy also means taking part in the competition of pluralism.
- Taking part in democracy means negotiating for the common good.
- Taking part in democracy requires all players to accept the basic values of mutual recognition, non-violence, willingness to compromise, and rule of the majority.

The unit applies the task-based learning approach. The students understand diversity by experiencing it in class, and they understand pluralism by getting actively involved in the negotiation process on the common good

Lesson 1: first, the students are asked to share their ideas on what they would have at the top of their agenda if they were president or head of government in their country. The students will experience that there is a diversity of opinions and ideas between them. The class is a model of diversity in society as a whole.

Lessons 2 and 3: then the process of negotiation starts. The students who share a certain outlook or basic approach form political parties (other types of groups are omitted in this model setting); others may choose to stand alone. The students define their goals and priorities, and then negotiate. They may or may not find a decision or compromise that everyone, or at least the majority, can agree to – as in reality. They will experience the advantages of organisations, such as parties, over individuals in the competition for setting the agenda and defining solutions.

Lesson 4: the students reflect on their experience and give feedback on the unit.

The teacher's role is that of a facilitator. The students carry the unit through their activities. A few brief inputs by the teacher are suggested to support constructivist learning by the students through instruction on the key concepts. The teacher delivers these inputs when the students are ready for them. The  student handouts and the  materials for teachers provide the resources and information.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 3 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 3?

How this matrix can be used





Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- The matrix makes teachers aware of synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways.
- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, making choices, understanding the pluralism of identities, exercising rights of liberty, responsibility in making choices that affect others.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|--|---|---|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Taking part in democracy Political decision making and action | |
| 3 Diversity and pluralism | Identifying areas of shared intent and conflict Two dimensions of politics: solving problems and struggle for power | Speaking in public Appealing to others Time management | Identifying political priorities and goals Negotiating and decision making | Self-confidence, self-esteem Willingness to compromise |
| 6 Government and politics | Politics: a process of solving problems Power dimension in agenda setting | | | |
| 4 Conflict | | | Negotiating and decision making | |
| 5 Rules and law | | | Agreeing on a framework of rules | Mutual recognition |

UNIT 3: Diversity and pluralism – Consent through dissent?

How do we agree on the common good?

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|---|--|---|---|---|
| Lesson 1 If I were president ... | <p>Defining political priorities, acting within settings of public discussion and decision making, living with open situations of “confusion”.</p> <p>Making a choice, and reflecting on the criteria.</p> <p>Creating a matrix based on categories.</p> <p>Making a brief statement and giving reasons.</p> <p>Four basic political standpoints: liberal, social democrat, conservative, green.</p> | <p>The students define, present and compare their political priorities.</p> | <p>A3 sheet (a prompt for the students).</p> <p> Materials for teachers 3A.</p> <p> Student handout 3.1.</p> <p>A paper strip for each student, ideally with a marker each.</p> | <p>Presenting and analysing policy statements; individual work; plenary discussion.</p> |
| Lesson 2 What goals do we want to promote? | <p>Negotiating, balancing insistence on one’s own goals, and the acknowledgement of the others’ goals.</p> <p>Political parties generate the power necessary to promote political goals. They do so by aggregating and compromising.</p> | <p>The students negotiate a shared agenda of political priorities.</p> <p>They present their party profiles in a publicity event.</p> | <p> Student handouts 3.1-3.4.</p> <p> Materials for teachers 3B.</p> | <p>Group work, plenary presentations, lecture.</p> |

| | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|---|
| <p>Lesson 3 What is the common good?</p> | <p>Participation: negotiation skills. Analysing goals for shared intent. Politics has two dimensions: the solution of problems and the struggle for power. Compromise is the price to pay for support and an agreement.</p> | <p>The students negotiate a decision.</p> | <p>A4 paper strips and markers. Demonstration strips for the “diamond analysis”.</p> | <p>Decision-making game; individual, group and plenary sessions.</p> |
| <p>Lesson 4 Taking part in pluralist democracy</p> | <p>Structuring the results of one’s work. Making brief statements, giving feedback. Pluralism supports fair and effective decision making. “Consent through dissent.” I promote my interests by taking part in democracy.</p> | <p>The students reflect on and discuss their experience and give feedback on the unit.</p> | <p>Flipcharts and markers, a copy of the student handout 2.5 (UDHR) and 2.6 (ECHR).</p> | <p>“Wall of silence”. Individual work, presentation and discussion. Flashlight round.</p> |

Lesson 1

If I were president ...

The students define their political priorities

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Competence training | Participation: defining political priorities, acting within settings of public discussion and decision making, living with open situations of "confusion". Judgment: making a choice, and reflecting on the criteria. Analysis: creating a matrix based on categories. Methods and skills: making a brief statement and giving reasons. |
| Learning objective | The students are able to define their position between four basic political standpoints: liberal, social democrat, conservative, green. |
| Student tasks | The students define, present and compare their political priorities. |
| Materials and resources | A3 sheet (a prompt for the students). 📄 Materials for teachers 3A. ✍ Student handout 3.1. A paper strip for each student, ideally with a marker each. |
| Method | Presenting and analysing policy statements; individual work; plenary discussion. |
| Time budget | Stage 1: The students define political goals. 25 min |
| | Stage 2: The students analyse their decisions. 15 min |

Information box

In the first lesson, the students experience their class as a micro society. They create a diversity of individual viewpoints and political preferences. The students will realise that such a situation needs to be clarified. If each of them imagines that he or she is the political leader of their country and defines his/her top priorities, it is obvious that some choices must be made.

The teacher facilitates the process that follows in this and the following lessons. If the students take their goals seriously, they will be interested in bargaining for a decision that they can accept.

Lesson description

Stage 1: The students define political goals

Step 1.1: Preparation

The students and teacher are seated in a circle with an open space on the floor in the middle. The desks have been moved aside; at least one desk in each corner of the classroom is ready for use.

The students have their equipment at hand for taking notes.

Each student receives one strip of paper, ideally with a marker.

The teacher has the A3 sheet at hand (“If I were president ...”), see below.

Step 1.2: The students make their decisions⁸

The teacher explains to the students that this is the start of a new unit. The students are introduced to the topic through an activity with the following instruction:

Imagine that you have just become president⁹ of this country.

| |
|---|
| If I were president of our country, my top priority would be ... |
|---|

The teacher lays down the prompt sheet in the middle of the circle.

What will your top priority be?

Complete this statement. Here are some points to consider:

You could choose to introduce a concrete measure to achieve a goal at once – or take a first step on the way to achieving a long-term goal.

What group, issue or problem concerns you most?

The students are to think about these questions in silence, and write down their decisions on their paper strip. They should not share their ideas yet, as this will take place in the plenary round.

Each student should present one decision only. If they have more options in mind, they should record these in their notes.

Step 1.3: The students present their decisions

The students present their decisions in turn. They complete the statement “My top priority would be ...” and give their main reasons. They put down their strip in the open space on the floor.

It is to be expected that some students will arrive at similar ideas. As soon this happens, the teacher points this out and suggests grouping these statements together. The strips are clustered accordingly, and an appropriate heading is given, such as “Fight poverty”, or “Improve education”.

The teacher encourages the students to join in the structuring of the inputs. No further discussion or comment on the decisions themselves takes place as long as some students have not had their turn to take the floor.

The result will probably be some clusters, and perhaps also some statements that stand alone.

8. This method is a variation of Exercise 6.3, “If I were a magician” in *Teaching democracy*, EDC/HRE Volume VI, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, 2008, p. 59.

9. The teacher uses the official term for the head of government in the country.

Stage 2: The students analyse their decisions

Step 2.1: The students describe the diversity of their choices

The teacher facilitates this step with an open question:

- Describe the “political landscape” that you have created.


Several students should respond. They may well address the following question; if not, the teacher does so:

- What is the basic idea that links the ideas that form clusters, and for what reasons have other students chosen a different position?

The students will describe the structure of diversity. As they are dealing with options for a political decision, and not with an open exchange of ideas, they will become aware of the need to reach an agreement – by bringing some suggestions together, and by excluding others. The richness of ideas is the product of many citizens taking part in the discussion, exercising their freedom of thought, opinion and expression. A decision must be made, but who makes it?


If necessary, the teacher instructs the students on this decisive insight.

Step 2.2: The teacher gives an information input on basic political standpoints

Each corner of the room stands for one of the four political standpoints. The teacher has provided the briefing papers (prepared with clippings from  materials for teachers 3A) on the desks. The teacher introduces each position in turn, and a student reads out the statements to the class.

The teacher invites the students to use this information:

- Which basic outlook corresponds to their policy statement, or clusters, and which does not?
- Can they identify with any position, or are they somewhere in between? Or would they prefer to define a new position?

The teacher distributes  student handout 3.1 – the schedule of the unit. The challenge for the students is to define their position in the “political landscape”. Political parties are important mediators between different interests, values and preferences. The students are therefore invited to form parties with the objective of promoting the political goals that they have put forward in this lesson. The teacher adds that the students are exercising the human right of political participation. They are free to join or to leave a party, to establish a new party, or stay outside parties altogether. The schedule models a process of political decision making – from political goals in peoples’ minds to the temporary agreement on the common good.

Step 2.3: The students meet in their new parties

During the last minutes of the lesson, the students meet in their parties. They receive  student handouts 3.2 and 3.3 to support them in their discussion.

The teacher talks to the students who have chosen not to join or form a party. They should understand that in this setting, as in reality, parties are the stronger players and will take the leadership. If they take their own goals seriously, they must take an interest in seeing them put into practice. For this to happen, an element of power is necessary. Parties are able to create such potential for power. Therefore the students should consider one of the following options:

- If you have additional options, perhaps noted down earlier, consider joining a party on the grounds of such goals.
- Talk to each other to find out if you can establish a party.
- Wait for the parties’ policy statements and then make a choice.

Lesson 2

What goals do we want to promote?

The students establish political parties

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|---|--------|
| Competence training | Participation: Negotiating – balancing insistence on one's own goals, and the acknowledgement of the others' goals. | |
| Learning objective | Political parties generate the power necessary to promote political goals. They do so by aggregating the individual members' views and interests, and who are therefore required to compromise. | |
| Student tasks | The students negotiate a shared agenda of political priorities. They present their party profiles in a publicity event. | |
| Materials and resources | ✍ Student handouts 3.1-3.4. 📄 Materials for teachers 3B. | |
| Method | Group work, plenary presentations, lecture. | |
| Time budget | Stage 1: The students define the profiles of their parties. | 15 min |
| | Stage 2: Publicity event: the parties present their profiles. | 10 min |
| | Stage 3: The teacher introduces the constructivist concept of the common good. | 5 min |
| | Stage 4: The students discuss their negotiation strategies. | 10 min |

Information box

The students are given most of the lesson for their activities and should complete them within in a tight time schedule (see ✍ student handout 3.1).

The teacher gives a brief lecture that offers the students a new perspective on their current experience. The teacher addresses a lot that students already know, and introduces the key concepts of this unit – diversity, pluralism, the common good.

Through this interplay of constructivist learning, instruction, and a new phase of constructivist learning, the concepts are meaningful for the students, as they help the students to understand the situation they are in.

Lesson description

The teacher refers to the agenda of the lesson (≈ student handout 3.1). The parties adopt their position in the “political landscape” – literally taking their seats there – and work out their profiles. The publicity event will help everyone to define their position – in co-operation or in confrontation with other parties.

Stage 1: The students define their parties' profiles and agendas

Step 1.1: The students identify their position in the “political landscape”

The students who had clustered their policy statements in the previous lesson should now decide where their position is in the “political landscape”. They mark their position with their desks and chairs. Their position could be in one corner, or anywhere in between. In this way, the space between the parties indicates, in a very literal sense, which parties are closer to or in opposition with each other. The closer two parties are, the better their chances will be to form a coalition with common goals.

The students who have chosen not to join a party gather in a free area, preferably in the middle of the room. They share their views. If they wish, the teacher joins them as facilitator. He/she should not persuade them to join a party, but listens to their questions and objections. The students decide whether and how to participate, not the teacher.

The parties should admit new members at any time, as in reality. Students also have the right to leave a party.

Step 2.2: The parties define their profiles

Guided by ≈ student handouts 3.2 and 3.3, the students work out their parties' profiles. The teacher watches and listens, but does not intervene unless asked for support or in the case of serious problems.

Stage 2: Publicity event – the parties present their profiles

This is a publicity event for parties, not for individual students. This can be justified by the limited amount of time available. The parties aggregate individual viewpoints, which serves to reduce the diversity of individual opinions.

Each party has the same amount of time – 2 or 3 minutes, depending on the total number of parties. The teacher makes this clear to the students while they are preparing their presentation, and enforces this rule strictly – for obvious reasons of fairness.

As suggested in ≈ student handout 3.2, the speakers may be expected to appeal to those students who have not yet made their choice. Second, they may attempt to compete with the other parties. Flyers or posters can support the parties.

All students, whether party members or not, can decide to join or leave a party after the event.

Stage 3: The teacher gives an input for reflection: the common good

This input – a brief lecture supported by ≈ student handout 3.4 – serves to link the students' experience with the key concepts of diversity and pluralism. By inserting the lecture into the context of experience and interaction that the students have created, interplay between constructivist learning and systematic instruction takes place.

📄 Materials for teachers 3B offers a draft outline for the lecture.

The students can ask for further clarification if necessary. Otherwise no discussion is necessary, as the students can think about this input in their further work.

Stage 4: The parties prepare their negotiation strategies

The teacher refers to the schedule (see student handout 3.1). In the following lesson, the parties have the opportunity to negotiate with each other. Can they form an alliance, a coalition? There will be a round table session to give all parties and individual students the opportunity to negotiate their idea of the common good. In the last phase of this lesson, the students can prepare their strategies for the negotiations.

- What goals will they give priority?
- What party or parties do they want to approach in the first round of bilateral talks?
- How many delegations will the party set up?

The students resume their internal discussions in their parties. Unless they call the teacher for support, they work on their own.

Lesson 3

What is the common good?

Consent through dissent

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Participation: negotiation skills. Analysis: analysing goals for shared intent. |
| Learning objective | Politics has two dimensions: the solution of problems and the struggle for power. Compromise is the price to pay for support and an agreement. |
| Student tasks | The students negotiate a decision. |
| Materials and resources | A4 paper strips and markers. Demonstration strips for the "diamond analysis". |
| Method | Decision-making game; individual, group and plenary sessions. |
| Time budget | Stage 1: The students define their proposals. 10 min |
| | Stage 2: The students negotiate at a round table. 30 min |

Information box

The unit models the process of negotiating goals defined by a shared understanding of the common good. In this lesson, the students' task is to strive for this goal. They may succeed, or they may not. Their effort and experience is as important as the result.

The teacher continues performing in the role of a facilitator. For example, he/she presents models for negotiation but does not comment on the contents.

During the first phase, special attention should be given to those students who experience exclusion because they have not joined a party.

Lesson description

Starter: the teacher gives details of the schedule

The teacher refers to the schedule (≈ student handout 3.1) and reminds the students of their task. In this lesson, they will negotiate a political agenda. What goals do they propose?

Stage 1: The students define their goals

The students decide what goals to propose. Parties and individuals alike can make a proposal. This seems to give individual “non-aligned” students an advantage; on the other hand, a party proposal has a better chance of being voted to the top of the agenda.

The group speakers or individual students prepare a brief promotion statement.

The students note their goal on a paper strip using a marker.

Stage 2: The students negotiate at a “round table”

The teacher insists on beginning punctually. The students are seated in a circle of chairs; this does not quite fit the “round table” metaphor, but supports communication best. Parties who have formed a coalition sit next to each other.

Step 2.1: The students make their proposals

The teacher opens the round table talks and gives each party speaker, and also individual students, the chance to take the floor. The teacher requests them to report on any agreements they have made, and to make a proposal for a joint decision. They lay down their paper strip on the floor.

Step 2.2: The students analyse their goals and explore opportunities of compromising and integration

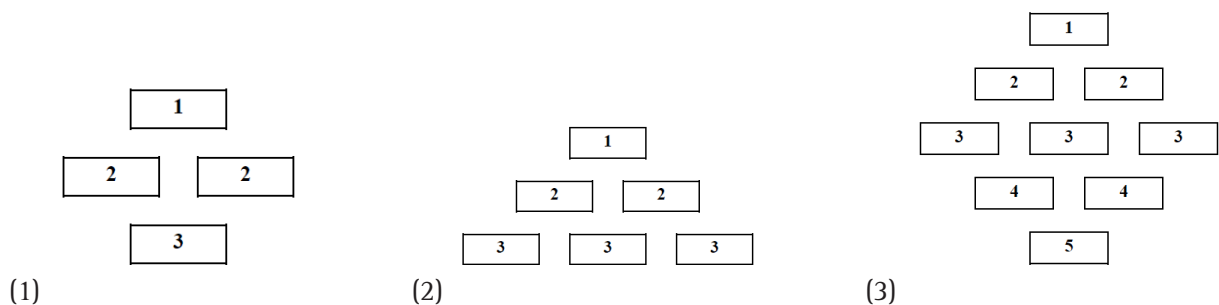
After everyone has spoken, the teacher facilitates possible links and compromises between the students’ proposals.

- Do some of the proposals fit together well? Can these cards be clustered?
- Which proposals exclude each other? Here the students should look at the proposals carefully. Do the goals exclude each other? Or do the goals share the same intent, but demand a big input of effort, resources or money?

Step 2.3: The teacher suggests a model for negotiation

The teacher suggests a model to design a political agenda of goals for the common good. With A4 paper strips marked with numbers as indicated below, he/she introduces model No. 1, a simplified version of the classic “diamond analysis” model (model No. 3).

In the four-goal variant, one goal is given top priority. Two goals are given a second rank, and one goal that is considered to be less important or urgent is given rank 3 (or is omitted altogether – then the teacher removes goal No. 3).



This tight model with three or four goals requires negotiation, as a lot of goals cannot be permitted. On the other hand, fewer goals are easier to implement than an agenda that everybody is happy with, but that is more complicated to handle (the dilemma between inclusion and efficiency). The teacher adds the strips to turn model No. 1 into models Nos. 2 and 3.

The teacher finally points out that all models define only one top priority. So a further, very radical option, would be to define just one goal:

| |
|---|
| 1 |
|---|

Step 2.4: The students negotiate

The students have several questions to agree on. At the same time, these questions open up different paths to compromise and majority support.

- Which model do we choose – how many goals do we want to include?
- Which goals do we give top priority?
- Could we possibly all agree on just one goal?
- Which goals do we include in our agenda? Goals that support each other, or that exclude each other? (The first option works for efficiency, the second for inclusion.)
- Does the agenda as a whole make sense?

Here careful reasoning and arguing is required. Parties have stronger backing for their goals, but others may have better ideas. It is therefore an open question what goals win the highest support.

The inclusion of goals that exclude each other (e.g. green + conservative) is typical for coalitions between parties or all-party rule. The streamlined model of goals (all defined by one party) is more competitive and conflict oriented. The choice between these models is therefore also a choice of political cultures – ways to handle pluralism in democracy. The teacher observes how the students deal with this issue and decides whether to address it in the reflection lesson.

The students shift the cards on the floor to create their agenda model (to form a diamond or pyramid shape). If several models include the same goals, duplicates are used so that the models can be compared.

The cards are finally stuck on to flipcharts to create posters. These will be used in the following lesson.

Step 2.5: The students vote

At the end of the meeting, the students vote by a show of hands. If they have agreed on one set of goals, a unanimous vote may be expected.

If different models have emerged, the students vote on these models.

In this case the teacher suggests the following voting procedure, which must be decided on (by vote) before the voting on the models begins: if any model wins a majority of over 50%, it is accepted. Otherwise a second vote is cast, this time between the two models with the highest number of votes. To account for abstentions, the model with the highest number of votes is accepted.

Lesson 4

Taking part in pluralist democracy

The students reflect on their experience

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Competence training | Analysis and judgment: structuring the results of one's work. Methodical skills: making brief statements, giving feedback. |
| Learning objective | Pluralism supports fair and effective decision making. "Consent through dissent." I promote my interests by taking part in democracy. |
| Student tasks | The students reflect on and discuss their experience and give feedback on the unit. |
| Materials and resources | Flipcharts and markers; a copy of <i>∞</i> student handout 2.5 (UDHR) and 2.6 (ECHR). |
| Method | "Wall of silence". Individual work, presentation and discussion. Flashlight round. |
| Time budget | Stage 1: The students reflect on their experience ("Wall of silence"). 20 min |
| | Stage 2: Follow-up discussion. 15 min |
| | Stage 3: The students give feedback. 5 min |

Information box

Reflection is constructivist learning. The students form their views and share them with each other. The teacher's role is to provide a framework of suitable methods and scheduling. This is an example of teaching through human rights: the students exercise freedom of thought and expression. The strict framework gives every student an opportunity to participate. Such opportunities will never be perceived as equal, as different learning types respond differently to the methods that the teacher has chosen.

The teacher only takes a small amount of speaking time. However, through defining the framework and schedule of the lesson, the teacher's leadership is present all the time. As in other units, the students experience the paradox that liberty not only goes together well with strict rules and leadership, but may even require them.

Lesson description

Preparations:

The political agenda models that the students voted on in the previous lesson are hung up.

Four flipcharts (the “walls of silence”) are hung up around the classroom, with 2-3 markers in different colours placed nearby. The flipcharts should be accessible, with 5-6 chairs in a semicircle around them. Alternatively, the flipcharts can be laid out on two or three desks moved together.

The teacher has prepared the flipcharts before the lesson by writing down the key questions (see below). Spare flipcharts are at hand if the students need extra writing space.

The seating arrangement supports communication. No frontal seating, but a circle of chairs, or desks in an open square – whatever works best with the arrangement of the flipcharts.

Stage 1: The students reflect on their experience (“walls of silence”)

Step 1.1: The teacher instructs the students on how to use the “walls of silence”¹⁰

The students and the teacher are seated. The teacher refers to the topic of the lesson in the schedule (≈ student handout 3.1) – reflecting and looking back, rather than taking in new information or working on a new task. In a reflection session, the students should think, share their ideas, and discuss them.

The teacher introduces the “wall of silence” method and explains why it has been chosen: it is a good method to support reflection, and it gives the students a maximum share of time for thinking and communicating.

The teacher refers to the four posters – the four “walls of silence”:

- **Pluralism**

How did I experience pluralism?

- **Consent through dissent?**

For what reasons did we succeed, or fail, in agreeing on a definition of the common good?

- **Diverse power distribution**

How did we feel being one of the stronger or weaker players?

- **Human rights**

What human rights have we exercised in these lessons? (Copies of ≈ student handout 2.5, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and 2.6, the European Convention on Human Rights, are provided at this point.)

Instructions:

- There should be silence throughout the exercise – hence the name of the exercise, the “wall of silence”. It is a discussion in writing.
- Each student may write as much as he/she wants.
- Minimum requirement: two entries, each on two different “walls of silence”.
- Students can write their answer to the key question or comment on what another student has written. Arrows, lines and symbols can be used.
- The students can walk around, or stay at one poster.

¹⁰ This method is a variation of Exercise 7.1, “The wall of silence”, in *Teaching democracy*, EDC/HRE Volume VI, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, 2008, p. 62.

Step 1.2: The students write their ideas on the "walls of silence".

The students carry out the reflection exercise as they have been instructed. The teacher follows the exchange of ideas and opinions unfolding on the flipcharts, but does not take part. The teacher insists that the rule of silence be strictly observed by all.

This phase lasts for 10-15 minutes.

Stage 2: Follow-up discussion

The teacher calls the students to take their seats (circle of chairs or in an open square) and announces the next phase: the follow-up discussion, chaired by the teacher.

First the students should agree on the topics they wish to discuss. The teacher makes them aware of the need to make a choice in the time available. This would suggest focusing on one or two "walls of silence" rather than commenting briefly on each, but this is for the students to decide.

Such a discussion is a piece of constructivist learning. The teacher cannot, and need not, anticipate what the students will say. The teacher's task is to give structure to the students' contributions.¹¹

Stage 3: Feedback ("flashlight" round)

The teacher announces the end of the discussion so that a final round of feedback on the unit can be held. The method consists of a round of "flashlight" statements. Each student completes the following statement:

"The most interesting or important thing that I have learnt in this unit is ..."

In turn, each student makes a brief statement of 1-2 sentences. No comments are allowed. The students are free to repeat and emphasise each other's statements.

The feedback supports the students in building up a piece of sustainable learning. The teacher receives information with which to evaluate the unit. Both students and teacher can draw on ideas for planning their future work in EDC/HRE (links to other units, extensions).

11. See the chapter in the introduction on constructivist learning.

Materials for teachers 3A

Four basic political standpoints



The liberal standpoint: individual freedom first

- Key principles: personal freedom and responsibility.
- Protection of human and civil rights.
- Free trade and competition as the driving force of progress, modernisation and increasing welfare.
- Capitalism works best if left alone.
- A strong state – but one that confines itself to the rule of law.
- Generous social security benefits make people lazy.
- Personal effort and success must pay – don't tax income and profits too heavily.

Slogan: "No risk, no freedom".



The social democrat standpoint: equality first

- Key principles: equality, solidarity, social security.
- Protection of the weak, the poor, the less privileged.
- Unless it is controlled, capitalism will deepen the social divide. There is no alternative to capitalism, but its effects need to be controlled and corrected by political means.
- We need a system of social security to care for families, invalids, the sick, the old, the unemployed, and the poor.
- Solidarity means that the strong support those in need.

Slogan: "United we stand – divided we fall".



The conservative standpoint: security first

- Key principles: security and stability.
- A strong state is important to protect the country from dangers and threats.
- A strong state rests on a modern, efficient economy.
- The deepening of the social divide should be avoided.
- The family needs special protection.
- Citizens should only ask for support if they cannot cope with their problems themselves.

Slogan: "A strong state in a healthy economy".



The green standpoint: natural environment first

- Key principles: protection of the natural environment, responsibility for future generations.
- Our present way of life, geared to economic growth and fossil fuel consumption, is a serious threat to our future.
- International agreements are necessary to protect the environment on a global level.
- We carry responsibility for future generations, and for the whole planet.
- Small changes in our everyday lives can make a difference.

Slogan: "You can't eat money".

Materials for teachers 3B

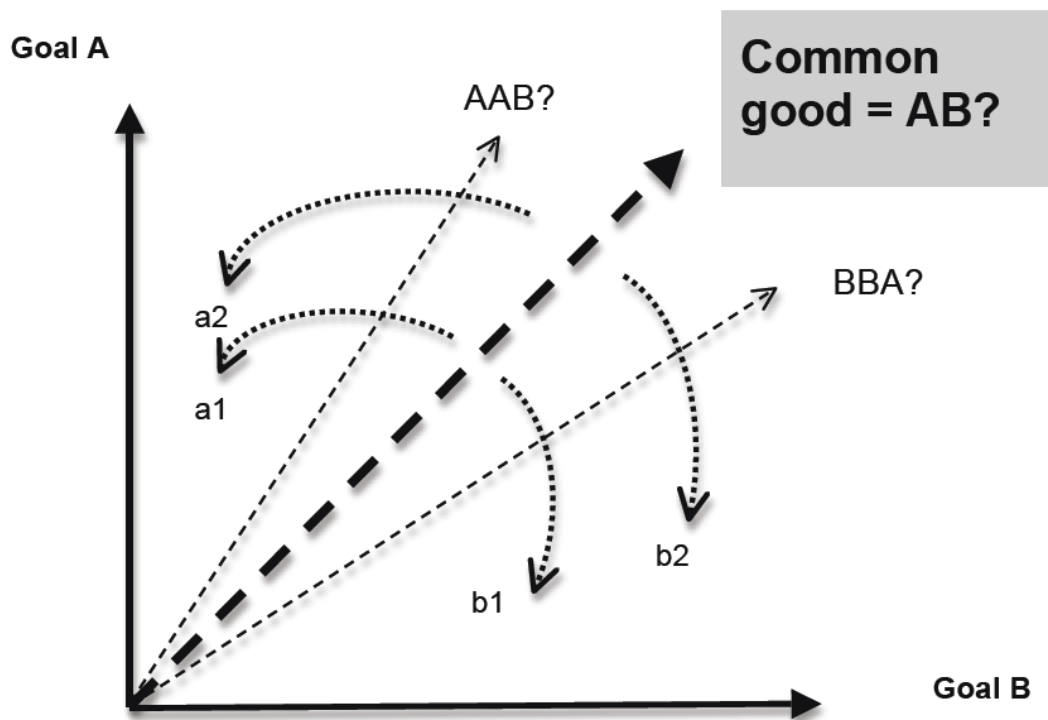
Lecture: what is the common good?

This draft describes the basic guidelines of analysis. The teacher should adapt the lecture to the students' learning needs and the context of the unit.

In democracies, it is understood that no one knows for sure what the common good is, and we therefore have to decide together what we consider to be best for our community. In dictatorships, the regime decides what the common good is – this is one of the big differences between democracy and dictatorship.¹²

Anyone can, and does, take part in this ongoing discussion: political parties, interest groups, the media, politicians, and individual citizens. Essentially, this is what taking part in democracy is all about – debating and finally deciding what is best for the country (or the world), and how to achieve this goal.

This unit is designed as a greatly simplified model of this decision-making process. You began by suggesting your individual ideas on the common good – when you think about your priorities if you were the leader of this country, you are thinking about the common good. Now you are in the middle of forming parties.



In the next lesson, you will negotiate with each other to find out if you can form a majority that defines the common good – for the time being.

This diagram shows what happens in such a decision-making process. Suppose that there are two basic goals under discussion, goal A and goal B (these can be linked to concrete goals that the parties have presented). The three dotted arrows indicate the final choices that the parties advocate – some would like to give priority to goal A (variant AAB), others to goal B (variant BBA). These are different ideas of compromise. Each party stands for a certain agenda that supports certain group interests in society, and it offers to take the interests of the other side into consideration.

12. See *student handout 3.6* for a more detailed treatment of this point.

The parties therefore try to influence decision making in their direction – a1 and a2 in favour of goal AAB, with the parties b1 and b2 pulling in the opposite direction (BBA).

What option is the best in terms of the common good: AAB or BBA? Or is it perhaps a balance more in the middle: AB? A decision must be made. The parties negotiate, and try to find a compromise that they can agree on, and therefore support together. In democracies, compromise is the price to pay for power. The power to decide rests with the majority. The minority, or individuals, can influence the decision by good reasoning.

Decisions made in this way are permanently subjected to critical review. The decision may not serve the common good after all. Conditions may change. Majorities may change. The majority may be convinced by good reasoning to change their minds. A democratic community is a learning community.

Extension (this part can be given separately)

How is all this linked to the key concepts of this unit – **diversity** and **pluralism**?

By exercising their freedom of thought and expression, individual citizens create a widely **diverse** spectrum of individual opinions on what is best for the country. Citizens who are interested in seeing their goals turned into practice form or join organisations such as parties, interest groups, etc. This is organised **pluralism** (see a1, a2, b1, b2 in the diagram).

Pluralism generates competition for power and political influence. A decision requires some goals and interests to be prioritised, while others are rejected. A compromise is sometimes necessary to achieve a sufficient majority.

Citizens who do not take part in this game by articulating their interests and views loudly and clearly will find themselves left out. It is in everybody's interest to take part in democracy.

Materials for teachers 3C

Suggestions for extensions and follow-ups

1. How do parties reflect social cleavages?

✍ Student handout 3.5 and discussion

- What cleavages exist in our society?
- How do the parties in our country reflect these cleavages?
- What decisions and compromises have been made?

2. Pluralism

- What interest groups and NGOs are present in politics?
- Which interests are well organised? Which are not?

3. Compromise

In democracies, pluralism generates the necessity for compromise. Different views are held on this:

1. From the individual player's point of view: compromise is the price to pay for power. Good ideas are watered down to a second best solution.
 2. From a general point of view: pluralism generates competition; the players keep each other in check and ensure that none of them becomes too powerful. Pluralism in society has the same effect as checks and balances do in a constitution.
 3. Viewed from the output perspective: pluralism generates the necessity to compromise. Decisions that go to extremes are rare. This supports social cohesion.
- Which of these views are confirmed by a reality check in your country, e.g. a case study?

4. Comparing democracy and dictatorship

✍ Student handout 3.4

- How do democracies and dictatorships handle diverse interests and views?
- What decisions are made? (Criteria for comparison: inclusion of interests, efficiency, articulation of criticism, role of the media.)

5. The two dimensions of politics

Max Weber:¹³

1. "Politics may be compared to slowly and strongly boring holes through thick planks, both with passion and good judgment."
 2. "Whoever is active in politics strives for power."
- How did we experience the two dimensions of politics in this unit?
 - How do political actors balance these two dimensions in our country?

13. Max Weber, "Politics as a Vocation", pp. 2, 34 (www.sscnet.ucla.edu/polisci/ethos/Weber-vocation.pdf); quotations edited by the author.

Part 2

**Taking part in politics:
settling conflict,
solving problems**

Unit 4: Conflict

The fishing conflict

How can we solve the sustainability dilemma?

Unit 5: Rules and law

What rules serve us best?

A decision-making game

Unit 6: Government and politics

The policy cycle model

How does a democratic community solve its problems?

Unit 7: Equality

Majority rule – a fair rule?

How can we settle the majority/minority issue in democracy?

UNIT 4
CONFLICT
Upper secondary level

The fishing conflict
How can we solve
the sustainability dilemma?

4.1 The fishing game (1)

4.2 The fishing game (2)

4.3 How do we catch "as many fish as possible"?

Debriefing and reflection

4.4 How can we achieve sustainability?

Ways to balance goals and overcome conflict

Unit 4

Conflict

The fishing conflict

How can we solve the sustainability dilemma?

Introduction for teachers

1. What this unit is about

This unit focuses on the problem of how to manage common resources. If political decision makers, companies and citizens fail to solve problems of this type, they may lead to serious conflict and even to war.

To illustrate the issue, imagine the following everyday situation: in a cinema, full of visitors, a small person cannot see much because a giant 1.90 metres tall happens to be sitting in front of him. So the small person stands up. But now other visitors have a blocked view, so they stand up too. In the end, everyone in the cinema is standing. No one can see better than before, and what is more, standing is more uncomfortable than sitting. In fact, now the situation is even more unfair than before, as small people can't see anything.

This example has a lot in common with the “big” resource management problems, for example overfishing. Such problems are difficult to solve because they have two dimensions, as the cinema example shows:

1. What rule do the visitors in the cinema need to guarantee everyone a good view?

(The issue.)

2. In what way can this rule be enforced if someone in the cinema breaks it?

(The institutional dimension.)

Besides overfishing, examples of “big” resource management problems are global warming, disposal of nuclear waste, and overconsumption of groundwater supplies. Many players with competing interests are involved (the issue dimension). On a global level, there is no super-state that can enforce a rule on a sovereign state (the institutional dimension). But the pressure of problems like global warming and climate change is mounting, and therefore political leaders and citizens around the world must make an effort to find a solution.

The fishing game addresses the problem of overfishing, focusing on the issue of sustainability, the first dimension of the problem. The task would become too complex for the students if it also included the institutional dimension; however, it is possible address the institutional dimension by extending and linking the fishing game to unit 5. See the introduction to unit 5 for further information on this option.

2. The fishing game

The fishing game is the key task in this unit, adopting a task-based learning approach. The students face a problem and must find a solution – under time pressure – as they often must in reality. The students reflect on their experiences in lessons 3 and 4.

In the fishing game, the students face the problem of how to manage a common resource. The fishing game is designed around a scenario that seems to be quite simple. The students form four groups

and act as four crews of fishermen living in villages around a lake. The fish stock in the lake is the fishermen's common resource, and their only source of income. The students will immediately become aware that their common interest is to avoid overfishing their fish stock.

However, there are no rules in place, nor are there any institutions such as a fishermen's community council where the players could communicate and discuss the problem. Nor do the fishermen have any idea how many fish they can catch without damaging the reproduction of the fish stocks. The students have the task to identify all these problems, and to take action.

The teacher manages the game. Before the game starts, the players receive the deliberately ambiguous instruction, "Catch as many fish as you can." The players can read this instruction in two ways:

- "As an individual team, maximise your income." (Short-term profit maximisation.)
- "As a community, make sure that you catch as many fish as you can in the long run." (Long-term sustainability.)

Experience has shown that the students usually adopt the goal of short-term profit maximisation. Some groups catch less, and soon discover that they are not only poorer, but that they cannot save the fish stocks by an unco-ordinated effort. A scenario rapidly unfolds in which the fish stocks are in danger of being exhausted, and a gap between rich and poor villages develops. The players may have strong feelings, as the game first produces winners and losers, before the community as a whole slips into poverty.

The students face a daunting challenge:

- They must make a joint effort to solve the problems.
- They must begin to communicate.
- They must collect information on the reproduction of the fish stocks and devise a scheme for sustainable fishing.
- They will discover that they need an institutional framework to make sure that everyone follows the rules that they have agreed on to save the fish stocks.
- Finally they must agree on a rule on how to distribute the catches fairly.

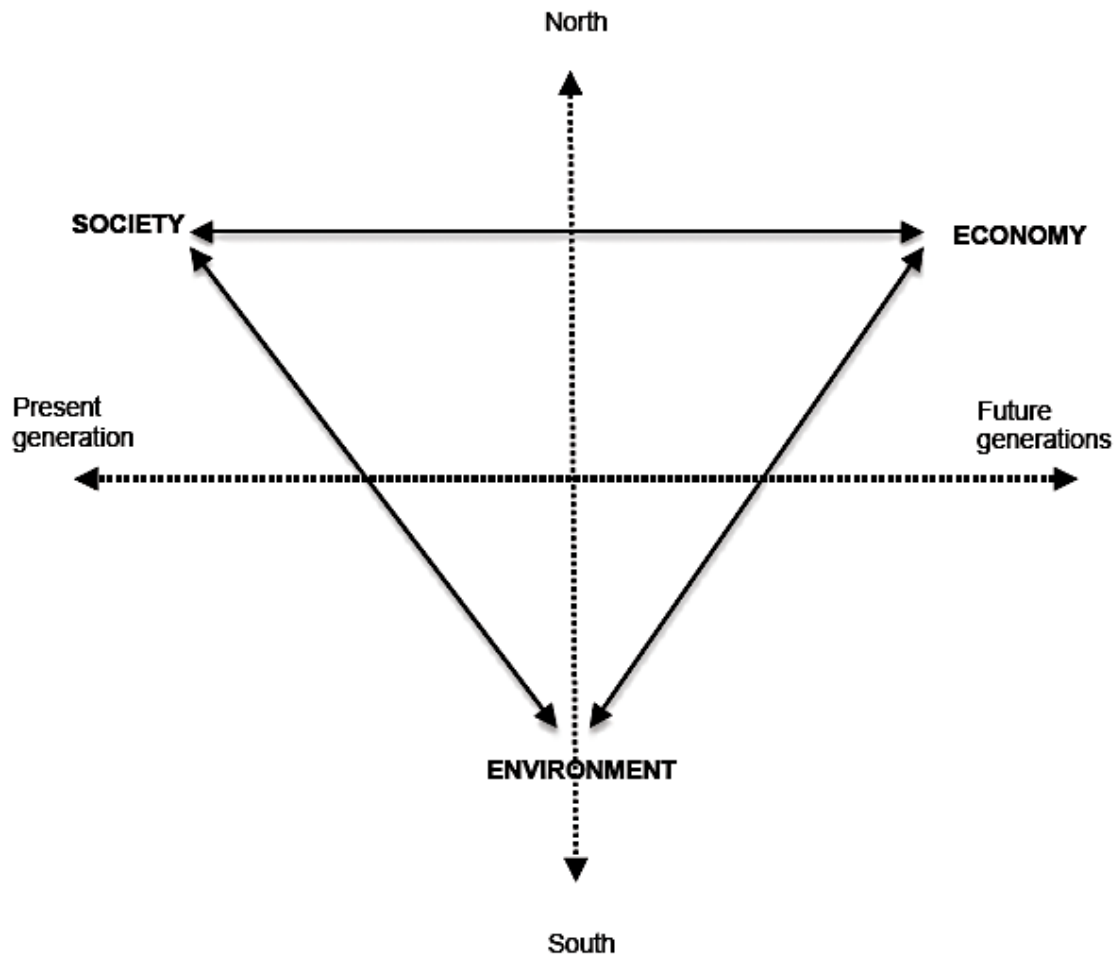
The fishing game, as simple as its design may seem, takes the students to the heart of some of the global issues of the 21st century, and it offers them experience of what politics is about – solving urgent problems that endanger a community, or even mankind.

3. Reflection

The students may succeed in solving some of the problems they are involved in, or they may fail. It is important that in the reflection phase, the students understand that such a failure is nothing to be ashamed of. For one, failure is the more common outcome in reality than success, and second, the fishing game is not a school task, but stands for a complex political problem. No one knows the appropriate solution to a political problem beforehand; we must try to find one.

In the fishing game, the students have discovered a complex set of questions some of which can be linked to the model of sustainability (*see* student handout 4.2):

- What is the optimum level of fishing that is compatible with the reproduction of the fish stocks?
- How can we make sure that this balance of maximum output (goal of economic growth) and protection of the fish stocks (goal of environmental protection) works permanently, today and in future?
- What is a fair distribution of work effort and fishing output among the four villages in the community?



Sustainability model (≈ student handout 4.2)

The model of sustainability includes all three questions. They stand for the three basic goals of economic growth, environmental protection, and distributive justice in society; they are linked to the two dimensions of time (the interests of the present and future generations), and space (the global dimension – north and south).

The model of sustainability describes both the dilemmas that emerge if a player attempts to achieve only one goal, for example profit at the expense of resource protection, and a balance of goals in a successful strategy of sustainability. ≈ Student handout 4.3 guides the students to reflect on the implications of “catching as many fish as possible” from these two perspectives – the goal of temporary profit gains for one player, and from the perspective of a sustainability balance.

Within the game setting, an optimum solution is possible and can be defined in figures; the teacher can supply this solution (≈ student handout 4.4) to support the students if necessary.

This analysis will prompt the students to raise the question of why achieving sustainable development on a larger scale is so difficult, and what the individual citizen can do to support this goal.

Options for extending the unit

1. Linking units 4 and 5

As already mentioned above, the students can explore the question of what institutional framework serves the fishermen’s needs best. This can be a framework of rules, and a body of state authority to enforce it, or a mutual agreement between equals. The students can continue the fishing game and apply their institution as a tool, thereby putting it to the test.

2. Research task

It is obvious that the fishing game stands for political issues ranging from those in the local community to those at the global level. As mentioned above, CO₂ emissions, overfishing, nuclear waste disposal, and overconsumption of groundwater supplies are examples of such issues.

A study of one of these, or other issues, is possible both in an extension in class, or as a research project. In this case, the students are given a lesson to report on their findings, and perhaps discuss further steps to be taken.

The key concept of conflict

All of us have experienced conflict, and for most of us it is unpleasant. In pluralist societies the differences between people with different interests and values tend to increase, which increases the potential for conflict.

Political communities face the challenge of finding ways of dealing with conflict. Democracy is a system that attempts to civilise conflict. It delivers a framework in which to act out conflict not through violence, but through the spoken word. The exchange of arguments and a clear articulation of different interests is even useful, as it gives a clear picture of the needs and interests that the different groups in society have and which should be considered when making decisions.

In pluralist societies with a democratic constitution, conflicts are usually settled by compromise. This works best if the conflict is about the distribution of a scarce resource, e.g. income, time, water, etc. Conflicts that focus on ideology – different values, religious beliefs, etc. are more difficult to settle by compromise; here some mode of peaceful co-existence must be found. Conflicts that centre on identity – colour, ethnic origin – cannot be settled, but need to be contained by a “strong state”.

Potential for conflict is present wherever and whenever people interact with each other. In EDC/HRE, the students may learn to understand conflict as something “normal” that they need not be afraid of. Indeed they must possess the skills to handle conflict through negotiation and responsibility – the willingness to consider the perspectives and interests of others, and to protect the rights of all to participate in peaceful conflict resolution. This manual can therefore be read as a series of training sets for skills in conflict resolution. Taking part in democracy means taking part in settling conflict.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 4 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 4?

How this matrix can be used

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, taking responsibility, problem analysis, negotiation skills.
- The matrix helps teachers make use of the synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways. In this case the teacher selects and combines several units.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|---|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Taking part in democracy Political decision making and action | |
| 4 Conflict | Conflict and dilemma analysis Interdependence Sustainability | Identifying complex problems Negotiating | Compromising Co-ordination of policies | Willingness to compromise Responsibility |
| 2 Responsibility | Dilemma analysis | Considering consequences of choices | | Mutual recognition |
| 3 Diversity and pluralism | Conflict potential in pluralist societies | Negotiating | | |
| 5 Rules and law | “Rules are tools” to handle conflict | Problem analysis and solution | Designing and applying an institutional framework of rules to resolve conflict | |
| 6 Government and politics | Politics – a process of problem and conflict resolution | Description and analysis of political decision-making processes | Participating in public debates on decision making | |

| | | | | |
|------------|--|---------|---|--|
| 7 Equality | Conflict between majority and minority groups | | Designing means balancing group interests | Adopting the perspective of others |
| 8 Liberty | The spoken word – the medium for civilised conflict resolution | Arguing | Strategies of argument | “Voltairean spirit”: appreciation of freedom of thought and expression for all |

UNIT 4: Conflict – The fishing conflict

How can we solve the sustainability dilemma?

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|---|--|--|--|---|
| Lesson 1 The fishing game (1) | Analysing a complex situation, making decisions under time pressure. The students become aware of dilemmas involved in maintaining sustainability. | The students identify problems and develop solutions and strategies. | 📄 Materials for teachers 4.1-4.4. Pocket calculator or computer. Slips of paper (width A4), markers. | Task-based learning. |
| Lesson 2 The fishing game (2) | Negotiating a compromise. Interdependence, conflict of interests. | The students analyse a complex problem. The students (should) co-operate to develop a joint solution. | The same as in lesson 1. | Task-based learning. |
| Lesson 3 How do we catch “as many fish as possible”? | Analytical thinking: linking experience to an abstract concept or model. Model of sustainability goals. | The students reflect on their experience in the fishing game. | ✍ Student handout 4.2. ✍ Student handout 4.3 (optional). | Debriefing statements. Plenary discussion. Individual work. |
| Lesson 4 How can we achieve sustainability? | Analysis and judgment: Reflecting on experience through concept-based analysis. Incentives strongly influence our behaviour. The effect of incentives can be checked by rules (externally) or by responsibility (self-control). | The students apply concepts to their personal experience. | ✍ Student handout 4.2. | Presentations. Plenary discussion. Teacher inputs. |

Lesson 1

The fishing game (1)

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The **learning objective** indicates what students know and understand.

The **student task(s)**, together with the **method**, form the core element of the learning process.

The **materials checklist** supports lesson preparation.

The **time budget** gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Analysing a complex situation, making decisions under time pressure. | |
| Learning objective | The students become aware of dilemmas involved in maintaining sustainability. | |
| Student tasks | The students identify problems and develop solutions and strategies. | |
| Materials and resources | <p>📄 Materials for teachers 4.1-4.4:</p> <p>4.1 Copies of record sheets for groups.</p> <p>4.2 Reproduction chart of fish population (for teacher).</p> <p>4.3 Record chart (flipchart, blackboard or transparency).</p> <p>4.4 Record diagram (flipchart, blackboard or transparency).</p> <p>Pocket calculator or computer.</p> <p>Slips of paper (width A4), markers.</p> | |
| Method | Task-based learning. | |
| Time budget | 1. Introduction to the fishing game. | 10 min |
| | 2. Fishing game (three rounds). | 30 min |

Information box

If conditions allow, lessons 1 and 2 should be combined. But the game may also be played in two separate rounds.

In the beginning, the students are neither encouraged to communicate with each other, nor does the teacher intervene when they do so – except by insisting on the time frame.

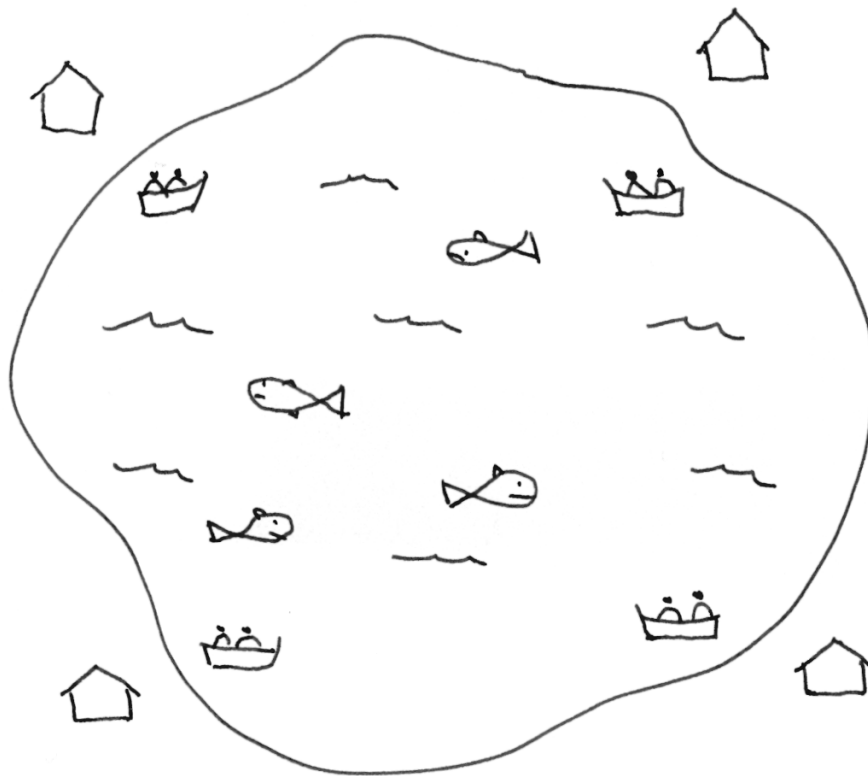
Lesson description

Stage 1: Introduction to the fishing game

The teacher explains to the class that they will play a game that will simulate an important part of real life.

“Imagine that you are members of one of the four village communities living on the shore of the lake. There is plenty of fish in the lake, so you need not worry what to live on. Fishing is the only branch of the economy; you have no other source of income.”

The teacher may illustrate this introduction by a simple drawing on the board or flipchart, showing the lake, some fish, and the four fishing villages, each with a boat setting out from the shore.



“You go fishing throughout the season, but there is a close season in winter and spring to allow the fish population to recover. In these months, you must live on your supplies of dried fish and repair your boats and nets to be ready for the next season.”

The students then receive the instructions on how to play the fishing game.

They form four groups of not more than six students per group. (If there are more than four groups, it is necessary to adapt the chart of results – see  materials for teachers 4.3).

Each group acts as a team of fishermen. They are encouraged to give their boat a fancy name, and are given a record sheet to note down their catches.


The game is played in rounds that represent fishing seasons and close seasons during which the fish population recovers.

The teacher uses just one phrase to define the goal of the game, “Try to catch as many fish as possible.” This instruction may be understood in different ways, but the teacher does not give any further hints, and leaves it to the students to decide on their fishing policy. In lesson 3, the students will come back to this starting point.

At the beginning of the season, each group decides on the quota of fish that it wishes to catch. The maximum quota of fish is 15% per boat. As the fishing population at the beginning of the first season amounts to 140 tons, this means that the maximum catch per group is 21 tons. (Again, the limit per group must be adapted if more than four groups are taking part.)

The teacher gives no extra information on what will happen if each of the four groups goes to the limit and their total catch per group amounts to 84 tons. This is already part of the game: the students realise how little they know. They neither know what path their competitors will choose, nor do they know the reproduction rate of the fish population. If they wish, they can find out by themselves.

Stage 2: Fishing game

The first round begins. The groups discuss what quota to choose. After four minutes the teacher asks for the record sheets from the groups. He/she enters their quotas in the record chart, works out the tons caught by each boat and the total quota and catch in this first season (a pocket calculator or computer proves useful here). He/she enters the results in the chart and presents them to the students. The development of the fish stocks and total catches is depicted in a diagram based on  materials for teachers 4.4.

By referring to the growth table, he/she also tells the students what the total fish population is at the beginning of the second season.

The students are handed back their record sheets and work out their total catch over the seasons.

Experience has shown that students usually tend to go to the limits at the beginning of the game, so a total catch of 70 tons – half the fish population – is quite likely; it may be even higher. If the fish population has been depleted by half, it will recover to reach a new level of 94 tons. This means that the fish population has dropped by a third within one year. The curves on the diagram point sharply downwards and depict the imminent danger of a total exhaustion of the fish stock.

The students will now become aware of this threat. If they all make full use of the maximum quota of 15%, the fish will be near to extinction in two or three seasons. The groups will discuss whether they should reduce their quotas to prevent total extinction. From this point on, every game develops differently, depending, for example, on age and gender.

The following rounds are played in the same way. During the next three rounds, the groups are not encouraged to communicate, but they may do so if they take the initiative. The teacher, as the manager of the game, gives the students some time, but insists on playing the next round after about 5 minutes; this depicts reality – when the season begins, the fishermen must do their job.

After a few rounds, the teacher may perform a “miracle” if the catches have diminished too fast, by adding some extra tons to the figure given in the growth table.

After the fourth round, the teacher encourages the groups to communicate if they have not yet done so.

Sometimes they will reach a joint decision, and sometimes they won't. The groups decide whether and to what extent they wish to be bound by common agreements – as in real life.

Lesson 2

The fishing game (2)

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The **learning objective** indicates what students know and understand.

The **student task(s)**, together with the **method**, form the core element of the learning process.

The **materials checklist** supports lesson preparation.

The **time budget** gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Negotiating a compromise. | |
| Learning objective | Interdependence, conflict of interests. | |
| Student tasks | The students analyse a complex problem. The students (should) co-operate to develop a joint solution. | |
| Materials and resources | The same as in lesson 1. | |
| Method | Task-based learning. | |
| Time budget | 1. Fishing game (round 4). | 7 min |
| | 2. Negotiations. | 15 min |
| | 3. Fishing game (rounds 5-7). | 20 min |

Information box

The students continue with the fishing game, playing a further three or four rounds.

After round 4, the teacher encourages students to talk to each other, if they have not yet done so. The time budget is halted, to give the students an opportunity to exchange their views and suggestions. The teacher decides how long this period is before the students continue.

Lesson description

Stage 1: The students play one round

The teacher presents the results. If the students take the initiative, the teacher lets them go ahead and gives them some time. The teacher announces that the interval between the fishing seasons has been extended by 10 minutes.

Stage 2: Negotiations

The students face a serious problem – overfishing – and they have no institutional framework (rules of communication, system of fishing rules and controls, etc.) to support them unless they create it.

The teacher should not participate in the students' discussions in any way (advisor, commentator, chairperson, coach, etc.), but watches and listens carefully. The learning opportunities in the task-based approach lie in the problems and, as in life outside school, the students must cope alone.

Stage 3: The students play three final rounds

The teacher calls the students to continue the game at its normal pace. Depending on the outcome of the negotiations, the players may change their fishing policy, and the results show some success in averting the collapse of the fish stock.

Lesson 3

How do we catch "as many fish as possible"?

Debriefing and reflection

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Analytical thinking: linking experience to an abstract concept or model. | |
| Learning objective | Model of sustainability goals. | |
| Student tasks | The students reflect on their experience in the fishing game. | |
| Materials and resources | ✍ Student handout 4.2. ✍ Student handout 4.3 (optional). | |
| Method | Debriefing statements. Plenary discussion. Individual work. | |
| Time budget | 1. Debriefing: the students step out of their roles. | 15 min |
| | 2. The students explore the ambiguity in the instruction, "Try to catch as many fish as possible". | 10 min |
| | 3. The model of sustainability goals. | 15 min |

Information box

Debriefing: students step out of their roles. Strong feelings may be involved here.

Inductive approach to the model of sustainability goals: students develop goal categories of the sustainability model out of their debriefing statements. Exercise in abstract thinking.

Constructivist learning: students create the context in which they understand and need the sustainability model. Rather than asking the teacher, they ask the questions in reflection time.

Lesson description

Stage 1: Debriefing

The students step out of their roles in the fishing game

The teacher makes notes on the flipchart or blackboard, leaving space for a second column.

The students may be expected to express strong feelings:

- Conflict between winners and losers.
- Rich and poor fishermen.
- Destruction of natural resources.
- Decline of total fishing output (impoverishment of the whole fishing community).
- Difficult negotiations, e.g. lack of responsibility, some partners unwilling to co-operate.
- Difficult to obtain vital information. Guessing added to overfishing.
- No authority to enforce rules.
- No reward for responsible fishing policy – fishing less means poverty, and additional catches for the other fishermen.

Stage 2: Reflection

The students explore the ambiguity in the instruction, "Try to catch as many fish as possible"

The teacher explains that the students have outlined a complicated problem. To overcome such problems, the first step is to understand them. As in medicine, the doctor needs a diagnosis before he/she can decide what kind of therapy to apply.

The teacher reminds the students of the instruction they received before they began the fishing game and writes the phrase on the blackboard or flipchart: "Try to catch as many fish as possible".

The teacher asks the students to recall how they understood this instruction and what their goal was when they defined their fishing quota. They should think about three points:

"Try" – who should try?

"As many as possible" – what is the limit indicated by the word "possible"?

They spend a minute in silence. The teacher then asks for their inputs. The students explain how they understood this instruction, and give their reasons. When a clear picture has emerged, the teacher takes down the key statements on the blackboard (flipchart).

If the students report back that they adopted the perspective of their village, focusing on their interests, if necessary at the expense of others and of the environment, the result would be as in the following table. But perhaps some students include other perspectives, and the result would come closer to the full picture (see second table).

| Our goal in the fishing game: "Try to catch as many fish as possible." | | | | | |
|---|--|----------------------|--|----------------|--|
| Who? | | As many as possible? | | When? | |
| Our boat | | Limit set | | Today | |
| | | by quota | | | |
| Welfare for us | | Welfare for us | | Welfare for us | |

If they have kept to the perspective of increasing their village's welfare, the result will be striking. The students will see that by their narrow focus on "welfare for us *alone*" they have collectively brought about the catastrophe.

This gives rise to the question whether the students can imagine any alternative, more constructive readings of the goal "catch as many fish as you can".

On the other hand, if the students also include other goals, such as protection of fish resources or responsibility for the other villages in the lake community, the contrast between the goal definitions becomes immediately apparent.

The students may also check whether the initial instruction should be changed. However, if they agree to the model assumption that fish in the lake are the only protein resource available, they will accept it.

In the end, by whatever path the discussion has taken, the students should have recognised and acknowledged that "catching as many fish as possible" can be defined in different ways, entailing different consequences.

The teacher sums up the students' inputs and adds them to the board:

| Our goal in the fishing game: "Try to catch as many fish as possible." | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------------|----------------|--|
| Who? | | As many as possible? | | When? | |
| Our boat | All of us | Limit set | | Today | In the long run |
| | | by quota | By reproduction rate | | |
| Welfare for us | Welfare for all | Welfare for us | Protection of resources | Welfare for us | Responsibility (environment, future generations) |
| Conflict | Peace | Conflict | Peace | Conflict | Peace |

This picture may prompt the students to raise new questions.

Clearly, the alternatives are much more sensible than insisting on "welfare for us" at the expense of all, as the outcome will be conflict. But why didn't we, the players, attempt to balance these objectives from the start, and why was it so difficult to agree on these goals in the negotiations?

Stage 3: The model of sustainability goals


Step 3.1: The students link their discussion to the model


The teacher distributes \approx student handout 4.2 (Model of sustainability goals). The students are given the task of identifying the goal in the model that they have just discussed ("welfare for us" – "welfare for all" – "protection of the environment" – "responsibility for future generations").


The students respond after a brief period of silent study. They will identify the goals in the triangle on the handout, and, depending on their preceding discussion, further goals.

The teacher refers to the explanatory notes (the meaning of the double pointed arrows, dimensions of the goals: sustainability goals, time dimension, global dimension).

Step 3.2: Setting the homework task: the students prepare an input for the following lesson

The teacher sets the students a piece of homework. They are to prepare an input, to be delivered at the beginning of the following lesson. They receive the following instructions as a mini-handout (see  materials for teachers 4.5).

1. Explain why it is difficult to achieve two or more sustainability goals at the same time. Refer to  student handout 4.2 and our discussion in class.
 2. Explain why most players stick to the goal of individual welfare, even when the disastrous consequences have become clear.
- If you wish, you can also refer to concrete examples.
- Have your statements ready in writing.

The teacher has the option of supplying  student handout 4.3 to support the students if necessary.

Lesson 4

How can we achieve sustainability?

Ways to balance goals and overcome conflict

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Analysis and judgment: Reflecting on experience through concept-based analysis. | |
| Learning objective | Incentives strongly influence our behaviour. The effect of incentives can be checked by rules (externally) or by responsibility (self-control). Concepts: incentive, dilemma. | |
| Student tasks | The students apply concepts to their personal experience. | |
| Materials and resources | ✍ Student handout 4.2. | |
| Method | Presentations; plenary discussion; teacher inputs. | |
| Time budget | 1. The students give their inputs. | 10 min |
| | 2. The students reflect on the influence of incentives on their behaviour. | 15 min |
| | 3. The students discuss two basic approaches to solve the sustainability–profit dilemma. | 15 min |

Information box

In this lesson, the students apply the concept of incentives to analyse their behaviour in the fishing game. The game setting encouraged the students to focus on the goal of maximising their short-term gains regardless of the consequences for other fishermen or the common fish resource.

In this concluding lesson, the students discuss ways of controlling incentives that have counter-productive effects. This can be done in two ways. First, by political means (authoritative approach); rules and laws allow or forbid certain types of behaviour. Rewards and punishment are means of enforcement. Second, the individuals control their behaviour themselves through taking responsibility. The students discuss which approach they prefer.

The homework task is important in several respects: students reflect on and record the result of the preceding lesson. They take the floor at the beginning of this lesson, and are actively involved from the start. The teacher receives feedback on what the students have learnt and understood. This gives him/her a guideline on how to continue (constructivist learning and student-centred instruction).

Lesson description

Stage 1: The students give their inputs

The teacher links the lesson topic to the key questions

The students are expected to arrive at the lesson with their statements on two key questions. By thinking about these questions, the students have created the conceptual framework for the whole lesson (constructivist learning).

1. Explain why it is difficult to achieve two or more sustainability goals at the same time. Refer to *student handout 4.2* and our discussion in class.
2. Explain why most players stick to the goal of individual welfare, even when the disastrous consequences have become clear.

If you wish, you can also refer to concrete examples.

Have your statements ready in writing.

The teacher announces the topic of the lesson: how can we achieve sustainability? He/she writes it on the blackboard or flipchart, and gives the floor to the students. Each of the two questions is dealt with in turn.

Question 1: Sustainability goals

The students may be expected to have thought about the following problem: while goals of sustainability harmonise with each other, some are mutually exclusive. Protection of the environment, for example, goes together very well with responsibility for future generations and for mankind as a whole (global perspective, one world). These goals are endangered if the present generation strives for increasing welfare today (economy). Society (the goal of fair distribution) and economy (the increase of output and productivity) may harmonise, but in many cases do not.

The fishing game was a worst-case scenario in which everything went wrong. Even the richer fishing villages faced economic decline.

The students may refer to current efforts to harmonise economic growth and protection of the environment: recycling of waste, production of electricity by wind, sun or water generators, or the development of cars driven by electricity.

Question 2: The goal of individual welfare

The students may be expected to have thought about the following problem: in the fishing game, the “winner” seemed to be the village with the biggest catches. Responsibility for the environment did not pay, in a very literal sense.

In each round, the teacher gives the floor to 6 to 10 students. When a clear picture emerges, the students attempt to sum up what they have heard. The result may come near to what has been outlined here, but may also differ. If the students disagree, this should also be stated.

Stage 2: The students reflect on the influence of incentives on their behaviour

In a brief input, the teacher introduces two concepts that help to understand how the students behaved in the fishing game.

In the fishing game, responsibility for the environment and for the well-being of the others did not pay, in a very literal sense, but maximising the catch to increase one’s own welfare did. This signal was all too clear. This kind of subtle influence on us, prompting us to behave in a certain way, but not forcing us, is called an *incentive*.

Here, the teacher pauses and asks the students to think about incentives that they experience in their daily lives. We may expect examples like the following:

- We tend to buy the cheaper product if the quality is more or less the same.
- We make an effort in school to achieve good marks.
- Parents promise their children a treat if they do well at school.
- Insurances offer bonuses if their customers do not make a claim.
- You receive a gift if you subscribe to a magazine, or if you succeed in convincing your friend to subscribe.
- Some people do not want to get drunk because they fear their reputation will suffer.

The students, or the teacher, draw a conclusion from such examples.

These examples show very clearly that incentives appeal to our individual interests. Often they plainly and bluntly have to do with money, but also with our wish to be successful, or to be accepted by others. Competitive market economies strongly rely on incentives, and the profit incentive is at the core of free market competition. Therefore it is no surprise if the students respond to an incentive that is very familiar to them.

Stage 3: The students discuss two basic approaches to solving the sustainability–profit dilemma

The teacher adds a second prompt, linked to the concept of dilemma. The incentive to increase our individual gain is strong. From the perspective of sustainability the consequences are disastrous if we all respond to the profit incentive, and we know it. We are in a dilemma. We know we should do something to protect the common resources, but if we try, we will experience failure, and end up poorer than the others. So we return to our profit goal, fearing the worst. This situation, in which we do something seriously wrong no matter which option we choose – and we must choose one – is called a *dilemma*.

The students should first ask questions on comprehension. Once they agree to the thesis that the profit incentive in the initial phase of the fishing game is powerful, they may turn to the question of how to overcome its destructive potential. Their experience during the game is important here. Did the students succeed in controlling or co-ordinating their fishing policies? Even if they failed, what solutions were suggested? What solutions would they suggest looking back?

Broadly speaking, we may expect the students' ideas to fall into two categories. They may not address all the aspects included in this ideal-type description:

- *The authoritative approach*: the fishermen need a set of rules and laws, and a system of control and sanctions to enforce them. The fishermen are controlled by an institution standing above them, and this institution – a government, most probably – would also define the goals of sustainability. The liberty to follow profit incentives would be strictly limited.
- *The contract-based approach*: the fishermen sign a contract on rules or principles of conduct, and perhaps also on sustainability goals. They may also agree on a system of controls and sanctions.

Which of the two options do the students prefer? If little time is left, the teacher asks for a show of hands, and one or two students from each side give their reasons. If time allows, a discussion may follow. The students may point out that the weakness of the hierarchical, authoritative approach is that a remote institution may not have a clear understanding of the goals of sustainability. The local contract-based approach has its strengths in its expertise, but may be inferior in sanctioning breaches of the contract. As the fishermen are partners on equal terms, they can hardly police each other.

 **Materials for teachers 4.1**
Fishing game: record sheet for players

| Record sheet | | |
|--------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Boat No. | Name | |
| Season No. | Fishing quota (15% maximum) | Catch (in tons, total amount) |
| 1 | | |
| 2 | | |
| 3 | | |
| 4 | | |
| 5 | | |
| 6 | | |
| 7 | | |
| 8 | | |
| 9 | | |
| 10 | | |



| Record sheet | | |
|--------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Boat No. | Name | |
| Season No. | Fishing quota (15% maximum) | Catch (in tons, total amount) |
| 1 | | |
| 2 | | |
| 3 | | |
| 4 | | |
| 5 | | |
| 6 | | |
| 7 | | |
| 8 | | |
| 9 | | |
| 10 | | |

Materials for teachers (game managers) 4.2

Reproduction chart: recovery of the fish population (in tons of fish)

- At the end of the fishing season 47 tons of fish are left in the lake.
- In the close season, the population of fish recovers. In this example, the fish population amounts to 56 tons at the beginning of the new fishing season.
- The game manager announces this figure to the players, who then decide on their catch in the new season.
- The game manager must not show this reproduction chart to the players.

| End of old season | Beginning of new season | End of old season | Beginning of new season | End of old season | Beginning of new season | End of old season | Beginning of new season |
|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| tons | tons | tons | tons | tons | tons | tons | tons |
| 0 | 0 | 38 | 43 | 76 | 103 | 114 | 147 |
| 1 | 0 | 39 | 45 | 77 | 104 | 115 | 147 |
| 2 | 1 | 40 | 46 | 78 | 106 | 116 | 147 |
| 3 | 1 | 41 | 47 | 79 | 107 | 117 | 147 |
| 4 | 2 | 42 | 49 | 80 | 109 | 118 | 147 |
| 5 | 2 | 43 | 50 | 81 | 110 | 119 | 147 |
| 6 | 3 | 44 | 52 | 82 | 112 | 120 | 148 |
| 7 | 4 | 45 | 53 | 83 | 113 | 121 | 148 |
| 8 | 5 | 46 | 55 | 84 | 115 | 122 | 148 |
| 9 | 7 | *47 | *56 | 85 | 116 | 123 | 148 |
| 10 | 11 | 48 | 58 | 86 | 118 | 124 | 148 |
| 11 | 12 | 49 | 59 | 87 | 119 | 125 | 149 |
| 12 | 13 | 50 | 61 | 88 | 121 | 126 | 149 |
| 13 | 14 | 51 | 62 | 89 | 122 | 127 | 149 |
| 14 | 15 | 52 | 64 | 90 | 124 | 128 | 149 |
| 15 | 16 | 53 | 65 | 91 | 126 | 129 | 149 |
| 16 | 17 | 54 | 67 | 92 | 128 | 130 | 150 |
| 17 | 18 | 55 | 69 | 93 | 130 | 131 | 150 |
| 18 | 20 | 56 | 71 | 94 | 132 | 132 | 150 |
| 19 | 21 | 57 | 73 | 95 | 134 | 133 | 150 |
| 20 | 22 | 58 | 75 | 96 | 136 | 134 | 150 |
| 21 | 23 | 59 | 76 | 97 | 138 | 135 | 150 |
| 22 | 24 | 60 | 78 | 98 | 140 | 136 | 150 |
| 23 | 25 | 61 | 79 | 99 | 141 | 137 | 150 |
| 24 | 27 | 62 | 81 | 100 | 142 | 138 | 150 |
| 25 | 28 | 63 | 82 | 101 | 142 | 139 | 150 |
| 26 | 29 | 64 | 84 | 102 | 142 | 140 | 150 |
| 27 | 30 | 65 | 85 | 103 | 143 | 141 | 150 |
| 28 | 31 | 66 | 87 | 104 | 143 | 142 | 150 |
| 29 | 32 | 67 | 89 | 105 | 144 | 143 | 150 |
| 30 | 34 | 68 | 91 | 106 | 145 | 144 | 150 |
| 31 | 35 | 69 | 92 | 107 | 145 | 145 | 145 |
| 32 | 36 | 70 | 94 | 108 | 145 | 146 | 150 |
| 33 | 37 | 71 | 95 | 109 | 146 | 147 | 150 |
| 34 | 38 | 72 | 97 | 110 | 146 | 148 | 150 |
| 35 | 40 | 73 | 98 | 111 | 146 | 149 | 150 |
| 36 | 41 | 74 | 100 | 112 | 146 | 150 | 150 |
| 37 | 42 | 75 | 101 | 113 | 146 | | |

* indicates the example used here – 47 tons (end of old season) – 56 tons (beginning of new season).

Based on: Wolfgang Ziefle, "Das Fischerspiel", p. 13.

 **Materials for teachers 4.3**
Fishing game: record chart

| Season No. | Population of fish before season (tons) | Boat No. 1 | | Boat No. 2 | | Boat No. 3 | | Boat No. 4 | | Total quota % | Total catch (tons) | Population of fish after season (tons) |
|------------|---|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|---------------|--------------------|--|
| | | Quota % | Catch (tons) | Quota % | Catch (tons) | Quota % | Catch (tons) | Quota % | Catch (tons) | | | |
| 1 | 140 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10 | | | | | | | | | | | | |

 **Materials for teachers 4.4**
Fishing game: diagram of fish stocks and total catches


| Tons | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 160 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 150 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 140 | x | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 130 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 120 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 110 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 100 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 90 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 80 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 70 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 60 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 50 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 40 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 30 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Season No. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Copy this diagram on to an overhead transparency, the blackboard or a flipchart. Record the development of the fish stocks (beginning of season) and total catches (end of season) by marking the tons of fish stocks and catches, and drawing two lines in different colours.

Materials for teachers 4.5 **Homework instructions (mini-handout for students)**

The students receive the following instructions for their homework. This page can be copied and cut into mini-handouts. A written instruction is more precise and saves time in class.




1. Explain why it is difficult to achieve two or more sustainability goals at the same time. Refer to  student handout 4.2 and our discussion in class.

2. Explain why most players stick to the goal of individual welfare, even when the disastrous consequences have become clear.

If you wish, you can also refer to concrete examples.

Have your statements ready in writing.




1. Explain why it is difficult to achieve two or more sustainability goals at the same time. Refer to  student handout 4.2 and our discussion in class.

2. Explain why most players stick to the goal of individual welfare, even when the disastrous consequences have become clear.

If you wish, you can also refer to concrete examples.

Have your statements ready in writing.




1. Explain why it is difficult to achieve two or more sustainability goals at the same time. Refer to  student handout 4.2 and our discussion in class.

2. Explain why most players stick to the goal of individual welfare, even when the disastrous consequences have become clear.

If you wish, you can also refer to concrete examples.

Have your statements ready in writing.



1. Explain why it is difficult to achieve two or more sustainability goals at the same time. Refer to  student handout 4.2 and our discussion in class.

2. Explain why most players stick to the goal of individual welfare, even when the disastrous consequences have become clear.

If you wish, you can also refer to concrete examples.

Have your statements ready in writing.

Unit 4.5 Background information for teachers

Reading list on the fishing game

Reading list

Garrett Hardin (1968), "The tragedy of the commons", in *Science*, Volume 162 (1968), p. 1244, www.garretthardinsociety.org.

Elinor Ostrom (1990), *Governing the commons. The evolution of institutions for collective action*. Cambridge University Press.

Wolfgang Ziefle (2000), "Fischerspiel und Verfassungsspiel. Die Allmendeklemme und mögliche Auswege", in: Gotthard Breit/Siegfried Schiele (eds.), *Werte in der politischen Bildung*, Wochenschau-Verlag, pp. 396-426, www.lpb-bw.de/publikationen/did_reihe/band22/ziefle.htm.

Wolfgang Ziefle (1995), "Das Fischerspiel", in: Landeszentrale für politische Bildung Baden-Württemberg (ed.), *Politik und Unterricht* (1/1995), pp. 7-35.

UNIT 5
RULES AND LAW
Upper secondary level

What rules serve us best?
A decision-making game

5.1 and 5.2 Why does a community need rules?

Rules are tools to solve problems

The students design an institutional framework

5.3 What rules serve us best?

The students compare and judge their solutions

5.4 The conference

The community members agree on a framework of rules

Unit 5

Rules and law

What rules serve us best?

“Rules are tools” – a constructivist approach to understanding institutions

This slogan sums up the key statement on which this unit focuses. Rules, laws, constitutions, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights can all be summed up under the concept of institutions. In this manual, institutions are viewed as products – people created these institutions to serve a certain purpose. In this sense, “rules – or generally speaking, institutions – are tools”.

Institutions are tools to serve purposes such as the following:

- They solve serious problems in society;
- They neutralise potential sources of conflict, as they produce stability and security;
- They define power relations between groups in society with different interests; they may then protect the weak, or exclusively give means of power to a certain group, or even individuals.

Therefore, to understand institutions we must understand the purpose or interest that their creators had in mind. Institutions are complex systems to solve complex problems. They emerge out of processes of negotiation and conflict, revolution or reform. In democracies, institutional development is a process of collective learning that itself takes place in a framework of procedural rules, as constitutions must be modified carefully and with responsibility.

The students understand institutions through designing an institution

This key insight – the constructivist dimension in institutional development – is reflected in the key task of this unit. The students face a political problem and have the task of inventing a framework of rules to solve it. They become aware of the problems that creators of institutions have to deal with, and can analyse the constitution and laws of their country, as well as human rights, with a keener eye, focusing on the purpose of the institutions rather than isolated bits of rules and regulations.

This version of unit 5 is designed as an extension of unit 4, but it can also be used as a separate four-lesson unit (see below for further details on this option). Both variants set the same task and focus on the same subject matter. The problem that the students deal with is how a community of fishermen should sustainably manage their common resource, the fish stock in a lake (for a model of sustainability goals, see ↗ student handout 4.2). At least these four problems must be solved:

1. How can the fishermen avoid overfishing and destroying their fish stock?
2. How can the fishermen achieve a maximum output?
3. How can the fishermen achieve a fair distribution of their income?
4. How can the fishermen achieve these goals in the long term, today and in the future?

The students know the key to the solution of these problems. ↗ Student handout 4.4 gives the figures for the optimum sustainable fish harvest (42 tons). The fishermen need a framework of rules that controls their behaviour to achieve these goals. The students’ task is to design this framework. Broadly speaking, they may choose between the “state” and the “contract” approach. Both have their strengths and their drawbacks (see ↗ student handout 5.2).

Both approaches have worked successfully in some cases, and both have also failed.¹⁴ Whether the students' solution works or not would require putting it to the test, which means playing a few rounds of the fishing game (see unit 4) in an extension to this unit. Units 4 and 5 can therefore be combined to provide a laboratory for institutional design and sustainable resource management – a fascinating project, but time-consuming.

The unit – a model of reality

Like unit 4, this unit is also conceived as a game. The students have come away from unit 4 with an idea of how to solve the problem of overfishing by adopting the goal of sustainability (see ↯ student handout 4.2). They have discussed what type of institutional framework would be appropriate (lesson 4), but have not explored this issue in depth. This version of unit 5 is a continuation of the fishing game, but with a different focus: what rules or laws serve the fishing community best?

Unit 5 simulates the process of drafting and agreeing on an institutional framework for the fishing community. The students therefore step back into their roles as members of the fishing community, but their task is a different one. They design a framework of rules. A model reduces complexity to focus on certain aspects that are important for the problem being studied, and this game is no exception. Here, the players do not have to worry about fishing and securing their livelihood. There is no external power to disrupt their discussions. The game model focuses on the creation of a framework of rules. As in reality, the negotiations may fail – the players may not reach an agreement. In this respect, the success criteria for political negotiations and a process of learning in EDC/HRE differ. The students may learn a lot from their failing to reach an agreement.

The teacher's role – game manager and chair

As game manager, the teacher has (even) less input to give than during the fishing game. He/she acts as time manager, to give structure to the process. Otherwise such a game could not be conducted in EDC/HRE classes. The teacher should not prompt the students to make certain choices. The decision-making process is open-ended – it may fail if the students cannot agree on a draft framework, as different choices are possible. The students' reasons for their choices are as interesting as the result itself.

How to use unit 5 as a separate four-lesson unit

The basic unit design remains the same. The following alterations allow the unit to be used as a four-lesson unit:

- The students act as advisors to the fishing community rather than as citizens. The advisors form teams that draft frameworks of rules, discuss them, and finally agree on what model they want to suggest to the community.
- The first lesson is devoted to studying the problem. The students are given the case story on the fishing conflict (↯ student handout 4.1, and the solution of the sustainability problem – ↯ student handouts 4.2, 4.4). The students therefore need not solve this problem as well, but may focus on the question of by what rules the fishermen can be encouraged, controlled, or even forced, in order to support the goal of sustainable fishing. The students must also deal with the issue of property.

With these modifications in place, the unit can follow the design suggested for the integrated version of unit 5.

14. See Elinor Ostrom, *Governing the Commons. The evolution of institutions for collective action*, Cambridge University Press, 1990.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 5 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 5?

How this matrix can be used

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, analysing a problem, judging the effect of rules, exploring the importance of personal responsibility.
- The matrix helps teachers make use of the synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways. In this case the teacher selects and combines several units.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|---|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Political decision making and action | |
| 5 Rules and law | Basic designs of institutional frameworks and orders of property | Team work, time management Comparison Making a choice | Social contract <i>or</i> agreeing on an option to suggest | Appreciation of rules and laws in civilising conflict |
| 4 Conflict | Absence of rules gives rise to conflict | | Coping with informal settings of conflicting interests | |
| 2 Responsibility | Incentives may strongly influence our behaviour | | Handling dilemmas, prioritising | Awareness of the consequences of our decisions |
| 8 Liberty | Exercise of liberty requires a framework of rules to protect the weak | Debating, arguing one's point | Liberty and framing | Mutual recognition |
| 6 Government and politics | Rules and laws are important tools to solve problems and settle conflict | | Compromise and trial and error in decision-making processes | |

UNIT 5: Rules and law – What rules serve us best?

A decision-making game

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|---|---|---|--|---|
| Lessons 1 and 2 Why does a community need rules? | <p>Analytical thinking, task planning.</p> <p>Identifying a political problem.</p> <p>A framework of rules is the institutional backbone of a community.</p> <p>Hierarchy and networking – two systems of rules; public and private property.</p> | <p>The students draft a framework of rules for their community.</p> <p>The students prepare their presentations.</p> | <p>≈ Student handouts 5.1, 5.2, 5.4.</p> <p>Flipcharts and markers, overhead transparencies or handouts.</p> | <p>Decision-making game.</p> <p>Project work.</p> |
| Lesson 3 What rules serve us best? | <p>Analytical thinking: criteria-guided comparison.</p> <p>Judgment: selecting criteria and goals.</p> <p>Attitudes and values: mutual recognition.</p> <p>Efficiency, control of power, rule enforcement, feasibility, fairness.</p> | <p>The students compare and judge their drafts.</p> <p>Homework: the students make their decisions on the draft framework and the draft rules for the conference.</p> | <p>≈ Student handouts 5.3, 5.4.</p> <p>Flipcharts (or alternatives).</p> | <p>Presentations.</p> <p>Discussion.</p> |
| Lesson 4 The conference | <p>Making a decision.</p> <p>Compromise, framework consensus.</p> | <p>The students attempt to achieve a unanimous decision.</p> <p>The students reflect on their experience.</p> | <p>≈ Student handouts 5.4-5.6.</p> | <p>Voting.</p> <p>Teacher's lecture and discussion.</p> |

Lessons 1 and 2

Why does a community need rules?

Rules are tools to solve problems

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lessons.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Project work (co-operation, time management, self-controlled learning, product orientation, solving problems). Analytical thinking, task planning, identifying a political problem. |
| Learning objective | Rules and laws are powerful tools to influence and control human behaviour. A society without a framework of rules may be disrupted by uncontrolled conflicts between its members. A framework of rules is the institutional backbone of a community. Basic choices: hierarchy and networking – two systems of rules; public and private property. |
| Student tasks | The students draft a framework of rules for their community. |
| Materials and resources | ✍ Student handouts 5.1, 5.2, 5.4. Flipcharts and markers, overhead transparencies or handouts. |
| Method | Decision-making game, project work. |
| Time budget (lesson 1) | 1. The teacher introduces the task. 20 min |
| | 2. The students form groups and work on their project. 20 min |
| Time budget (lesson 2) | 3. The students work on their project. 40 min |

Information box

The game setting follows the principle of task-based learning: the students face a problem and must find a solution. They are informed about the stages of the process and the time frame, and then they work by themselves.

The game requires the students to resume their roles as members of the fishing community and to become players once more, until lesson 4. However, now the students are acting on a different level of reflection, and with a new task. Extreme time pressure, as was the case during the fishing game, is no longer an issue.

Their new task is to design a framework of rules. Such a task has a political dimension: the players must arrive at a decision, as the community cannot survive without a set of rules. The students experience politics as a practical business. To avoid biased solutions, the groups should include members from all fishing villages to take different views and experiences into account.

The teacher's performs in the role of a game manager. The materials managers approach the teacher to collect their working materials. At the beginning of the second lesson, the teacher takes the floor for five minutes.

On this occasion, the teacher distributes the draft rules for the conference in lesson 4. By clarifying the procedure before the conference, the 4th lesson will run smoothly, and enough time will be available for the reflection phase, which is of great importance in task-based learning. If the students have any questions or suggestions to improve the rules, they may raise these points during the second lesson, and decide with the teacher how to handle each point.

Description of lesson 1

1. The teacher introduces the task

The students brainstorm their experience in the fishing game

The teacher gets the students involved immediately by prompting them to recall their experience in the fishing game:

1. Describe the problems that you encountered in the fishing game.

The students may be expected to refer to the goals of sustainability. Depending on what was discussed and on their understanding, they will also talk about the difficulties in balancing these goals, and achieving them over long periods of time. A wide range of answers is possible. The students may respond to each other, while the teacher chairs the input round.

2. Give your opinion on your attempts to solve these problems.

This question includes everything: the goals of the players, their way of communicating, their will and ability to co-operate, the depth of understanding the problem, the final outcome – success or failure. If necessary, the teacher reduces the focus of this broad question.

The students may be expected to address the absence of clear rules. Depending on their decisions, they may have attempted to develop such rules.

The students may also suggest certain approaches: rules require state authority, or work best in small networks with more informal rule setting. They may also have thought about the issue of private or public ownership of the fish stocks. The teacher takes note of such comments, as they may be linked to ↗ student handout 5.2.

The teacher outlines the task.

The initial brainstorming has provided the context for the task. The teacher explains that the fishing community incurred such serious problems because of the absence of a clearly set framework of rules that defined the mode, and perhaps also the goal of interaction.

The students' experience in the fishing game can be generalised:

- No human society exists without conflict.
- No human society will survive without co-operation.
- No community can co-operate or settle its conflicts in a peaceful manner without an institutional framework of rules.
- These rules can be enforced by law, but alternative solutions are possible too.

The students can now explore what rules serve the community best. They return to their roles as members of the fishing community, but now the game is different. They act as inventors of rules. They form groups and draft rules, compare them and judge them, and in a conference, finally vote to adopt a framework of rules for their fishing community.

The schedule for decision making

The students receive ↗ student handout 5.1.

The teacher explains that the game is a model of a political decision-making process – a special one, dealing with the introduction of basic rules, rather than a process taking place in an already established framework.

The game continues until lesson 4, when the students step out of the game and reflect on their experience. ↗ Student handout 5.1 describes the agenda, and gives some information on why this

particular game method is used here. In the game, as in reality, what makes a good framework for the community is a practical question, not an academic one. The students must make a decision.

The teacher distributes \approx student handout 5.2 as a guide to some key questions worth considering. If the students have addressed any points during the brainstorming that may be linked to the student handout, the teacher makes the students aware of them.

Once the students are ready to start, they form groups.

2. The students work on their project (lessons 1 and 2)

The students form groups of four to six. In turn, the members of each fishing crew enter their names on lists on the blackboard or flipchart, making sure that their crew is represented by at least one member of each group. The teacher explains that this is important to take into account the different experiences and perspectives of all four crews. The teacher records the members of the groups.

The group members first assign basic tasks: 1-2 presenters, 1-2 writers, group manager (chair), materials and time manager, monitor. The groups meet at tables set as wide apart as possible. The materials managers collect the materials for their groups.

The students work in groups during the second half of lesson 1 and during lesson 2.

They are free to plan their work, including homework.

Description of lesson 2

The students share their key choices

At the beginning of lesson 2, the teacher asks each group to report on their basic choices – hierarchy or networking – or a mixed system? Should there be private or public ownership of fish stocks? If two or more groups have made the same choices, the teacher encourages them to share their results at some point during the lesson. Such exchanges can be very helpful in the conference, as similar models can be merged into one.

Groups who wish to continue working on their own should not be disturbed.

Agreeing on procedural rules in advance

Once the teacher has taken the floor at the beginning of the second lesson, he/she distributes *↗* student handout 5.4, and asks the groups to read the drafts and decide whether they are acceptable. At the end of the lesson, the groups will be asked to vote. In case of objections or questions, the students should raise these during the lesson.

The groups prepare their presentations

The materials managers collect the materials for presentation during the lesson.

The teacher does not intervene if a group is running late. He/she may remind the group that it is the students' responsibility to have their presentation ready before the third lesson begins, which allows some final touches to be made at home.

The teacher asks the writers to prepare a final document of their draft – in writing, or printed with a computer – that may be signed by all community members (see the procedural rules in *↗* student handout 5.4).

Lesson 3

What rules serve us best?

The students compare and judge their solutions

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Competence training | Analytical thinking: criteria-guided comparison. Judgment: selecting criteria and goals. Attitudes and values: mutual recognition. |
| Learning objective | Efficiency, control of power, rule enforcement, feasibility, fairness. |
| Student tasks | The students compare and judge their drafts. Homework: the students make their decisions on the draft framework and the draft rules for the conference. |
| Materials and resources | ✍ Student handouts 5.3, 5.4; flipcharts (or alternatives). |
| Method | Presentations. Discussion. |
| Time budget | 1. The students present their solutions. 20 min |
| | 2. The students compare the drafts. 15 min |
| | 3. The students are given two homework tasks. 5 min |

Information box

The teacher can roughly anticipate what path the students will take, but no more. The inputs are as new to him/her as to the students. They are dealing with difficult questions that have been answered in different ways, as both history and a comparison of present political systems show. The community members are looking for the solution that serves them best. They agree on the goal, but may have different ideas on how to achieve it.

This lesson is an exercise in democratic political culture.

The teacher should encourage the students to compare and judge the analytical and practical quality of the drafts, and do the same him/herself. The students should realise that preferences for a particular approach in institutional design are often linked to experience and values. These are not open to discussion or reasoning. The students should be encouraged to express them, in a setting of mutual recognition. Whether the community finally adopts their draft is a different question.

Lesson description

1. The students present their solutions

The groups present their drafts in turn. All students use *☞* student handout 5.3 as a tool of comparison.

The order of presentation: groups that share certain basic choices give their presentations following each other, as they can be compared more easily. In this case, two basic alternatives may emerge quickly.

2. The students compare the drafts

☞ Student handout 5.3 gives criteria for comparison. Here are some likely combinations – but the students’ creativity may well have produced other results!

A. Basics

| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 |
|---------------------|---|--|---|--|
| Model of governance | State authority | State authority | Networking | Mixed model |
| Form of property | Public ownership | Private ownership | Public ownership | Private ownership |
| Tendency | Centralised planned economy or “green dictatorship” | Competitive market (capitalism) + “strong state” (Western model) | Cantonal model, autonomous co-operative | Semi-autonomous co-operative; rules for delivery of surplus fish to co-operative |

B. Rules

There is no clear-cut link from certain models to certain rules. Many different combinations are possible. Some of the most important points are raised in *☞* student handout 5.3:

- Has a goal been defined?
- Who has the power to make decisions?
- Have tools been provided for rule enforcement?
- Have safeguards against the abuse of power been included?
- ...

3. The students discuss the drafts

In the discussion, the students apply their criteria to the models. They will probably prefer models that share the basic approach of their own model, so the reasons for these choices will be debated. There are, however, some criteria that all models can be judged by. If the students do not address them, the teacher can do so:

- Goal of sustainability: does the draft framework support the fishermen in achieving the goals of sustainability? (See *☞* student handout 4.1.)
- Feasibility: is the system of rules simple enough to understand and use in practice?
- Fairness: are the rules fair?
- Democracy and human rights: do the rules meet the standards of democracy and human rights?
- Legitimation: a unanimous decision on the framework of rules is highly desirable. Can the community members agree on one set of rules?

4. Homework: the students make their choice

The teacher ends the discussion some minutes before the lesson closes. He/she acts as game or process manager, and explains to the students that in the final lesson, the members of the community will meet in a conference to adopt a framework.

The students have two tasks to prepare for the conference:

Task No. 1: choosing a draft framework

There will be no more time for a detailed discussion. Therefore the students' homework task is to make up their minds. A decision must be taken, therefore they should be willing to compromise. A framework that meets some key criteria is better than the alternative of carrying on without one.

They may give priority to certain basic designs or criteria and find their choice this way.

They should prepare a short statement to appeal to the other community members to adopt their favourite model.

Task No. 2: accepting or modifying the procedural rules for the conference

The teacher explains:

Not only the community itself, but also an important meeting such as the community conference requires a framework of rules. The members must agree on these rules before they start with the conference itself. Without such an agreement beforehand, difficult situations might arise if the members cannot agree how a vote is to be carried out or counted.

✎ Student handout 5.4 contains a draft set of procedural rules. They will be on the agenda first, as they will be applied immediately afterwards. The students should therefore have formed their opinion: do they accept the draft as it stands, or do they want to change it?

Lesson 4

The conference

The community members agree on a framework of rules

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Competence training | Making a decision. |
| Learning objective | Compromise, framework consensus. |
| Student tasks | The students attempt to achieve a unanimous decision. The students reflect on their experience. |
| Materials and resources | ☞ Student handouts 5.4-5.6. |
| Method | Voting. Teacher's lecture and discussion. |
| Time budget | 1. The students hold the conference. 20 min |
| | 2. The students reflect on their experience. 20 min |

Information box

For the students, a conference on a constitution of state founders, as it were, is an exercise in taking part in democracy. The students perform in the role of constitutional legislators. The conference itself requires a framework of rules that the students must adopt before the conference starts. By giving structure to the procedure, the students can take complete responsibility, including the chairing of the meeting.

Task-based learning always requires reflection. Students can only learn by doing if they think about what they are doing, or what they have done. What is its significance? The reflection phase delivers the key insights. The students understand what can be generalised. In this learning sequence, they learn why communities need an institutional framework to survive, and what problems and risks must be observed in giving power to authorities.

For this unit, we suggest a brief lecture by the teacher to bring the richness of insights into focus. The students respond to this input in a discussion round and a feedback questionnaire.

Lesson description

Seating arrangement

In both parts of the lesson – the conference and the reflection – the students are seated in a circle, without desks, or at their desks in a square. The chairperson sits at the teacher’s desk with the blackboard or flipchart at hand.

1. The students hold the conference

The students hold the conference as laid out by the rules that they have agreed on. The teacher watches and listens. Unless the students run into very serious problems (arguments over how the rules are to be applied, for example), which is highly unlikely, the teacher need not intervene in any way.

The teacher observes the students acting in their roles. He/she uses the opportunity to adapt the follow-up lecture to the students’ experience.

2. The students reflect on their experience

The teacher summarises units 4 and 5 in a lecture

The students receive *≈* student handout 5.5 before the lecture. In this lecture, the teacher reviews what has happened in the two games, the fishing game and the decision-making game. They model an historic process in which a society develops into a community with an institutional framework of rules. Depending on the choice that the conference has made, the society may now have founded a state, complete with a constitution and clearly defined powers of legislation and law enforcement. Or the community members may have chosen a networking approach, perhaps to sidestep the problem of the abuse of power. The teacher adapts the lecture to the results of the game. In addition, the students attempted to overcome the source of permanent conflict in the fishing community by defining a policy of sustainability.

This is essentially a process of modernisation. The games show important parallels to social and historic reality, but also significant differences (see the conclusions).

The students respond to the lecture

Such a lecture gives the students food for thought. They know all the facts from their game perspective. What is new, and important for their reflection, is what can be generalised and applied to other issues and tasks.

The students should be free to ask questions of understanding, and make comments – what they agree and disagree with.

They may raise questions on points that interest them. This opens the door for the teacher and the students to plan further lessons and units together. What can be covered in other units, for example in this manual? What can be linked to curricular requirements? How much time is available? Are the students interested in a research task?

Perhaps the students suggest revisiting the fishing game – to play a few more rounds using the level of reflection and understanding that they have now achieved.

The students give their personal feedback

The teacher distributes *≈* student handout 5.6 to the students. This is a questionnaire that supports the students in reflecting on their process of learning. These statements also deliver important information for the teacher to improve his/her future work. If the students have a portfolio, this questionnaire should be filed there.

If the teacher wishes to read the questionnaires, some students may feel more secure if they may answer anonymously.

UNIT 6
GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS
Upper secondary level

The policy cycle model

How does a democratic community solve its problems?

6.1 "Our most urgent problem is ..."

A discussion on political agenda setting

6.2 Politics – how a democratic community solves its problems

The policy cycle model

6.3 Applying the policy cycle model

Research task

6.4 How can we take part?

The policy cycle as a tool for political participation

6.5 Feedback session (optional)

Unit 6

Government and politics

The policy cycle model

Introduction for teachers

The two dimensions of politics

Politics, according to Max Weber's classic definition, has two dimensions: on the one hand, it is a quest and struggle for power, and on the other hand it is a slow and strong "boring (of) holes through thick planks, both with passion and good judgment."¹⁵ 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.

This unit focuses on how this "boring (of) holes through thick planks" takes place, and how citizens who want to take part in democracy can play their part in deciding what problems deserve priority, and how they should best be solved.

The policy cycle model

The students learn how to use a tool to describe and understand political decision-making processes – the model of the policy cycle (see ↗ student handout 6.1). Politics is understood as a process of defining problems, and then debating, choosing 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. If the attempt to solve a problem has succeeded, 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 dealt with in a new policy cycle.

The policy cycle model emphasises important aspects of political decision making in democratic systems:

- a heuristic (constructivist) concept of political problems and the common good;
- competitive agenda setting; in pluralist societies, political arguments are often linked to interests;
- political decision making as a process of collective learning; the absence of omniscient players (such as leaders or parties with salvation ideologies);
- a strong influence of public opinion and media coverage; the opportunity for citizens and interest groups to intervene and participate.

How the model works – what it shows, and what it omits

The policy cycle is a model – a design that works like a map in geography. It shows a lot, and delivers 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.

15. Max Weber, *Politik als Beruf* [Politics as a vocation], Reclam: Stuttgart, 1997, p. 82. (My translation, P.K.)

The manual for students contains materials that are designed as models:

✎ student handouts:

- 1.2 Three options that shape our futures;
- 3.4 How does a democratic political system handle diversity and pluralism?
- 3.5 The concept of the common good;
- 3.6 Map of social cleavages and political parties.

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. This model should also not be mistaken for reality. It focuses on the process of political decision making – “the slow boring of thick planks” – but pays less attention to the second dimension of politics, the quest and struggle for power and influence.¹⁶

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 both these dimensions go together. To establish one’s 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 is 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 (see ✎ student handout 3.6).

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 society’s problems.

The learning potential in using the cycle model

The unit’s potential for competence development includes the following:

Competences of analysis and judgment:

- The students are trained to become active users of media information.
- They develop a keener eye for debates on agenda setting, and different stages of political decision making.
- The students appreciate the negotiation of compromises between different interests (heuristic concept of political problems and the common good).

Competences of political participation:

The students are able to identify the phases in a political decision-making process during which they can intervene and exercise influence (stages before and after the decision).

Didactic framework of the unit

The students are introduced to the policy cycle model as a tool, and they apply it in a research project task. In the last lesson they share and reflect on their findings and their work in the project. The first lesson provides an advance organiser that highlights a key element of the policy cycle – the issue of setting the political agenda. The students will understand the model better after having experienced the simulation of an agenda-setting debate in class. The unit allows for a high level of student activity.

16. Compare  materials for teachers 6.2.

The unit offers the tool to develop the analysis of political decision-making processes, but provides no case study material. This makes it possible, but also necessary, for the teacher and/or the students to select a suitable topic. Criteria for choosing a case study topic include: relevance, comprehensibility, availability of media coverage. A current case will be covered by the initial phases in the policy cycle model, but media coverage is more easily accessible. On the other hand, a case from the past also gives insight into the implementation history and the assessment of the solutions to a problem. The constitutional, legal and institutional framework should also be considered.

An optional feedback session is recommended to evaluate the learning outcome and utilise the learning potential that student feedback offers – both for students and teachers. However, a fifth lesson needs to be set aside for this.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 6 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 6?

How this matrix can be used

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, analysing a problem, judging the effect of rules, exploring the importance of personal responsibility.
- The matrix helps teachers make use of the synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways. In this case the teacher selects and combines several units.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|------------------------------------|--|--|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Political decision making and action | |
| 6 Government and politics | Public argument and negotiation: exercise of human rights, essence of democratic decision making | Criteria for selecting information | Strategic approach to intervening in decision-making processes | Appreciation of negotiation and competition of interests |
| 3 Diversity and pluralism | Pluralism Competition of interests Negotiation of the common good Two dimensions of politics | Making brief statements | Negotiating compromises and agreeing on a temporary concept of the common good | Mutual recognition |
| 4 Conflict | Concept of a political problem | | Identifying a problem, attempting to find a solution | |
| 5 Rules and law | Importance of a shared appreciation of the institutional framework, including the political culture, in democratic systems | | Designing an institutional framework for peaceful decision-making processes | Appreciation of fairness in bargaining for compromises |

| | | | | |
|-------------|--|---|--|--|
| 8 Liberty | Arguing | Speaking in public | Promoting ideas and interests in public | Appreciation of non-violent means of conflict resolution |
| 9 The media | Agenda setting and gatekeeping through the media and media users | Deconstruction of information transformed through media Criteria for selecting information | Adopting the gatekeeping perspective of the media: defining political problems | |

UNIT 6: Government and politics – The policy cycle model

How does a democratic community solve its problems?

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|---|--|---|---|--|
| Lesson 1 “Our most urgent problem is ...” | Judgment: making a choice, giving reasons. Participation: mutual recognition of personal experience, interests and values. A political problem is an issue, not a fact. | The students carry out a discussion on political agenda setting. | Flipcharts and markers in assorted colours, scotch tape. | “Wall of silence” – group work. Presentations and discussion. |
| Lesson 2 Politics – how a democratic community solves its problems | Working with a model. Politics serves to solve problems that affect the community. | The students apply the policy cycle model to concrete examples of their choice (research task). | ≈ Student handouts 6.1 and 6.2. Flipcharts and markers. Newspapers. | Lecture. Group work. |
| Lesson 3 Applying the policy cycle model (research task) | Analysis and judgment: Describing and judging a process of political decision making. Understanding the policy cycle model. | The students apply the policy cycle model to a concrete issue. | ≈ Student handouts 6.1 and 6.2. Newspapers. | Project work. |
| Lesson 4 How can we take part? | Methods: giving, and listening to, presentations. Participation: identifying opportunities for political participation. A model serves as a tool to analyse part of a complex whole. | The students brief each other on their results. The students reflect on the product and process of their work. | ≈ Student handout 6.2, with students’ notes. | Open space presentations. Plenary discussion. |

| | | | | |
|---|--|---|--|--|
| <p>Lesson 5 Feedback session (optional)</p> | <p>Reflecting on one's personal process of learning and competence development.</p> <p>Giving constructive feedback.</p> <p>Reflecting on the class's and teacher's joint responsibility for the success of EDC/HRE classes.</p> | <p>The students reflect on their work (learning outcome and process of learning).</p> | <p>✍ Student handout 6.3 (student feedback).</p> <p>Flipcharts with markers in different colours.</p> <p>One flipchart with a big copy of ✍ student handout 6.3.</p> | <p>Individual work, plenary presentation and discussion.</p> |
|---|--|---|--|--|

Lesson 1

"Our most urgent problem is ..."

A discussion on political agenda setting

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|-------------------------|--------|-------------------|--------|---|--------|
| Competence training | Judgment: making a choice, giving reasons. Participation: mutual recognition of personal experience, interests and values. | | | | | | |
| Learning objective | A political problem is an issue, not a fact. It is urgent, requiring action. It affects the community. As many different interests, ideologies and values are involved, it is an issue whether a problem should be admitted to the political agenda. In a democracy, the citizens participating in such debates exercise their freedom of thought and expression. The media also strongly influence agenda setting (freedom of the press). | | | | | | |
| Student tasks | The students carry out a discussion on political agenda setting. | | | | | | |
| Materials and resources | Flipchart and markers in assorted colours, scotch tape. | | | | | | |
| Method | The "wall of silence" – group work. Presentations and discussion. | | | | | | |
| Time budget | <table border="1"> <tr> <td>1. The wall of silence.</td> <td>15 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. Presentations.</td> <td>10 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Reflection; introduction to research task.</td> <td>15 min</td> </tr> </table> | 1. The wall of silence. | 15 min | 2. Presentations. | 10 min | 3. Reflection; introduction to research task. | 15 min |
| 1. The wall of silence. | 15 min | | | | | | |
| 2. Presentations. | 10 min | | | | | | |
| 3. Reflection; introduction to research task. | 15 min | | | | | | |

Information box

The "wall of silence" is a brainstorming method that supports students who are less extrovert or wish to take some time to think carefully before saying something. Working in silence helps the students to concentrate, and their statements will become more interesting and meaningful. The "wall of silence" is an example of the paradox that a strict framework of rules supports liberty rather than obstructing it. The students act in the role of experts; they cannot give a "wrong" answer to the key question.

The students simulate a public debate on political agenda setting in the classroom. Their experience helps them to understand the policy cycle model better, as the agenda-setting debate is the first phase in the policy cycle model.

They deliver material that they can study more extensively in the research task (lessons 2 and 3). The constructivist approach corresponds to the constructivist method of defining and solving political problems in democracies, as it is modelled by the policy cycle.

Lesson description

1. The “wall of silence”¹⁷

The students form groups of five. Each group is seated in a semicircle facing a flipchart fixed to the wall. Each group has two or three markers in different colours. They work in silence. Within the time limit of 10 minutes, each student makes a minimum contribution of one statement. He or she completes the sentence:

“In my opinion, our most urgent problem is ...”

The students respond to sentences or words already written down, and they may write as much and as often as they want. The group is given a second sheet of flipchart paper if required. The students may also link statements, using arrows or lines and symbols like question or exclamation marks. Their poster will provide a record of their discussion.

The teacher follows the discussion from a distance. He/she does not intervene or take part in the silent debate, but rather makes sure that the rules – particularly working in silence – are observed by the students.

2. Presentation

After the time limit for writing on the poster has expired, the posters should be visible for all students. The students assemble around the posters in two big semicircles. Taking turns, the groups present their posters to the class. Each student has chosen a sentence he/she has not written and reads it to the class, followed by a brief explanation for this choice. Quite often the students focus on one or two statements. No discussion should take place before all students from all groups have spoken.

The teacher collects the students’ statements under general headings in a chart on the blackboard or flipchart, depending on the students’ inputs. Here is an example:

| Our most urgent problem is ... | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|-----|
| Economy | Security | Environment | Society | ... |
| Fight unemployment | Car accidents | Reduce CO ₂ emissions | Improve schools | ... |
| More jobs for young people | ... | ... | Support for young women | |
| ... | | | ... | |

The teacher can hand this job over to a student. The presenters and the class participate in choosing new categories and deciding where to put which entry.

3. Reflection

The “wall of silence” simulates political agenda setting. So what has priority in the students’ opinion? Can the class agree on a problem that deserves priority? The chart helps the students to answer this question. It shows whether the students emphasise issues under a particular category, and if the entries can be linked (see economy in the example above).

But the students may not be willing to agree on one issue. But must they? This is a question worth thinking about.

17. Source: *Teaching Democracy*, EDC/HRE, Volume VI, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg 2008, Exercise 7.1, p. 62.

On the one hand, they live in a free country. They are free to choose whichever issue they consider important and promote it in public. On the other hand, resources are scarce – this is not only a question of taxpayers' money and funds, but also one of time and energy, and last but not least, public attention. Many people can only cope with a very limited number of issues at a time, and tend to lose interest quickly; some media serve and increase the tendency towards a “one-issue agenda”.

The students may also feel that this process of agenda setting is unfair or even “stupid”, as the issues they consider really important fail to receive the attention they deserve. Who corrects these “wrong” decisions?

The answer is – the students themselves, if they think something should be done. In a way, they are forming parties that have different goals and values (“ideologies”), which are permanent protagonists in agenda-setting debates (e.g. workers, environmentalists, minority rights activists).

This discussion opens an interesting path to understanding what purpose parties serve. See the suggestion for an extended research task at the end of this chapter.

4. Research task

But once this has been said, the students can follow their own path of interest. The teacher informs the class that they will have the opportunity to study in detail an issue of their choice. To prepare the research task, the students should therefore collect material from print or electronic media on the issue of their choice. They should not only look for agenda-setting debates, but collect all the information they can find on decisions being made or implemented, statistical data, statements by political parties, lobbies, NGOs, etc.

Lesson 2

Politics – how a democratic community solves its problems

The policy cycle model

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|---|--------|
| Competence training | Analysis: working with a model. | |
| Learning objective | Politics serves to solve problems that affect the community. | |
| Student tasks | The students apply the policy cycle model to concrete examples of their choice. | |
| Materials and resources | Flipcharts and markers. Newspapers. ☞ Student handouts 6.1 and 6.2. | |
| Method | Lecture, group work. | |
| Time budget | 1. Lecture and follow-up questions. | 15 min |
| | 2. Setting up groups for the research task. | 10 min |
| | 3. Research task. | 15 min |

1. Lecture and follow-up questions

The teacher introduces the policy cycle model to the students. They have an understanding of the initial phase in the cycle, the agenda setting, and are ready for the question of what happens once a problem has attracted public attention.

The teacher gives a brief lecture that fits into this context (linking instruction to constructivist learning). The students will apply the information in an extensive follow-up research task. The teacher distributes ☞ student handouts 6.1 and 6.2 before the lecture begins. Both materials should be displayed on a flipchart or overhead transparency for the teacher to refer to during the presentation.

An abstract model is easier to understand if it is linked to a concrete example. This works best if the teacher picks up an issue that the students have addressed in the lesson before. Alternatively, the teacher can use a case story, even a fictitious one, and prepare this beforehand. For the purpose of demonstration, the introductory lecture is outlined here on the issue of reducing car accidents (see lesson 1, chart of students' statements).

Before going into detail the listeners should have the complete picture in broad terms. The students look at ☞ student handout 6.1. The teacher's explanation includes the following points:

- This diagram is a model of a political decision-making process. It shows the different stages within such a process. The process begins at the top – the *debate* on what is to be considered as “the *problem*”. This is the agenda-setting debate we looked at in the previous lesson. Once a problem has made it onto the agenda, the debate on the right solution begins.
- The outcome of this debate is a *decision* – a law, for example, or some kind of action.

- This decision is then *implemented* – it is put into action. Now it takes effect. A new law is applied, for example, or a new hospital is built.
- People will soon form their *opinion*. Do they agree with this decision once they experience its impact? Does it serve their interests, for example?
- Sooner or later, there will be some *reactions*. These can be friendly or critical comments in the media, statements by politicians, or protests.
- These reactions may lead to a *new debate* on what *problems* should be put onto the political agenda. Perhaps some people think the original problem was never solved, and perhaps things have got worse. Or the measures taken have had side effects, leading to new problems. Politics takes place in cycles: some issues must be dealt with permanently, and some solutions need to be improved. So the cycle indicates that politics is a very practical business, following the principle of trial and error.
- But it is also possible that the process *comes to an end* (policy termination). Perhaps the decision worked well and the problem was solved – or a problem does not receive enough attention to warrant further political efforts.

The students may ask questions on points they had difficulty in understanding. The teacher should consider which questions are better dealt with right away, and which can be answered when introducing the example.

In a second step, the teacher gives an example to illustrate the model. There is a considerable amount of repetition, which supports clarity and understanding. The categories are linked to key questions and details. ✎ Student handout 6.2 supports the lecture.

To give an example, a fictitious case story is used. It draws on the example given in lesson 1 – the issue of reducing car accidents (see 📖 materials for teachers 6.1, which is based on ✎ student handout 6.2).

The students ask further questions if necessary, and the teacher can now pass these questions on to the class. In this way, the teacher finds out whether the class has understood the message of the lecture. The students may be struck by the amount of argument and discussion, and the “egoistic” way in which the protagonists promote their particular interests. The teacher points out that this – arguing for one’s interests – is essential in democracy. Only by making one’s views heard is there a chance of them being considered in the decisions that are taken. And in some cases, a compromise is found.

2. Setting up groups for the research task

The discussion need not be taken further. There will be time for this in the last lesson. The teacher now decides with the students which issues they want to study. The material that they have collected serves as a guideline – which issues are under discussion? What decisions have been made in the more recent past?

The students form groups of two to four. They should have their presentations ready for the fourth lesson. They should present their results on ✎ student handout 6.2, which will be copied for sharing with the class.

The students need criteria for choosing an issue:

- *Access to information*: in current processes of decision making, the students will find plenty of information in newspapers and on the Internet. On the other hand, as the cycle is incomplete, they will only be able to cover the first phases, e.g. up to the decision or implementation. A pragmatic approach is therefore to look through the last few weeks’ newspapers and pick up what hit the political agenda.
- *Personal interest*: the students choose an issue that they consider to be particularly urgent. They may refer to the “wall of silence” in the first lesson. But they should realise that access to information may prove more difficult.

3. Research task

The students spend the rest of lesson 2 and the whole of lesson 3 on their research. They plan their work independently.

Lesson 3

Applying the policy cycle model

Research task

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Competence training | Methods: project work. Political analysis and judgment: describing and judging a process of political decision making. Participation and action: responsibility, exercising liberty. |
| Learning objective | The students understand the policy cycle model and can apply it to any piece of information on political decision making. |
| Student tasks | The students apply the policy cycle model to a concrete issue. |
| Materials and resources | ☞ Student handouts 6.1 and 6.2. Newspapers. |
| Method | Project work. |
| Time budget | 1. Group work. 35 min 2. Debriefing. 5 min |

This lesson is devoted to group work. The students work independently, and they are responsible for their work. They are therefore expected to collect all the information they need.

The teacher may choose to support the groups by supplying some sources of information, e.g. statistics, school textbooks, copies of the constitution, or access to the Internet.

The teacher watches the students at work; their strengths and weaknesses in working without the teacher's guidance – as they will have to after leaving school – indicate their needs in skills training.

The teacher calls the students to attend a short debriefing round in the plenary session. The teacher and students plan the presentations in the following lesson; if a group has not finished, it is the students' responsibility to find a solution to the problem.

First, the group should explain why they feel they are not "finished". Do they have additional information they have not read yet? Or are they dissatisfied with the scarce amount of information that was available?

The most preferable option is to leave the problem as the group's responsibility. This sounds tough, but it resembles reality in adult life. The learning opportunities for the students outweigh the faults in their presentation. A feedback after the four lessons is necessary, and sufficient time must be allowed for this. An alternative solution would be to give the students an additional lesson. This option is more suitable if the majority of the students have not finished their work.

Lesson 4

How can we take part?

The policy cycle as a tool for political participation

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Methods: giving, and listening to, presentations. Participation: identifying opportunities for political participation. |
| Learning objective | A model serves as a tool to analyse part of a complex whole. Politics has two sides: the solution of problems and the struggle for power. The policy cycle model focuses on the first aspect. |
| Student tasks | The students brief each other on their results. The students reflect on the product and process of their work. |
| Materials and resources | ☞ Student handout 6.2, with students' notes. |
| Method | Open space presentations, plenary discussion. |
| Time budget | 1. Student presentations. 15 min |
| | 2. Discussion and reflection. 25 min |

Lesson description

1. Student presentations

The lesson begins with the students' inputs. The groups sit at tables arranged around the wall, leaving an open space in the middle. Each group appoints two team speakers who take turns in representing their groups. This allows all students to visit the other groups and be given a briefing on their results.

This decentralised arrangement allows many students to become active simultaneously. No student will have a complete picture in the end. This would take considerably longer, and the amount of information would be too large to remember.

The teacher joins the students and listens, rather than asking questions or commenting.

2. Discussion and reflection

The students assemble in the plenary. They are seated in a circle or a U-form so that they face each other.


First the students and the teacher must agree on the agenda. The teacher suggests focusing on the policy cycle model rather than the issues that the students have studied, and the students should agree before the lesson proceeds as is suggested here.

The teacher asks an open question and then gives the floor to the students:

“What worked well when you applied
the policy cycle model to a concrete example and what didn't?”

The students respond as experts, drawing on their experience in the research task. They may report on technical problems, such as obtaining information or lack of time. They may refer to analytical difficulties, for example, deciding which stage a particular event belongs to: agenda setting, debate on decisions, or reaction to the outcome of a decision. They may have some thoughts about the model itself, questioning whether it accurately depicts reality.

It is not necessary to comment on and answer each point raised by the students, but of course the students and teacher are free to do so, and plan their time accordingly.

There are at least three key statements on the policy cycle model that are worth thinking about (see  materials for teachers 6.2). The teacher should not necessarily deliver the whole set; this is one option among others. A statement may be useful to respond to the students' comments. Otherwise the teacher selects one or more, as a brief input to conclude the discussion.

Lesson 5

Feedback session (optional)

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Reflecting on one's personal process of learning and competence development. Giving constructive feedback. Reflecting on the class's and teacher's joint responsibility for the success of EDC/HRE classes. |
| Learning objective | Feedback is an important tool to improve processes of teaching and learning. |
| Student tasks | The students reflect on their work (learning outcome and process of learning). |
| Materials and resources | ☞ Student handout 6.3 (student feedback). Flipcharts with markers in different colours. One flipchart with a big copy of ☞ student handout 6.3. |
| Method | Individual work, plenary presentation and discussion. |
| Time budget | 1. Individual feedback. 7 min |
| | 2. Plenary presentation of feedback results. 13 min |
| | 3. Follow-up discussion. 20 min |

Information for the teacher

This unit has been selected as one of two examples in this manual¹⁸ to demonstrate how a feedback session may be used to evaluate a unit. This feedback session is optional, but also strongly recommended.

The students give feedback on their work in the project – now focusing on the process of teaching and learning. What difficulties were there, what went well? Which skills do they possess, and what would they like to develop further?

A feedback session is a useful tool to evaluate the impact of EDC/HRE classes by comparing the students' views with each other's and with the teacher's. Feedback requires time, but the investment brings rewards, as the working atmosphere and efficiency of lesson planning may be expected to improve. The feedback session consists of an information input (steps 1 and 2, and a follow-up discussion (step 3).

18. See ☞ student handout 5.6 (for units 4 and 5).

Lesson description

The following procedure is suggested for students who are not familiar with giving feedback. An alternative procedure for classes and teachers with some feedback experience is given below.

1. Individual feedback

The flipchart copy has been attached to the wall or blackboard where all students can see it well. The teacher explains the purpose of the lesson: the students will not deal with a new topic, but will step aside, so to speak, and view the results and their process of learning. They should answer the questions honestly and fairly on the handouts they will receive. They need not give their names.

In the follow-up discussion, the class and the teacher will look at the feedback information to find out how they can improve the learning outcome in EDC/HRE classes together – by keeping what went well, and changing what did not work so well.

The students each receive a copy of *≈* student handout 6.3. The teacher points out that the students should not look at each other's handouts – this is not a test with a set of expected answers.

Part 1 of the handout consists of eight statements on different aspects of teaching and learning – the policy cycle tool, the methods of teaching and learning, co-operation and interaction with other students and with the teacher. These questions are answered by entering a dot on the dartboard – a dot in the centre (No. 5) means “I fully agree”, and a dot in the outer circle (No. 1) means “I fully disagree”.

In the second part, the students may enter their personal “highlight” and “flop” – what was the most interesting and important thing – and therefore worth remembering – that they learnt in this unit? And what was particularly uninteresting, unproductive, or boring – and what will they therefore forget quickly?

2. Plenary presentation of feedback results

The students work in silence. A team of two students collects the worksheets and brings them to the flipchart. One student reads out the dartboard results from each handout, and the other enters them on the big copy of the dartboard on the flipchart. A student can work out the exact total score by adding the scores in each sector and dividing them by the number of students taking part.

The personal feedbacks (part 2) are also read out and entered on two big flipcharts to the left and right of the dartboard, each carrying a title that refers to the feedback question – e.g. what I found particularly interesting/uninteresting.

An alternative procedure

This procedure is time-consuming, but will make it easier for those students for whom this is the first feedback exercise. A more direct method can be applied if:

- the students have some feedback experience;
- (more important) they can trust the teacher not to sanction open criticism, e.g. by giving bad marks or personal verbal attacks;
- (still more important) the students can trust each other to respect each other's differing opinions and learning experiences.

Step 1: In turn, the students come to the flipchart and enter their points directly on the poster. They do not fill in *≈* student handout 6.3. Instead, the students receive red and green strips of paper (white paper marked accordingly will do as well), and enter their personal feedback statements. These are then collected and presented by a tandem team of students. Preferably, the students come forward themselves and read out their statements, commenting on them if they wish.

These strips are attached to the flipcharts, and clustered if they repeat a certain point. Subtitles and keywords give structure to the feedback chart.

Basic rule during feedback input: no commenting, no discussions

Whichever approach is adopted, one basic rule applies: no statements are commented on during the input phase. It may disrupt the time schedule if a premature discussion starts, and the principle of equal opportunity for all is ignored. The teacher chairs the input phase and intervenes if students comment, laugh or deride any statement by other students.

3. Follow-up discussion

A feedback session generates its own agenda, so no advice on how to structure content can be given. Here are some starting points to help the class read the main feedback messages.

Dartboard:

- What questions show a dominant cluster of agreement or disagreement? Why?
- What questions show a spread right across from one extreme to the other? Why?

Personal feedbacks:

- Are there any clusters – statements repeatedly made?

The follow-up discussion may address points like the following:

- What are the strengths of our EDC/HRE classes? Should we continue in the way we have done up to now?
- What are the weaknesses of our EDC/HRE classes? What should we change or improve? In what way?

(The following questions can also be included in an extension to \approx student handout 6.3).

- What is my personal responsibility? What can I personally contribute to our success?
- What would I – as an individual student – like to learn next? What tasks interest me, or help me most?

The students and teacher decide – perhaps even jointly – what results from their feedback session are to be taken further in future lesson planning. One of the most important things that the students – and perhaps also the teacher – should understand is that teacher and students depend on each other to be successful, as professionals and as learners respectively.

Materials for teachers 6.1

Illustration of the policy cycle model – how can we reduce the number of car accidents?

| Concepts and key questions | Notes |
|---|---|
| 0. Topic What is the issue? | How can we reduce the number of car accidents? |
| 1. Problem Who sets the agenda? What is the problem? Do all protagonists agree in their definition of the problem? | Minister of the Interior: more accidents. Young drivers – inexperienced, reckless. Males of all ages – too much alcohol. Motorists' club: more cars on the road; taxes not used for improving road network. Environmentalists: CO ₂ -emissions rising, oil supplies running out and becoming more expensive – support alternatives to car transport. |
| 2. Debate Who is involved? What are the protagonists' interests and values? | Everyone agrees on reducing car accidents. But there are different interests and goals involved in the debate: Minister wants to put pressure on reckless drivers. Motorists want better conditions for car drivers. Environmentalists are worried about global warming. |
| 3. Decision What is the outcome? Have certain interests been given priority – or is it a compromise decision? | The government decides to introduce two bills: Heavier fines for speeding, lower alcohol limits; more traffic controls. Four-lane highways are to be standard within five years. |
| 4. Implementation How is the decision implemented? Who is involved or responsible? Are there problems or conflicts? | More traffic controls, particularly in the evenings and at weekends. Highway extension and improvement scheme is scheduled, first roads under construction. |
| 5. Opinions Which individuals, protagonists, groups, etc. support or criticise the outcome? What are their values, ideologies and interests? | Motorists welcome construction scheme, question controls (more fines – more funds?) Environmentalists deeply disappointed. Demonstrations in the capital. Discussion: found a new green party? |
| 6. Reactions How do they react? (Individually, collectively) What are their means of exercising power and pressure? | Environmentalists hold demonstrations in the capital. Discussion: found a new green party? Truck drivers complain of delays on highways. Minister reports 15% drop in accident figures within 12 months – maintains that success proves his policy right. |

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>7. New problem <i>or Policy termination</i></p> <p>Does a new debate begin on setting the political agenda?</p> <p>Is it the same problem or a new one that is under discussion?</p> <p><i>Or</i> has the decision led to a solution that ends the process?</p> | <p>Minister: no new steps need to be taken. Observe development, discuss situation in 12 months.</p> <p>Environmentalists: alarming rise in CO₂ emissions.</p> <p>Complaints by beer brewers: sales drop by 10%. Jobs at stake.</p> <p>Industry demands speeding up of road construction scheme.</p> <p>...</p> |
|---|--|

 **Materials for teachers 6.2****Key statements on the policy cycle model**

1. Politics has two sides: the solution of problems and the struggle for power. The policy cycle as a model focuses on the first aspect – the solution of problems. The aspect of power is included too, in the way agenda setting depends on the pressure a protagonist can produce. But the main concern of the model is to describe the practical side of politics – in the words of Max Weber, “slowly and strongly boring holes through thick planks, both with passion and good judgment.” That means that the propaganda efforts in the competition for the voters’ support – including personal criticism against political opponents, populism and scandalising – may distort the picture, but are filtered out by this model.
2. This model delivers an interesting view on the concept of the common good. In a democracy, no protagonist knows what is good for everyone – this is the big difference between democracy and dictatorship. Rather, we must find out together, negotiate and bargain, argue and finally compromise. If we are wrong, or the solution was unfair, we will soon know, and have to try again. An open society requires a pragmatic, constructivist approach to answering the question on the common good.
3. Maps, like the policy cycle, are models. They show some aspects of reality clearly, but can do so only by leaving out others. The policy cycle model can serve as a map to answer the question of at what stage we as citizens can intervene and make ourselves heard. If we are not a member of parliament or government, we will not take part in the debate on which decision is to be taken – this is the **output** side of the political system. But the other stages map out the **input** side, and here we can become active. We can comment on a decision, support it or protest against it, and we can certainly participate in debates on political agenda setting. Political problems are not just there, but need to be defined and acknowledged as such (see topic of lesson 4).

UNIT 7
EQUALITY
Upper secondary level

**Majority rule – a fair rule?
How can we settle
the majority/minority issue
in democracy?**

7.1 The majority always rules – ok?

A model case story

7.2 How can we balance majority and minority interests?

Drafting a statute for a micro-community

7.3 Draft statutes

Comparing ideas in institutional design to solve the majority/minority issue

7.4 What is a good way to govern a democratic community?

What is fair, and what works?

Extension: research task

In what way does the majority/minority issue occur in our country, and how is it settled?

Unit 7

Equality

Majority rule – a fair rule?

Introduction for teachers

In democracy, the majority decides, and the minority must accept this decision. Because decisions in democratic systems are temporary and open for revision, the minority can accept being outvoted. But what happens if the minority becomes a “persistent minority” – if it is permanently outvoted? Critics call this situation the “tyranny by the majority”.

The unit focuses on this problem, which is a key issue in democracies. It demands a solution, as social cohesion is endangered if groups in society have the impression that their interests are consistently being ignored.

The students analyse a model case story about a sports club in which two groups, a large one and a small one, argue about how the club budget is to be spent. The problem is less complex than in real society, but the core issue is the same. The students try to solve the problem by designing a statute. Different approaches are possible, and these are also used in designing constitutions – giving minorities rights of autonomy (a federal or cantonal model), and by establishing standards of human dignity and mutual recognition, human rights limit the scope of majority decisions. However, no set of rules will ensure that minorities are treated fairly and that the will of the majority is respected. Democracies depend on a culture of responsibility and mutual respect, that is, on how citizens treat one another of their own free will.

Therefore the tools that the students have developed give them the competence to better understand how the majority/minority issue is addressed in their country. A research task is suggested as an extension and application.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 7 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 7?

How this matrix can be used

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, taking responsibility, problem analysis, negotiation skills.
- The matrix helps teachers make use of the synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways. In this case the teacher selects and combines several units.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|------------------|--|---|---|----------------------|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Taking part in democracy Political decision making and action | |
| 7 Equality | The key issue of how to balance the rights of majority and minority groups in democracy Human rights protect minorities and individuals Federal and cantonal institutional designs protect minority rights | Analysing and solving a political problem | Presenting and arguing for ideas and solutions Making a decision | Mutual recognition |
| 2 Responsibility | | | | Mutual recognition |
| 1 Identity | | | Making choices and defining priorities | |
| 4 Conflict | Conflict of interests | | | |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|--|--|---|
| 5 Rules and law | Institutional frameworks in democracy support non-violent conflict resolution. | | Designing an institutional framework to resolve conflict in society. | Appreciation of peaceful means to resolve conflict. |
| 3 Diversity and pluralism | Pluralist society consists of minority groups with different interests. | | Negotiating. | |

UNIT 7: Equality – Majority rule – a fair rule? How can we settle the majority/minority issue in democracy?

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|---|---|---|---|--|
| Lesson 1 The majority always rules – ok? | Analysing a problem. The problem of the “persistent majority”. | The students identify the problem of the “persistent majority” and suggest solutions. | ≈ Student handout 7.1 (model case story), markers, flipchart. | Individual work, group work, plenary discussion. |
| Lesson 2 How can we balance majority and minority interests? | Working in a team, time management; solving a problem. Rules, laws and constitutions are tools to solve problems and deal with sources of conflict in society. This is the justification for government and authority. However, they may also serve certain interests. | The students draft a statute to deal with the majority/minority issue in a micro-community. | ≈ Student handouts 7.1-7.3. Flipcharts and markers. | Group work. |
| Lesson 3 Draft statutes | Giving brief presentations, comparing and judging ideas and reasoning. Institutional design involves criteria such as feasibility, fairness and stability. | The students explore criteria of institutional design. They give presentations and compare their ideas. | ≈ Student handout 7.4 Matrix for the students’ presentations (blackboard or flipcharts). Flipcharts. A4 sheets. Markers. Glue stick or tape. | Group presentations, plenary discussion. |
| Lesson 4 What is a good way to govern a democratic community? | Judgment: balancing criteria. Dialectics between democracy, fairness and efficiency. | The students judge the draft statutes and explain their reasoning. | Blackboard or flipchart. | Presentations, discussion. |
| Extension: Research task The majority/minority issue in our country | Working. | Research task: 1. Examples of minorities being overruled. 2. Minority protection in our constitution. | Constitution; additional materials (print media, statistics, Internet). | Individual work, group work. Project presentations. |

Lesson 1

The majority always rules?

A model case story

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Analysing a problem. | |
| Learning objective | The problem of the “persistent majority”: the majority decides in a democratic system. The minority is expected to accept both this principle and the decisions produced by majority vote. But what happens when a minority is permanently outvoted? | |
| Student tasks | The students identify the problem of the “persistent majority” and suggest solutions. | |
| Materials and resources | ✍ Student handout 7.1: model case story (one copy per student), markers, flipchart. | |
| Method | Individual work, group work, plenary discussion. | |
| Time budget | 1. Introduction: stating the problem. | 15 min |
| | 2. Setting the task. | 20 min |
| | 3. Group work. | 10 min |

Information box

This lesson introduces the students to the majority/minority issue. In a fictional case story, the problem is stated in the simplest possible way. A sports club is conceived as a micro-community, consisting of just two groups – one large, one small. The problem to be solved – how to balance the rights of the majority and the minority – is the same as that in society and in the political community.

Lesson description

1. Introduction: stating the problem

The teacher explains that the lesson will begin with a case story. He/she distributes a student hand-out 7.1, and a student reads the story aloud. At the beginning of a lesson, this mode of presentation brings the class together more than letting the students read in silence.

The teacher asks one question:

“What is the problem?”

He/she asks the students to think about this question for a few moments and write down the answer. This task gives the “slow thinkers” (who are often careful thinkers) or more introvert students a chance to contribute to the discussion.

In the plenary round, the students give their inputs, drawing on their notes. The teacher listens, and encourages the students to explain their ideas accurately (“active listening”). After about 10 students have spoken, the teacher records the key statements that have emerged on the board. It is to be expected that the students refer to the key principle of democracy, which seems to work to the advantage of the larger group, while the smaller group can refer to the principle of non-discrimination (equality). The teacher links the students’ ideas to these categories, which then give structure and clarity to the discussion:

| A small community: the sports club | |
|--|--|
| The problem | Suggested solutions |
| Violation of equal rights Feeling of discrimination (violation of equal rights) | Minority interests must also be respected (compromise) |
| Permanent winners and losers (“persistent majority”) | Chess players leave the club (scenario of failure) |
| Democracy questioned Majority decides – losers disagree | Change definition of majority |

The students should be aware that this kind of conflict requires some kind of settlement. The exodus of the chess players would harm the interests of everyone. For example, each club would have to cope with additional expenses. So it is worth the effort to find a solution that meets both the principles of democracy and equality.

2. Setting the task

a. The problem

The students will probably have realised that the case story is a model that shows the problems of society, and the majority/minority issue therefore has a political dimension. By studying a model instead of reality, the problem becomes clearer and the task somewhat easier. The results of this model case study can then be applied – compared – to reality. The teacher points out this link between the case story and reality, as this explains the purpose of the task.

Two principles must be observed: **fairness and democracy**.

On the one hand, the majority/minority issue needs to be solved fairly – the minority will not accept being permanently outvoted and seeing its interests and needs ignored. On the other hand, democracy means that the majority rightly insists on taking the decision into its hands. So the students must draft a statute that brings these two principles together.

The teacher distributes ↯ student handouts 7.2 and 7.3 to the students and gives them time to read handout 7.2 in silence. In a brief plenary round the students link the basic approaches outlined in ↯ student handout 7.2 to their ideas on the blackboard.

b. The expected solution

The students need to know what they are to deliver. In small groups, the students will work out a draft statute that provides rules to overcome the scenario of a “persistent minority” that is permanently being outvoted. They can include rules on decision making and perhaps also rules on distributing funds. The students should be aware of the fact that the sports club is a micro-community and their statute resembles the constitution of the state. Teacher and students refer to ↯ student handout 7.3 to clarify further questions on the task if necessary.

c. The procedure

Finally the teacher explains the technical aspects of the task. The students form groups. Their resource managers are called to collect the markers and flipcharts, and the teacher briefs the time managers to take care that the groups are ready by the end of the second lesson.

The teacher has copied the list of key questions on ↯ student handout 7.3 onto a flipchart (see lesson 3 below). He/she explains to the students that these key questions will be the checklist against which to judge and compare the students’ ideas.

3. Group work

The students form groups of four to six. They use the remaining time in the first lesson and continue with the second lesson.

The teacher can ask the team managers to meet him/her at the end of the lesson for a briefing on the groups’ progress.

Lesson 2

How can we balance majority and minority interests?

Drafting a statute for a micro-community

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Working in a team, time management. Solving a problem. |
| Learning objective | Rules, laws and constitutions are tools to solve problems and deal with sources of conflict in society. This is the justification for government and authority. However, they may also serve certain interests. |
| Student tasks | The students draft a statute to deal with the majority/minority issue in a micro-community. |
| Materials and resources | Flipcharts and markers. ✍ Student handouts 7.1-7.3. |
| Method | Group work. |
| Time budget | 40 min |

Lesson description

The students continue their work in groups.

The teacher watches them at work, observing which methods and skills they perform well and where they need training and further help. The teacher can ask for, and give feedback on how the students co-operated in the debriefing session (lesson 4). The groups should work alone as much as possible, and the teacher should certainly not intervene if the students are “making mistakes”. They will learn more if given the liberty and responsibility to discover their mistakes themselves, and if necessary, the class will correct most of the mistakes in the plenary round.

The teacher should also refrain from intervening if a group finds “politically incorrect” solutions, such as handing over all powers of decision to one person (“dictatorial solution”). Here again, this gives interesting inputs for discussion. Quite often the students will challenge a piece of unsound or unacceptable reasoning. The teacher assesses the students’ achievements in competence development and draws conclusions on their learning needs.

Lesson 3

Draft statutes

Comparing ideas in institutional design to solve the majority/minority issue

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Giving brief presentations, comparing and judging ideas and reasoning. | |
| Learning objective | Institutional design involves criteria such as feasibility, fairness and stability. | |
| Student tasks | The students explore criteria of institutional design. They give presentations and compare their ideas. | |
| Materials and resources | <p>✍ Student handout 7.4</p> <p>Matrix for the students' presentations (blackboard or flipcharts).</p> <p>Five A4 sheets with markers per group; glue stick or tape.</p> | |
| Method | Group presentations, plenary discussion. | |
| Time budget | 1. Presentations: draft statutes for the sports club. | 30 min |
| | 2. Comparison of the draft statutes. | 10 min |

Information box

This lesson devotes most of the speaking time to the students. The groups are given the opportunity to express their views (participation), provided their presentations are ready, and the speakers must observe the time limit (efficiency). Participation depends on efficiency. Working efficiently is a prerequisite for taking part in democracy. For this reason, training methodical skills is important in EDC/HRE.

Lesson description

1. Student presentations

The teacher outlines the agenda: the group speakers give their presentations, referring to the key questions in *≈* student handout 7.3. These questions reappear in the matrix. They refer to criteria of institutional design – feasibility, fairness, stability.

The teacher draws the matrix on three flipcharts or the blackboard. To reduce writing time, the teacher attaches A4 size sheets of paper to the matrix showing the key questions. This is also a demonstration of the method of presentation that the students are to use.

| Key questions | Group 1 | Group 2 | Group 3 | Group 4 | Comparison |
|------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|------------|
| Distribution of funds: how? | | | | | |
| Who decides on distribution? | | | | | |
| Autonomy for groups? | | | | | |
| Non-discrimination? | | | | | |
| ... | | | | | |

Each group has up to six minutes for its presentation. The groups present their results in turn. The teacher chairs this presentation session. The students should not begin a discussion before having heard all presentations. However, the presenters should explain the reasons for their group's suggestions.

The teacher encourages the presenters to face the class, and not to establish eye contact with the teacher alone.

A second team member is responsible for recording the information. This student makes brief notes in the sections provided on the blackboard or, preferably, the flipchart (an overhead transparency can also be used). The students take notes in their *≈* student handouts. This record provides the material for the discussion in the following lesson.

The teacher encourages the presenters to explain the reasons for their group's suggestions.

2. Comparing the draft statutes

The students compare the models before judging them. While the group presentations were structured vertically in columns, answering the key questions in succession, the students now switch their perspective and read the matrix across the rows horizontally, comparing the groups' responses to one particular key question. In the last column, the teacher, who chairs this lesson phase, notes the students' findings.

The students keep their own record on *≈* student handout 7.4.

3. Homework – preparing inputs for the discussion

The teacher explains that the students are to begin the next lesson with their inputs. Which of the draft statutes is most convincing in their opinion – and for what reasons?

≈ Student handout 7.4 offers key questions for judging the statute, and also gives the students instructions on how to use these questions, and explains their purpose in EDC/HRE.

Lesson 4

What is a good way to govern a democratic community?

What is fair, and what works?

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | Judgment: balancing criteria. | |
| Learning objective | Dialectics between democracy, fairness and efficiency. | |
| Student tasks | The students judge the draft statutes and explain their reasoning. | |
| Materials and resources | Blackboard or flipchart. | |
| Method | Presentations, discussion. | |
| Time budget | 1. The students share and present their results. | 20 min |
| | 2. Discussion. | 10 min |
| | 3. Conclusion. | 10 min |

Information box

The students share their results and work out a statement shared by all ("snowball system"). This approach involves all the students, rather than listening to a few individual students and ignoring the majority.

Lesson description

1. The students share and present their results

The teacher first asks the students to vote for a certain statute (or for none) by a show of hands. Then the students with the same opinions form groups of four or five. They share their results and work out a statement. Then the groups deliver a brief statement on the reasons for their choice (see *see* student handout 7.4).

2. Discussion

Once the students have voted for different statutes, they hold different views on how the group's models are to be judged. In the discussion, they critically question each other's choices.

The teacher chairs the discussion. At the end of the discussion, the students vote once more. Has any group succeeded in convincing the other? Do the majority of students vote for one particular statute?

3. Conclusion

The teacher announces the purpose of the concluding phase: the students now look at their thinking process and its result from a different perspective in order to appreciate its relevance.

The teacher asks one question: in what way does this case study on a small sports club resemble politics?

The students share their thoughts with each other and with the teacher. The teacher listens, and points out which ideas support or contradict each other.

The teacher sums up the discussion, adding the following point.

In politics, discussions on such complex matters are not academic, but practical. A community must make a choice – it needs a statute as a constitutional framework. So after having considered different options and alternatives with their strengths and drawbacks, a decision must be made – ideally by unanimous vote, or as large a majority as possible. In politics, a discussion on such an issue corresponds to the process of legislation or even deciding on a constitution.

Extension: research task

In this unit, the students have acquired a model to analyse an important element of their constitution and legislative system, answering both the question on how it has been constructed and how it works in reality. They carry out research on the following questions:

1. What are examples of the majority/minority issue in our society?
2. Case study: in what way does our constitution and system of laws settle this particular issue?
3. What is our judgment on the solution?

Part 3

**Taking part in politics:
participation through
communication**

Unit 8: Liberty

Debating in public

Why doesn't freedom (of speech) work without strict rules?

Unit 9: The media

Taking part in democracy through the media

The producers and users of media as gatekeepers and agenda setters

UNIT 8
LIBERTY
Upper secondary level

Debating in public
Why doesn't freedom (of speech)
work without strict rules?

8.1 What issues are interesting for us?

The students take part in planning the debate

8.2 Preparing for the debate

Key statements and debating strategies

8.3 We debate – we decide – we report

Debating and decision making in public

8.4 One debate – different perspectives

The students reflect on the debate

Unit 8

Liberty

Debating in public

Why doesn't freedom (of speech) work without strict rules?

Introduction for teachers

Why doesn't freedom (of speech) work without strict rules?

To some readers, this question may seem strange. After all, freedom means we can say and do what we want. Democracy is a system for open, free societies. Strict rules remind us of something very different – authoritarian rule for example. So what is the message behind this question? Put briefly, freedom and equality are twins. We all enjoy rights of freedom, but we need equal chances to exercise them – and that is what rules are there for. In this unit, the students will experience the importance of this principle for taking part in democracy.

Why this unit focuses on debating

Citizens who take part in democracy will take part in discussions and debates, and in doing so, they exercise their human rights to free opinion and expression. Arguing in public is a skill that can be learned, so students need training in school. For this reason, the students train how to carry out a debate, and this unit is linked to the key concept of freedom. Freedom of speech and expression is particularly important here.

What the students do in the debating lesson

Eleven students take part in the debate. There are two debating teams of five students each, and a chairperson. The other students listen to the debate, but they play an active part too. Three tandem teams of students write a news story on the debate and report back to the class in the last lesson of the unit. The remaining students act as an audience, and their role is to assess the arguments, decide which party has finally convinced them, and vote on which side they support. As in politics, one side wins the majority of supporters.

What will the students learn in this unit?

The debate follows strict rules that make sure that each student receives a fair, equal share of speaking time. So the chairperson will interrupt students who want to speak longer than they are allowed to. But this rule is necessary, as it protects every speaker's right to free expression – but within a strict limit. This is why freedom doesn't work without strict rules (see the subtitle of this unit). Without this principle, no democratic system would work, nor would human rights mean much in people's lives.

What the teacher's task is in this unit

In this unit, a lot of time is given to the students to work on their own in order to train their skills of debating and observation, but also to take responsibility for what they do. Lessons 2-4 all begin with student inputs. When the students work on their own, the teacher acts like a coach: he/she watches the students to find out what they can do well, and which of their competences need more attention and training. He/she supports them if they ask for help, but should not give them the solutions to their tasks.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What does this table show?

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 8 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 8?

How can this table be used?

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, analysis, reflexive use of the media, and responsibility.
- The matrix helps teachers make use of the synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways. In this case the teacher selects and combines several units.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|------------------|--|--|--|------------------------------|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Taking part in democracy Political decision making and action | |
| 8 Liberty | Identifying key statements Linking and ranking arguments; making a choice Analysing the selective construction of reality by the media | Debating: making brief and clear statements Playing in a team Writing a news story | Making a decision by majority vote | Ethics of mutual recognition |
| 2 Responsibility | | | Responsibility is even more important than rules to make democracy work (units 2 and 7) | |
| 7 Equality | Analysing and solving the majority/minority issue | | | |
| 5 Rules and law | | | Neutralising the potential of permanent conflict of interests by designing a framework of laws and rules | |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|----------------------|---|--|
| 6 Government and politics | Studying debates on agenda setting and political decision making | | Identifying where citizens can intervene in political decision-making processes | |
| 9 The media | Analysing the selective construction of reality by the media | Writing a news story | Reflexive use of information transmitted by the media | |

UNIT 8: Liberty – debating in public

Why doesn't freedom (of speech) work without strict rules?

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|--|---|---|--|--|
| Lesson 1 What issues are interesting for us? <i>(3 weeks in advance)</i> | Taking responsibility. Criteria for selecting issues for a debate in class: political relevance, students' interests, links to student's understanding and experience. | The students brainstorm ideas and collect information on issues for the debate. | ✍ Student handout 8.1. Information through the media. Records of personal experience and findings. Flipchart. | Work in tandem teams. |
| Lesson 2 Preparing for the debate | Participation: the students make a choice by vote. Methods and skills: team work. | The students prepare their roles for the debate. | ✍ Student handouts 8.2-8.5, 9.1. Media information. A tabloid and quality paper, a youth magazine. | Group work, co-operative learning. |
| Lesson 3 We debate – we decide – we report | Speaking freely; arguing with an opponent; co-operating in a team. Observing and assessing an exchange of arguments. | The students take part in, or watch and listen to a debate. Follow-up tasks for the groups to prepare for the reflection lesson. | ✍ Student handouts 8.2-8.5, 9.1. | Debate. Group work (vote). Debriefing. |
| Lesson 4 One debate – different perspectives | Analysing and judging a shared experience. Media construct our perception of reality. Rules secure equal opportunities to exercise rights of freedom. | The students compare news stories on the debate. The students reflect on their debating experience. | News stories written by students. 📄 Materials for teachers 9.1. | Presentations. Discussion. |

Lesson 1

What issues are interesting for us?

The students take part in planning the debate

Please note: this lesson takes place three weeks in advance of the others

| | |
|--|---|
| This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson. Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE. The learning objective indicates what students know and understand. The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process. The materials checklist supports lesson preparation. The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management. | |
| Competence training | Taking responsibility; selecting items and materials by applying a set of criteria. |
| Learning objective | Criteria for selecting issues for a debate in class: political relevance, students' interests, links to students' understanding and experience. |
| Student tasks | The students brainstorm ideas and collect information on issues for the debate. |
| Materials and resources | Information through the media. Records of personal experience and findings. Flipchart on the wall to display the students' suggestions, with checklist (names of students with a tick box). ✍ Student handout 8.1. |
| Method | Work in tandem teams. |
| Time budget | Getting the students involved. 15 min |
| | Introduction of the task. 10 min |
| | Work in tandem teams. 15 min |
| | Interval between lessons 1 and 2. 3 weeks |

Information for the teacher: why this lesson takes place three weeks in advance

This lesson takes place three weeks in advance of the others to enable the students to prepare an input for the second lesson and to take part in planning the debate in lesson 3. This lesson serves as an **advance organiser**: the students acquire the information that they need for a task beforehand.

Taking part in planning lessons corresponds to taking part in the community. In all cases the active citizen is the informed citizen. Viewed from this perspective, the advance organiser in this unit demonstrates a general principle of participation in democracy.


The advance organiser requires a time span of approximately three weeks between the first and second lessons. (The teacher must therefore decide how to use the lessons within this interval.) The advance organiser consists of two phases:

Phase 1 (two weeks): the students work in tandem teams. At the end of phase 1, each team has worked out a suggestion for a debating issue that they think is interesting and suitable. They provide information material for the class (one page).

A deadline defines the date when phase 1 ends and phase 2 begins.

Phase 2 (one week): reading time. At the end of phase 2, every student knows all the suggested issues and has read all the materials. Each student has chosen an issue for the debate.

Time structure for the advance organiser

| | | | | |
|---|--|--------|--|-------------------------------------|
| Lessons | Lesson 1 | | | Lesson 2 |
| Student activities | Phase 1 The students work out their suggestion for a debating issue. | | Phase 2 The students read the proposals. | The class chooses an issue by vote. |
| Time line | Week 1 | Week 2 | Week 3 | |
| Deadline  | | | | |

Lesson description

Preparations before the lesson

For step 1, line of debating: if necessary, the teacher has cleared the classroom for the debating exercise.

For step 2.3, instructions on the task: the teacher has attached two flipchart sheets to the wall in the classroom.

1. Getting the students involved

Preparation: the teacher marks a line on the floor with a piece of string, about five metres long. The students will need enough space to be able to stand on either side of this line, facing each other. If the classroom is too small or too crowded, this exercise can be done in the corridor.

The teacher asks the students to stand up and form a circle around the line. Then the teacher announces: “Every child should spend an additional year at school.”

The teacher asks the students to move to one side of the line – to the left, if they support the statement, to the right if they disagree. They spend a few minutes sharing their reasons and ideas.

Then the teacher asks the groups to exchange their arguments. There are a few rules to be observed:

1. The two sides take turns in presenting an argument.
2. The speakers must not be interrupted.
3. The speakers have 30 seconds to make their points.

The students then engage in an exchange of arguments that resembles a debate. After five minutes, or earlier if one side has run out of ideas, the teacher stops the debate and asks the students to return to their seats – ideally arranged in an open square to support communication.

2. Introduction of the task

2.1 Why debating is important for taking part in democracy

The teacher refers to the previous activity – it was a debate. Within a short time, many ideas and arguments were exchanged. The students may comment on their experience.

The teacher explains that the students should develop their debating skills, as many discussions in democratic settings are conducted in this way. Citizens enjoy the human rights to free opinion and expression, but they need debating skills to exercise them.

The teacher makes sure that the students understand and accept this definition of their training task.

2.2 Clarification: what makes a good issue for a debate?

The teacher refers to the topic – it was a good issue for a debate, as the students showed. What makes a good issue for a debate?

The teacher listens to the students’ ideas and suggestions, and sums them up in keywords on the blackboard or flipchart. It may be expected that they will largely correspond to the five criteria (3a-3e) on *↗* student handout 8.1.

The teacher explains that the forthcoming debate will be more interesting, and the students will be more successful if they carry out the debate on an issue of their choice. They therefore have the opportunity to choose an issue in the next lesson in three weeks time. Until then, they should develop suggestions for the issue the debate is to be held on. The class will make a choice in the second lesson.

The teacher distributes *≈* student handout 8.1 and refers to the criteria the students have suggested and asks them to compare them with the criteria under 3a-3e on the handout. If the students and teacher agree to modify the list of criteria, they do so.

2.3 Task instructions: collecting the ideas on the flipchart

The teacher goes to the flipcharts on the wall and asks the students to read *≈* student handout 8.1 while he/she draws the following layout:

| What is a good issue for a debate? | | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Everyday or school life | Social or cultural issues | Political issues | Other issues |
| | | | |

After the students have read the handout, the teacher refers to the flipchart. The issue the students discussed at the beginning of the lesson was a political issue – how education should be organised in our country. But other issues are interesting too:

- Political issues;
- Social issues;
- Issues in school or everyday life;
- Other issues – for all other ideas.

The students can either draw on their personal experience or what they know about the current political agenda, or they can search for information.

At this point, the students should have some examples. The teacher encourages the students to come forward with their ideas. If this proves too difficult, the teacher can help with these examples:

- *Everyday or school life*: “Cars do more harm than good.”
- *Social or cultural issues*: “Television plays a positive role in society.”
(Or: the Internet, mobile phones, etc.)
- *Political issues*: “Women should be treated the same as men.”

2.4 Task instructions: observing the deadline

Finally the teacher explains why there is a deadline. To give everyone the chance to read the materials, a deadline is given – five school days before the first lesson is due. The students must understand that they will select the issue, but they must have read the materials beforehand. Otherwise a democratic vote cannot take place, as this has to be organised efficiently within the time available during the lesson. There will be no time during the lesson to read the materials.

The teacher tells the students where to deposit their note sheet and materials.

Finally he/she points out that it is important for the students to make up their minds which issue they would like hold the debate on.

3. Work in tandem teams

The students form tandem teams and work on their own, following the instructions given on the handout and during the lesson. They set their own homework.

Lesson 2

Preparing for the debate

Key statements and debating strategies

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|--------|-----------------------------------|--------|----------------|--------|
| Competence training | Participation: the students make a choice by vote. Methods and skills: team work. | | | | | | |
| Learning objective | | | | | | | |
| Student tasks | The students prepare their roles for the debate. | | | | | | |
| Materials and resources | ☞ Student handouts 8.2-8.5, 9.1. Media information. A tabloid and quality paper, a youth magazine. | | | | | | |
| Method | Group work, co-operative learning. | | | | | | |
| Time budget | <table border="1"> <tr> <td>1. The students choose an issue.</td> <td>10 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. Forming groups for the debate.</td> <td>10 min</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Group work.</td> <td>20 min</td> </tr> </table> | 1. The students choose an issue. | 10 min | 2. Forming groups for the debate. | 10 min | 3. Group work. | 20 min |
| 1. The students choose an issue. | 10 min | | | | | | |
| 2. Forming groups for the debate. | 10 min | | | | | | |
| 3. Group work. | 20 min | | | | | | |

Information box

The unit consists of two student activities: 1. the students choose their debating issue and 2. the students form groups and prepare for the debate in their different roles: the two debating teams (the “affirmative”, or pro side, and the “negative”, or con side).

The main part of the lesson should be spent on preparing the debate. Therefore it is important to conduct the vote smoothly and efficiently.

For the news reporter groups, it is an exciting experience to see their story published by a real newspaper. The teacher may suggest this idea to the news reporter teams. If the students agree, the teacher decides with them how to approach a newspaper.

1. The students choose an issue

The teacher performs as chairperson in this first lesson sequence. First he/she thanks the students for producing so many interesting ideas. Then the teacher explains the procedure.

The students are expected to have read the ideas and materials produced by their fellow students, and to have made up their minds which issue they would like the debate to be held on. The voting procedure can be conducted by two students. One asks each student for their choice. The second notes the topics on a list on the board, marking those that have been named several times. Then the

topics are ranked, and by majority vote, the class makes a choice between the first three at the top of the ranking list. The topic chosen then becomes the issue for the debate.

2. Forming groups for the debate

The teacher announces that the students will now prepare for the debate. A debate follows certain rules, and the students form groups and teams that perform in different roles.

The students are given ✎ student handout 8.2 and read it in silence. They ask questions to clarify whatever needs further explanation, and (preferably) other students or the teacher provide the answers. The students should understand what role the different teams perform.

The students join one of the following teams. This table shows what groups take part in the debate and what handouts they need. The debating teams should have one additional member in reserve in case one team member is sick on the debating day.

The two chairpersons divide the tasks of conducting the debate and the audience's vote between them. If one chairperson is sick, the other takes over both parts.

| Group | Number of members (+ reserve members) | ✎ Student handout No. |
|---|--|--------------------------|
| Debating team No. 1 ("affirmative") | 5 (+1) | 8.3 |
| Debating team No. 2 ("negative") | 5 (+1) | 8.3 |
| First and second chairperson | 2 | 8.2, 8.4, 8.5 |
| Reporter teams (quality paper, tabloid paper, youth magazine) | 3 x 2 | 8.6, 9.1 |
| Audience | All remaining students | 8.5 |

This can be done conveniently by creating columns on the blackboard or a couple of flipcharts. The students then enter their names under the group of their choice. If a group is overbooked, the teacher and the class decide jointly how to solve their problem. It is *theirs*, not the teacher's. Experience has shown that students are willing to co-operate, and the groups are formed quickly, with a satisfactory result for the students.

3. Preparations for the debate

The groups receive a copy of ✎ student handout 8.3 (debating teams), 8.4 (audience) or 8.5 (press teams). The groups spend the second half of the lesson planning their activity and can assign themselves a piece of homework if necessary. The teacher acts as observer and coach. As a coach, the teacher does not approach the groups, read their papers, or even participate in producing results. If the groups need any support, they approach the teacher. If not, they have the liberty and responsibility to work as they think right. Experience has shown that students appreciate the confidence that is placed in them, which works as a strong incentive and gives encouragement.

The teacher provides news reporters with a copy of their type of paper – tabloid paper, quality paper, or youth magazine. This will help them to imagine what kind of profile and reading audience their paper has, and what their news story should look like.

If at all possible, the teacher asks the students to arrange the tables and chairs for the debate as indicated in ✎ student handout 8.2 before the next lesson begins.

Lesson 3

We debate – we decide – we report

Debating and decision making in public

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Speaking freely; arguing with an opponent; co-operating in a team. Observing and assessing an exchange of arguments. |
| Learning objective | Related to the topic under discussion. |
| Student tasks | The students take part in, or watch and listen to a debate. Follow-up tasks for the groups to prepare for the reflection lesson. |
| Materials and resources | ☞ Student handouts 8.2-8.5, 9.1. |
| Method | Debate, group work (vote), debriefing. |
| Time budget | 1. The debate. 25 min |
| | 2. The audience's vote. 10 min |
| | 3. Homework: inputs for the reflection. 5 min |

Information box

This lesson includes the key task of the whole unit, the debate. The extensive preparation in the previous lesson was intended to give the students the confidence to act out their roles.

The chairpersons are responsible for managing the debate and the audience's vote.

The teacher opens and concludes the lesson, and primarily acts as an observer.

The ☞ student handouts give the groups rules and instructions on how they are to perform their roles. This setting is typical for task-based learning: the lesson is highly structured through different tasks and strictly framed by the rules and schedule, while the teacher almost never takes the floor. But nevertheless, the learning objectives that the teacher has in mind are present throughout the lesson – even more so than in frontal instruction, as now the students have taken ownership.

Lesson description

☞ Student handout 8.4 (The role of the chairpersons) gives a detailed description of how the debate and the audience's vote take place. Therefore the description of these stages can be very brief.

1. The debate

The teacher announces the agenda of the lesson: the debate, followed by the audience's vote and a debriefing. If necessary, the teacher asks the students to arrange the tables and chairs in the seating order as indicated in ☞ student handout 8.2.

Then the first chairperson takes over. The students take their seats, as debating teams, chairperson, audience and press reporters. The teacher takes a seat in the audience, preferably in a back row. The students should not seek and establish eye contact with the teacher, but instead with each other. They perform in their roles, and the teacher listens.

2. The audience's vote

The second chairperson conducts the audience's discussion and the vote. The teacher leaves the audience here, and observes the students from a distance. While the students in the audience are discussing their vote, the debating teams and the news reporters listen.

After five minutes, the chairperson ends the discussion and conducts the vote. After the chairperson has concluded the vote, the teacher takes over.

3. Homework: inputs for the follow-up lesson (lesson 4)

The teacher thanks the chairpersons for managing the lion's share of the lesson. Then he/she thanks the students and the audience, and praises as he/she thinks appropriate. No critical comments should be made at this point. The fourth lesson gives an opportunity to give feedback and to reflect on the debating and voting lesson, and this is what the teacher tells the students.

He/she asks all the students with the exception of the news reporters to think about their feelings, impressions and views on the debating session and the follow-up discussion and vote, and to prepare a brief statement as input for the next lesson, addressing the following key questions:

1. State your opinion on the issue under debate. Explain what argument convinced you most in forming your opinion.
2. From your point of view, describe what effect the rules, in particular the one minute time limit, had on the debate.

The press reporter teams should not be given this task in addition to having to produce their news story. The teacher calls the six students to decide how the stories are to be disseminated – by displaying two or three copies on the wall, or by giving a handout to each student.

Lesson 4

One debate – different perspectives

The students reflect on the debate

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|---|--------|
| Competence training | Analysing and judging a shared experience. | |
| Learning objectives | Media construct our perception of reality. Rules secure equal opportunities to exercise rights of freedom. | |
| Student tasks | The students compare news stories on the debate. The students reflect on their debating experience. | |
| Materials and resources | News stories written by students. 📄 Materials for teachers 9.1 | |
| Method | Presentations. Discussion. | |
| Time budget | 1. Three news reports with discussion. | 15 min |
| | 2. Reflection: how did the rules affect the debate? | 15 min |
| | 3. Debriefing. | 10 min |

Information box

The students reflect on the lesson from two perspectives, that of contents and that of the framework of rules. The students may be more interested in one aspect than the other, and the focus can be shifted accordingly, giving more time to one topic.

The debriefing gives the students the opportunity for some general feedback on the unit.

The students have prepared inputs that allow everyone to make a contribution during the lesson. Therefore the teacher can, and should, give a large share of speaking time to the students. The student inputs may be expected to last for the whole lesson (see the key questions for the student inputs). The teacher chairs the lesson, and gives brief inputs to sum up and structure the discussions.

Lesson description

Clarifying the agenda for the lesson

The teacher presents the agenda of the lesson, and points out that it corresponds to the key questions of the students' homework. If the students agree and make no suggestions to focus on one point in particular, the teacher introduces the first phase of the lesson.

1. Three news reports with discussion


The teacher announces that the three reporter teams will now present their news stories. The students have the task to listen and to compare, as the reporters' work for different types of newspapers. To compare the news stories, the students should be ready to take notes. The teacher clarifies the task by drawing a simple matrix on the board or flipchart:

| News story | No. 1 | No. 2 | No. 3 |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Language | | | |
| ... | | | |
| ... | | | |
| ... | | | |
| Judgment | | | |

The teacher refers to the papers only by number, leaving it to the students to introduce their paper. Language is a possible feature by which to compare the stories, and the students are free to take note of what they notice. If they prefer one type of paper and news story, they should give reasons.

The teacher makes sure that the students have no more questions on their task and then gives the floor to the three press reporter teams. The press reporter teams read their stories in turn, without any discussion or comment between the stories.

Then the students give feedback. The teacher listens, and encourages the students to explain what criteria they used for comparing and judging the stories.

The teacher sums up the discussion by pointing out one key aspect: the three teams of press reporters attended the same debate, and yet the images they created for their reading audiences differ considerably. This shows that media transmit reality for all those who were not present at the event. But by transmitting reality, they construct it – selecting and highlighting some elements, omitting or paying less attention to others. The teacher can refer to selected details of the news stories or student inputs to support this point (see  materials for teachers 9.1).

2. Reflection: how did the rules affect the debate?

The teacher again asks for student inputs. The teacher listens, and so do the students. Some comments may be expected to be quite critical (the time limit is “undemocratic”, it does not allow free expression), and some students may support the rules.

During the discussion, the teacher can ask the critics among the students to consider what would happen if the time limit was lifted. They will realise that the debate would need longer, and the time budget of the lesson sets an absolute time limit, and therefore the rules have taken reality into account and distributed the available time fairly, admittedly in very small slices. The speakers should comment on how they coped with the time limit: did they manage to focus on key points?

3. Debriefing

Here the students give some general feedback.

The teacher should not attempt to justify his/her work in the face of criticism, nor to argue critical remarks away. As the students have had a very large share of activity and responsibility, both success and failure are theirs as much as the teacher's. The teacher should point this out if the students are not aware of it.

If the students enjoyed the debate, the teacher might suggest an extension in the form of a debating club. Here, some of the issues suggested by the students could be debated. Debating clubs are very common in English-speaking countries around the world, and also among teachers of English as a foreign language. The Internet offers a rich variety of excellent material for teachers and students interested in debating.



Materials for teachers 8.1

Why freedom depends on framing by rules and laws

Learning opportunities in this unit

Interdependence through scarcity of time

The most precious resource of teaching and learning, and in our lives generally, is time. As professionals, teachers must constantly answer the question on how the available time in class may best be used – and in interactive learning, the students take responsibility for this. The advance organiser in this unit will only work if the students accept their responsibility to use the time for reading each other's materials when it is there – before the first lesson. In the first lesson, no more than 10 minutes can be given to the four groups to choose an issue for the debate. If they have failed to read the materials in advance, the class will have one good idea less to choose from – this is an example of how we depend on each other (interdependence).

Strict rules protect liberty of speech

A debate must take place within a fixed amount of time. All speakers enjoy the same rights of free thought and free expression. The available speaking time must therefore be distributed fairly – which means equally, one minute per statement. It seems paradoxical that strict rules are necessary and useful to protect our liberty. The time limit works in two ways: our share of speaking time is guaranteed, and it is fair. On the other hand, it confines every speaker to a short time slot, and speakers must think carefully about what they want to say. They must focus on key arguments, leave out everything of minor importance, and make their point clearly and briefly.

Freedom and framing

The students' liberty of action and speech is framed, or limited and defined, in two ways. First, by the available learning time – the lessons are over after 40 minutes or so, and the debate must fit into one lesson and take no more than 20 minutes, as other things need to be done in that lesson as well. Second, the debating rules give each speaker a fair, but strictly limited time slot of one minute per statement. Framing has a structural dimension – time is scarce throughout our lives – and a political, man-made dimension: rules set frames without which we could not enjoy our liberties without violating the rights of others. Scarcity of time is not negotiable, but framing by rules is.

School is life

The dialectics of freedom and framing, rooted in the universal scarcity of time, occurs in school as it does in public life. Here, in a very literal sense indeed, school is life.

UNIT 9
THE MEDIA
Upper secondary level

Taking part in democracy through the media
The producers and users of media as gatekeepers
and agenda setters

9.1 We are the gatekeepers!

We decide what we want to read

9.2 and 9.3 We are the gatekeepers!

We decide what news the readers will be offered to choose from

9.4 Do we control the media – or do the media control us?

The media – an instrument of communication and of power

Unit 9

The media

Taking part in democracy through the media

Introduction for teachers

1. We take part in democracy through the media

Taking part in society and politics is, essentially, communicating with others – receiving and giving information through the media. Citizens who cannot communicate through the media cannot participate in society or in politics.

Media provide a multitude of modes of communication, and supply more information than ever before, but they also control what and how we communicate. We live in a media culture. Modern media-based and media-controlled communication poses a challenge for every individual.


On the one hand, the media offer fascinating opportunities for those citizens who have been educated in media literacy, and who can therefore handle media critically and deliberately, and can cope with the masses of information of very different types and quality.

On the other hand, media exclude from taking part all those who cannot afford to buy them, or who do not possess the skills to use them, or judge the quality of information.

2. Media literacy – a core competence in EDC/HRE

Media literacy is a, perhaps even *the* core competence in EDC/HRE. Teaching for human rights is directly linked to media literacy. The freedom of the media and the right of free access to information depend on the ability to exercise these rights. The unequal levels of media literacy in a society create a new dimension of unequal opportunities, and new forms of inclusion and exclusion.

This unit attempts to help the students to take one important step in developing media literacy. The students experience the construction of our image of reality through the media – as both the producer and the recipient of a media message. In different ways, both perform as gatekeepers and agenda setters, to the effect that our image of the world, and politics in particular, is based on, and shaped by media messages that come to our attention after having passed through two filters – the choices made by the producers and those made by us, the users of the media.

The unit focuses on one important aspect of media literacy: all media messages are constructed. There is a lot of potential for cross-curricular teaching, of language for example, to analyse the specific language used by the media (see  materials for teachers 9A – Learning what to look for, Nos 1 and 2).

3. Outline of the unit

This unit focuses on the question of how gatekeeping and agenda setting through the media takes place. The students experience both the perspectives of media users and media producers by acting them out.

Lesson 1: We are the gatekeepers! We decide what we want to read.

Lessons 2 and 3: We are the gatekeepers! We decide what news the readers will be offered to choose from.

Lesson 4: Do we control the media – or do the media control us? Reflection.

In the first lesson, the students become aware of their role as gatekeepers on their own behalf. They make a choice between two different newspapers, and select one set of information and reject another. In doing so, they exercise their human right of free access to and selection of information.

In the second and third lessons, the students engage in the key task, a small project in which they produce a wall newspaper. Now they act as gatekeepers again, but this time from the sending rather than the receiving end. They exercise the human right to a free, uncensored press.

In the fourth lesson, the students reflect on their choices and discuss the power of the media – both as an instrument of communication and of power. They also become aware of the strong constructivist element in our image of the world, shaped by both the producers and the recipients of information.

4. Constructivist learning and instruction

This unit gives the students the time and liberty for constructivist learning. In the particular context of the media, constructivist learning directly corresponds to the construction of media messages through the media. A media message is constructed by someone else, with a specific interest and strategic intent in mind (“telling or selling”), and by the user.

The teacher presents the concepts of gatekeeping, agenda setting, media culture, freedom of the media and free access to information through instruction, linking them to the context of constructivist learning (see box with key concepts below).

5. The choice of the medium

This unit focuses on a classic print medium, the newspaper, which is not the first choice for many young people. So why should the students read and produce newspapers in this unit?

1. The first reason is a pragmatic one. Studying newspapers and producing a simple wall newspaper requires resources that are available everywhere, and can be provided on a low budget.
2. From a didactic perspective, a simple example works better in teaching the students a piece of media literacy. By writing texts by hand, by cutting, pasting and drawing, the students come back to the roots of media production. But even in the production of a simple wall newspaper, the basic phenomenon of gatekeeping by the editors is already there, and so is the principle of constructing an image of reality through the message.

Of course, these basic aspects are present in all other media too – radio, TV, photography of all categories, the Internet-based modes of communication, SMS, etc. But all these media not only place higher demands on resources, and a more complex effort of media production, but also of media analysis, or deconstruction.

3. The newspaper-based approach follows the principle of the spiral curriculum in this EDC/HRE edition. The task that the students perform in this unit corresponds to that in unit 7 in volume III, *Living in democracy*, for lower secondary level. The difference between the units is the level of reflection that the students are capable of.

Key concepts

Gatekeeping

Only a small fraction of the information that is delivered daily to the news editors finally appears in print. The news editors filter out what cannot be reported. One criterion is whether this piece of information is newsworthy – is it relevant or interesting enough? Another is simply the space that is available. And a third criterion is what kind of balance the readers expect – between information and entertainment, between politics, business, sports, celebrity news, etc.


But the reader too filters out most of what the newspapers offer. We all know from experience that we usually pick out a handful of articles and stories, and finally discard the newspaper after having read 5-10% of what it offered.

This principle of gatekeeping also applies to other mass media – TV and radio, the Internet and books.


Agenda setting

The news editors strongly influence the political agenda. By bringing certain problems or scandals to the attention of the public, these issues are then discussed, and often policy makers must react in some way. Here again, the readers must play their part – how do they respond to the issues that are brought forward?

Media culture

We live in a media culture (see  materials for teachers 9A). In the past decade, Internet-based forms of communication and transfer of information have emerged, supplemented by mobile phone technology, both of which appeal particularly to the younger generation. In addition, the process of globalisation has supported the increasing predominance of the media. The media messages have shifted from text-based to image-based information, with a strong impact on communication and reading habits.

Free access to information and freedom of the press

European Convention on Human Rights, Article 10.1 (see  student handout 2.6)

“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. ...”

See also the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 19 ( student handout 2.5).

Media producers and media users both exercise a fundamental human right. Censorship of these liberties makes the difference between dictatorships and democracies. These liberties and the technological revolution we have seen after the invention of the computer and the Internet, have given rise to the media culture we live in today. The experience is ambivalent, and typical for processes of modernisation: if we can handle the potential, we gain; if we cannot meet the demands, we lose. For this reason, media literacy is a key competence in EDC/HRE.

Competence development: links to other units in this volume

What this table shows

The title of this manual, *Taking part in democracy*, focuses on the competences of the active citizen in democracy. This matrix shows the potential for synergy effects between the units in this manual. The matrix shows what competences are developed in unit 9 (the shaded row in the table). The strongly framed column shows the competences of political decision making and action – strongly framed because of their close links to taking part in democracy. The rows below indicate links to other units in this manual: what competences are developed in these units that support the students in unit 9?

How this matrix can be used

Teachers can use this matrix as a tool for planning their EDC/HRE classes in different ways.

- The matrix makes teachers aware of synergy effects that help the students to be trained in important competences repeatedly, in different contexts that are linked in many ways.
- This matrix helps teachers who have only a few lessons to devote to EDC/HRE: a teacher can select only this unit and omit the others, as he/she knows that some key competences are also developed, to a certain extent, in this unit – for example, understanding the importance of media literacy, the exercise of basic liberties, and the tension between equality and liberty.

| Units | Dimensions of competence development | | | Attitudes and values |
|---------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| | Political analysis and judgment | Methods and skills | Taking part in democracy Political decision making and action | |
| 9 The media | We are taking part in democracy through media-based communication Producers and users of media perform as gatekeepers | Constructing and deconstructing media messages | Using media as a means of broadcasting our views and interests | Awareness of our dependence on a “second hand” perception of reality, particularly in politics |
| 7 Equality | Equal opportunities to participate depend on media literacy | | | Awareness of information as a source of power |
| 8 Liberty | Freedom of the media and free access to information | | Gatekeeping and agenda setting: exercising human rights | Awareness of information as a means of controlling power and authority |
| 3 Diversity and pluralism | The pluralism of opinions and interests is reflected by the media | | | |
| 6 Government and politics | Agenda setting | | | |

UNIT 9: The media – Taking part in democracy through the media

The producers and users of media as gatekeepers and agenda setters

| Lesson topic | Competence training/learning objectives | Student tasks | Materials and resources | Method |
|---|---|--|--|--|
| Lesson 1 We are the gatekeepers! We decide what we want to read | As gatekeepers on their own behalf, the students become aware of their preferences for certain media and messages. Both producers and users of media act as gatekeepers. | The students reflect on their preferences for a particular newspaper. | Front pages from two different newspapers, issued on the same day. ✍ Student handouts 9.1-9.3, flipcharts, markers, scissors and glue. Collection of print media issues. | Plenary presentations and discussion. Lecture. Group work. |
| Lessons 2 and 3 We are the gatekeepers! We decide what news the readers will be offered to choose from | Co-operating in a team; making decisions, agreeing on objectives and a schedule. Team management and supervision. Media editors construct the news that shapes our perception of reality. | The students create their own wall newspaper. They compare their newspapers and the choices they made. | ✍ Student handouts 9.2 and 9.3. Flipcharts, markers, scissors and glue. Print media of all kinds and categories. | Project work. |
| Lesson 4 Do we control the media – or do the media control us? Reflection | Reflecting on choices and their impact. The media are a powerful instrument of communication and control. | The students compare and reflect on their choices and decisions. | Display of wall newspapers. 📄 Materials for teachers 9A. | Reports, plenary discussion. Lecture. |

Lesson 1

We are the gatekeepers!

We decide what we want to read

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------|
| Competence training | As gatekeepers on their own behalf, the students become aware of their preferences for certain media and messages. | |
| Learning objective | Both producers and users of media act as gatekeepers. The media construct our image of the world. They have the power to decide what we learn about (gatekeeping, agenda setting). But on the other hand, we, the media users, are gatekeepers on our own behalf. We choose or reject certain media, and we decide what messages we devote our attention to. | |
| Student tasks | The students reflect on their preferences for a particular newspaper. | |
| Materials and resources | Front pages from two different newspapers, issued on the same day. In large classes, two or three issues of the same front page should be available. ✍ Student handouts 9.1-9.3, flipcharts, markers, scissors and glue. Collection of print media issues. | |
| Method | Plenary presentations and discussion. Lecture. Group work. | |
| Time budget | Stage 1: The teacher introduces the concept of gatekeeping. | 25 min |
| | Stage 2: The students plan their wall newspaper project. | 15 min |

Information box

As users, the students react to the differences in the media by preferring one and rejecting another. By means of their preferences, the students act as gatekeepers on their own behalf, and they are made aware of this.

Switching the perspective, the students realise that the editors too have defined priorities and made choices. Which choices, and for what reasons? With this question in mind, the students will embark on their project. They will find the answer by making the same kind of choices – understanding media by producing media. They embark on the key task of this unit.

The teacher's lecture is linked to the students' process of constructivist learning. The teacher introduces the concept of gatekeeping after the students have seen the evidence for it. On the other hand, the students apply the new concept in the subsequent project, as it provides the key questions of their task.

Lesson description

Preparation of the lesson

Three weeks before this unit is due to begin, the teacher asks the students to collect print media – newspapers, magazines, journals, advertising prospectuses, etc. It is important to collect photographs as well. The students are requested to bring their materials to the classroom for the first lesson of this unit.

Depending on the space available, the materials are sorted and laid out on tables in the classroom. The students will use these materials when working on their wall newspaper in lessons 2 and 3.

The teacher also collects newspapers and magazines. In preparing the first lesson, the teacher draws on the material to obtain pairs of front pages of different newspapers. The front pages for all groups should be from the same day to allow comparisons within the groups, and also comparison of their results in the plenary round. Each group should receive a pair of front pages from different newspapers. If the students can cope, front pages in foreign languages can also be included.

The website www.newseum.org offers PDF versions (A4 format) of current newspaper front pages from many European countries. If the teacher uses these, they should be copied for the students as handouts, rather than displaying them on the board (see step 1.1 below).

Stage 1: The teacher introduces the concept of gatekeeping

Step 1.1: The students show their preferences for a newspaper

The teacher attaches two front pages of newspapers to the blackboard. They form a pair of contrasts, for example:

- tabloid and quality paper;
- regional and national paper;
- papers representing different political standpoints, e.g. social democrat and neo-liberal.

If several copies of the same front page are available, they are displayed with sufficient space between them to give all students a good view. In big classes, this saves time.

The students come forward and study the two front pages in silence.

The teacher asks the students to assemble in front of the newspaper they prefer. The students form two groups, and if necessary a third that dislikes both papers. The students briefly exchange their views in groups and then give the reasons for their choices in the plenary round.

The teacher listens and facilitates the exchange of opinions, but does not comment on the students' statements or their choices.

Step 1.2: Instruction: the key concept of gatekeeping

The teacher gives a brief lecture to introduce the concept of gatekeeping and its double meaning. He/she links it to the context that the students have provided in step 1.1. As the students have just shown, we usually have very clear preferences for a certain paper, as newspapers differ considerably. We prefer one newspaper, and reject another. In everyday life, we may even prefer to use other media, such as TV or the Internet, as our source of information rather than a newspaper. In this very important respect, we act as gatekeepers. We decide what medium, and what messages through that medium, we give our attention to. The media depend on us – without our attention, their effort is in vain.

The teacher then switches the perspective: not only the readers act as gatekeepers, so do the editors of newspapers. They decide what we are offered to choose from. In this respect, we depend on the media – we only receive the information that they have selected.

The concept of gatekeeping therefore has two meanings: both the producers and users of media decide what messages are important. In politics, gatekeepers are also agenda setters.

Clearly the editors have also made choices – different ones, as the different front pages show. But for what reasons? The students will explore this question in the project that follows.

Stage 2: The students plan their wall newspaper project

✍ Student handouts 9.1-9.3

Step 2.1 The teacher instructs the students on their task

The students form groups of four to six and establish teams of editors. They spend the next two lessons on the production of a wall newspaper.

They will enact the gatekeeping role of editors, and deal with questions such as the following:

- What topics shall we include?
- What topic will we choose to be our eye-catcher, the lead story?
- What can we, or must we drop, as space is limited?

The students should be aware that these questions show what freedom of the press means in practice – enjoying the liberty, but also carrying the responsibility to solve some difficult problems.

The teacher then explains the technical side. The students may use up to two flipcharts. They write their articles by hand. They can search the print media collection for photographs or diagrams, and use the media at hand to obtain information. However, both their space and their time are limited. Their newspaper should be up for display at the end of the next lesson.

The students move their desks together to provide a surface large enough to lay out a flipchart.

Step 2.2 The students begin their project

As instructed by the teacher, the students begin reading the handouts. If time allows, they take the next steps.

Lessons 2 and 3

We are the gatekeepers!

We decide what news the readers will be offered to choose from

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.

Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Co-operating in a team; making decisions, agreeing on objectives and a schedule. Team management and supervision. |
| Learning objective | Media editors construct and control the news that shapes our perception of reality. As gatekeepers and agenda setters, the media exercise power in a subtle manner. |
| Student tasks | The students create their own wall newspaper. They compare their newspapers and the choices they made. |
| Materials and resources | ✍ Student handouts 9.2 and 9.3; flipcharts, markers, scissors and glue. Print media of all kinds and categories. |
| Method | Project work. |
| Time budget | 1. Project work: the students edit and produce a wall newspaper. 60 min |
| | 2. The students read each other's newspapers. 20 min |

Information box

The second and third lessons are devoted to the core of this unit, the project in which the students act as editors and produce their own newspaper. They will deal with the same questions – what topics and events to include and to omit, and discuss the criteria for the choices to be made. In addition, the task of producing a wall newspaper in one hour places high demands on the students' skills in planning their work and in time management.

The format of a wall newspaper is suggested here, as this works everywhere. The technical aspects of newspaper production are not important. The students can write their news stories by hand.

The production of a wall newspaper takes them back to the roots, as it were, and allows the students to focus on the essentials of editing and the choices involved.

In a setting of task-based learning, the teacher performs as an “assistant”, who supports the students if they need additional material, access to a computer, etc. He/she also observes the students to assess their level of skills and competence development. The teacher listens to the students' discussions and reads their wall newspapers while they are being written. This allows the teacher to prepare the brief, but important lecture in lesson 4.

Lesson description

Stage 1: The students edit and produce their newspaper

✎ Student handouts 9.1-9.3

The students work in groups. They assign the three tasks of chief editor, time manager and presenter to different team members.

They follow or adapt the working schedule suggested in ✎ student handout 9.3.

If there is an interval between lessons 2 and 3, the project material needs to be stored safely. The teacher and the students make arrangements as to who is responsible for this task.

Guided by ✎ student handout 9.3, the reporters prepare their presentations for the plenary session in lesson 4.

Stage 2: The students read each other's newspapers

Half way through the third lesson, the students display their newspapers in the classroom. The students are requested to read each other's newspapers before the next EDC/HRE lesson takes place.

Lesson 4

Do we control the media – or do the media control us?

The media – an instrument of communication and of power

This matrix sums up the information a teacher needs to plan and deliver the lesson.


Competence training refers directly to EDC/HRE.

The learning objective indicates what students know and understand.

The student task(s), together with the method, form the core element of the learning process.

The materials checklist supports lesson preparation.

The time budget gives a rough guideline for the teacher's time management.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Competence training | Reflecting on choices and their impact. |
| Learning objective | The media are a powerful instrument of communication and control. |
| Student tasks | The students compare and reflect on their choices and decisions. |
| Materials and resources | Display of wall newspapers.  Materials for teachers 9A. |
| Method | Reports, plenary discussion. Lecture. |
| Time budget | 1. The students compare their choices and decisions. 15 min |
| | 2. The students reflect on their construction of messages. 10 min |
| | 3. Teacher's lecture: agenda setting, gatekeeping. 5 min |
| | 4. Follow-up discussion. 10 min |

Information box

The students reflect on their experience in this project. They do not read each other's newspapers for the sake of information, but focus on the decisions involved in selecting the topics and pictures – they explore the role of media as gatekeepers and agenda setters.

The reporters present the background information on the discussions in the teams, and the students compare and reflect on their experience.

The teacher adds the concepts – media as gatekeepers and agenda setters – in a brief lecture. This is an example of how constructivist learning is enriched by systematic instruction. The students' experience creates the context in which the teacher's instruction provides a new perspective and enables the students to understand their experience on a more advanced, abstract level of thinking and understanding.

Different options of extending this project and applying its insights are possible. These can be discussed at the end of the lesson.

Lesson description

The students are expected to have read each other's newspapers before this lesson.

Stage 1: The students explain and compare their choices

In turn, each presenter reports on the decisions made by their teams and explains the reasons behind them. Guided by the briefing notes (see student handout 9.3) the presenters should address the following points:

- choice of lead stories;
- what topics the team considered, and why certain topics were included or dropped;
- the choice of photographs;
- other points and issues of importance.

The presentations focus on the decisions of gatekeeping and agenda setting rather than the contents of the newspapers themselves. They provide the material that the teacher focuses on in his/her brief lecture, highlighting the shared experience of the teams by adding some key concepts of media literacy. In this way, constructivist learning sets the context for the delivery of conceptual knowledge through systematic, brief instruction.

Stage 2: The students reflect on their construction of messages

The teacher asks the students to compare the reasons for their teams' decisions.

- Can we identify any predominant criteria, e.g. newsworthiness?
- To what extent did we consider aspects of competition – e.g. by using eye-catchers?
- ...

The presenters' reports and the comparison of choices can give rise to a critical discussion. The students may problematise the strong influence of the media on what information we receive, or what we never hear about. The teacher chairs the discussion. As he/she will take the floor shortly, there is no need for the teacher to comment on the students' statements.

Stage 3: Teacher's lecture

Step 3.1 The basic lecture

 Materials for teachers 9A

As indicated above (see stage 1), the teacher links the points of this brief input to the context of the experience and questions that the students have created. This requires an element of flexibility in presenting the following key statements:

1. All media messages are constructed. One basic aspect of message construction is choosing a small set of information that is turned into stories, and omitting many other pieces of information. The students explored this aspect of message construction when they edited their newspapers.
2. By selecting and omitting information, news editors and producers in the media act as gatekeepers and agenda setters. They strongly influence public opinion and political decision making, and how we take part in democracy. To what extent this influence turns into control depends on whether we exercise our role of gatekeepers or not.

These two points are closely linked to the students' experience in this small project. The teacher can conclude the input here, as the points certainly provide enough food for thought, or can add further

points, depending on the students' interests and questions. In this case, the time frame may need to be extended.

Step 3.2 Extensions to the lecture

1. On the other hand, as commercial enterprises, the media compete with each other to attract our attention. Media producers take care to meet their audience's interests and expectations. Their commercial success depends on the choices of media users.
2. We depend on the media for our perception of the world. In this lesson, the students focused on a classic medium, the newspaper. However, new types of media have emerged, and we use them for different purposes. We still have the classic mass media (broadcast media) – magazines, newspapers, TV and radio – that we use mainly as sources of information and for entertainment. Then we have the new media based on the Internet (websites, e-mail, blogs, facebook-type networks, twitter), not forgetting SMS. We use these for many purposes, but particularly for communication with each other, and as the students will know best, the young generation is more familiar with these than their parents and most of their teachers.
3. Today, we live in a media culture. Society is a network of interaction between its members. Social interaction is, to a large extent, communication. Communication is supported, channelled and shaped by media, and the media messages not only reflect, but also refract reality.

Stage 4: Follow up discussion and conclusion of the unit

The students should have the opportunity to react to the teacher's lecture.

They may have comprehension questions, or they may problematise the power of mass media as gatekeepers and agenda setters.

The teacher finally raises the question whether and how to continue the project, for example by making one of the following suggestions:

- The wall newspapers could be displayed in school.
- The students could invite a professional journalist to visit the class. They could show him/her the newspapers, asking for feedback, and discuss the issue of gatekeeping.
- A team of editors could continue with this news project in school and produce a school (wall) newspaper.
- The students could report on the media that most strongly shape and influence public opinion.
- The students could stick to an issue that they have reported on and take action. Links to other units in this manual are possible.

Materials for teachers 9A **Skills and strategies for media education**

by Elizabeth Thoman

From the clock radio that wakes us up in the morning until we fall asleep watching the late night talk show, we are exposed to hundreds, even thousands of images and ideas not only from television but now also from newspaper headlines, magazine covers, movies, websites, photos, video games and billboards. Some are calling today's young people, *screenagers*.¹⁹

Until recently, few questioned the increasing dominance of media in our lives. Those who did were inclined to focus on content issues like the amount of sex and violence in television and movies. Some advocated censorship, while others simply urged families to turn the TV off. But the fact is, though you can turn off the set, unless you move to a mountaintop, you cannot escape today's media culture. Media no longer just influence our culture. They are our culture.

Media's pivotal role in our global culture is why media censorship will never work. What's needed, instead, is a major rethinking of media's role in all of our lives – a rethinking that recognizes the paradigm shift from a print culture to an image culture that has been evolving for the past 150 years since the invention of photography and the ability to separate an object or a likeness from a particular time and place and still remain real, visible and permanent.²⁰

For 500 years, we have valued the ability to read print in order to participate fully as informed citizens and educated adults in society. Today the family, the school and all community institutions, including the medical and health community, share the responsibility of preparing young people for living in a world of powerful images, words and sounds.²¹ Call it “media literacy.”

What is media literacy?

Just what it sounds like – the ability to interpret and create personal meaning from the hundreds, even thousands of verbal and visual symbols we take in everyday through television, radio, computers, newspapers and magazines, and of course advertising.

It's the ability to choose and select, the ability to challenge and question, the ability to be conscious about what's going on around you and not be passive and therefore, vulnerable.

**“We must prepare young people
for living in a world of powerful
images, words and sounds.”**

UNESCO, 1982

Media researchers now say that television and mass media have become so ingrained in our cultural milieu that we should no longer view the task of media education as providing “protection” against unwanted messages. Our goal must be to help people become competent, critical and literate in all media forms so that they control the interpretation of what they see or hear rather than letting the interpretation control them. Len Masterman, author of *Teaching the Media*, calls it “critical autonomy.”²²

Other definitions point out that media literacy is not so much a finite body of knowledge but rather a skill, a process, a way of thinking that, like reading comprehension, is always evolving. To become media literate is not to memorize facts or statistics about the media, but rather to raise the right

19. Rushkoff, Douglas, *Playing the Future: How Kids' Culture Can Teach Us to Thrive in an Age of Chaos*, 1996.

20. From the work of Stewart Ewen especially *All Consuming Images: The Politics of Style in Contemporary Culture*, 1988.

21. From the Final Report, UNESCO International Symposium on Education of the Public in the Use of Mass Media, Grunwald, 1982.

22. Masterman, Len, *Teaching the Media*, 1989, chapter 2.

questions about what you are watching, reading or listening to.²³ At the heart of media literacy is the principle of inquiry.

Learning what to look for

What do kids (and adults, too) need to know about the media? Over the years, media educators have identified five ideas that everyone should know about media messages, whether the message comes packaged as a TV sitcom, a computer game, a music video, a magazine ad or a movie in the theatre.²⁴

1. All media messages are "constructed"

Whether we are watching the nightly news or passing a billboard on the street, the media message we experience was written by someone (or probably several people), pictures were taken and a creative designer put it all together. But this is more than a physical process. What happens is that whatever is "constructed" by just a few people then becomes "the way it is" for the rest of us. But as the audience, we don't get to see or hear the words, pictures or arrangements that were rejected. We only see, hear or read what was accepted.

Helping people understand how media is put together and what was left out as well as how the media shape what we know and understand about the world we live in is an important way of helping them navigate their lives in a global and technological society.

2. Media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules

Each form of communication such as newspapers, TV game shows or horror movies has its own creative language: scary music heightens fear, camera close-ups convey intimacy, big headlines signal significance. Understanding the grammar, syntax and metaphor system of media language increases our appreciation and enjoyment of media experiences, as well as helps us to be less susceptible to manipulation. One of the best ways to understand how media is put together is to do just that – make your own personal video, create a website for your Scout troop, develop an ad campaign to alert kids to the dangers of smoking.

3. Different people experience the same media message differently

Because of each individual's age, upbringing and education, no two people see the same movie or hear the same song on the radio. Even parents and children do not see the same TV show! This concept turns the tables on the idea of TV viewers as just passive "couch potatoes." We may not be conscious of it but each of us, even toddlers, are constantly trying to "make sense" of what we see, hear or read. The more questions we can ask about what we are experiencing around us, the more alert we can be about accepting or rejecting messages. Research indicates that, over time, children of all ages can learn age-appropriate skills that give them a new set of glasses with which they can "read" their media culture.²⁵

4. Media are primarily businesses driven by a profit motive

Newspapers lay out their pages with ads first; the space remaining is devoted to news. Likewise, we all know that commercials are part and parcel of most TV watching. What many people do not know is that what's really being sold through television is not only the advertised products to the audience but also the audience to the advertisers!

23. From the mission statement of *Media&Values* magazine, published from 1977-93 by the Center for Media Literacy.

24. Adapted from media education documents from England and Canada. First published in the US as "Five Important Ideas to Teach Your Kids about TV," by Jay Davis *Media&Values* #52/53; Fall, 1990.

25. Hobbs, Renee, *Tuning in to Media: Literacy for the Information Age*, 1995 video, distributed by the Center for Media Literacy.

The real purpose of programs we watch on commercial TV, whether news or entertainment, is not just to entertain us but rather to create an audience (and put them in a receptive mood) so that the network or local station can sell time to sponsors to advertise their products in commercials. Every second counts! Sponsors pay for the time based on the number of people the station predicts will be watching. Sponsors also target their advertising message to specific kinds of viewers, for example, women 20–35 who spend money on the advertised products or children 2–7 who influence their parent’s spending.

Maybe it’s not the way we’d like it to be but, in truth, most media are provided to us, as researcher George Gerbner says, by private, global corporations with something to sell rather than by the family, church, school or even one’s native country, with something to tell.²⁶

5. Media have embedded values and points of view

Media, because they are constructed, carry a subtext of who and what is important at least to the person or persons creating the construction. Media are also storytellers (even commercials tell a quick and simple story) and stories require characters, settings and a plot that has a beginning, middle and end. The choice of a character’s age, gender or race mixed in with the lifestyles, attitudes and behaviors that are portrayed, the selection of a setting (urban? rural? affluent? poor?), and the actions and re-actions in the plot are just some of the ways that values become “embedded” in a TV show, movie or ad.

It is important to learn how to “read” all kinds of media messages in order to discover the points of view that are embedded in them. Only then can we judge whether to accept or reject these messages as we negotiate our way each day through our mediated environment.

Five basic questions can be asked about any media message

Learning what to ask

From these concepts flow a series of five basic questions²⁷ that can be asked about any media message. Note that each one could open up many layers of deeper questions:

1. Who created this message and why are they sending it?
2. What techniques are being used to attract my attention?
3. What lifestyles, values and points of view are represented in the message?
4. How might different people understand this message differently from me?
5. What is omitted from this message?

Usually the questioning process is applied to a specific media “text” – that is, an identifiable production or publication, or a part of one: an episode of *Mighty Morphin Power Rangers*, an ad for Pepsi, an issue of *Seventeen* magazine, a billboard for Budweiser beer, photos and articles about a bank robbery on the front page of a newspaper, the Super Bowl telecast. (...)

Core questioning

To be a functioning adult in a mediated society, one needs to be able to distinguish between different media forms and know how to ask the basic questions and core concepts cited above. Although most adults today learned through literature classes to distinguish a poem from an essay, it’s amazing how many people do not understand the difference between a daily newspaper and a supermarket tabloid.

26. Gerbner, George, “Television Violence and the Art of Asking the Wrong Question,” in *The World & I: A Chronicle of our Changing Era*, July, 1994.

27. Thanks to Renée Hobbs for her work in articulating these core questions through her training and teaching.

Increasingly as information about national and world events is delivered to the public instantaneously via television and the Internet, individuals will need to know how to verify information themselves, how to check sources and how to compare and contrast different versions of the same information in order to detect bias or political “spin” control. (...)

Three Steps to Success: overview of an Effective Media Literacy Program

“Media Literacy” is a term that incorporates three interrelated approaches leading to the media empowerment of citizens of all ages:

The *first approach* is simply becoming aware of the importance of balancing or managing one’s media “diet” – helping children and families make healthy choices and manage the amount of time spent with television, videos, electronic games, films and various print media.

The *second approach* is teaching specific skills of critical viewing – learning to analyze and question what is in the frame, how it is constructed and what may have been left out. Skills of critical viewing are best learned through inquiry-based classes or interactive group activities as well as from creating and producing one’s own media messages.

The *third approach* – social, political and economic analysis – goes behind the frame (through which we see media images) to explore deeper issues of who produces the media we experience – and for what purpose? What is the impact of media in our culture and how do we approach issues such as media violence, racial stereotyping and consumerism?

Through inquiry, discussion and action projects, both adults and young people look at how each of us (and all of us together in society) take and make meaning from our media experiences and how the mass media drive our global consumer economy. This approach also can set the stage for various media advocacy efforts to challenge or redress public policies or corporate practices.

Although television and electronic media may seem to present the most compelling reasons for promoting media education in contemporary society, the principles and practices of media literacy are applicable to all media from television to T-shirts, from billboards to the Internet.

Abridged text

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www.medialit.org/

For many more models in media education, see www.media-awareness.ca/

EDC/HRE Volume IV

Taking part in democracy

Manual for students

Student handouts

- 1.1 What choices have made me the person I am today – and who made them?
- 1.2 Three options that shape our futures
- 1.3 My criteria for choosing a job
- 1.4 Questionnaire: job shadowing
- 2.1 The dilemma concept
- 2.2 A tool to analyse and solve dilemmas
- 2.3 How would you decide? Dilemma case stories
- 2.4 Record sheet on dilemma discussions
- 2.5 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (10 December 1948)
- 2.6 Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (as amended by Protocol No. 11 with Protocol Nos. 1, 4, 6 (excerpts) (The European Convention on Human Rights)) (4 November 1950)
- 3.1 Schedule for unit 3 “Diversity and pluralism”
- 3.2 Taking part in democracy – basic rules and principles
- 3.3 Establishing a political party
- 3.4 How does a democratic political system handle diversity and pluralism?
- 3.5 The concept of the common good: the hallmark of democracy and dictatorship
- 3.6 Map of social cleavages and political parties
- 4.1 Case story: the conflict in the fishing community
- 4.2 A model of sustainability goals
- 4.3 Applying the sustainability model to the fishing game: how do we “catch as many fish as possible”?
- 4.4 What is the optimum balance between fish reproduction and harvest?
- 5.1 Preparations for the conference on a framework of rules
- 5.2 Basic questions to consider in institutional design
- 5.3 Comparing frameworks of rules
- 5.4 Procedural rules for the conference – draft version
- 5.5 Summary: what can we learn through these games?
- 5.6 Feedback on units 4 and 5
- 6.1 The policy cycle model: politics as a process of solving problems in a community
- 6.2 The policy cycle – a tool to observe and understand political decision-making processes

- 6.3 Feedback on the unit “Government and politics”
- 7.1 Is majority rule unfair to the minority? A case story
- 7.2 How do democracies care for the protection of minorities?
- 7.3 Task: drafting a statute for the sports club
- 7.4 Record of group presentations: draft statutes for a micro-community
- 8.1 Suggestions for a debating issue
- 8.2 Rules for debating
- 8.3 Planning sheet for the debating teams
- 8.4 Planning sheet for the chairpersons
- 8.5 Record sheet for the audience
- 8.6 Worksheet for news story writers
- 9.1 Creating a wall newspaper – making choices
- 9.2 Tips for producing a wall newspaper
- 9.3 Tips for writing a good news story

Student handout 1.1

What choices have made me the person I am today – and who made them?

How to use this chart: think about important choices that have made you become the person you are. Record decisions made by you in the top half of the chart, and those made by someone else in the bottom half. If you think one decision is particularly important, mark it.

| | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|
| My choices | Other people's choices |
| Birth | |
| <i>Time line</i> | |
| Present | |

Student handout 1.2

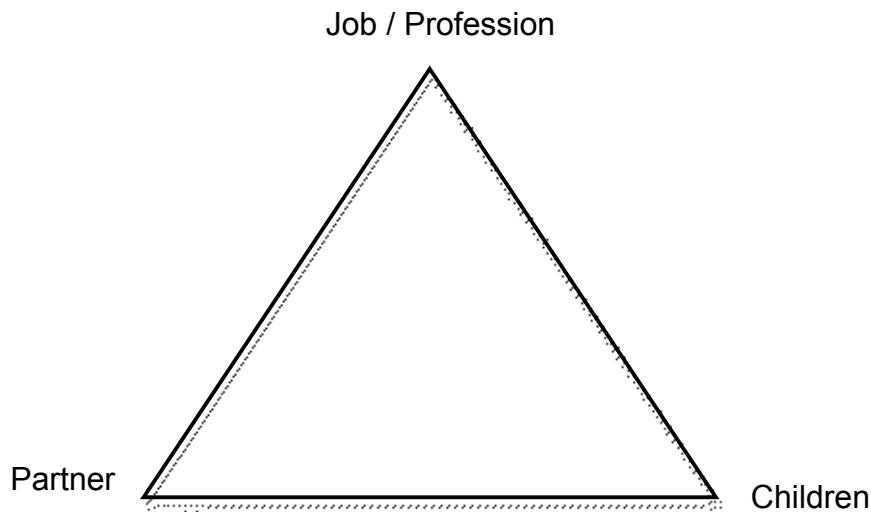
Three options that shape our futures

1. What options do human rights give us?

“Everyone has the right to liberty ...” (ECHR (1950), Article 5)

“Everyone shall have the opportunity to earn his living in an occupation freely entered upon.” (European Social Charter (1996), Part 1, No. 1)

“Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family...” (UDHR (1948), Article 16 (1))



2. What options do I choose? What options did my parents choose?

| Options for our futures | | My choice | My mother's choice | My father's choice |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------------|--------------------|
| All three | Partnership, children and job | | | |
| Two out of three | Partnership and children | | | |
| | Partnership and job | | | |
| | Job and children | | | |
| One out of three | Partnership | | | |
| | Job | | | |
| | Children | | | |

Student handout 1.3

My criteria for choosing a job

1. If you have already chosen a job, please give your reasons here:

| The job of my choice | Main reasons for choosing this job | Objections to this job (if any) |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | | |

2. Accepting or refusing job offers (simulation of the job market)

| Job offer | Reasons for accepting the offer | Reasons for refusing the offer |
|-----------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Student handout 1.4

Questionnaire: job shadowing

This questionnaire may serve as a starting point when you are preparing for a job-shadowing project. Adapt or extend it as you think necessary. If you intend to write a report to be added to your portfolio, for example, the key questions can serve as a guideline for the framework of contents.

A questionnaire is the best instrument with which to obtain a clearly structured and detailed description of a job. A diary is more appropriate if you want to record your personal experiences and feelings while performing a job, e.g. during an internship.

1. Place of work

- With whom do you co-operate? Who depends on your work? On whose work do you depend?
- Is your place of work typical for this job/job category?
- ...

2. Personal responsibility and conditions of work

- What is your position in this company/office/... ?
- To what extent do you decide what your tasks are? If you do this, how do you do so? If not, who assigns your tasks to you?
- Please describe what kind of responsibility has been assigned to you.
- To what extent are you free in your management and use of time? (Working time, working hours, free time, holidays.)
- How long do you work on an average per day/per week?
- Do you work in shifts – at night – at weekends?
- What income may I expect in this job? Are there any data publicly available? (*Clearly this is an important piece of information for you, but many people are reluctant to give details about their earnings, and understandably so. So you should explain why this question interests you, and find out what information your interview partner is willing to give.*)
- Is it possible to combine your job with having a family? Is it possible to work part time?
- ...

3. Activities and tasks

- What are the core activities in your work?
- Please describe a typical working day or week.
- Are there any specific/unique features in your work?
- ...

4. Job requirements

- What must a person who does your work be good at, and what is less important?
- To what extent must you undergo in-service training?
- Are there any key technologies or key skills that you must master?
- Do you experience competition in your job?
- ...

5. Choosing a job, career experience

- What kind of training is required to qualify for your job?
- Please describe your career development.
- Would you recommend anyone to follow the same path as you did? Would that be possible today?
- What ideas, wishes and expectations did you have in mind when you chose this career?
- Have your wishes been fulfilled?
- Would you choose the same career a second time, if you could?
- ...

6. Job prospects

Forecasts about future business and job developments should be read with caution. But it is worth a try to find out what can be said about future manpower development.

- How many applicants are needed for this job today? Is it possible to forecast future developments?
- What skills and qualifications will be expected from future applicants?
- What is the age group and gender structure in your job? *(The answer to this question may allow you to anticipate the job opportunities in future years.)*
- ...

7. Checking other sources of information

- National or local labour office.
- Internet.
- ...

Conclusion

In the light of all the information that I have received, is the job I have studied an attractive option for me?

Whatever the answer – yes, no or not sure – what are the reasons for your decision?

Have the criteria that guided you in your choice proved viable and relevant?

Clearly it is more pleasing to answer the questions above with “yes”. But even if your answers are negative, the results are important for your future development. You have been saved from choosing the wrong job because your assumptions and expectations were unsound, and you come away with a clearer idea of what criteria you should apply in choosing a job.

Acknowledgments

If your report is read by others (which is usually the case), you should thank your interview partner(s), and everybody who supported you.

Student handout 2.1

The dilemma concept

What is a dilemma?

A dilemma is a situation in which we face two alternative choices, and we must make a decision. Each of these choices has consequences that we do not want, or that we cannot justify for important reasons, for example:

- Moral or religious obligations;
- Role expectations (how others expect us to behave, e.g. as teacher, student, brother, friend, or president);
- Legal prescriptions (rights and duties);
- Respect for human rights;
- Personal ties to our family and friends;
- Financial reasons (the need to save money, the opportunity to make a profit);
- Practical reasons (supporting or obstructing the solution of a difficult problem).

In a dilemma we face a conflict between principles or goals that are both important for us. Dilemmas occur in daily life, and also in politics. Political decision making very often has to deal with dilemmas, and every choice has far-reaching consequences. We must therefore solve a dilemma by defining priorities – opting for one goal, violating the other. In some cases it is possible to find a compromise.

Case stories

Lena's promise

Lena is eight years old. She loves climbing trees, and she is the best climber in her neighbourhood. One day she falls off a tree, but she is not injured. Her father sees the accident, and is very concerned. He asks Lena to promise that she will never climb trees again. Lena promises, and she shakes her father's hand to seal the promise.

The same afternoon she meets her friends. Paula, her best friend, is very worried. Her young kitten has climbed high up in a tree and is too afraid to come down again. Something has to be done at once before the kitten falls out of the tree. Every child knows that Lena is the best climber around, so Paula asks her to save her kitten.

But Lena remembers the promise that she has given to her father. What should she do?

The prisoner's dilemma

Two suspects have been arrested by the police. The police have insufficient evidence for a conviction, and, having separated both prisoners, visit each of them to offer the same deal. If one testifies for the prosecution against the other (betrays the other) and the other remains silent (co-operates with the other), the betrayer goes free and the silent accomplice receives the full 10-year jail sentence. If both remain silent, both prisoners are sentenced to only six months in jail on a minor charge. If each betrays the other, each receives a five-year sentence. Each prisoner must choose to betray the other or to remain silent. Each one is assured that the other would not know about the betrayal before the end of the investigation. How should the prisoners act?

(Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prisoner's_dilemma)

Student handout 2.2

A tool to analyse and solve dilemmas

This is a toolbox, not a checklist. Not all questions fit every case, so you should choose which questions work best. Thinking about a few questions carefully is more helpful than ticking off the whole list.

1. Collect information.

- Who is involved?
- What do they want? (What are their rights, needs, goals or interests?)
- What roles do people enact?
- What is the problem/dilemma?
- What does this case have to do with me?
- What does the law say? (Must I observe any legal obligations or rules?)
- What do we not know – what do we not understand?
- How big would the effort be to find the missing information?
- ...

2. Consider the consequences.

- What are the alternative choices?
- What effect would each of these choices have, and for whom? (Others directly involved, other people living today or in the future, here or somewhere else.)
- ...

3. Define your priorities.

What criteria do I consider most important to guide me in my decision, for example:

- To what extent do I understand the consequences of my decision?
- What moral or religious principles are important for me?
- What is legal – what is illegal?
- What can I expect others to accept – and vice versa? (Would I accept this decision if I were on the receiving end?)
- What works best? (Solving the problem, financial aspects.)
- What are the desired or undesired long-term effects or side effects?
- Is my decision irreversible (“point of no return”), or can I correct it later?
- ...

4. Make your decision.

- Must I opt for one goal and violate the other?
- Is there any chance of finding a compromise?
- Under the given conditions, what does my intuition tell me? With what decision can I identify most?
- ...

Student handout 2.3

How would you decide? Dilemma case stories

1. That's not my litter

Litter has been a big issue at your school. Discussions have been held, and some classes have written up rules on a big chart and solemnly signed them – we want our school be a clean, friendly place, and we will deposit our litter in one of the many litter bins on the premises. You have taken this initiative very seriously, as you don't like putting up with other people's dirt and litter.

During the lunch break, you come across a heap of paper bags, fruit peel, and an even a half-eaten pizza in the school yard – right next to an empty litter bin. There are plenty of students around, but you do not know if they are responsible for the mess. What do you do? Pick up the litter – or leave it?

2. My best friend – a dealer

Your best friend is suspected of having dealt drugs on the school premises. You know the suspicions are correct. The head teacher is seriously concerned about the matter, as he wants to protect the students, particularly the younger ones. Apart from that, he does not want to see any reports in the media. He knows you are friends, so he has asked you to come to his office.

If you say what you know, your friend will have to leave the school and may be taken to court. If you do not give evidence, you are breaking the law, and you may be in trouble yourself. In this situation, a compromise is not possible. Either you tell the head teacher what you know or you don't.

The situation becomes even more complicated as you do not know what your friend will do. Will he keep silent? Or might he even confess if he is offered a milder punishment?

3. My friend wants to catch the train

It is 6 a.m. on a cold winter morning. You passed your driving test three months ago and haven't had much practice in driving yet. Now you are driving your friend to the railway station. Before you started, you had to scratch a layer of ice off the windscreen, and then you had to stop at a filling station on the way.

Now you are late. The station is 3 km away, and your friend has to catch the train in 10 minutes, and she needs to buy a ticket.

The speed limit is 50 km/h, as is usual in town. As far as you can see, the road is empty. "Come on, speed up a bit," your friend demands. What do you do?

4. Which bananas shall I buy?

You want to buy some fruit in a supermarket. Two types of bananas are on sale; both seem to be good quality – they are ripe and in perfect condition. One batch of bananas is a bit cheaper than the other. The more expensive one carries a "Fair Trade" sticker, and an information leaflet tells you that a certain amount of the sum you pay will go directly to support the small farmers overseas. They need capital to develop their banana plantations – by our standards, a very modest amount. Which bananas do you buy?

Student handout 2.4

Record sheet on dilemma discussions

(Based on student handout 2.3)

| Case story No. 1: That's not my litter | |
|---|----------------------|
| Alternatives | Decision and reasons |
| Put the litter into the bin <i>or</i> Leave the litter on the ground <i>or</i> ...? | |
| Case story No. 2: My best friend – a dealer | |
| Alternatives | Decision and reasons |
| Tell the head teacher what I know <i>or</i> Keep silent <i>or</i> ...? | |
| Case story No. 3: My friend wants to catch the train | |
| Alternatives | Decision and reasons |
| Keep to the 50 km/h speed limit <i>or</i> Drive faster <i>or</i> ...? | |

| | |
|---|----------------------|
| Case story No. 4: Which bananas shall I buy? | |
| Alternatives | Decision and reasons |
| Buy the cheaper bananas <i>or</i> Buy the more expensive bananas <i>or</i> ...? | |
| <i>(other issue)</i> | |
| Alternatives | Decision and reasons |
| | |
| <i>(other issue)</i> | |
| Alternatives | Decision and reasons |
| | |

Student handout 2.5

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (10 December 1948)

Preamble

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations,

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in co-operation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms,

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now, therefore,

The General Assembly,

Proclaims this Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1

All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2

Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3

Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4

No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5

No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6

Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7

All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8

Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10

Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11

1. Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.
2. No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each State.
2. Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14

1. Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.
2. This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15

1. Everyone has the right to a nationality.
2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16

1. Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.
2. Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.
3. The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17

1. Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.
2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.
2. No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21

1. Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.
2. Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.
3. The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22

Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23

1. Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
2. Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
3. Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.
4. Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24

Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25

1. Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.
2. Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26

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.

Article 27

1. Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.
2. Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28

Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

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.

3. These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30

Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

www.un.org/en/documents/udhr

Student handout 2.6

Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (The European Convention on Human Rights), as amended by Protocol No. 11 with Protocol Nos. 1, 4, 6 (excerpts)

Rome, 4 November 1950

The governments signatory hereto, being members of the Council of Europe,

Considering the Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaimed by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 10th December 1948;

Considering that this Declaration aims at securing the universal and effective recognition and observance of the Rights therein declared;

Considering that the aim of the Council of Europe is the achievement of greater unity between its members and that one of the methods by which that aim is to be pursued is the maintenance and further realisation of human rights and fundamental freedoms;

Reaffirming their profound belief in those fundamental freedoms which are the foundation of justice and peace in the world and are best maintained on the one hand by an effective political democracy and on the other by a common understanding and observance of the human rights upon which they depend;

Being resolved, as the governments of European countries which are like-minded and have a common heritage of political traditions, ideals, freedom and the rule of law, to take the first steps for the collective enforcement of certain of the rights stated in the Universal Declaration,

Have agreed as follows:

Article 1 – Obligation to respect human rights

The High Contracting Parties shall secure to everyone within their jurisdiction the rights and freedoms defined in Section I of this Convention.

Section I – Rights and freedoms

Article 2 – Right to life

1. Everyone's right to life shall be protected by law. No one shall be deprived of his life intentionally save in the execution of a sentence of a court following his conviction of a crime for which this penalty is provided by law.
2. Deprivation of life shall not be regarded as inflicted in contravention of this article when it results from the use of force which is no more than absolutely necessary:
 - a. in defence of any person from unlawful violence;
 - b. in order to effect a lawful arrest or to prevent the escape of a person lawfully detained;
 - c. in action lawfully taken for the purpose of quelling a riot or insurrection.

Article 3 – Prohibition of torture

No one shall be subjected to torture or to inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 4 – Prohibition of slavery and forced labour

1. No one shall be held in slavery or servitude.

2. No one shall be required to perform forced or compulsory labour.
3. For the purpose of this article the term “forced or compulsory labour” shall not include:
 - a. any work required to be done in the ordinary course of detention imposed according to the provisions of Article 5 of this Convention or during conditional release from such detention;
 - b. any service of a military character or, in case of conscientious objectors in countries where they are recognised, service exacted instead of compulsory military service;
 - c. any service exacted in case of an emergency or calamity threatening the life or well-being of the community;
 - d. any work or service which forms part of normal civic obligations.

Article 5 – Right to liberty and security

1. Everyone has the right to liberty and security of person. No one shall be deprived of his liberty save in the following cases and in accordance with a procedure prescribed by law:
 - a. the lawful detention of a person after conviction by a competent court;
 - b. the lawful arrest or detention of a person for non-compliance with the lawful order of a court or in order to secure the fulfilment of any obligation prescribed by law;
 - c. the lawful arrest or detention of a person effected for the purpose of bringing him before the competent legal authority on reasonable suspicion of having committed an offence or when it is reasonably considered necessary to prevent his committing an offence or fleeing after having done so;
 - d. the detention of a minor by lawful order for the purpose of educational supervision or his lawful detention for the purpose of bringing him before the competent legal authority;
 - e. the lawful detention of persons for the prevention of the spreading of infectious diseases, of persons of unsound mind, alcoholics or drug addicts or vagrants;
 - f. the lawful arrest or detention of a person to prevent his effecting an unauthorised entry into the country or of a person against whom action is being taken with a view to deportation or extradition.
2. Everyone who is arrested shall be informed promptly, in a language which he understands, of the reasons for his arrest and of any charge against him.
3. Everyone arrested or detained in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 1.c of this article shall be brought promptly before a judge or other officer authorised by law to exercise judicial power and shall be entitled to trial within a reasonable time or to release pending trial. Release may be conditioned by guarantees to appear for trial.
4. Everyone who is deprived of his liberty by arrest or detention shall be entitled to take proceedings by which the lawfulness of his detention shall be decided speedily by a court and his release ordered if the detention is not lawful.
5. Everyone who has been the victim of arrest or detention in contravention of the provisions of this article shall have an enforceable right to compensation.

Article 6 – Right to a fair trial

1. In the determination of his civil rights and obligations or of any criminal charge against him, everyone is entitled to a fair and public hearing within a reasonable time by an independent and impartial tribunal established by law. Judgment shall be pronounced publicly but the press and public may be excluded from all or part of the trial in the interests of morals, public order or national security in a democratic society, where the interests of juveniles or the protection of the private life of the parties so require, or to the extent strictly necessary in the opinion of the court in special circumstances where publicity would prejudice the interests of justice.

2. Everyone charged with a criminal offence shall be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law.
3. Everyone charged with a criminal offence has the following minimum rights:
 - a. to be informed promptly, in a language which he understands and in detail, of the nature and cause of the accusation against him;
 - b. to have adequate time and facilities for the preparation of his defence;
 - c. to defend himself in person or through legal assistance of his own choosing or, if he has not sufficient means to pay for legal assistance, to be given it free when the interests of justice so require;
 - d. to examine or have examined witnesses against him and to obtain the attendance and examination of witnesses on his behalf under the same conditions as witnesses against him;
 - e. to have the free assistance of an interpreter if he cannot understand or speak the language used in court.

Article 7 – No punishment without law

1. No one shall be held guilty of any criminal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a criminal offence under national or international law at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the criminal offence was committed.
2. This article shall not prejudice the trial and punishment of any person for any act or omission which, at the time when it was committed, was criminal according to the general principles of law recognised by civilised nations.

Article 8 – Right to respect for private and family life

1. Everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence.
2. There shall be no interference by a public authority with the exercise of this right except such as is in accordance with the law and is necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security, public safety or the economic well-being of the country, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of health or morals, or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.

Article 9 – Freedom of thought, conscience and religion

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief, in worship, teaching, practice and observance.

Freedom to manifest one's religion or beliefs shall be subject only to such limitations as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of public safety, for the protection of public order, health or morals, or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.

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 rights of others, for preventing the disclosure of information received in confidence, or for maintaining the authority and impartiality of the judiciary.

Article 11 – Freedom of assembly and association

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and to freedom of association with others, including the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.
2. No restrictions shall be placed on the exercise of these rights other than such as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security or public safety, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of health or morals or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others. This article shall not prevent the imposition of lawful restrictions on the exercise of these rights by members of the armed forces, of the police or of the administration of the State.

Article 12 – Right to marry

Men and women of marriageable age have the right to marry and to found a family, according to the national laws governing the exercise of this right.

Article 13 – Right to an effective remedy

Everyone whose rights and freedoms as set forth in this Convention are violated shall have an effective remedy before a national authority notwithstanding that the violation has been committed by persons acting in an official capacity.

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.

...

Protocol to the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms

Paris, 20 March 1952

...

Article 1 – Protection of property

Every natural or legal person is entitled to the peaceful enjoyment of his possessions. No one shall be deprived of his possessions except in the public interest and subject to the conditions provided for by law and by the general principles of international law.

The preceding provisions shall not, however, in any way impair the right of a State to enforce such laws as it deems necessary to control the use of property in accordance with the general interest or to secure the payment of taxes or other contributions or penalties.

Article 2 – Right to education

No person shall be denied the right to education. In the exercise of any functions which it assumes in relation to education and to teaching, the State shall respect the right of parents to ensure such education and teaching in conformity with their own religious and philosophical convictions.

Article 3 – Right to free elections

The High Contracting Parties undertake to hold free elections at reasonable intervals by secret ballot, under conditions which will ensure the free expression of the opinion of the people in the choice of the legislature.

...

Protocol No. 4 to the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms

Strasbourg, 16 September 1963

...

Article 2 – Freedom of movement

1. Everyone lawfully within the territory of a State shall, within that territory, have the right to liberty of movement and freedom to choose his residence.
2. Everyone shall be free to leave any country, including his own.
3. No restrictions shall be placed on the exercise of these rights other than such as are in accordance with law and are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security or public safety, for the maintenance of ordre public, for the prevention of crime, for the protection of health or morals, or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.
4. The rights set forth in paragraph 1 may also be subject, in particular areas, to restrictions imposed in accordance with law and justified by the public interest in a democratic society.

Article 3 – Prohibition of expulsion of nationals

1. No one shall be expelled, by means either of an individual or of a collective measure, from the territory of the State of which he is a national.
2. No one shall be deprived of the right to enter the territory of the state of which he is a national.

Article 4 – Prohibition of collective expulsion of aliens

Collective expulsion of aliens is prohibited.

...

Protocol No. 6 to the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms

Strasbourg, 28 April 1983

...

Article 1 – Abolition of the death penalty

The death penalty shall be abolished. No-one shall be condemned to such penalty or executed.

...

Source: www.echr.coe.int/echr/Homepage_EN

This is the website of the European Court of Human Rights. Translations of the European Convention on European Rights into the languages of the member states are available in PDF format.

Student handout 3.1

Schedule for unit 3 "Diversity and pluralism"

| | Agenda: negotiating a shared definition of the common good | Time budget (minutes) |
|-----------------|--|-----------------------|
| Lesson 1 | Diversity of individual opinions: the students define their political priorities | |
| | 1. The students define political goals. | 25 min |
| | 2. The students analyse their decisions. | 15 min |
| Lesson 2 | Pluralism: the students establish parties to achieve their goals | |
| | 1. The students define the profiles of their parties. | 15 min |
| | 2. Publicity event: the parties present their profiles. | 10 min |
| | 3. Teacher's input: the concept of the common good. | 5 min |
| | 4. The students discuss their negotiation strategies. | 10 min |
| Lesson 3 | Negotiations: can we (or the majority) agree on a political goal (the common good)? | |
| | 1. The students define their goals. | 10 min |
| | 2. The students negotiate at a round table. | 30 min |
| Lesson 4 | Reflection on the unit | |
| | 1. The students reflect on their experience. | 20 min |
| | 2. Follow-up discussion. | 15 min |
| | 3. The students give feedback. | 5 min |

Student handout 3.2

Taking part in democracy – basic rules and principles

Taking part in democracy means taking part in negotiating the common good

In democracies, everyone – individuals or groups – may take part and promote their interests and ideas. The final decision may not meet our goals fully, but if we don't take part, no one will take notice of our interests.

In democracies, decisions and solutions are found through controversy and competition of interests and ideas. Consent is achieved through a good compromise that all parties, or the majority, can accept. Such a decision may be considered, for the time being, as a definition of the **common good**.

Controversy and political competition generate an element of struggle. It is therefore very important that all players in the political arena agree on a framework of rules, based on the principle of mutual respect.

Basic rules and principles for negotiations and controversies in democracy

1. Clarity and mutual respect:

“I disapprove of what you say,
but I will defend to the death your right to say it.”
Voltaire (1694-1778)

This means you treat persons with different interests and views as your adversary, not as your enemy. You are not fighting, you are engaged in something more like a sports contest.

2. Human rights are there for everyone

Human rights establish the principle of non-violence. Political competition is carried out through words, arguments, ideas, charm, and wit.

3. Willingness to compromise



Try to find win-win solutions.



If that does not work, make sure both sides find something to agree on.



Avoid win-lose situations, no matter who wins and who loses.

4. Tips for negotiation

Have a clear idea of your goal in mind. Players who know what they want often win for this sole reason.

Try to understand the other's point of view. Focus on what you can agree on rather than on what you disagree on – look for shared interests and concerns, and work on those. But be very clear on points that are important to you. Do not accept solutions that you think are unfair or inefficient, and do not suggest them to others.

Try to focus on issues that allow compromise, basically anything that can be measured or quantified in figures – for example the distribution of resources, money, land, or time. Avoid disputes over collective identities (colour, ethnic origin).

Student handout 3.3

Establishing a political party

1. Draft agenda

1. Elect a chairperson, a spokesperson, a time manager, and two writers (see role instructions below).
2. Agree on the draft agenda – with or without alterations (majority vote).
3. What brought us together?
 - What is my top priority? Statement by every member, without discussion.
4. Defining the political profile of our party:
 - What is our political standpoint? Do we want to adopt one of the four basic standpoints? Or are we somewhere in between? Or must we define a new standpoint?
 - What are our main concerns? For example, do we care about certain groups in particular? Or do we define a key problem or issue? On what level do we operate – local, national, European, global?
 - What name do we give our party? What name expresses our profile best? (Display your name on your table or on the wall behind.)
5. Goals: what is our top priority? Do we have further goals?
6. Strategy: how do we win support?
 - Who shares our goals – who shares our outlook?
 - What are we willing to compromise on? Where do we “dig in”?

2. Role instructions

Chairperson

In a democratic community, organisations such as political parties must function like democratic micro-communities (see *≈* student handout 3.1). Your task is to make sure that procedure and human rights are observed during your meeting, for example that everyone has got a fair chance of expressing their opinion.

You are in charge of the agenda of the meeting. If the discussion becomes complicated because several issues are being addressed at the same time, you make the group aware of this and suggest which topic to deal with first.

Spokesperson and writers

You are the “publicity managers” who are responsible for the “product” that makes sense and that “sells” well – a name for your party, a statement on your goal or goals. Will other people be able to understand you easily? Will your appearance appeal to them?

You will present the party at a publicity event staged in lesson 3. Try to appeal to the students who have not yet joined a party, and try to win over members from other parties, particularly those closest to you in outlook. Check with the teacher how much time you will be given.

The group should consider in what way the writers, and perhaps all party members, can add to the advertising, e.g. by creating a flyer or poster. Check with the teacher what materials are available, or supply them yourself.

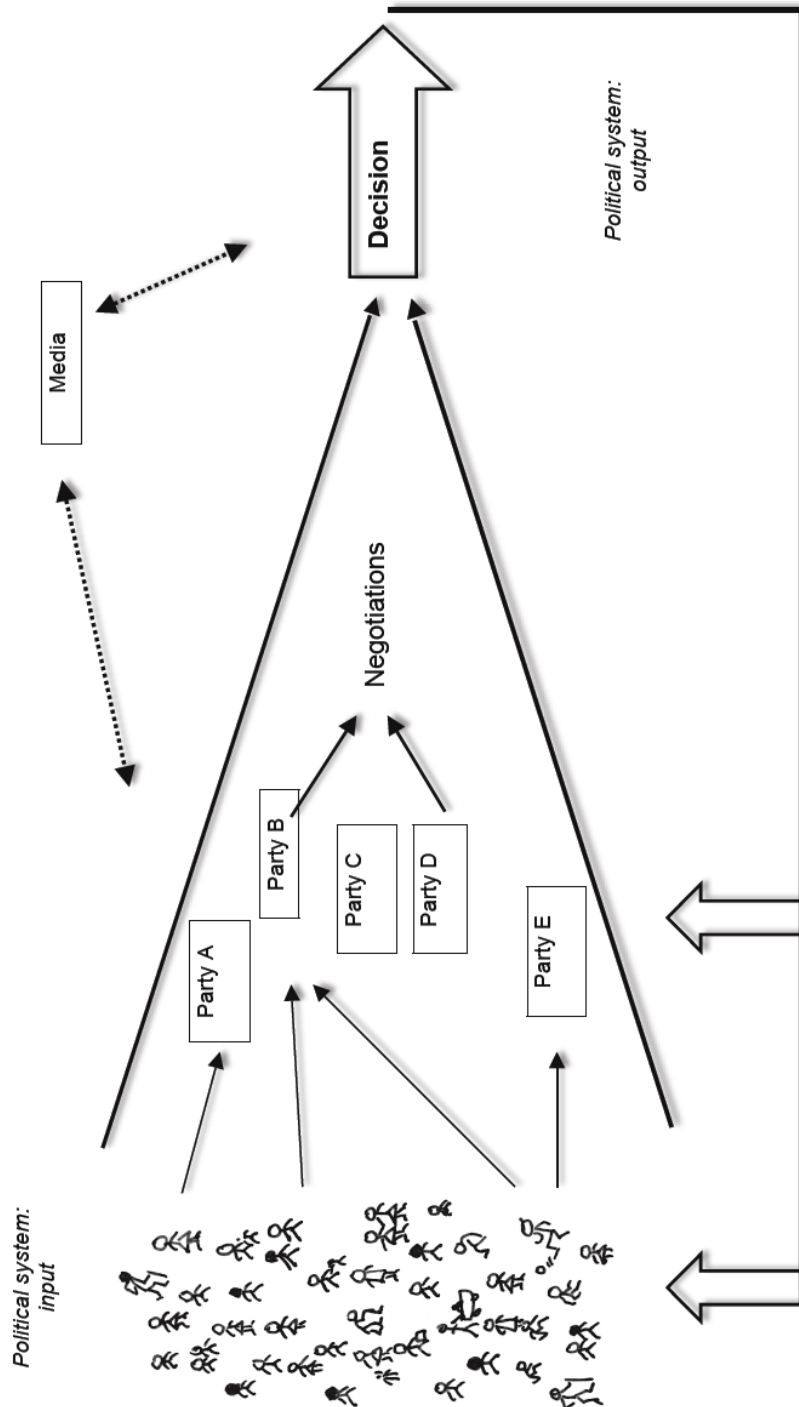
Time manager

The chairperson is the “democracy manager”; you are the “efficiency manager”. Your task is to keep an eye on the time you spend during the meeting to protect your group from running out of time.

Tips: suggest a time frame to be added to the agenda before you start. Intervene if your group is beginning to run late and suggest how to adjust your plan. The group decides what to do, but you supply the options.

Student handout 3.4

How does a democratic political system handle diversity and pluralism?



All players agree on a framework of rules and principles:

- mutual respect of personal dignity;
- human rights;
- non-violence;
- competition of interests and goals;
- willingness to compromise;
- majority vote;
- the common good is negotiated for, not predefined by any player.

Lesson 1

Individuals articulate widely diverse goals and interests.

Lesson 2

Mediation of interests through representative rule (parties, lobbies or NGOs) or direct rule (referendum).

Lesson 3

The output is a political decision that affects the members of society. Their reaction leads to new inputs.

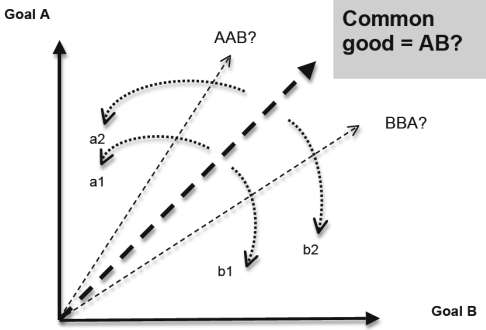
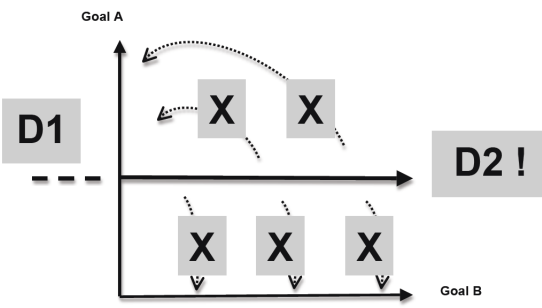
Student handout 3.5

The concept of the common good: the hallmark of democracy and dictatorship

*La multitude qui ne se réduit pas à l'unité est confusion;
l'unité qui ne dépend pas de la multitude est tyrannie.*

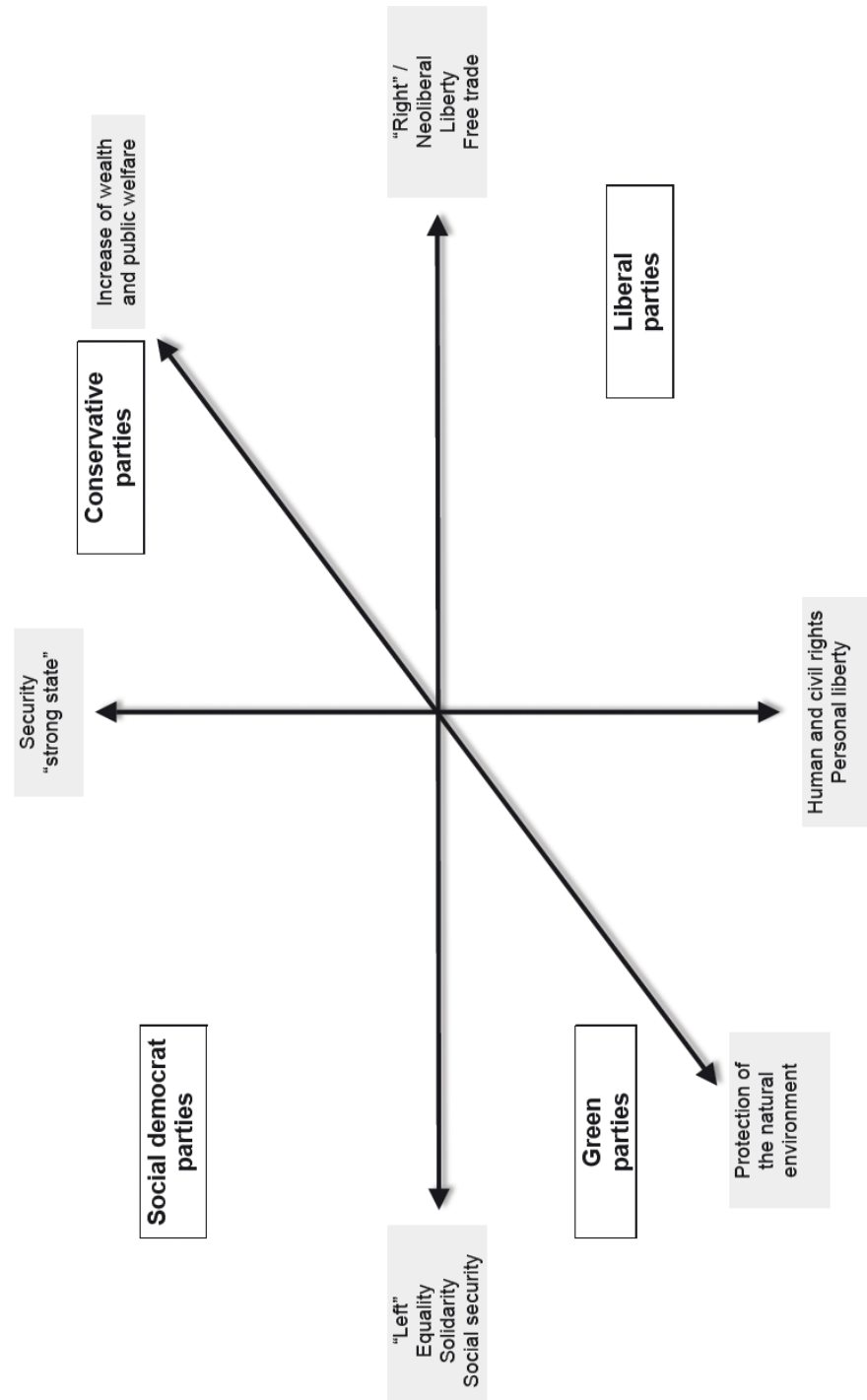
[Diversity that cannot be reduced to unity is confusion;
unity that ignores diversity is tyranny.]

Blaise Pascal (1623-62)

| Negotiation of the common good in pluralist democracies | Imposition of the common good under authoritarian rule and dictatorship |
|--|--|
|  |  |
| <p>In pluralist democracies, the common good is negotiated and argued for. No one knows the result beforehand (AB?). Trial and error is often involved, so decisions can, and sometimes must, be corrected. Politics is a process of collective learning through controversial debate; finally, a decision must be made.</p> | <p>D1: through divine insight or scientific analysis (e.g. Marxism–Leninism) the common good can be objectively defined. Only the ruling elite is capable of doing so (D2!). The common good justifies any means, including force, to overcome resistance and opposition (X). Critics of “D1” or “D2!” are denounced as enemies.</p> |
| <p>In pluralist democracies, groups promote different goals, interests and values (Goals A and B). Each group argues for its goals (a1, a2, b1, b2), trying to influence the final decision in their favour (AAB? – BBA?). Pluralism induces competition and controversy. Free media support lively debates.</p> | <p>In dictatorships, groups or individuals promoting an alternative or articulating criticism are silenced (X-symbol). The right to participation is granted only to supporters of the regime. Media are censored. The ruler decides what problems, interests or goals are admitted to the political agenda.</p> |
| <p>Controversy is considered as necessary and productive to achieve agreement and compromise. Decisions are open for critical review.</p> | <p>Consent is enforced and predefined by the ruler. Controversy is considered disharmonious and dangerous, as it is difficult to control.</p> |

Student handout 3.6

Map of social cleavages and political parties



Each society has a few basic conflict constellations, termed cleavages.

The Left-Right cleavage occurs in all countries with free trade capitalist systems. This cleavage dates back to the industrial revolution in the 19th century.

The other two cleavages are more recent.

The cleavage of environment vs. economic growth hit the agenda in the 1970s.

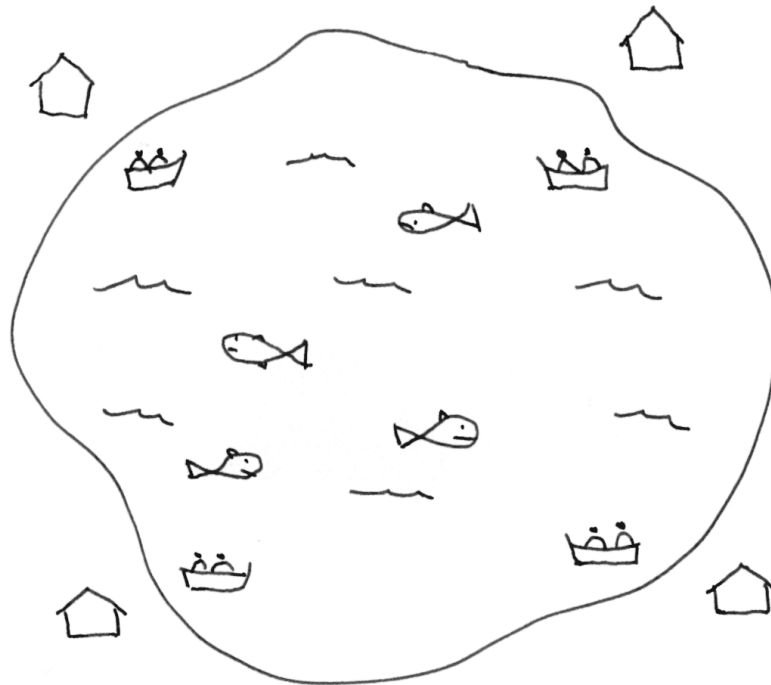
The "strong state" vs. civil rights cleavage was reactivated in the fight against terrorism after 11 September 2001.

The system of political parties depicts these cleavages. They represent group interests and give priority to certain cleavages.

Each society has its specific cleavage structure. The more cleavages a society has, the more difficult it is to govern.

Student handout 4.1

Case story: the conflict in the fishing community



I. The fishing community

Imagine a big lake full of fish. On the shores, fishermen live in four small villages – the fishing community. Each village sends out a crew to catch fish. In the close season, the fishermen allow the fish stocks to recover, while they repair their nets and their boats. They have nothing else to live on but fish. What they do not eat with their families they can sell at a market nearby. With this income, the fishermen feed, clothe and house themselves and their families. Their living standard is modest, but sufficient.

II. The conflict over resource mismanagement

In the past two or three years, serious conflict has broken out in the fishing community. Some fishing crews have attempted to increase their income by catching more fish. Now the reproduction figures have dropped, and the fish stocks have decreased by half in three years. The fishing community faces a whole series of problems:

1. the depletion of the fish stocks, with the danger of total extinction;
2. the decrease in the total output of fish;
3. the gap between two rich and two poor fishing villages (“winners and losers”);
4. the danger of violent conflict between the fishing villages.

This is a conflict over mismanagement of a common resource. It seems to be based on three things that reinforce each other:

1. There is an incentive that encourages the fishermen to catch more fish;
2. There is a total absence of rules, so the fishermen can do what they like;
3. The crews of fishermen do not communicate with each other.

III. Analysing the conflict (the "diagnosis")

1. The incentive to overharvest the fish stocks

Every fisherman knows that the community relies on the fish stocks, and it is therefore sensible to allow the fish stocks to fully recover.

On the other hand, each fisherman also knows that if his crew caught one more fish, the fish stocks probably would not suffer. It would make a difference to the crew's income, while the costs – caring for the fish stocks – would be borne by the whole community. This unequal distribution of additional profits and additional costs works to the advantage of those fishermen who catch more fish. This is an incentive to fish extensively. From the individual fisherman's point of view, it seems sensible to catch more fish.

| | | | | |
|--|-----------------------------|--|----------------|---|
| Additional income (+100%) Additional costs -25% | Additional profit (+75%) | Total additional income and profit goes to crew No. 1. | Crew 4 -25% | Additional income (+0%) Additional costs (4x -25%) |
| | | | Crew 3 -25% | |
| | | | Crew 2 -25% | |
| | Crew 1 -25% | | | |
| Crew No. 1 with extra catch | | Fishing community (all four crews) | | |

One crew catches more fish: unequal distribution of additional income, additional costs and additional profit for the fishing community

All fishermen are aware of this incentive, and they are fully informed about the effects of what everyone does. The worst scenario is quite likely – they all do the same, and catch more fish. As a result, the fish stocks are overharvested and cannot recover fully any more. A vicious circle is set off, as the fishermen can only compensate for their loss of income by an even higher level of overharvesting.

2. The absence of rules


The fishermen act in this way because there are no rules whatever – no guidance, no security, no community goals, no sanctions. As things stand, every fisherman may do as he pleases, and whatever he catches, belongs to him.

Under these circumstances, the fishermen's behaviour is not surprising – the effects on the community and the fish stocks, on the other hand, are disastrous.

3. The absence of communication

So far, the fishermen have not met and talked about their situation. They act as they think best, and react to the decisions made by the other crews.

4. The effect of resource mismanagement

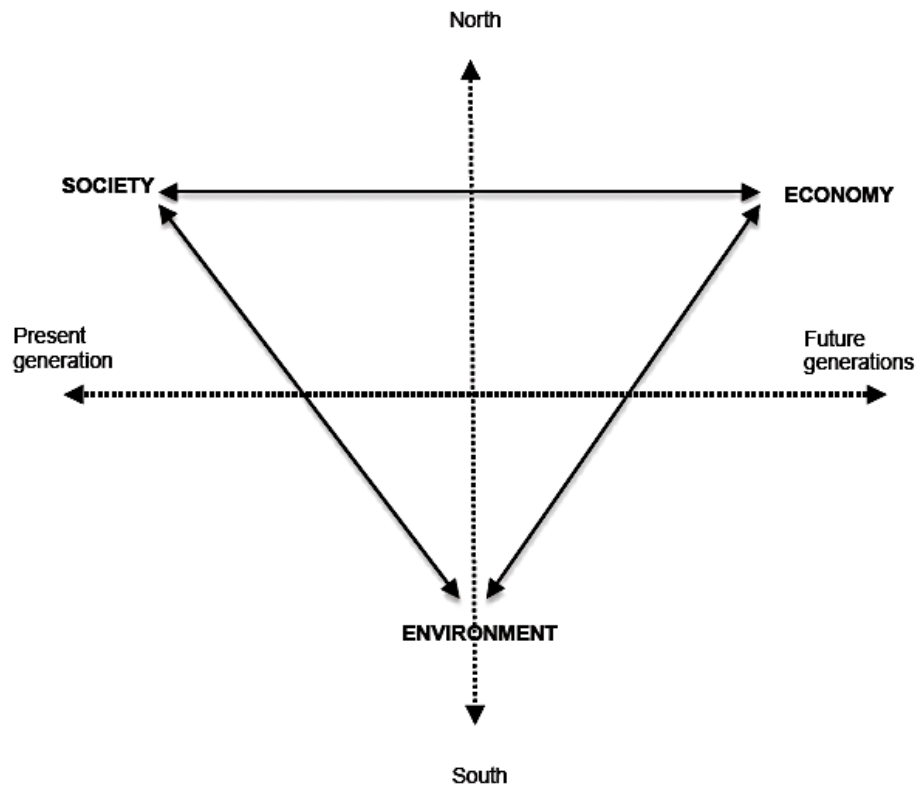
The sustainability model helps to specify the damage done by the fishermen's mismanagement, and may help to define an alternative policy model (see  student handouts 4.2 and 4.4).

IV. Settling the conflict

The "diagnosis" of the conflict should be taken into account when choosing the "therapy".

Student handout 4.2

A model of sustainability goals



How to read this diagram

The model integrates three sustainability goals and places them into the historic and global dimension:

1. “Environment”: protection of the natural environment and of resources;
2. “Economy”: economic growth (productivity, output, wealth);
3. “Society”: social cohesion, fair distribution of welfare;

The double pointed arrows indicate that the goals they point to may mutually support or exclude each other.

Student handout 4.3

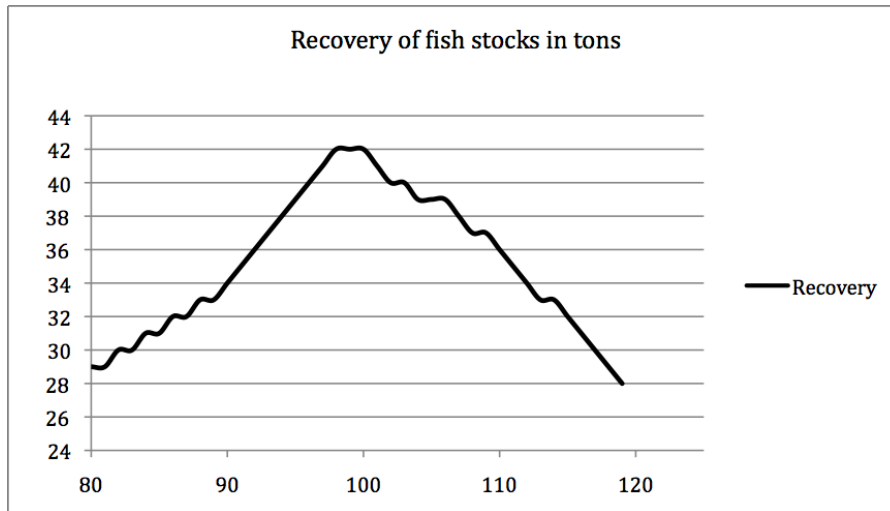
Applying the sustainability model to the fishing game:
how do we “catch as many fish as possible”?

| Goals of the sustainability model | What we should achieve in the fishing game |
|---|--|
| Economy: Economic growth, increase of welfare | |
| Society: Distribution of goods in the community | |
| Environment: Protection of the natural environment and resources | |
| Long-term stability: Achievement of sustainability goals today and in the future | |
| ... | |

Student handout 4.4

What is the optimum balance between fish reproduction and harvest?

The fish stocks produce larger or smaller quantities of new fish, depending on the amount of fish left in the lake after the fishing season is over. What is the fish stock that delivers the largest amount of new fish? The answer to this question gives the key to sustainable fishing.



Fish stocks at the end of the season in tons

| Stock at end of season | Recovery (production of new fish) | Stock at beginning of new season |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 80 | 29 | 109 |
| 85 | 31 | 116 |
| 90 | 34 | 124 |
| 95 | 39 | 134 |
| 96 | 40 | 136 |
| 97 | 41 | 138 |
| 98 | 42 | 140 |
| 99 | 42 | 141 |
| 100 | 42 | 142 |
| 101 | 41 | 142 |
| 102 | 40 | 142 |
| 103 | 40 | 143 |
| 104 | 39 | 143 |
| 105 | 39 | 144 |
| 110 | 36 | 146 |
| 115 | 32 | 147 |
| 120 | 28 | 148 |

This table shows the peak recovery rates that the fish stocks are capable of producing. These recovery rates are ideal for sustainable fishing.

Student handout 5.1

Preparations for the conference on a framework of rules

The schedule

| Time frame | Agenda | Materials and resources |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| Lesson 1 | Formation of working groups. Each group includes a member from each fishing village. | Handouts 5.1, 5.2. |
| Lesson 1 Lesson 2 | The groups draft a framework of rules. The groups prepare their presentations. The community members adopt the rules of procedure and voting for the conference. | Handouts 5.2, 5.4. Flipcharts and markers. |
| Lesson 3 | <i>Plenary meeting:</i> The groups present their drafts. The members of the community compare and judge the draft frameworks of rules. The community members discuss which framework they should adopt. | Handout 5.3. |
| Lesson 4 The conference | <i>Conference:</i> The community members give short promotion speeches for the model of their choice. They adopt a framework of rules by majority vote. They sign the original framework document. <i>Reflection</i> The students reflect on their experiences. | Handout 5.4. A4 sheets of white paper, pen, markers. |

Why should you play a decision-making game?

The method applied in the schedule above is a decision-making game. The reason for choosing this method is the following.

The game works like a model. It depicts important aspects of reality, and shows them clearly by leaving out a lot of other details. All states have some kind of basic framework, a constitution that lays out the rules for making decisions and settling conflicts. Without such a framework, the members of a community would have no support for settling their conflicts, and they would resort to violence.

When you take part in democracy, you exercise the rights that the constitution of your country has given you. The best way to understand how the framework of rules and laws works in your country is to create such a framework yourself. This decision-making game sets you this task.

Student handout 5.2

Basic questions to consider in institutional design

When you design a framework of rules, you make some basic choices. You decide which model of governance (decision making) you prefer and who is to own the fish that are caught. You can create different combinations with these basic forms and arrive at very different solutions.

| | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| Governance Property | Hierarchy (state authority) | Co-operative network |
| Private property | | |
| Public property | | |

The sections below give some more information on the different options.

1. Choosing a model of governance

| Key agent | State | Local networks |
|-------------------------------|--|---|
| Key concepts | Power and authority | Personal relationships, communication and shared interests |
| Design principle of framework | Hierarchy (top down) | Partnership (equal eye-level) |
| Strengths | Peace and Security Laws clearly permit or forbid how people behave Laws can be enforced if they are broken | High expertise and flexibility in solving problems and serving people's interests Freedom to improvise and react quickly |
| Weaknesses and risks | Danger of abuse of power Inflexibility Weak incentives for personal initiative | "Veto-players" can block decisions Rules are difficult to enforce if they are broken |
| Remedies | Democracy and human rights Rule of law Checks and balances in the constitution | Moral sanctions Culture of responsibility |

2. The issue of property: who owns the fish harvest?

Two basic options, and some criteria to think about:

| | Private property | Public property |
|--------------------------------|---|--|
| Property rules | Each fisherman owns what he catches He can make use of his catch as he pleases | Each fisherman delivers his catch to a public representative The fish are then distributed to the community members |
| Incentive for fishermen | | |
| Effect on total output of fish | | |
| Effect on fish stocks | | |

3. Further questions to consider when designing institutions

- Do you want to define a goal that must be achieved?
- Who has the power to make decisions?
- Do you want to provide tools to enforce rules?
- Is there a danger of the abuse of power?

...

Student handout 5.3

Comparing frameworks of rules

| Criteria for comparison | Our draft | Other models | | |
|-------------------------|-----------|--------------|-------|-------|
| | | No. 1 | No. 2 | No. 3 |
| A. Basics | | | | |
| Hierarchy | | | | |
| Networking | | | | |
| Private property | | | | |
| Public property | | | | |
| Comments | | | | |
| B. Rules | | | | |
| Goals | | | | |
| Power of decision | | | | |
| Rule enforcement | | | | |
| Abuse of power | | | | |
| ... | | | | |
| Comments | | | | |

Student handout 5.4

Procedural rules for the conference – draft version

Adoption of procedural rules

1. The community adopts a draft set of procedural rules by a majority of 50% or more of all votes cast.
2. If no alterations are suggested to this draft, it may be adopted by one block vote. Alterations need to be voted on separately.

Chairperson

3. By majority vote, a community member is appointed as chairperson. The chairperson may participate in the vote on the draft frameworks, but may not perform as spokesperson (rule no. 5).

Final promotion statements

4. The community members show their preference for a draft model by a show of hands. They form parties that may lobby for their model.
5. A spokesperson makes a promotional statement for his/her party lasting no more than two minutes.
6. During the voting procedure, no further debating is allowed.

Voting procedure

7. Voting: the community members adopt a draft by vote. All votes count equally. The members vote by a show of hands.
8. Two-stage decision: the vote on the drafts takes place in two rounds.
 - 8.1 First round: the community members vote for one of the drafts.
 - 8.2 Second round: the two drafts with the highest amount of votes are voted on a second time. The community adopts the draft that receives the higher number of votes.
 - 8.3 If both drafts receive an equal number of votes, a discussion is held before the vote is repeated.

Documentation and authorisation

9. The writer of the draft enters the date and place of the conference at the end of the rules document.
10. All community members sign the document.

Student handout 5.5

Summary: what can we learn through these games?

1. Development of a community: a sequence of problems and solutions

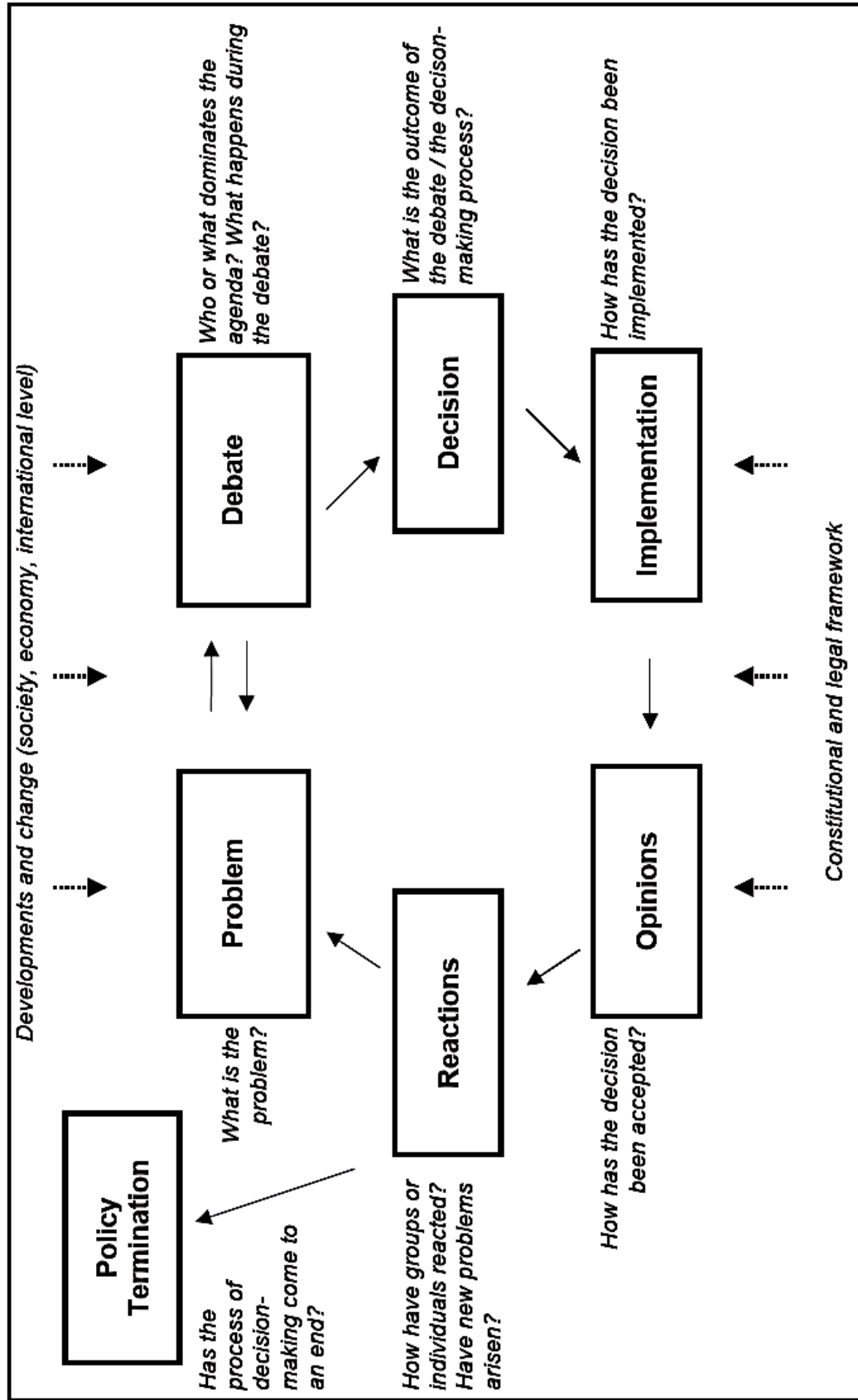
| PROBLEM | SOLUTION |
|---|--|
| How can we survive? | We must draw on the natural resources we have – fish. |
| How can we settle our conflict by overfishing? | 1. We need a concept of sustainability. 2. We need a framework of rules to organise our processes of communication and decision making. |
| 1. How do we define sustainability? | We need a balance between several goals. In effect we must produce as much fish as the stocks can deliver without being depleted, so as to ensure stability for the future. We must share the output fairly. |
| 2. What kind of rules do we need? | In designing our framework, we must make a choice between different principles – introducing a state, or developing a network of equals. |
| How do we prevent the abuse of power? | Too much power must not be placed in the hands of one person. Constitutions apply the following means: checks and balances, rule of law, giving human rights the status of civil rights, limiting periods of office, referenda, cantonal and federal autonomy, free press and media. |
| Who decides what framework of rules we get? | All of us together. We draft frameworks, and then make a choice and vote on it. |
| How do we organise this process fairly and efficiently? | We set up an agenda. We need a special framework of procedural rules that we have to agree on beforehand. |

2. Conclusions

1. Politics is an effort to master problems that affect the well-being and survival of the community. Institutions, such as frameworks of rules, are tools to solve problems. If they do not serve their purpose well, they can and should be changed.
2. Conflict is always part of social and political life. While conflict cannot be eradicated, it is possible to control its disruptive potential.
3. The design of the fishing game and the decision-making game work like models. They come pretty near to historic reality in describing the development of a community as a series of problems and solutions.
4. Reality differs from the games in two important respects. First, we do not have such exact data on our natural resources as are available in the game. Second, democracies do not have democratic roots. Democracy and human rights are not established through conferences, but through conflict.

Student handout 6.1

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



Student handout 6.2

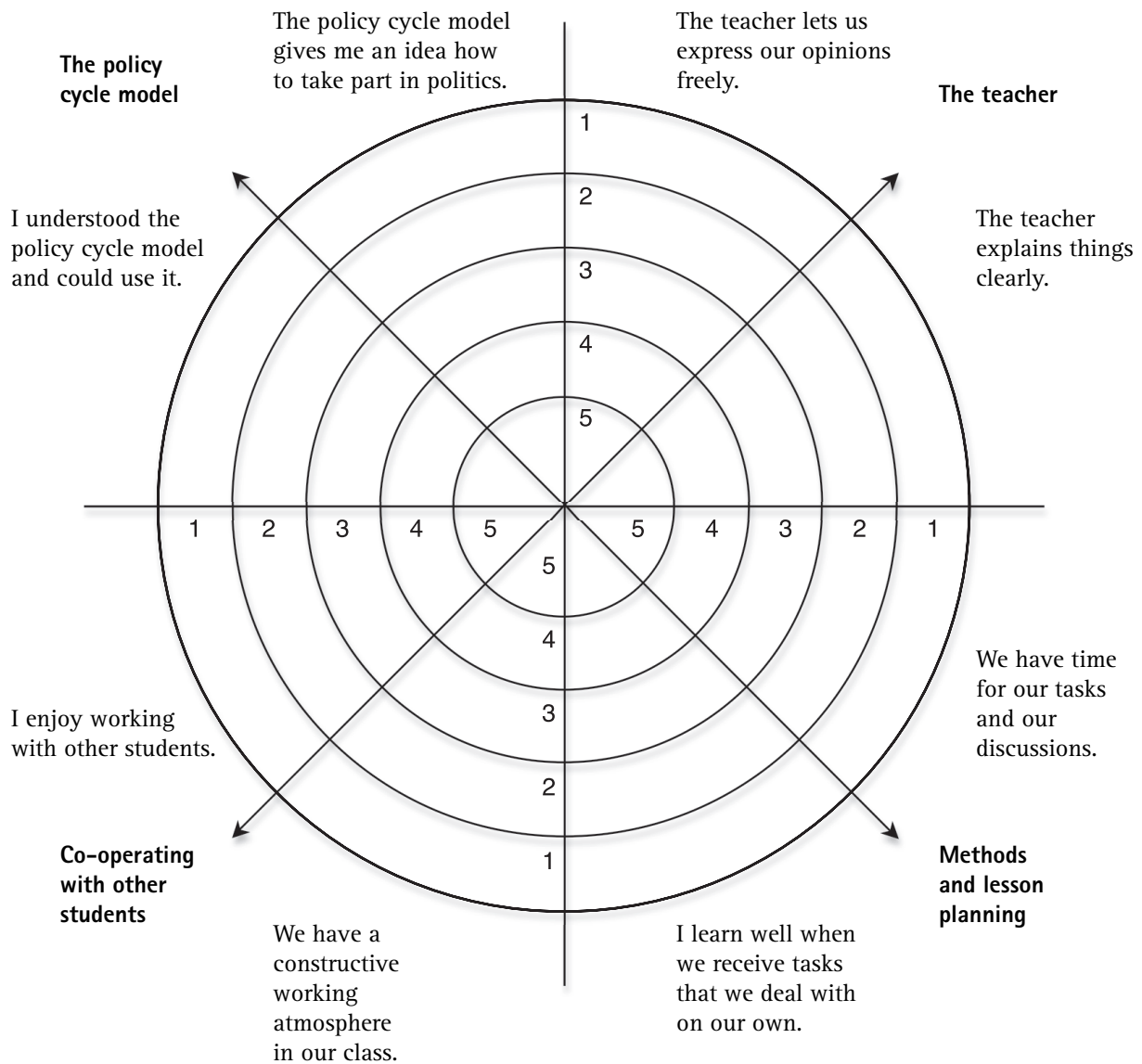
The policy cycle – a tool to observe and understand political decision-making processes

| Concepts and key questions <i>Adapt the questions as necessary</i> | Notes | Sources of information |
|---|-------|------------------------|
| 1. Topic What is the issue? | | |
| 2. Problem Who sets the agenda? What is the problem? Do all protagonists agree on their definition of the problem? | | |
| 3. Debate Who is involved? What are the protagonists' interests and values? | | |
| 4. Decision What is the outcome? Have certain interests been given priority – or is it a compromise decision? | | |
| 5. Implementation How is the decision implemented? Who is involved or responsible? Are there problems or conflicts? | | |
| 6. Opinions Which individuals, protagonists, groups, etc. support or criticise the outcome? What are their values, ideologies and interests? | | |
| 7. Reactions How do they react? (Individually, collectively?) What are their means of exercising power and pressure? | | |
| 8. New problem, old problem or a solution? Is there a new agenda-setting debate? What is the problem? The old one or a new one? Or has the decision led to a solution that ends the process? | | |

Student handout 6.3
Feedback on the unit "Government and politics"

Class:
Date:

1. Dartboard (5: I fully agree – 1: I fully disagree)



2. My personal feedback

2.1 The most important and interesting thing/s that I have learnt:

2.2 What I did not find interesting or helpful:

Student handout 7.1

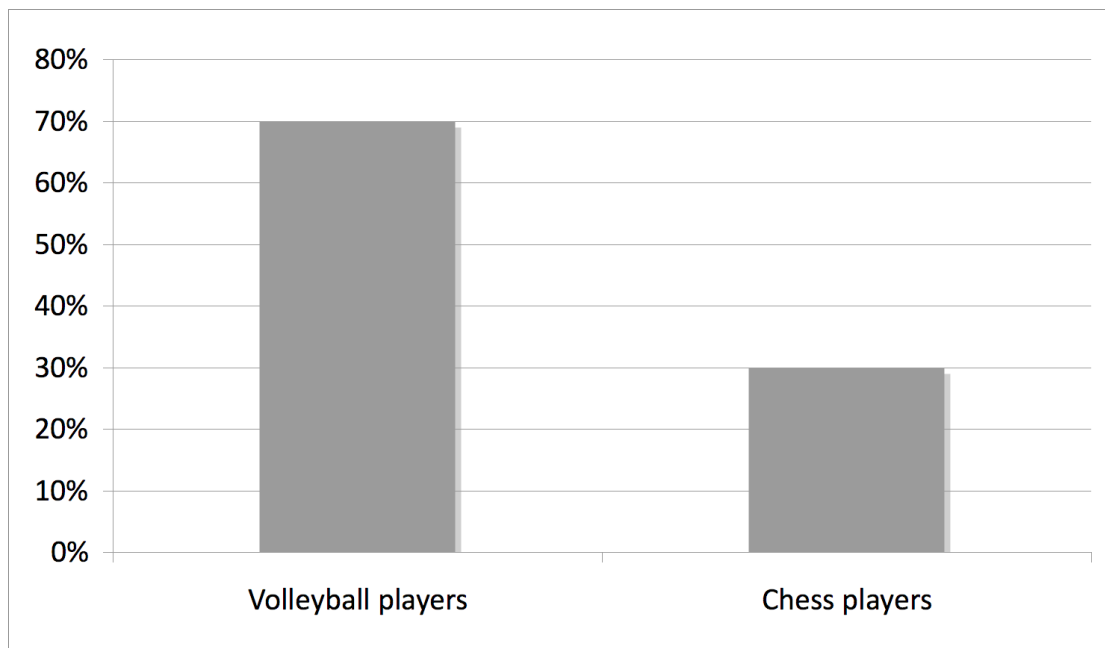
Is majority rule unfair to the minority? A case story

A sports club has a large number of keen volleyball players and a smaller number of equally keen chess players. Both groups take part in championship contests, and have succeeded in attracting new members. Each member pays the same sum as an annual contribution to the club. Once a year, a meeting is held in which all the members decide by majority vote how to spend the money. The volleyball players have a long list of requests, including a regular supply of new balls, new gear for their team, and an upgrading of the volleyball pitch. The chess players need training materials for beginners, some books and magazines, and they also need a bigger room and more sets of chess games, tables and chairs for their increasing number of members.

The volleyball and chess players' speakers state their cases. Then a decision is made by majority vote. Every year, the chess group are outvoted by the volleyball players. All the money goes into the volleyball projects, and the chess players have to put up with what they have.

Now the chess players are getting frustrated and impatient. After all, their contributions are also being spent on the volleyball projects. They feel as though they are second-class members, and some chess players have already aired some thoughts about splitting into two separate clubs.

Most volleyball players shake their heads. The majority rules – that's democracy. And if you're outvoted – that's part of the game. But some of the volleyball players feel that this view is a bit too simple, and fair play means that the chess players' interests must be catered for as well. But how?



The membership structure in the sports club – a simple example of pluralism. Pluralist societies have the same kind of structure, but of course it is more complex. Different groups have different interests that may compete with each other. The more complex a society is, the more potential there is for conflicting interests. Democracy and human rights offer tools to solve these conflicts fairly, and that means peacefully.

Case story adapted from: David Miller, *Political philosophy. A very short introduction*. Oxford, 2003, p. 5.

Student handout 7.2

How do democracies care for the protection of minorities?

The problem of how the rights of majorities and minorities are to be balanced is a core issue at all levels of the community, from small clubs up to state level. On the one hand, the will of the majority must be respected in a democracy. On the other hand, interests of minorities must be respected too. If there is a group of permanent losers who feel they are being discriminated against, this can lead to serious conflict within a community.

In the constitutions of democracies, two solutions are commonly applied – both set limits to what the majority may decide. One is to limit the power of the majority by giving smaller entities rights of autonomy (the federal or cantonal model). The other solution is to incorporate human rights as civil rights. Then these rights protect individuals and minority groups, as the majority must respect these rights.

1. The federal/cantonal model

Minority groups form regional entities within the state – federal states or cantons. The USA, Germany or Belgium are examples of federalism, while Switzerland is an example of the cantonal model. Within these smaller entities, the majority decides, and this may include the right to control one's own budget or to participate in national legislation. Democratic constitutions differ in the amount of autonomy they grant to these sub-entities.

This idea can be taken even further by changing the definition of the majority. If certain decisions require a majority quorum of more than 50–75% or even 100% – the minority groups can influence political decisions, and may even have the right of veto.

2. Human rights as minority rights

Human rights work as minority rights by setting limits to what the majority may decide. For example, take these articles from the **European Convention on Human Rights of 4 November 1950**:

Article 5, Right to liberty ...

Everyone has the right to liberty ...

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.

Articles 5 and 14 address two principles of human rights – liberty and equality.

Citizens whose human rights have been violated in a member state of the Council of Europe, can appeal to the European Court of Human Rights.

Human rights become civil rights once they become part of the constitution. In this case, they are more strongly protected, as they now become part of the legal system, but they only apply to citizens of that state. In some countries, a constitutional court has been established to protect civil rights. Amendments to the constitution usually require more than a simple majority, so minority groups can prevent changes that would work to their disadvantage.

Student handout 7.3

Task: drafting a statute for the sports club

1. Draft a set of rules (Article 1, Article 2, Article 3, etc. ...) that settle the following questions:
 - How should the funds be distributed between the groups?
 - Who decides how the funds are to be distributed?
 - Should the groups be given rights of autonomy?
 - How should the principle of non-discrimination be applied – to protect the rights and interests of the majority and the minority?
 - ... *(if you wish, include further questions that you think are important)*.
2. Prepare a presentation of your statute that addresses these questions. Write your rules, in note form if necessary, on an A4 sheet that you can attach to the matrix.
3. These questions will serve as a checklist to compare your results to those of the other groups (see *↗* student handout 7.4).

Student handout 7.4

Record of group presentations: draft statutes for a micro-community

Record your group's results on this form, and include the other groups' ideas in the presentation session.

| Key questions | Group 1 | Group 2 | Group 3 | Group 4 | Group 5 | Comparison |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|------------|
| Distribution of funds | | | | | | |
| Who decides on distribution? | | | | | | |
| Autonomy for groups | | | | | | |
| Principle of non-discrimination (majority/minority) | | | | | | |
| ... | | | | | | |

Judging the draft statutes – key questions

1. *Fairness*: Does this statute solve the majority/minority problem fairly?
2. *Democracy*: Does this statute observe the principle of majority rule?
3. *Efficiency*: Will the rules for making decisions work smoothly?
4. *Balancing and/or prioritising*: Has the statute found a compromise between the different interests and principles, or given priority to one over the other?
5. ...

How to apply these questions

Try to answer each question in turn. Include more questions if you wish.

If you decide to leave out a question and to focus on others, give your reasons for doing so.

Write down your judgment, with reasons.

The reasons for these instructions

You are free to form your opinion. Freedom of thought and expression are human rights.

It follows that there is no “wrong” or “right” opinion.

In order to help each other to understand our opinions we must give our reasons. And here, there are differences in quality. Some arguments are more convincing, more carefully thought through than others.

When taking part in democracy, careful thinking and good argumentation skills are important when we want to win other people’s support for our goals. That is why you can develop them through this task.

Student handout 8.1

Suggestions for a debating issue

Your task

1. First collect all the ideas that come into your mind and note them down (brainstorming).
2. Sort your ideas by categories.
3. Then check them against the following criteria:
 - a. Do they demand a choice to be made or a decision to be taken?
 - b. Are there good reasons to argue for and against a certain choice or decision?
 - c. Do you and the other students in class know something about this issue?
 - d. Do you think this issue will interest the students in your class?
 - e. Do you and the other students have the necessary information, or can you provide it? (Perhaps you know a lot through your daily experience; or you can collect data or reports from other sources, such as books, newspapers or the Internet.)

If you answer questions a.–e. with no, your suggestion is not suitable.

4. Choose one or two ideas and collect material if necessary. You can phrase the issue as a thesis or a yes/no question.
5. Enter your suggestion on the flipchart under the category it belongs to, together with your names. Make sure you deliver your results before the deadline ends, so that everyone can read your contribution.
6. Cut off the note sheet below, fill it in and deposit it where your teacher showed you. Add your materials.
7. Read the flipchart and the other students' materials before the lesson.



Note sheet: Suggestions for a debating issue

Names:

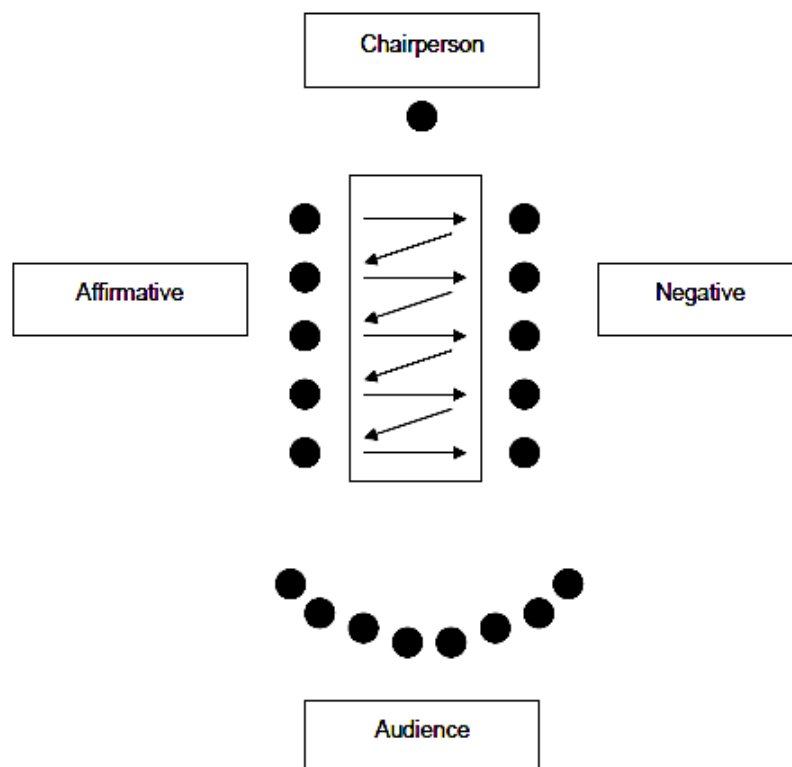
| Issue | Category (everyday life, school life, etc.) | Materials |
|-------|---|-----------|
| | | |
| | | |

Student handout 8.2

Rules for debating

Seating arrangement

The chairperson sits at the head of the table. The two debating parties are seated opposite each other. The audience sit a short distance away from the table, and should be able to see both parties. So if necessary, additional seats for the audience should be arranged in several rows rather than behind one of the debating parties.



Order of speakers

The arrows indicate the order of speakers in the first round of the debate. In the second round, the order of speakers is simply reversed, until the first speaker for the affirmative side has spoken. Then a speaker for the negative side has the last word; the team may choose a member to give this statement – but not their first speaker, as this would give him/her a block of two minutes speaking time, which would be unfair on the other team.

Rules for the debate

1. The first speaker for the affirmative side who is sitting next to the chairperson begins. Then, as indicated by the arrows in the diagram, the first speaker for the negative side responds. In this way, the speakers for both sides speak in turn. When the last speaker for the negative side has spoken, the second round of the debate begins, this time in reverse order.
2. After the first speaker for the affirmative side has spoken, a speaker from the negative team (but not their first speaker) has the last word.
3. The order of speakers must not be changed.
4. Each speaker has a maximum time of one minute. The chairperson checks the time carefully. He/she gives a sign when the speaker has 10 seconds to go, and after speaking time is over, the speaker may finish his/her sentence and must then stop. Spare time may not be transferred to another speaker.
5. Interrupting a speaker is forbidden.
6. The audience must not participate in the debate.
7. After the debate, the audience has five minutes to share their impressions and opinions. Then they vote by a show of hands.
8. In the vote, yes and no votes are counted. The majority wins the vote.

Tips for debating speakers

1. With the exception of the first speaker for the affirmative side, spend approximately the first half of your statement to rebut an argument of the other side and then present a new point.
2. (For the first speakers.) State your motion – say what decision you want to see.
3. When you prepare for the debate, first brainstorm ideas. Then decide in which order you want to present your points, and assign them to a speaker. Begin and finish with a particularly strong and impressive point (see student handout 8.2).
4. You can repeat or vary a key argument to “hammer it home”.
5. The last speakers should sum up their side’s argument, highlighting three or four points. What should your audience keep in mind after the debate? If the debate is about a decision to be taken, make clear what your appeal to the audience is when they vote after the debate.
6. Speak freely. Don’t read your statement from any notes, but establish eye contact with your opponents and with the audience.
7. Treat your opponents with respect. Never insult a speaker, but work on his arguments.

Tips for the audience (see student handout 8.5)

1. Before the debate, try to anticipate the arguments both sides might, or should, present. This gives you a framework of reference when listening to the debate.
2. Take notes of the arguments presented by either side – in one sentence if possible.
3. Link arguments with rebuttals by lines or arrows, and enter a comment. Which argument convinced you? (Steps 2 and 3 can be shared between several listeners.)
4. Indicate which argument particularly impressed you.
5. After the debate, share your results in the group. Then vote on the motions presented by the two parties.

Student handout 8.3

Planning sheet for the debating teams

| Speaker's name <i>Please keep to the order shown in the diagram in handout 8.2</i> | Argument | Notes |
|---|--|-------|
| 1. | <i>Recommended: state your motion</i> | |
| 2. | | |
| 3. | | |
| 4. | | |
| 5. | | |
| 6. | | |
| 7. | | |
| 8. | | |
| 9. | | |
| 10. * | <i>The last word (summary of key points)</i> | |

*The last word – speakers

The first speaker for the affirmative side has the last word (see diagram in  student handout 8.2).

Then the speaker for the negative side follows. The team chooses a member to do this, but not their first speaker, as he/she would then receive a two-minute block, which would be unfair on the other team.

Student handout 8.4

Planning sheet for the chairpersons

The first chairperson's task – chairing the debate

The chairperson conducts the debate and makes sure that the debaters observe the rules of debating (see ↗ student handout 8.2), and treat each other fairly and with respect. The chairperson is neutral and doesn't tend towards one of the debating teams.

In particular, the chairperson is the time keeper. No speaker must speak longer than one minute. In practice this means that after one minute is over, the speaker may finish his or her last sentence and then must stop. If necessary, the chairperson politely, but firmly interrupts the speaker and gives the floor to the next speaker of the other team.

Equipment

- A stopwatch or watch that accurately shows the seconds. Mobile phones offer a stopwatch function.
- A note sheet and pencil.
- A yellow and red piece of paper or cardboard, A7 size.
- Additional ↗ student handouts 8.2, 8.5.

The chairperson's task during the debate

1. He/she opens the debate:
 - Welcome of the teams, the audience, and the news reporters.
 - Brief outline of the debate, without any details that might help one side.
 - Reminder for the teams: fair play, observation of the rules.
 - Announcement of time-taking rules: after 50 seconds, the chairperson gives a sign.
 - After one minute, the chairperson stops the speaker – to ensure fair play.
2. During the debate:
 - The chairperson listens to the debate silently.
 - The chairperson monitors the speaking time and gives the 50-second sign.
(Quite often, this all the chairperson has to do.)
 - The chairperson intervenes if speakers go over their speaking time of one minute.
 - The chairperson intervenes if the debaters or the audience interrupt a speaker in any way.
 - In very serious cases of bad or unfair behaviour, the chairperson shows the yellow or/and red card to a speaker. The red card means that a speaker must leave the debate.
3. After the debate:
 - The chairperson announces that the debate is closed.
 - The chairperson thanks the debaters and the audience.

The chairperson's role after the debate

After the debate, the audience has a brief follow-up discussion on the debate (five minutes) and then votes on which side presented the more convincing arguments.

The chairperson's second task – chairing the audience's vote and discussion*1. The follow-up discussion*

- The chairperson announces that the audience now has five minutes during which to exchange their views on the debate. The seats are rearranged in a circle or big semicircle to allow all the students to face each other.
- Each member of the audience has made notes during the debate and thought about the question as to which group has performed more convincingly. The chairperson asks for a show of hands – a test vote.
- Then students with different views take the floor. The chairperson asks them to exchange their opinions very much in the same way as the debaters did, as time is scarce.
- After five minutes the chairperson ends the discussion.

2. The vote

- The chairperson announces the vote. He/she repeats the issue and the question to be voted on: which team convinced you more – the affirmative or the negative team? No more discussion is allowed at this point. The chairperson asks a student to note the results of the voting on the board or flipchart.
- The chairperson first asks the students who are more convinced by the affirmative side to raise their hands. He/she counts them, and then conducts the vote on the negative side in the same way.
- Finally, students who abstain – who have not voted for one of the teams – are called and counted.
- The chairperson reads out the result of the vote, but does not comment on it. He/she thanks the audience for their discussion and vote, and concludes the session.

Student handout 8.5

Record sheet for the audience

| 1. Brainstorming: what arguments do we expect? | | |
|--|----------|-------|
| Affirmative | Negative | Notes |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| 2. Record of the debate | | |
| Affirmative | Negative | Notes |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| 3. My vote (give reasons) | | |
| | | |

Student handout 8.6

Worksheet for news story writers

The task

Form three tandem teams.

Write a news story on the debate and present your article in the following lesson. Hang it up on the wall, if possible in two or three copies.

Each team works for a different kind of newspaper/periodical:

- tabloid paper;
- quality paper;
- youth magazine.

The profile of the three papers – what the readers expect

There are some general rules on how to write a good news story – see [↗](#) student handout 9.1.

But, on the other hand, each paper reports to a different audience, so your news story should appeal to this target group if you want the readers to buy the paper that gives you your job. That means your news stories will be quite different, although you are reporting on the same debate. Look at the way this is done in a real paper.

| Type of paper | What readers expect | | | | |
|----------------|--|----------|---|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| | *** top priority / ** important / * nice to have | | | | |
| | Entertainment | Pictures | Information (the issue and the arguments) | Young people's point of view | “personal touch” |
| Tabloid paper | ** | ** | ** | * | *** |
| Quality paper | * | ** | *** | * | * |
| Youth magazine | ** | ** | ** | *** | * |

Student handout 9.1

Creating a wall newspaper – making choices

Task instructions

You will produce your own wall newspaper. Prepare this work by thinking about your ideas. What stories, articles and pictures do you suggest? Give your reasons, as this will help you when you discuss your final choices.

| Points to consider (criteria) | Your suggestions | Your reasons |
|--|---|--------------|
| <p>1. Newsworthiness</p> <p>What is the importance of the story?</p> | 1. Lead story? | |
| <p>Does the story contain important or critical information that your readers should know about?</p> | 2. Other stories? | |
| <p>2. Lead story</p> <p>The lead story should be an eye-catcher to attract potential readers.</p> <p>Can you support the lead story by adding a picture?</p> | 3. Leader (comment) – on what story? | |
| <p>3. Photographs</p> <p>Consider a picture with a subtext instead of a story.</p> | 4. Photographs – on what stories? | |
| <p>4. Balance of contents</p> <p>Examples:</p> <p>familiar/unfamiliar</p> <p>positive/negative</p> <p>breaking news/“human interest”</p> <p>stories of success/ stories of conflict</p> | 5. Stories and topics of less importance – what can be dropped? | |

Based on: Center for Media Literacy (2005), *Five Key Questions That Can Change the World, Lesson 1c, p. 21 (adapted); www.medialit.org.*

Student handout 9.2

Tips for producing a wall newspaper

Assign the following tasks to different team members (see the briefing notes below):

- a chief editor to chair your meeting;
- a time manager to supervise the production of your newspaper;
- a presenter to explain your decisions in the follow-up plenary session.

Draft schedule

1. Adopt or modify this draft schedule.
2. Discuss and decide what topics to choose – and to omit (see student handout 9.1).
3. Assign research and/or writing tasks to each team member. Agree on a schedule for your work.
4. Do your work on your news stories – research, writing, collecting materials and pictures.
5. Assemble your wall newspaper.
6. Display your newspaper in class.

Briefing notes

Chief editor

You chair the discussions and decision making in your team.

Make sure that everyone has the chance to share their ideas and thoughts with the team. Intervene when you see that someone is not being listened to.

Suggest what stories should be included in your newspaper.

Make sure that the team works efficiently. Suggest a working schedule that is realistic by allowing sufficient time for the basics – collecting information and writing.

Time manager

You supervise the schedule of the newspaper production.

If you find out that the team is behind schedule and will have problems in getting finished, talk to the team members, and inform the chief editor.

Suggest what the team can do to get finished in time.

Presenter

In the follow-up lesson, please give a brief presentation to explain to the other teams the reasons why you:

- chose a certain topic as lead story;
- what other topics you considered including, and why you finally chose or dropped them;
- why you chose the photographs;
- any other issues that your team discussed.

Student handout 9.3

Tips for writing a good news story

Before you start to write

Think about the purpose of your story: for a news story it will most likely be to inform the audience.

Do some research and conduct interviews, remembering to take notes and write down useful quotes.

As you write

Use active verbs to show what's really happening.

Tell the really interesting information first.

Follow the outline below.

First paragraph

Try to hook the reader by beginning with a funny, clever, or surprising statement. Go for variety – try to begin your article with a question or a provocative statement. In your first one or two sentences, address the issues of who, what, when, where, and why.

Second/third/fourth paragraphs

Give the reader the details by expanding on the five Ws:

- Who was involved?
- What happened?
- Where did it happen?
- When did it happen?
- Why did it happen?

Include one or two quotes from people you interviewed. Write in the third person (he, she, it or they). Remember to stay objective, and never openly state your own opinion. Use quotes to express others' opinions.

Last paragraph

Wrap it up, and don't leave the reader hanging. Try ending with a quote, or a catchy phrase, or a neat summing-up.

(abridged)

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E-mail: import@suweco.cz
<http://www.suweco.cz>

DENMARK/DANEMARK

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Vimmelskaffet 32
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Tel.: +45 77 66 60 00
Fax: +45 77 66 60 01
E-mail: gad@gad.dk
<http://www.gad.dk>

FINLAND/FINLANDE

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PO Box 128
Keskuskatu 1
FI-00100 HELSINKI
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Fax: +52 (01)55 55 14 67 99
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PORTUGAL

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This is a manual for teachers in Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) and Human Rights Education (HRE), EDC/HRE textbook editors and curriculum developers. Nine teaching units of approximately four lessons each focus on key concepts of EDC/HRE. The lesson plans give step-by-step instructions and include student handouts and background information for teachers. In this way, the manual is suitable for trainees or beginners in the teaching profession and teachers who are receiving in-service teacher training in EDC/HRE. Experienced teachers may draw on the ideas and materials. The complete manual provides a full school year's curriculum for students in upper secondary school (grades 10 to 12), but as each unit is also complete in itself, the manual allows great flexibility of use.

The objective of EDC/HRE is the active citizen who is willing and able to participate in the democratic community. Therefore, EDC/HRE strongly emphasises action and task-based learning. This manual for upper secondary level focuses on key competences that enable young people to participate in democratic decision making and to meet the challenges of a dynamic pluralist society. Key concepts of EDC/HRE are taught as tools of lifelong learning.

This is Volume IV out of a series of six:

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

EDC/HRE Volume II: *Growing up in democracy*: EDC/HRE lesson plans for primary level

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

EDC/HRE Volume IV: *Taking part in democracy*: EDC/HRE lesson plans for upper secondary level

EDC/HRE Volume V: *Exploring children's rights*: Nine short projects for primary level

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



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The Council of Europe has 47 member states, covering virtually the entire continent of Europe. It seeks to develop common democratic and legal principles based on the European Convention on Human Rights and other reference texts on the protection of individuals. Ever since it was founded in 1949, in the aftermath of the Second World War, the Council of Europe has symbolised reconciliation.

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