The Council of Europe promotes and protects human rights, democracy and the rule of law. These principles have been cornerstones of European societies and political systems for decades, yet they need to be maintained and fostered, not least in times of economic and political crisis.

Most people would agree that democracy means a form of governance by or on behalf of the people and that it cannot operate without institutions that ensure regular, free and fair elections, majority rule and government accountability. However, these institutions cannot function unless citizens themselves are active and committed to democratic values and attitudes. Education has a central role to play here and this Reference Framework supports education systems in the teaching, learning and assessment of competences for democratic culture and provides a coherent focus to the wide range of approaches used.

This third volume offers guidance on how the model of competences and the corresponding descriptors, contained in volumes one and two respectively, may be used in six education contexts. The three volumes together therefore offer educators a reference and a toolbox for designing, implementing and evaluating educational interventions, in formal and non-formal settings.

The Council of Europe is the continent’s leading human rights organisation. It comprises 47 member states, 28 of which are members of the European Union. All Council of Europe member states have signed up to the European Convention on Human Rights, a treaty designed to protect human rights, democracy and the rule of law. The European Court of Human Rights oversees the implementation of the Convention in the member states.

Volume 3 of a three volume set
Not to be sold separately
REFERENCE FRAMEWORK OF COMPETENCES FOR DEMOCRATIC CULTURE

Volume 3
Guidance for implementation

- Curriculum
- Pedagogy
- Assessment
- Teacher education
- Whole-school approach
- Building resilience to radicalisation leading to violent extremism and terrorism

Council of Europe
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For quick reference, the Model of Competences for Democratic Culture can be found on the fold-out page at the back of this publication.
Democratic laws and institutions can only function effectively when they are based on a culture of democracy. For this, education is key. These were the conclusions of the Council of Europe’s Third Summit of Heads of State and Government held in Warsaw in 2005. On this basis, our Organisation was tasked with “promoting a democratic culture among our citizens.” Essential to this is ensuring that young people acquire the knowledge, values and capacity to be responsible citizens in modern, diverse, democratic societies.

Since that time, member states have undertaken a range of initiatives in this area. What has been lacking is a clear focus and understanding of common goals in citizenship education. Our Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture has been designed to bridge that gap.

The urgent need for it was brought into sharp focus by the many terrorist attacks across Europe in recent times. Education is a medium- to long-term investment in preventing violent extremism and radicalisation, but the work must start now. In light of this, the Model of Competences (contained in Volume 1 of the Framework) was unanimously welcomed by the 2016 Council of Europe Standing Conference of Ministers of Education at its 25th session in Brussels.

This Reference Framework is the result of widespread consultation and testing within Council of Europe member states and beyond. It is built on principles that are common to our democratic societies. It specifies the tools and critical understanding that learners at all levels of education should acquire in order to feel a sense of belonging and make their own positive contributions to the democratic societies in which we live. In doing so it offers education systems a common focus for their action while respecting a diversity of pedagogical approaches.

The purpose of this Framework is to support member states in developing open, tolerant and diverse societies through their education. I hope that they will embrace this tool and benefit from it.

Thorbjørn Jagland
Secretary General
of the Council of Europe
Preface

What kind of society will our children live in tomorrow? An important part of the answer to that question lies in the education we give them today. Education plays an essential role in building the future and reflects the type of world we want to prepare for the generations to come.

Democracy is one of the three pillars of the Council of Europe and there should be no hesitation among its member states that it should remain a key foundation for our future societies. Although our institutions may be solid they will only function in a truly democratic manner if our citizens are fully aware not only of their voting rights, but also of the values our institutions embody. Our education systems and schools need to prepare young people to become active, participative and responsible individuals: the complex, multicultural and rapidly evolving societies we live in cannot do with less. And at the dawn of quantum computing and artificial intelligence it is all the more important that our children should be equipped with the values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding that will enable them to make responsible decisions about their future.

The starting point for the development of the Council of Europe’s Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture was the belief that education systems, schools and universities should make preparation for democratic citizenship one of its key missions. This involves ensuring that students should know and understand the challenges they are faced with and the consequences of their decisions, what they are able to do and what they should refrain from doing. In order to do all this they need not only to have knowledge, but also the relevant competences – and the aim of the Framework is to define what those competences are.

The Framework itself comprises three volumes.

The first contains the Model of Competences, as determined by a multidisciplinary team of international experts following extensive research and consultation. The 20 competences are divided into four areas – Values, Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge and critical understanding – and accompanied by information about the background to the model, how it was developed and how it is intended to be used.

Volume 2 contains a series of statements setting out learning targets and outcomes for each competence. These descriptors are intended to help educators design learning situations that enable them to observe learners’ behaviour in relation to a given competence. The descriptors were tested by volunteer schools and teachers in 16 member states.

Volume 3 offers guidance on how the Model of Competences might be used in six education contexts. Further chapters will be added in due course.
The Framework is offered as an instrument to help inspire individual approaches to teaching competences for democratic culture while adhering to a common goal. Although there is no obligation to use the volumes in a set way, they are intended as a coherent whole and we recommend that educators get acquainted with the whole framework before deciding on their own approach in accordance with their particular needs and context.

I am very proud to present this Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture to our member states. It has been a work of dedication and an example of consultation and open-mindedness. I hope that many of you will use it in the spirit in which it is offered: a contribution to the efforts to make our future society one which we are happy for our children to live in.

Snežana Samardžić-Marković

Council of Europe

Director General for Democracy
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The Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture was developed by the Education Department in co-operation with the following international experts:

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Support and assistance

The Council of Europe Education Department is particularly grateful to the following for their strong support:

► Josep Dallerès and Esther Rabasa Grau, Permanent Representatives of the Principality of Andorra to the Council of Europe from 2012 to 2017;
► Germain Dondelinger†, Jindřich Fryč and Etienne Gilliard, Chairs of the Council of Europe Steering Committee for Educational Policy and Practice from 2012 to 2018;
► Ketevan Natriashvili, Deputy Minister for Education, Georgia.
The project to develop a Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture has benefited from the active and financial support of the ministries of education of Andorra, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Georgia, Greece and Norway. The Education Department would also like to thank the European Wergeland Centre and the Intercultural Institute of Timișoara for their considerable assistance with training and piloting.

Contributions

The Council of Europe Education Department is indebted to the following for their invaluable feedback and contributions during the development of the Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture:


Last but not least, the Education Department would like to convey its sincere thanks to the many teachers, teacher educators and school managers who piloted the descriptors for their dedication and co-operation.
Chapter 1

CDC and curriculum

Summary of contents

► Who is this chapter for?
► Purpose and overview
► The CDC model and the curriculum
► Definitions, forms, approaches and organisation of the curriculum
► Using the CDC Framework for curricula
► Designing and developing curricula
► Recommendations
► Resources
► Further reading
**Who is this chapter for?**

The main target group for this chapter on curriculum is education policy makers, head teachers, deans or education leaders, curriculum developers at ministry, regional or local authority level, teachers and learners.

**Purpose and overview**

The purpose of the chapter is to examine how the competences for democratic culture (CDC) model can be used by those in charge of designing and developing curricula and curriculum reform in education; how it can be used, for example in auditing or further developing an existing curriculum or planning a new curriculum.

The chapter discusses and defines different kinds of curricula and the levels at which decisions are made concerning the nature and contents of curricula: from the level of a prescribed curriculum to that of the curriculum decisions taken by teachers and learners. We use the term “prescribed curriculum” to refer to a statutory curriculum approved by a competent government in charge, by law, of defining the content of education. A prescribed curriculum must be implemented in schools.

Curricula may be produced from different starting points, for example the knowledge to be learned or the competences to be acquired. The CDC Framework can be used with every approach. Curricula may also be designed to accommodate different pedagogies and methodologies of teaching and learning, and this chapter discusses how the CDC model can be used according to the pedagogy and methodology chosen, for example project work or cross-curricular topics.

The chapter then presents ways of using the CDC model to audit and design curricula of different kinds and at different levels of decision making, from national to local to subject or classroom level. At the latter level of the curriculum, particular consideration is given to the specific situation of higher education.

**The CDC model and the curriculum**

The CDC model sets out the values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding which an individual needs in order to be an active participant in a “democratic culture/society/group”. It is accompanied by descriptors describing levels of competence (see Volume 2 of the Framework). These descriptors cover only those values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and understanding which are learnable, teachable and assessable.

Young people may acquire such competences in informal learning through their experience of the world and the society in which they live. They can also be learned in formal or non-formal education with the help of a teacher or other facilitator of learning. In the latter case, teachers and facilitators are expected to plan the affordances for learning in a systematic and principled way.

The CDC model can be used in planning and to analyse and audit existing plans and their implementation, in particular the learning outcomes that such plans promote.
The learning outcomes expected to be achieved by learners can be compared to the competence descriptors and their corresponding behaviours. The competence descriptors can also be used in formal and informal assessment to verify learning outcome achievements, as is explained in Chapter 3 on assessment.

In addition to use with existing curricula, the model can be used to designate the curriculum components and learning outcomes expected of a new curriculum with corresponding attention being paid to implementation and assessment.

Definitions, forms, approaches and organisation of the curriculum

Definitions

There are many definitions of curriculum and each one embodies a different conception of education. Traditionally, a curriculum is a plan for teaching a specific subject or area of study that occurs inside a classroom. Today, curriculum is conceived of as a plan for shaping the learning of learners through all kinds of experience within an educational institution, whether in the classroom or outside it.

In this chapter, “curriculum” is defined primarily as “a plan for learning” that occurs not only in a particular class or subject but in an education institution, such as a school, a university or any institution dedicated to education and training, as a whole. More specifically, curriculum means a plan for learning in the form of the description of learning outcomes, of learning content and of learning processes for a specified period of study.

The curriculum can also be defined simply as the total sum of experiences learners have in an education institution, some planned and others not. This definition will also be referred to in this chapter.

Levels of decision and forms of the curriculum

In curriculum design and development, a central question is: who decides the curriculum? When the decision making in education is centralised, curriculum as “a plan for learning” is decided by the public authority responsible for education or its appointed bodies. When the decision making is decentralised, the institution and the teachers decide on the content and aims of the curriculum (e.g. school-based curriculum).

The CDC model can influence curricula at different levels of decision making: at the system level, at the institutional level, at the subject or classroom level and at the learner level.

A curriculum as “a plan for learning” has specific characteristics and forms at each level. At a system level, the curriculum is prescribed by the competent authority, which lays down what has to be learned at each stage of education. At an institutional level, the prescribed curriculum is developed by teachers and pedagogical leaders, who adapt it according to the school context and education needs.
At the subject or classroom level, the prescribed curriculum and the institutional curriculum are developed and applied in teaching plans and instructional materials. Teachers – and in some cases learners – then interpret a prescribed and an institutional curriculum and put them into practice. Finally, at the learner level, learners experience the curriculum planned by teachers, and construct and develop competences.

A curriculum is therefore a construction, planned, developed, and changed within a specific context and point in time, and the CDC model can be used, in whole or in part, at any level of curriculum elaboration.

The second meaning of curriculum, as stated above, refers to all the experiences that learners have within an education institution, and this is dealt with separately in Chapter 5 on the whole-school approach.

**Curriculum approaches**

There are many different approaches to developing the curriculum as a plan for learning, three of which can often be observed in European countries: the knowledge-based curriculum, the objectives-based curriculum and the competence-based curriculum. Each approach determines which central element will structure the curriculum, the remaining curriculum components following on from this central one.

The curriculum has traditionally been conceived and planned as a knowledge-based curriculum. In this approach, factual and conceptual knowledge (declarative knowledge) is given a more important role, even though other types of knowledge are also selected, such as procedural knowledge, metacognitive knowledge and attitudinal knowledge. The crucial element is the selection and classification of what is considered to be relevant knowledge for the purpose of a particular curriculum.

An objectives-based curriculum proposes that objectives, defined as the expected behaviour of learners, structure and guide the selection of the content of subject curricula. The curriculum is then formulated in terms of intentions about what learners should learn in order to achieve the defined objectives. In an earlier version of this approach, objectives are formulated in terms of what is to be taught, for example knowledge about the subject matter of chemistry or the skills required to carry out experiments. Later, this approach shifts towards a focus on learning, where objectives are formulated considering what behaviours learners should demonstrate. This formulation may then be changed to an explicit reference to the “competences” learners are expected to acquire, for example the competence “To plan and carry out chemical experiments to validate one’s own hypotheses”.

A competence-based curriculum is thus a development of the objectives-based curriculum. It puts learning and the learner at the centre of the curriculum, using disciplinary or subject-specific competences and/or cross-curricular competences. The curriculum as a plan for learning is typically written in terms of what learners “can do” at the end of a period of study in a subject or in a cluster of competences that involve some or all subjects. The consideration of competences as what learners “can do” allows an approach to assessment which focuses on learners’ performances and, therefore, what can be observed by assessors.
In this approach, competences (values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding) are considered to be interrelated. To act in a competent way, a person deploys relevant values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding in a specific situation, for example in order to interpret a phenomenon, to analyse and solve a problem, or to suggest alternative solutions.

The CDC model is conceived within the competence-based curriculum approach, but in practice none of these approaches exists exclusively and in a pure state. In reality, these curriculum approaches are often combined, and therefore it is important to note that the CDC model can be used in all curriculum approaches.

In the case of a knowledge-based curriculum, curriculum developers can stress the importance of understanding knowledge, for instance. In this case, teachers would emphasise knowledge about values (declarative knowledge) and teach learners to analyse and reflect on values, rather than intending to persuade learners to accept and demonstrate competence in specific values. Critical understanding of values does not commit teachers or learners to adoption or rejection of particular values.

**Organisation of the curriculum**

The curriculum as a plan for learning can be organised in subjects or disciplines, areas of study, cross-curricular topics or projects in each of which competences – such as those described in the CDC model – are acquired. This list covers only the main types of organising the curriculum.

- **Subjects or disciplines.** A curriculum can be organised in traditional subjects such as mathematics, language, physics, history, philosophy, etc., and all subjects can relate to CDC. For example, mathematics skills such as making estimations, recognising patterns, reasoning proportionally, or using computerised tools are related to CDC because they require learners to think critically and to communicate their own ideas.

- **Areas of study.** An area of study is a conceptual space delimited in terms of learning, rather than subjects/disciplines. Learning is then defined by what needs to be acquired for a particular kind of experience such as visual and plastic education, science, social sciences, or by a specific group of competences or skills, such as life skills.

- **Cross-curricular topics and competences.** Cross-curricular topics can be conceived in terms of phenomena or issues, such as “education for democracy”, “environmental or ecological education”, and “peace education”. Phenomena-based learning or issues-based learning are approaches that conceive teaching and learning in a holistic way based on real-world phenomena and issues. The starting point is to ask questions or pose problems that learners are interested in. The curriculum is then structured from these phenomena or issues, such as “migration”, or “water or food supply”, and different subjects are integrated around them. Pedagogical methods such as inquiry-based learning, problem-based learning, project learning and portfolios are the most adequate for this particular type of curriculum.

Curricula are also organised in terms of cross-curricular competences, such as democratic competences, communication competences, learning-to-learn competences.
In this curriculum design, a cross-curricular competence is taught in all subjects or areas of study, and therefore by all teachers. “Key competences” are expected to be developed as cross-curricular competences in the curriculum, and this form of curriculum is expected to cross the boundaries of subjects and a disciplinary way of thinking about the contents of education.

Every type of curriculum organisation provides a specific conceptual space and time for learning what is considered to be appropriate at a particular level of education. Governments and/or public authorities decide which single or combination of these types of curriculum is deemed best to structure and organise education. They do so as a function of what they consider to be the nature of learning, what should be learned and which approach or combination of approaches is most adequate for their purpose.

**Using the CDC Framework for curricula**

The CDC model can be used as a whole or in part as a means of enriching a curriculum by auditing, designing and developing it. But before starting to use the CDC model in a curriculum, the first question to answer is what kind of education for democratic citizenship and democratic culture is to be developed in education institutions through teaching and learning. Users of the CDC model need to relate the aims of the Framework to the aims of their education system, in particular to the aims of institutions and their subjects, areas of study or whatever form of organisation is present.

The aims and the rationale of a curriculum enriched by the CDC model stress the importance of educating children and young people to live together equally and respectfully in a democratic society. The aims of a curriculum and the selection of its contents are in part determined by principles of democracy and human rights, and as a consequence the curriculum is oriented towards and connected with the everyday lifeworld situations and contexts, where learners and teachers live together.

**Auditing**

Auditing is the first step. In this text, auditing is defined as a systematic examination of the curriculum from the statement of curricular aims and purposes through pedagogy to assessment, with a view to ensuring coherence, comprehensiveness and transparency among all the elements.

By referring to the CDC Framework, those responsible for curriculum at the levels described above may audit their curriculum documents to identify areas for improvement in intercultural and democratic citizenship education, whichever type or organisation of curriculum is involved. Ideally, it should be evident from this audit to what extent, when and how learners are acquiring CDC in the course of their schooling as a whole.

**Designing**

The CDC model is by definition best used for a competence-based curriculum. Curriculum design in this approach is centred on learning, that is, learners are the
focus of the selection of the curriculum components. Curriculum designers need to conceive, select and formulate the curriculum components in such a way as to ensure coherence between the curriculum approach, the curriculum and the educational practices. The Council of Europe has elsewhere promoted an active learning of democratic citizenship (cf. www.coe.int/en/web/edc). However, it is not the function of the Framework to promote one particular curriculum approach.

Competences are context-dependent (the individual’s competences develop and are needed in different combinations in different situations); time-dependent (the individual’s competences progress over time); and situation-dependent (the individual’s competences need to be transferred across different situations).

The internal resources of learners and their competences can vary and appear differently in different contexts. This means that one criterion for selecting the contents of curriculum as a plan for learning might be that curricula when implemented should reflect and be closely aligned to everyday, real-life issues.

Furthermore, in democratic cultures, individuals often realise their competences in interaction with others and therefore an important competence is that of “knowledge and critical understanding of language and communication”, meaning that individuals are aware of, and can implement, socially appropriate verbal and non-verbal communicative conventions in the languages or language varieties they need for a specific situation.

**Design principles**

There are principles of planning curricular documents and creating learning experiences for developing CDC. These are:

- **Relevance.** All curriculum designers who write a curriculum in any form, such as for subjects and areas of study, are responsible not only for the learning and development of subject-specific competences, but also for the learning and development of CDC. This means, for example, that where teachers act as curriculum designers, they select from the study programme (syllabus or subject curriculum) of their subject what they consider relevant for their learners. They can then also use the CDC Framework to select the relevant CDC competences to integrate them together with the subject-specific competences, forming clusters of CDC and subject-specific competences.

- **Avoiding curriculum overload.** One of the main problems of curriculum design is selecting new curriculum components and adding them to the existing curriculum aims and contents. In this sense, when using CDC to change or enrich the curriculum of specific subjects, there is a risk of overloading the curriculum with CDC. But it is not a matter of adding more to the curriculum, rather of designing what is realistic for the allocated time. Whatever is selected from CDC must be relevant and related to the overall aims to be achieved. It is crucial to find the right balance in the quantity of the selected components, because learners need time and opportunities to develop CDC.

- **Coherence and transparency.** Coherence is here understood in terms of the relation between the aims, the curriculum approach and the selected components of the curriculum. The selection from the CDC model should be
coherent with skills and knowledge in a subject, and the way in which subject
competences and competences from the CDC model are related should be made
transparent. Then, these clusters of selected competences are coherently and
transparently related to the overall aims of the curriculum. It is important to
explain the cluster of subject and CDC competences and the aims which are to
be achieved through them in order to reduce reluctance or misunderstandings
among teachers and learners.

► **Vertical and horizontal coherence.** When designing the curriculum, vertical
and horizontal coherence of the selected components of the curriculum is
crucial. Horizontal coherence ensures that the appearance of learning activities
related to a CDC model competence in one part of a curriculum is coherent
with their appearance in another part of the curriculum when implemented in
a given period of time. Vertical coherence ensures that there is development
and expansion of competences over the course of time.

► **Progression in CDC.** In order to design the progression (e.g. refinement or
improvement) and/or expansion (e.g. increasing the number) in the competences
expected at the different levels of education, curriculum designers can decide
which competences are more suitable for younger learners and which for older
learners. The competences for democratic culture can then be organised as a
spiral curriculum where some competences are revisited and others are added.
All competences can be further developed by learners throughout their life.
For this reason, it is important that learners learn how to understand CDC, to
become autonomous and engaged in lifelong learning.

► **Language and the dialogic dimension.** Writing a curriculum requires the
use of a precise vocabulary to express what is intended in order to facilitate
interpretation by readers and avoid misunderstandings. To conceive and write
a curriculum text requires participatory procedures for making a curriculum. All
those involved – especially those who are the target of the curriculum – should
have a voice and even take part in the decision making about its contents.
Participation in the writing of a curriculum requires a consensus from the par-
ticipants concerning the meaning of each word and concept that is included in
the text throughout the whole process. Education institutions need to ensure
that their organisational structures and procedures allow for these participa-
tory processes, with an emphasis on transparency and coherence, if they are
to establish a truly democratic culture in curriculum-making.

► **Contextualisation of CDC.** Competences for democratic culture need to be
interpreted by reference to national, cultural and institutional situations in
which a curriculum is taught, with an emphasis on solving problems or issues
of the real world. Real-world issues manifest, in local contexts, in different ways
and forms, and have specific historical roots, reasons and causes. Some of them
may be found in different contexts, for example extreme violence or bullying.
However, in all cases the fundamental values of democratic and human rights
can be brought into and develop CDC to help solve local and real-world issues.
The Framework can thus be used in and adapted to local circumstances.

► **Safe environments for learning CDC.** There are some aspects of CDC which
are sensitive and controversial and curriculum design needs to include planning
for a safe environment for discussion and debate, and to manage possible conflicts or disagreements in a peaceful way (see Chapter 5 on the whole-school approach).

**Clustering competences**

Competences for democratic culture are unlikely to be deployed individually. Competent behaviour is likely to arise from the flexible use of clusters of competences in response to the particular demands that are presented by specific situations. With respect to curriculum design and development, the notion of clustering provides the basis for linking competences to all subject areas in the curriculum through particular subsets of competences that are pertinent to each area. This allows CDC to be explicitly included in design and development even where citizenship education courses do not exist as an independent element of curriculum.

References to clustered competences can be made in curricular documents for individual subjects and clusters of competences can also be linked to overall mission statements of education institutions. It is not necessary to define fixed sets of clusters, but the provision of general principles – perhaps accompanied by examples – allows teachers to take responsibility for adapting clustering to their context and the needs of learners.

**Designing and developing curricula**

**How to use the CDC Framework in designing and developing a prescribed curriculum**

As stated in Volume 1 of the Framework, education has several purposes: to support personal development, to provide a broad and advanced knowledge base within society, and to prepare learners for the labour market. Education also has the function of preparing individuals for life as active democratic citizens. The competences for democratic culture can, then, be considered as key competences that need to be developed across all curriculum subjects and areas of study. In this sense, all teachers of all subjects are responsible for teaching, learning and assessing CDC. On the other hand, CDC can be the focus of a single subject, such as citizenship education or social sciences or social studies.

At the system level of the curriculum, curriculum developers can select competences (subject based or cross-curricular) using the CDC model. They can also cluster subject or cross-curricular competences with competences from the CDC model when writing new curricula.

Auditing the current prescribed curriculum is always the first step. When an education system has democratic citizenship education as a subject or an area of study covering different social disciplines or democratic cross-curricular competences, CDC can be used as a tool for discovering dimensions that the prescribed curriculum might not yet cover, for instance, law and human rights, or specific competences and curriculum components that the current programme has not yet selected.
Use of the CDC model must be guided by the curriculum rationale of each education system and decisions about what kind of democratic knowledge and competences is of most worth in a specific context. The Framework can help to conceptualise, analyse and reflect upon the curriculum in different ways, and therefore to select the curriculum components from new perspectives. This might mean a mode of conceptualising other than the disciplinary organisation of the curriculum, for example in order to move to a more global and complex way of approaching the selection of the prescribed curriculum components.

Example of good practice from Romania

Participatory citizenship represents the core of the competences of the new social education curriculum for lower secondary education and of the learning activities it promotes. The new curriculum aims to develop students’ competences in cooperating with others, participating with responsibility in decision-making processes, using the specific acquisitions of the social field as tools for the critical examination of facts, events, ideas and processes which belong to the personal life of the students or to different groups and communities. Knowledge and understanding of concepts included in the CDC model (such as human rights, citizenship, rights and responsibilities, the necessity of laws and regulations, and the rule of law) are explicitly reflected in this curriculum at the level of the different components – general and specific competences, learning activities, essential knowledge (to operate with), and methodological suggestions.

Example of good practice from Ukraine

A new competence-based national curriculum was launched in 2016, and it sets out general learning goals (a so-called “portrait of a graduate”) and lists eight competences that need to be developed across every subject and grade. Democratic citizenship is one of the eight competences. For the first time, the Ukrainian national curriculum is written and presented in a form of learning progression starting with defining competence-based learning goals for the 2nd year at school, then 4th, 6th, 9th and 12th (graduate). The Council of Europe CDC model was used to elaborate a draft curriculum by the social sciences and history subgroup. The CDC model and approaches of the Council of Europe were used to define expected learning goals.

How to use the CDC Framework in designing and developing an institution curriculum

The CDC is not only learned through teaching, but also through learners’ wider experiences at school, reflecting curriculum as a “totality of experiences”. Therefore, interdisciplinary projects, institutional projects, international projects, students’ participation in institutional governing bodies, student participation in students’ associations, etc. play an important role in giving opportunities to learners to learn and develop CDC.

To develop an institution curriculum infused with CDC requires a commitment of the leaders of an institution to facilitating this kind of learning, as well as co-operation.
and co-ordination among leaders and teachers. They are responsible for constructing an education institution as a democratic environment where learners can participate in institution activities and in institution governance.

In order to teach democratic competences and to develop a democratic culture at institution level, teachers need to co-ordinate and work together to organise learning situations where learners can acquire and practise CDC. This is a case where the CDC model is used for planning the development of cross-curricular competences, and where teachers act as curriculum planners and implementers at institutional level.

**Example of good practice from Andorra**

**Global projects in lower secondary education.** In Andorran lower secondary schools (learners aged 12 and 13), the whole-school curriculum is organised around two global projects. One project sets a social science problem and the other, a natural science problem. The contents of all school subjects are selected, from the prescribed curriculum, in a way to solve or help to solve those social and natural problems. Each project is developed, weekly, in two sessions of two and three hours, at the beginning and at the end of the week respectively. The methodology of these projects is always co-operative and all projects are communicated and shared with all class groups of the school, and even communicated and made known to the neighbourhood. Each project is developed over four or five weeks, so there are six social global projects and six natural global projects per school year. Examples of social and natural global projects are: the challenges of intercultural cohabitation, and ecosystems and the human impact. CDC is present in every global project and also in the learning and teaching methodology.

**How to use the CDC Framework in designing and developing a subject or interdisciplinary curriculum**

Both subject curricula (disciplinary curriculum) and interdisciplinary curricula are not only plans for learning, but also comprise the activities and tasks which are in the textbooks and other instructional materials. Furthermore, all the learning experiences that learners have – the interactions and the way all the learners live in the classroom – are also part of the curriculum. Teachers then identify learners’ needs and act as curriculum planners to suggest a sequence of activities and tasks, or projects.

The CDC model can be used here to design a single classroom activity, such as simulation activities, discussions, explanations, or in more complex tasks, such as projects, or activities which combine work in the classroom with activities in the local community. The CDC model can also be used for designing and developing extracurricular activities, such as community service and service learning, or for an exclusively out-of-school activity like volunteering.

In these tasks, activities or projects, CDC can be developed alone or together with subject-specific competences, or in cross-curricular themes and competences. Subject competences and CDC competences may be interrelated, and subject competences
can be treated in clusters together with CDC for the purposes of curriculum planning. Such clusters are created in order to meet the learning needs in a specific context, whether at national, regional or local level.

CDC can be taught, learned and assessed through democratic, intercultural and real-life issues. When teaching these issues, it is crucial to create a safe environment in the classroom for discussion and debate, and to solve possible conflicts or disagreements in a peaceful way.

In all these approaches, teachers act as curriculum planners and developers with respect to both the overt and the hidden curriculum but learners may also have a voice in this process. They may be offered and choose to participate in the decision making on what and how they have to learn. This may be based on statutory requirements in a curriculum or may be a facet of pedagogy and teaching methodology pursued by teachers. Since a democratic environment and culture in the classroom involve a certain degree of student involvement and choice in their own learning, such participation in curriculum planning is a rich mode of implementation of CDC.

Example of good practice from Portugal

Project “We suggest!” on citizenship and innovation in Geography in lower secondary education and vocational education and training (15 years old). This is a national project, implemented in several schools in the country, which aims to identify local problems and to propose solutions by pupils. The project starts with pupils identifying and becoming aware of local problems. In small groups, pupils select the most important problems at school and in the neighbourhood; they seek and get information directly from the mayor, and they carry out a small research project on the selected problem in order to make a proposal for a solution. Examples of problems selected are: changing the itinerary of public transport, or restoring an abandoned building.

The situation of higher education is somewhat different. Principles of university autonomy and academic freedom are realised in the degree of autonomy conferred to those developing curricula for their courses. Higher education teachers and professors usually have control and freedom in selecting and designing subject-specific curricula. The courses they design take into consideration research priorities and societal issues, and are also to be related to the world of work. Developing CDC should also be taken on board when designing subject-specific curricula in higher education.

How learners can use the CDC Framework to plan their own learning

Learners should not only be at the centre of education but also they should take more responsibility for their own learning, for example identifying their learning needs and interests, taking initiatives and becoming engaged in projects. In this case, learners become designers of their own curriculum, when they can recognise and be aware of which competences they would like to learn more about. They can
also assume the role of assessors by compiling their best products and keeping them in a portfolio, for example.

They can learn in a community of learning in which they have a voice and manage their own learning. They can participate actively in making decisions on their own learning, when they learn with a co-operative methodology, for instance, developing an attitude of openness to other views and understanding them. They can also participate in decision making at an institutional level together with teachers and pedagogical leaders, contributing to the democratic culture of the education institution.

**Recommendations**

**To education policy makers**

- Place democracy and democratic citizenship at the core of the aims of education and of the prescribed curriculum.
- Give adequate support to education leaders, teachers, learners, and other education stakeholders for using and including CDC in all forms of curriculum.
- Involve teachers in decision making and the writing of the prescribed curriculum.

**To head teachers, deans or education leaders**

- Place democracy and democratic citizenship at the core of the aims of education and of the institution curriculum.
- Involve stakeholders, especially teachers and learners, in decision making and the writing of the institution curriculum.
- Give adequate support to teachers and learners for using and including CDC in teaching and learning.
- Create new, or develop existing, democratic and participatory structures and procedures in order to ensure a democratic culture in all education institutions.

**To curriculum developers**

- Audit the prescribed curriculum to identify existing democratic and citizenship competences and use CDC to develop it or, where necessary, to change the current curriculum.
- Involve stakeholders in decision making and the writing of a curriculum.

**To teachers**

- Choose an appropriate pedagogy and teaching methodology respectful of democratic values and based on an explicit theory of learning suitable for all learners.
- Create a democratic climate for learning.
- Integrate assessment in teaching and learning as they are interrelated and share the same rationale, taking into consideration and using CDC.
- Encourage learners to participate actively in making decisions on their own learning.
Resources


Further reading


Chapter 2
CDC and pedagogy

Summary of contents
► Who is this chapter for?
► Purpose and overview
► Content and key concepts
► Methods and approaches
► Using competence descriptors
► Forward-looking conclusion
► References
► Resources
► Appendices
Who is this chapter for?

This chapter is intended for all education professionals, and more specifically practitioners in classrooms, teachers and student teachers of all subject matters, teacher educators, curriculum developers, policy makers, school leaders, in practice in the primary, lower and upper secondary levels as well as professionals teaching in higher education institutions.

Purpose and overview

The chapter aims to support and empower teachers who wish to integrate CDC into their practice. It draws attention to a range of methods and pedagogical approaches that can be used for the development of CDC based on general guidelines and principles outlined in Volume 1 of the Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture.

The CDC model can contribute to the development of innovative and creative potential, as the competences taught within school-subject structures may be complemented by competences developing the ability to act democratically.

The success of the inclusion of learning/teaching activities that seek to consider values and develop attitudes, skills and knowledge and critical understanding for a democratic culture in teaching will depend on how well teachers can plan and develop such educational activities and adapt them to their needs and their students’ needs.

Competences for democratic culture can be developed as part of the main school activities and within all subject matters. There is no need for teachers to abandon what they are doing, but they are invited to consider enriching their current practice by including CDC in their teaching. Therefore, the chapter:

► explains different specific pedagogical principles and choices for teaching and developing the competences, as well as the underpinning rationale for these choices;
► outlines recommended pedagogical methods and approaches for teaching and developing the competences;
► offers resources for teachers as well as suggesting learning/teaching activities for a variety of teaching styles.

Content and key concepts

The term “pedagogy” is used here in its wide sense, referring to the organisation of a learning process. Pedagogy thus focuses on how to organise teaching, learning and assessment in relation to a curriculum. This chapter will not touch on assessment or whole-school approaches, since they are dealt with in other chapters. This chapter is about how the teacher and the learner engage together and with the curriculum.

The development of CDC can be understood both explicitly, as a topic, and implicitly, as a transversal concern integrated into the overall teaching and learning processes taking place in schools within a framework of shared responsibility. This shared
responsibility for education determines what is important for children to learn and it is possible to involve many stakeholders in working towards common goals: parents, education institutions, civil society and young people themselves co-operate and participate in deciding what values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understandings are relevant and important to introduce to children and young people in a given society and at a particular point in time.

The pedagogical approaches outlined below are not only apt for the development of CDC but they also help create more enjoyable and safe learning environments and find ways to address violent, discriminatory and anti-democratic structures within settings. Teachers may easily connect with CDC, and by doing so better connect their practices and values, and avoid perpetuating possible discriminatory practices. They may even increase their awareness of any prejudices and biases they might have and gain a different, more nuanced outlook on learners. Teachers and other relevant stakeholders can use these pedagogical approaches to check what they are doing in their daily practice:

- evaluate to which level they are doing things;
- identify what they thought they were doing but are actually not doing;
- reflect on what they could be doing instead;
- focus on what they could be doing better.

The following questions can guide reflection on how to organise the learning processes.

- To what extent would you say your teaching contributes towards learners becoming active citizens/respecting human rights?
- How often do your students have an opportunity to express their own ideas/listen to different views, discuss their differences in class?
- How often are questions relevant to human rights, democratic citizenship, justice, equality or the rule of law raised in the classes you teach?
- How is your current practice facilitating the development of intellectual, personal and social resources that will enable learners to participate as active citizens?
- How are you providing time for learners to work with each other to strengthen their understanding, as well as practise social skills, thus fostering both individual and social processes and outcomes?
- How often are you including practical activities and experiential approaches?
- Do you effectively bring learners’ previous experience into your teaching?

The pedagogical approaches and methods for CDC encourage learners to become actively involved in experience, discovery, challenge, analysis, comparison, reflection and co-operation. They address learners as whole persons and engage them cognitively, emotionally and in their experience (with their head, heart and hands). The methods employed, the communication style and the strategies themselves carry enormous potential to develop democratic competences. Nonetheless, there are many ways teachers can take part in the development of CDC. Teachers and teacher educators might use CDC actively in planning and evaluating their teaching; they may focus on the content of teaching using curricular approaches where they can...
tackle the dimensions of intercultural understanding, human rights, justice, etc. throughout the content of the existing curriculum by modifying it within a course, or collaboratively through a combination of subject areas. All school subjects lend themselves to the inclusion of CDC.

Competences for democratic citizenship can be developed through approaches centred on the learning process as well as through approaches focused on the content of teaching. Often an educational activity develops CDC through a combination of elements related to both content and process. Planning and pursuing the development of CDC among learners is therefore important for all facilitators of learning. In most cases there are some planning principles. Teachers, as facilitators of learning, will plan their educational activities in such a way as to include opportunities for:

► **Experience.** A fitting way of developing attitudes of respect and openness, as well as empathy, is by providing opportunities for learning through experience, which can be either real or imagined; learners are able to experience these attitudes through, for example, games, activities, traditional media and social media, face-to-face interaction with others or through correspondence. Teachers may select books for their students or arrange for them to come into contact with the wider community, other neighbourhoods, regions and countries, physically or in online contexts; they may organise events and international meetings for young people; for example, history teachers may plan theatrical reconstructions or activities aiming to develop multiperspectivity. All of these examples can provide opportunities for learning through comparison and analysis.

► **Comparison.** Learners can benefit from exposure to “difference”. Learners often compare what is unfamiliar with what is familiar and evaluate the unfamiliar as “bizarre”, as “worse” or even as “uncivilised”. Teachers need to be aware of this kind of comparison of value and replace it with comparison for understanding, which involves seeing similarities and differences in a non-judgmental manner and taking the perspective of the other. In other words, learners can be encouraged to develop an understanding of how what is normal for them can be regarded as bizarre from someone else’s perspective and vice versa, and that both are simply different in some aspects and alike in other aspects. Learners thus reflect on and are engaged in a conscious comparison of their own values and attitudes with different ones in order to become more aware of how they construct reality.

► **Analysis.** Behind similarities and differences there are explanations for practices, thoughts, values and beliefs. Facilitators can support their learners in the analysis of what may lie beneath what they can see others doing and saying. This can be achieved, for example, by careful discussion and analysis, through inquiry-based methods, of written or audio/video sources. The analysis can then be reflected back on the learners so that they may question their own practices, values and beliefs.

► **Reflection.** Comparison, analysis and experience need to be accompanied by time and space for reflection and the development of critical awareness and understanding. Facilitators, especially in non-formal and formal education, need to ensure that such time and space is provided in a deliberate and planned way.
For example, teachers may ask students to discuss their experiences, encourage students to keep a logbook to keep track of their learning, and write, draw, share or otherwise respond to what they have learned. Parents may also sit quietly with their children to talk about an experience.

► **Action.** Reflection can and should be the basis for taking action, for engagement with others through dialogue and for becoming involved in co-operative activities with others. Facilitators may take the responsibility of encouraging and even managing co-operative action, for example in making improvements in the social and physical environment through “whole-school” approaches or school partnerships (see Chapter 5 on the whole-school approach).

**Methods and approaches**

This chapter presents eight detailed exemplar areas in which teachers and teacher educators can take action if they wish to apply CDC in their teaching.

**Process-oriented methods and approaches**

- Modelling democratic attitudes and behaviours
- Democratic processes in the classroom
- Co-operative learning
- Project-based learning
- Service learning.

**Content-based methods and approaches**

- Using the existing curriculum – within subject areas
- Team teaching and integrated curricular approaches
- Addressing the “hidden curriculum”.

Any teacher can use these eight methods and approaches to develop the learners’ competences for democratic culture, without the need for exterior institutional intervention or support. The first five develop CDC mainly through the way the learning process is organised, while the other three relate to specific contents.

**Process-oriented methods and approaches**

In the course of implementing the CDC Framework, teachers can focus on the structures of the learning process that they lead or propose to students. In order to contribute to the development of CDC, special focus is needed on the effectiveness, efficiency and equity of learning processes.

**Modelling democratic attitudes and behaviours**

The way teachers communicate and interact with students has a major influence on the values, attitudes and skills acquired by learners. Democratic values, attitudes and skills cannot be acquired through formal teaching about democracy alone but need to be practised.
Values are implicitly transmitted through the way teachers act and communicate. Educators can develop more awareness of the values they convey and mirror in their day-to-day practice, the values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding one needs to develop. Choices made by educators can support – or hinder – the development of a democratic ethos with the learners. At classroom level the transmission of the Council of Europe values and principles that support sustainable democratic societies comes more from the relationships with teachers than from the power of the curriculum. Learning-by-doing approaches and experiential learning engage students in a process of experience, challenge and reflection that has important potential for the development of CDC. Through their attitudes, behaviours and practices teachers can create safe learning environments, address discrimination and support individualised learning of a broad base or core humanistic components.

The planning and negotiating of aims, content, learning materials, assessment and programme evaluation by all participants involved in the learning process creates the conditions for transforming the roles of teachers and learners and transcending what those roles are in traditional classrooms. In this way, learning for and through democracy occurs, with educators demonstrating democratic behaviours and therefore contributing to the development of the CDC of learners.

Teachers might reflect on how all values in the CDC model are upheld in their practice. For example, a teacher who chooses to investigate how his or her value of “fairness” plays out in daily activities with students can try out a new practice based on this value, pilot it and reflect on it. Teachers who wish to go further may gather data through interviewing or surveying students on how a new practice has changed the class setting and analyse these data to pursue a next round of research into his/her practice. This cycle of action research creates space for teachers to reflect on and act to improve their practice and thus become agents of change towards a democratic school culture that empowers learners to become autonomous democratic citizens.

Learning environments have an influence on student engagement and learning. It is important to foster open safe spaces for inclusive and effective learning and for managing difficult dialogues or emotional exchanges where learners feel confident to voice their thoughts and disagreements. In the whole-school approach student safety and well-being are key (see Chapter 5 on the whole-school approach). Teachers will benefit from working together and gradually feel confident enough to tackle controversial issues and take risks, for the advancement of CDC in themselves and in their students (see Chapter 4 on teacher education). Classroom management, conflict prevention, shared decision making, shared responsibility for learning, respect in classroom communications, etc. are harnessed to teach the values, attitudes and skills included in the CDC model, in a holistic approach, transcending the function of organising the learning sequence. The holistic perspective is manifest in the coherence between teaching and assessment procedures.

Thus, “the medium is the message”. The chosen medium influences how the receiver perceives the message. Aside from their content and focus, the methods one uses teach certain values and attitudes. When teachers embrace inclusive methods for
example, they send a meaningful message to learners: they say “you are all important and valuable,” “we can all learn from each other.” This is especially critical in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms, where pedagogical approaches that value the specific cultural backgrounds of learners are required. On the other hand, when teachers spend most of the time standing in front of the classroom giving a lecture and writing on the board while learners listen and copy, they are also teaching a strong lesson: “I have the knowledge,” “you will passively learn and follow” – a message that is ineffective for developing intercultural and democratic values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding.

It takes curiosity, motivation and capacity to become fully aware of one’s own practices. The majority of teachers strongly wish to be inclusive and do their best for their learners. They understand that all learning happens within a relationship, and meaningful learning happens within congruent relationships. Through the development of CDC, educators may feel more ready to negotiate ways in which to interact with students and realign their values with their practice, by getting to know themselves as individuals and teachers, raising their awareness of their professional and personal identities and purpose as teachers and human beings.

When including in their everyday practice the modelling of democratic attitudes and behaviours, teachers will be deploying the CDC values. They will consciously develop awareness of their own values, aligning practices and values, and support the development of the following clusters of competences:

- Valuing human dignity and human rights
- Valuing cultural diversity
- Valuing democracy, justice, fairness, equality and the rule of law
- Empathy, respect and positive regard for other people
- Listening and observing in a non-judgmental way
- Openness to others
- Tolerance for ambiguity.

Democratic processes in the classroom

A very effective way of developing a wide range of CDC is by experiencing democratic processes first-hand. The first-hand experience of democratic processes will also empower learners and stimulate them to use these competences in the classroom, in the school and in society. Such experiences of democratic processes, which should be embedded in overall school life (as suggested in Chapter 5 on the whole-school approach), can also take place in a classroom setting as part of classroom management and of the teaching process.

There are many everyday situations in which choices need to be made and decisions taken in the classroom. Decisions can be taken in an authoritarian way, by the teacher or by the “strongest” or “best” students, or by following democratic procedures. A conflict or disagreement can be adjudicated by the strongest, or a win-win solution can be sought after and reached through negotiation or mediation. Classroom rules
can be imposed by the teacher or adopted democratically through reflection and discussion with the students. Students having specific responsibilities in the class can be appointed by the teacher or elected democratically by their peers. Student voice can be increased through simple means such as a “suggestion box” (which can also be an online tool) set up so that every student can share ideas, perhaps even in an anonymous way. In so doing, teachers contribute effectively to the development of students’ CDC by establishing and using – at classroom level – procedures that ensure fairness, equality and non-discrimination, and inclusivity, providing opportunities for all young people.

Democratic processes can also be applied as part of the teaching and learning methods used in a variety of subject matters. Educational activities can include simulations of elections, possibly accompanied by the simulation of a political campaign, mock parliaments, mock trials, defining and using fair procedures for making decisions to choose between various options, role-plays and simulations including testing positions of authority (a day as mayor), the right to free speech (simulation of the work of journalists), etc. All these methods can serve specific learning goals in the curriculum while also developing CDC.

By experiencing democratic processes students will develop the following cluster of competences:

- Valuing democracy, fairness, equality and the rule of law
- Responsibility and civic-mindedness
- Communicative, co-operation and conflict-resolution skills
- Knowledge and critical understanding of democracy and politics.

**Co-operative learning**

Teachers develop students’ co-operation skills, but also openness towards cultural otherness, respect, responsibility, tolerance of ambiguity, as well as listening and observation skills, communication skills and conflict-resolution skills, through learning processes and activities in the classroom based on co-operative learning principles. Single teachers or small teams of teachers can start changing their practice by learning and experimenting through a process of collaboration and experience-sharing in an environment where experimentation is encouraged. The process of collaborating enables the development of openness and the motivation to accept change, an empowering process for teachers.

By applying co-operative learning principles in their work, teachers deconstruct traditional classroom practices and dislodge inherited and deeply rooted ideas and beliefs about learning and learners, removing hierarchical, judgmental and anti-democratic systems and transforming classroom practices. Such structural changes will not only lead to changes in teachers’ attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding but also to changes in learners’ achievements and relationships, which, in turn, will help reach prosocial outcomes. Co-operation is an important component of social cohesion: it develops connections between human beings.
Increasing co-operation will allow personal growth and transformation, and promote tolerance and respect for the other.

For this to happen, structures need to be put in place. Working in groups or in pairs in the classroom will be enhanced if attention is paid to the actual interactions taking place within these groups in order to ensure that learners are developing their abilities for co-operation. For effective co-operative learning, the learning process is structured and organised according to specific co-operative principles that may help examine, assess and enhance the learning activities on offer.

**Positive interdependence: everyone must contribute**

In a classroom without co-operative structures, a teacher may have students working alone on individual worksheets. When working alone, in a competitive setting, students are not engaged in helping their peers do well. In fact, they may secretly hope others do poorly so they look good by comparison. In that situation, the student is struggling alone to learn something or master a skill. Working in isolation the student may feel frustration and lack of peer support. Students working in a classroom using co-operative structures complete work together, each taking turns to solve a problem while their partner serves as coach. They have a common goal of reaching solutions, answers and explanations; they know that what is gained by one is also gained by the other. In that situation, a student who has difficulty learning is more likely to make an effort and is pulled into the achievement cycle.

**Individual accountability: no hiding!**

In teacher-directed question-answer approaches, the teacher asks a question addressing the whole class as one. Next, a fraction of the students react signalling their hope to be called upon. The teacher calls on just a few students to respond. Although an individual public performance is asked of the students who are called on, not every student has to respond, and some of the other students might feel relief to have someone else answer. In a co-operative structure, when the teacher asks a question or gives a task, each student is given the opportunity to take part in completing the task, hence the individual student’s input and effort is valued. This process requires every student to prepare an individual public performance in every round. Any students who may feel reticent are supported and have the chance to put their heads together with members of their group to improve their answers before being called on. Students who in other settings would not engage become engaged.

**Equal access: non-discriminatory participation**

A teacher has presented a topic and asks students to “Discuss the issue in teams”. The result is predictable: the more articulate, extroverted students, or students who feel strongly about the topic will do most or all of the talking. The less articulate, or introverted students, or students who have no feelings towards the topic will contribute little or nothing to the discussion. In contrast, the teacher who structures the activity co-operatively enables each student
to contribute equally, for example by having each student in turn stand for a minute while being interviewed by their teammates. In this manner, students who otherwise would not participate become actively engaged.

**Simultaneous interaction: increased per-student participation**

When a teacher calls on students one at a time in a class of 30 students, the result is that one, and only one, of the 30 learners in the room offers input and is actively engaged, while the 29 other learners just look on. For example: the teacher wants students to practise reading so, one at a time, each student reads aloud so the teacher can evaluate and coach. In a class of 30 students engaged in a period of 50 minutes, the maximum amount of oral reading per hour for each student is less than two minutes! In a co-operative setting, the teacher pairs students, who take turns reading to each other. The teacher moves around the groups, evaluating and coaching. In this case, each student can read aloud for a substantial amount of time and the teacher has increased the number of opportunities for evaluation and coaching.

A teacher will not be able to have students get along with one another just by telling them that “prejudice and discrimination are bad things”. Studies have demonstrated how using co-operative principles for educational activities, for example the “Jigsaw Classroom” described in the appendices to this chapter, for at least two hours a day at school will decrease the tensions and aggression between students and prevent violence, successfully reducing conflict and increasing positive outcomes. Educators adopting this approach claim that they not only help students to better master the academic content of the class, but also note that the method greatly attenuates hostile and intolerant attitudes in the classroom.

Co-operative principles also contribute to improving learning in heterogeneous classrooms. When students work in small groups, they interact and serve as resources for one another. Students who may not read at the expected level and/or who are not proficient in the language of instruction may gain greater access to understanding and completing assignments and therefore may have more opportunities to participate in the group work. However, co-operative learning may produce situations in which students who are academically low achieving and/or who are socially isolated are excluded from the interactions in the group. Therefore, in such cases, co-operative learning needs to be consciously supported by the teacher in order to ensure equity and avoid the pitfall of reinforcing existing educational and social inequalities.

How can a teacher know if a learning activity follows these principles of learner engagement? Some of the following questions correspond to a set of criteria by which learning and teaching activities can be assessed and can help teachers in their planning:

► Is it impossible for learners to accomplish their task and reach their goal without co-operating with each other?
  – Can the participants and the different micro-groups build on each other’s work, ideas?
  – Is this interdependence achieved through goal setting, task, role, resource or other means?
Are the learning activities meeting the needs and wishes of the learners?
- Is the individual task of every learner clear to all, and can the teacher/facilitator follow clearly what each learner will do/has done in the learning process?
- Are there complementary and partner-based co-operative roles planned in the learning process?

Is the learning process structured in a way that promotes equal participation for each learner?
- Can every learner join in smoothly and participate in an active way in the activities?
- Is the nature of the activities and resources diverse enough to facilitate equal access?

Can every learner participate/achieve their individual learning goals?
- Do several parallel interactions run during the planned learning activities?
- Can the number of interactions be increased?
- Are all of the learners involved personally in all steps of the learning process?

By engaging in these processes, learners develop clusters of competences:
- Openness to others’ beliefs and thoughts
- Responsibility for one’s own actions
- Autonomous learning skills
- Empathy and relating to others’ thoughts, beliefs and feelings
- Flexibility and adaptability
- Co-operation skills
- Conflict-resolution skills
- Critical understanding of the self.

Project-based learning

Project work, or learning through projects, is a pedagogical approach particularly appropriate for the development of CDC because it contributes to acquiring a combination of attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding, as well as to developing values. It can be used within a specific subject area but it is also very appropriate for a cross-curricular approach and for addressing cross-cutting issues.

Project-based learning offers its best potential when conducted in small groups and/or by a whole class. It is usually structured in a sequence of steps spread over several weeks:
- choice of a topic of study or of an open question and planning of the work;
collection of information, organisation of the information collected and decision making (implying both individual responsibility, co-operation in a group and managing potential differences of views or disagreements);

preparation of the product (which can take various forms, such as a poster, video, podcast, publication, website, portfolio, text, performance or event);

presentation of the product;

reflection on the learning experience.

Depending on the topic selected, the elements of knowledge and critical understanding of the world in the CDC model can also be developed. When the topic involves linguistic and cultural diversity, the process can also stimulate valuing diversity and openness to difference and otherness.

The role of the teacher in a project-based learning process is that of a facilitator of the learning process. Students follow the instructions given by the teacher concerning the steps to go through, but, in terms of content, the decision should remain largely with the students. The teacher’s main instrument is the question, not the answer. The principles described above still apply and the teacher monitors how collaboration in the groups is taking place. The teacher should encourage students to co-operate, support each other, give each other feedback and reflect on what they discover as well as on their interactions.

By engaging in this process, regardless of the topic chosen and besides acquiring knowledge and skills about the topic, learners develop clusters of competences:

- autonomous learning skills and self-efficacy: the learners set out to identify sources of information, check their reliability and organise the data collection process and the design of the product themselves;

- analytical and critical thinking skills: related to understanding, processing and organising information, but also to reflection on the learning experience;

- listening and observing skills, particularly in the phase of information gathering;

- empathy, flexibility and adaptability, co-operation skills and conflict-resolution skills, as well as respect, responsibility and tolerance of ambiguity;

- communication skills: oral, written, public speaking, plurilingualism;

- knowledge and critical understanding of the self, of language and communication, particularly during the phase of reflection on the learning experience.

Service learning

Service learning is also an effective way to develop the full range of CDC because it gives learners opportunities to connect the knowledge and critical understanding and skills acquired in a classroom setting with meaningful action targeting a real-world issue. Through this connection, not only knowledge, critical understanding and skills are consolidated and further developed, but processes are put in place which stimulate the development and critical awareness of attitudes and values.
Service learning is more than community service. It implies providing a community service in the context of a structured set of steps, in which the teacher plays an important role as organiser and facilitator, while keeping a strong learner-centred approach and empowering learners to make decisions and act on their own will in co-operation with peers.

As service learning is a form of project-based learning, a similar sequence of steps will serve as a reference for the process:

► Assessment of community needs and identification of the improvement or change to be envisaged;
► Preparation of the task to be undertaken by collecting information, identifying and contacting key community stakeholders, analysing options to address the issue and planning the intervention;
► Taking action by engaging in a community service activity which is meaningful for the learners and enhances learning and the development of values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding. The action can be of several types, including:
  – direct support provided to a group of beneficiaries in need (for example, visiting a centre for senior citizens, organising educational activities for smaller children in a disadvantaged area, giving gifts to citizens providing volunteer work);
  – indirect support or change in the community (for example, collecting toys for an NGO supporting disadvantaged children, painting a wall near a playground to make it more child-friendly, setting up a web platform or application enabling senior citizens of the community to ask for support from volunteers, fundraising to support a local initiative);
  – advocacy for change (for example, advocating for public policies to be adopted by local authorities, warning local citizens of certain risks or advocating for change in certain behaviours of citizens);
► Presentation of the work and its outcomes to the community and celebration of the achievements;
► Reflection on the learning experience, preferably throughout the whole process, and evaluation of the work done leading to conclusions and recommendations for improving the effectiveness of future similar activities.

Effective service learning has several characteristics which contribute to the development of the full range of values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding included in the CDC model:

– civic-mindedness but also responsibility, openness, empathy, observation skills, as well as knowledge and critical understanding of the world through the focus on meaningful issues, responding to real community needs;
– self-efficacy, analytical and critical thinking skills: through actions and decisions it empowers learners to plan and organise the various elements of the process;
- tolerance of ambiguity, autonomous learning skills and critical thinking: allowing learners to explore and experience different options, learn from their mistakes and strive to find the best solution;

- co-operation and conflict-resolution skills, together with flexibility and adaptability, and communication skills: it requires learners to work together, support each other and overcome their disagreements;

- knowledge and critical understanding of world: it makes explicit the connection between the concepts, the knowledge and skills developed in classroom learning with the needs of the community intervention;

- openness to cultural otherness, listening skills, linguistic and communicative skills: it provides opportunities to communicate with various local stakeholders and includes public presentation of achievements;

- reflection on values, and knowledge and critical understanding of the self: making sure that all learners are supported in reflecting on what the process brought to them, their motivation and the way they can transfer learning into future experiences.

**Content-based methods and approaches**

The development of CDC need not be perceived as being in competition with teaching the basic skills of language, mathematics, science and all the other school subjects such as history, geography, physical education and modern languages, to name but a few. It is vital to give the children and young people of Europe today the values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding essential for steering their lives both individually and collectively in the generations to come and to avoid repeating the mistakes and disasters of history. Teachers can use a wide range of opportunities to include the topics important to developing CDC. The manner in which the examples below are to be implemented may vary depending on the age, grade/class level and preferences of students, as well as on the classroom context.

**Using the existing curriculum – within subject areas**

Taught in a conscious and purposeful way, all subjects, within their existing curriculum, can harbour learning activities that teach the values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding that learners need to be able to contribute to a democratic culture. The temptation to “sprinkle” teaching for CDC here and there, with a few hours a year devoted to topics such as intercultural competence or democratic citizenship, can have the negative consequence of an inevitable superficiality that both obscures and scatters the fundamentally important messages. Team teaching and developing processes to cover the CDC model throughout the curriculum and at the intersection of the subject-specific curricula is a foreseeable approach.

To begin with, all school subjects can make good use of short icebreakers, grouping techniques and other team-building and evaluation activities to ensure that the classroom becomes a supportive community of learners who are increasingly
motivated to learn together and contribute, and who trust each other and wish to co-operate.

Teachers can acquire methods for finding opportunities in the existing curriculum. Intercultural education, education for democratic citizenship and human rights education, for example, can be approached within certain subjects such as history, social studies and civics, but all school subjects can support the development of CDC, including language and literature, mathematics, science, history, geography, art, drama, modern languages, physical education, music, or information and communication technology.

Concrete examples from the subject areas of language and literature, mathematics, geography and sciences are offered below.

**Language and literature**

Language and literature teachers may opt to select texts that deal with societal issues such as discrimination, race, gender and violence, looking at the ways writers and poets approach social and political issues and thus set in motion social and moral inquiry. Reading comprehension exercises can be based on texts that support the examination of issues from multiple perspectives. Other texts may help learners gain awareness of psychological phenomena that they may be enacting unknowingly, for example, helping them reflect on their relationship to (and blind observance of?) authority, group or mob behaviour, or peer pressure. Written assignments and debates can also focus on social issues.

**Mathematics**

Mathematics teachers may convey the historical significance of contributions from different civilisations. Or, they may base the practice of mathematical calculations on examples taken from current demographic data. They may want to include exercises where classification serves to raise learners’ awareness of cognitive reflexes such as stereotypes, and activities that support learners’ understanding that an individual as complex as a human being cannot be reduced to a single dimension such as gender, ethnicity, financial status, sexual orientation, religion or occupation.

I gave my students a table where each row had a different function. Each column had a trait by which the function could be classified as having (or not), such as whether the function was even, odd, increasing, decreasing, continuous, 1-to-1, going through the origin, or satisfied: $f(a+b) = f(a)+f(b)$.

After filling in the table with “yes” or “no”, students noted how difficult it is to find a single simple property shared by all, or to find a single row that is uniquely defined by any one of its traits. And yet does not most intolerance stem from assumptions in the form of “all people in Group Y have trait X”?

Maths equations add up to help teach tolerance. This activity can be easily adapted in other maths classes by changing the row and column headings in the table. Students in younger grades can be given a version using simple whole numbers (i.e.
1 to 10) instead of functions. Possible “traits” of numbers include whether a number is even, prime, composite, square, perfect, triangular, Fibonacci or factorial.

**Geography**

Geography teachers may address the topic of tolerance vis-à-vis immigration by innovative methods: for example, taking the journey of a person leaving his/her country for a better life, students can study the person’s homeland (economy, topography, demographics), trace their voyage, study the maps and topography of countries he/she travels through, and so on. These activities can encourage learners to appraise how their own country was formed by the struggles of many peoples. Without knowledge of geography, we naturally tend to perceive ourselves as being the centre, thus putting the rest of the world at the periphery. Looking at old maps in which the mapmakers of the Middle Ages embellished the vast lands unknown to them with what they imagined to be there can raise awareness of issues such as stereotyping and insight on decentring our perspectives. Follow-up activities can suggest that students investigate their towns and neighbourhoods to identify and understand their ethnic and socio-economic divides, invisible borders as well as the history of their making.

**Science**

Science teachers may integrate various areas of the curriculum in order to approach topics and issues relating to discrimination and social justice. Environmental issues tend to lend themselves well to such reflection. For example, a teaching unit on air quality might allow learners to compare and analyse differences and inequalities in air pollution-related morbidity and mortality, based on factors such as class and race that determine where we live, work and go to school. Students can study scientific concepts such as the Air Quality Index (AQI), conduct research on the AQI of different cities, relate it to temperature, reflect on whether there is a cause-and-effect relationship or a correlation and so on – all methods of comparison and analysis that learners will be able to transpose to the social issues of justice and equity.

**Team teaching and integrated curricular approaches**

Besides what each teacher can do in the context of a specific subject, co-operation between teachers of several subjects can lead to valuable and effective additional outcomes for the development of CDC. This co-operation can be between several teachers working with the same class, who co-ordinate their intervention to enhance CDC, but it can also be between teachers working with different classes, which are supported to engage in a partnership and co-operate in learning activities resulting in the development of CDC.

Teachers working with the same class can plan their teaching together in order to ensure that they complement each other in covering all the elements of CDC, leading to a gradual progress of the class in all aspects, so as to avoid overlapping and overlooking elements of CDC. They can also plan together larger project-based learning activities or cover, from the perspective of different disciplines over a longer period of time, transversal topics particularly relevant for CDC, such as human rights,
gender equality, sustainable development, sociocultural and linguistic diversity, the prevention of discrimination and violence, etc.

This co-ordination should ideally take place within a broader plan of the school, and the ways in which this could be organised to maximise its effects on the development of CDC are described in Chapter 5 on the whole-school approach.

**Addressing the “hidden curriculum”**

The hidden curriculum is very often an unquestioned status quo. Because the Framework is based on the three principles of transparency, coherence and comprehensiveness, and takes a holistic perspective on democratic learning processes, it is important that schools look at their hidden practices and messages and align the ethos of the school with the CDC values and attitudes.

Nothing one teaches is free of social connotation. Gender bias, ethnic and racial bias, and cultural dominance are the most commonly found ills in the curriculum and in its use in schools.

Teachers should become aware and take an active approach in spotting the unintentional lessons that are taught in their setting. Educators may tend to select resources from a restricted body of sources, thus reinforcing social inequalities or cultural domination as well as stereotypes and discrimination.

Many mathematics and science teachers, for example, insist that what they teach is free of social connotations. Students are given mathematical “problems” to solve which rarely relate to anything from real life. The result of such hidden or implicit, and probably unintentional messages, is that a number of students end up thinking that the content is irrelevant to their lives. They may lose interest not only in the work but also in mathematics as a whole as it appears to have no connection to our reality. Many studies argue that putting maths back into a social context is one way to counter this type of “hidden curriculum”.

Another way of controlling the implicit messages of the hidden curriculum is to pay close attention to what resources and illustrations are used in the materials. For example, if literature classes never include authors from different walks of life and geographical places, or if language course books only contain pictures and stories of white middle-class families visiting tourist sights, then one may consider whether students are being subjected to a hidden curriculum, and if through the power structures of knowledge and culture, teachers are made to continue discriminatory practices.

**Using competence descriptors**

In designing lessons or activities that focus on both process and content, teachers have at their disposal a set of validated and scaled competence descriptors. The ways of using the descriptors and the potential misuses to avoid are described in the main document of the Framework and more details and the list of descriptors are presented in Volume 2. These are particularly relevant for the pedagogy of CDC because descriptors are formulated by using the language of learning outcomes.
and can be taken as a reference in defining learning outcomes of various learning activities. Special attention should be given to the fact that in most cases descriptors corresponding to a cluster of competences need to be combined in the development of a learning activity. Examples of how descriptors can be connected to various types of teaching practices and learning activities are provided in the appendices.

**Forward-looking conclusion**

Teachers can organise a wide variety of pedagogical approaches that are suitable for the development of CDC and thus help create more enjoyable and safe learning environments while addressing violent, discriminatory and anti-democratic structures within classroom settings. Through planning, pursuing the development of CDC among learners and evaluating their activities, teachers as facilitators of learning will focus on the principles of the Framework and enact pedagogical approaches and methods that encourage learners to become actively involved in experience, discovery, challenge, analysis, comparison, reflection and co-operation. They reconsider their role in the classroom to better address learners as whole persons and engage children with their head, heart and hands and develop practices which are best suited to developing learners’ autonomy and responsibility in the matter of competence for a democratic culture.

**References**


ROGERS C. (1969), *Freedom to learn: a view of what education might become* (1st edn), Charles Merrill, Columbus, OH.


**Resources**

**Council of Europe**

**EDC/HRE pack**


**Youth sector**

*All equal all different*, Education pack: www.eycb.coe.int/edupack/.


**Pestalozzi Programme**

A selection of training units from the Pestalozzi Programme trainer training modules for education professionals: www.coe.int/en/web/pestalozzi/training-resources.


TASKs for democracy: 60 activities to learn and assess transversal attitudes, skills and knowledge (Pestalozzi series No. 4) (2015): www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/pestalozzi/Source/Documentation/Pestalozzi4_EN.pdf.

Other useful links
http://teach4diversity.ca/multicultural-childrens-literature/
http://wegrowteachers.com
https://euroclio.eu/resource-centre/educational-resources/
www.edutopia.org
www.learntochange.eu/blog/
www.salto-youth.net
www.teachthought.com
www.tolerance.org

Appendices

Examples of practice

This section highlights resources and offers a number of learning/teaching activities that aim to teach and develop attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding, and evaluate learning sequences to appraise the effectiveness of the activities with a view to improving their structure, content or delivery for future use, within each of the approaches contained in this chapter.

► Example of co-operative learning: the Jigsaw Classroom
► Example of project-based learning: Project Citizen
► Example for developing critical thinking skills

The Jigsaw Classroom: an example of a co-operative learning structure

The Jigsaw Classroom is a co-operative learning technique with a four-decade track record of successfully reducing racial and ethnic conflict in schools and increasing positive outcomes. The example here is for groups of four students but it can be adapted to groups of three or pairs. Teachers should avoid too large groups that do not allow for equal engagement and participation of learners. In preparation for the
process, teachers will divide the content of the lesson into a number of segments equal to the number of groups envisaged (four in this example).

**Step 1 (10 to 15 minutes)**
- Divide the class into “home groups”: these are groups of three or four students maximum. In this example, there will be four groups of four members: group A, group B, group C, group D. Assign roles within each group as indicated in the section below and instruct learners that they need to focus on the task but also on their role, whenever working in a group.
- Distribute the task sheets with the desired content of learning: members of one “home group” each get a different segment of the assignment.
- Assign each student to learn their segment: students first read their own task sheet individually.

**Step 2 (20 minutes)**
Form temporary “specialist groups”: these are new groups of students (four in this example) made up of one member of each “home group”. In this example, the groups are as follows:
- Specialist group 1 is made up of members A1, B1, C1, D1, who have studied segment 1
- Specialist group 2 is made up of members A2, B2, C2, D2, who have studied segment 2
- Specialist group 3 is made up of members A3, B3, C3, D3, who have studied segment 3
- Specialist group 4 is composed of members A4, B4, C4, D4, who have studied segment 4

**Step 3 (15 minutes)**
- Bring the students back to their “home groups” A, B, C, and D. The teacher invites each “specialist” (a member of the group who has worked on a specific piece of content) to present their work and findings from the “specialist group” experience to the other members of the home group. This way all members of the home group gain deeper knowledge of the content. This phase of the work provides all group members with an understanding of their own material, as well as the findings that have emerged from the “specialists group” discussion.
- Monitor the groups closely and observe interactions: the teacher encourages autonomous work and intervenes only when necessary. She/he facilitates the work process as well as the inclusion and engagement of all students only when a difficulty is observed.

**Step 4 (20 minutes)**
Debriefing: each group gives their feedback. The groups may have a delegate or do it together. Discuss with a set of questions. Perhaps give a quick quiz.
Assigning roles in groups

In small groups, the instructor will often merely tell class participants to form groups to complete a class assignment. There is no structured interdependence, no individual accountability and communication skills are either assumed or ignored. Sometimes the group or the instructor may appoint a single leader. The emphasis is on the task, not the learner and the social process, and therefore has less potential for developing CDC than with co-operatively structured group work.

To set up roles, one possible procedure is to:

a. Prepare for each group a set of different coloured markers, equal to the number of group members (in the example above, for instance, red, blue, green and black). Ask participants to choose one of the markers.

b. Ask participants who have chosen a certain colour to raise their hand: they will be assigned roles/tasks. Assign to each colour group, in turn, one of the following roles. Ask them to repeat their task in front of the whole group to make sure the task is understood by all. Go through the same process for each of the following colour/roles/tasks:

Examples of possible roles for each group member:

**Tracers:** their task is to facilitate the group process, to keep the group on the given task. The Tracer, for example, can regularly make sure that the work results are summarised to help move on with the task.

**Encouragers:** their task is to ensure equal access and participation for all of the group members. The Encourager, for example, may encourage silent members to express themselves and talkative members to rest in silence if needed.

**Timers:** their task is to help the micro-group to be on time by finding common solutions, help the group find efficient ways of carrying out the task and finish on time. The Timer, for example, helps micro-group members to create quicker ways of completing the activity.

**Writers:** their task is to ensure that every group member’s voice is taken into account and recorded.

Regardless of the topic studied and besides the additional knowledge gained about the topic, this process contributes to developing a variety of competences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Submits required work on time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meets deadlines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>Expresses a belief in his/her own ability to understand issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expresses the belief that he/she can carry out activities that he/she has planned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>Descriptors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance of ambiguity</td>
<td>Is comfortable in novel situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expresses a willingness to consider contradictory or incomplete information without automatically rejecting it or jumping to a premature conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomous learning skills</td>
<td>Accomplishes learning tasks independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seeks clarification of new information from other people when needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical and critical thinking skills</td>
<td>Can identify logical relationships in materials being analysed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can draw conclusions from the analysis of an argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills of listening and observing</td>
<td>Actively listens to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listens attentively to other people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility and adaptability</td>
<td>If something isn't going according to plan, he/she changes his/her actions to try and reach the goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjusts interaction style to interact more effectively with other people, when this is required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changes the way that he/she explains an idea if the situation requires this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic, communicative and plurilingual skills</td>
<td>Can get his/her point across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asks speakers to repeat what they have said if it wasn't clear to him/her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-operation skills</td>
<td>Builds positive relationships with other people in a group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When working as a member of a group, does his/her share of the group's work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict-resolution skills</td>
<td>Can assist others to resolve conflicts by enhancing their understanding of the available options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and critical understanding of language and communication</td>
<td>Can describe some effects which different styles of language use can have in social and working situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can describe the social impact and effects on others of different communication styles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can explain how tone of voice, eye contact and body language can aid communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Project-based learning example: Project Citizen**

Project Citizen is a project-based method used in many countries in the context of civic education and which contributes to the development of a large number of elements of CDC.

A class or group of learners will engage over a period of 10-12 weeks in a process consisting of the following steps and focusing on addressing a local community issue which can be solved by a public policy adopted at local level:

> Understanding the concept of public policy and making a list of issues affecting the local community.

> Selecting one community issue which can be solved by a local public policy to be studied in depth. The choice is made by the learners using democratic decision-making procedures.

> Collecting information about the selected issue from various sources, including the local authorities with relevant responsibilities, citizens affected by the issue, experts, civil society stakeholders, internet, etc. The information is organised in order to make an analysis of possible solutions, decide on a proposed public policy to address the issue and design an advocacy plan to promote the chosen solution.

> Production of a portfolio and a presentation consisting of four parts:
  - description of the issue and explanation of why it is important and who is responsible for addressing it;
  - analysis of a few possible solutions, pointing out advantages and disadvantages;
  - description of the proposed public policy, its expected impact, cost, procedure of adoption and the fact that it is compatible with the principles of human rights, as well as with the national and European legal frameworks;
  - outline of an advocacy plan explaining what citizens can do to persuade the responsible authorities to adopt the public policy proposed.

> Presentation of the result in a local meeting organised by the learners and possibly in larger public events.

> Reflection on the values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding that have been developed through the whole process.

In various stages learners have to work together in small groups, interact in different ways with various community stakeholders, communicate and explain to the others their findings and proposals, and manage the process together.

This process develops all the elements of CDC mentioned for project-based learning. In addition, it cultivates the use of democratic decision-making procedures, the focus on public policy and the explicit requirement to comply with constitutional, legal and human rights standards. It stimulates the development of the following competences:

- Valuing human dignity and human rights
– Valuing democracy, justice, equality, fairness and the rule of law
– Civic-mindedness and knowledge and critical understanding of human rights, democracy, justice and politics
– Knowledge and critical understanding of the world: depending on the topic selected by learners, which may be related to the environment, sustainable development, cultural diversity, migration, media, etc.

Developing analytical and critical thinking skills

Analytical and critical thinking skills are comprised in the high order cognitive domains. Such skills are essential and transversal to all subject matters. Becoming a critical thinker is a personal journey. Each individual will go through his or her own processes. Critical thinking occurs when learners are experiencing, analysing, evaluating, interpreting, synthesising information and applying creative thought to form an argument, solve a problem, or reach a conclusion. The output of this process is variable from learner to learner: “I construct knowledge for myself”.

Some pedagogical approaches

Given the characteristics of the analytical and critical thinking skills, namely that the teaching takes into account the individual learner’s learning needs, teachers may want to take the following into consideration:

► Analytical and critical thinking skills comprise a wide variety of approaches and learning strategies; the aim is to promote learning through the processing of information, or experience, and going beyond the memorisation of information and facts.

– A simple approach is to identify one’s learning outcomes. For this, (i) consult the descriptors and single one out, for example “185 – Prioritises choices before making a decision”; and (ii) break down the outcome in teachable/learnable operations, for example “listing” ideas, “selecting” ideas, “ordering” the selected ideas, “justifying” the selection and order, relating this to a “decision”.

– A more complex approach is to (i) combine two descriptors. For example, “203 – Can evaluate the preconceptions and assumptions upon which materials are based” combined with “180 – Can evaluate information critically”; (ii) select a variety of written, visual, audio and/or digital materials; and (iii) ask a clear question, raise a doubt or use a prompt. In this approach, learners will focus on a) sorting out the different materials, b) unpacking the meaning of their content and researching the underlying assumptions and c) making judgments of the accuracy of the information conveyed.

► Whatever the approach, differentiated instructional strategies are applicable, taking into account individual learners’ interests or strengths.

► Being aware of their own practice allows teachers to be confident, improve and give useful and meaningful feedback to learners. A key pitfall is the introduction of biases in the process of assessing learners’ work; own assumptions (presuppositions/beliefs taken for granted) may bias subsequent judgments.
It is important that practitioners cultivate awareness of their implicit biases, work to increase empathy and empathic communication, and not to interact with learners in negative ways. Useful questions to consider are:

- How can I be more aware of my implicit bias?
- Am I assuming something I should not?
- Are my assumptions logical and fair-minded?
Chapter 3

CDC and assessment

Summary of contents

► Who is this chapter for?
► Purpose and overview
► Why is assessment important?
► Some issues in assessment
► Principles of assessment
► Approaches to assessment
► The importance of context for assessment in CDC
► The dynamic nature of clusters of competences
► The use of descriptors
► Assessment methods
► Examples of dynamic clusters of competences
► Conclusion
► Further reading
Who is this chapter for?

This chapter is aimed at the following readerships:

- teachers at all levels of education;
- teacher educators;
- policy makers with responsibility for assessment in education;
- professional test developers designing assessments for use in relation to the Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture (henceforward, the Framework).

Purpose and overview

The chapter starts with some conceptual clarifications and an introduction to a set of key principles that need to be considered when assessing competences for democratic culture (CDC). It then explores the implications of the value foundations of the Framework for assessment practices. This is followed by a description of a range of assessment approaches and methodologies, covering their strengths, challenges and risks. The chapter concludes with some examples of how the assessment of dynamic clusters of competences can be conducted and recommendations for further reading.

Why is assessment important?

If the Framework is to be used in education systems and be systematically applied through education practices in schools and classrooms, it is important to assess learners’ progress, achievement and proficiency. This is because assessment provides vital information about the learning process that teachers can use to facilitate learners’ further progress. In addition, assessment has significant effects on the behaviour of learners and teachers who attribute greater importance and pay more attention to areas of the curriculum that are assessed. The assessment of CDC is therefore important for the effective inclusion and promotion of the Framework in formal education.

The Framework aims to contribute to the development of education practices for empowering learners, and for this reason the choice of suitable assessment approaches and methods requires particular attention. Some assessment methods, even if they are useful for measuring learner achievements in other domains, are not necessarily compatible with teaching and learning that focuses on democratic practices and respect for human rights. Some methods may also lack transparency, be disrespectful (or be perceived as disrespectful) to learners, and may harm learners’ personal integrity and future prospects. For this reason, it is vital that users of the Framework choose appropriate assessment approaches and methods.

Some issues in assessment

Assessment and evaluation

A major problem with everyday discourse about assessment is that “assessment” is assumed to be synonymous with “testing”, but testing is only one form of assessment.
A second problem is that “assessment” is confused with “evaluation”, a confusion made more common by the fact that in some languages – for example French “évaluation” – the same word is used for both assessment and evaluation.

In this chapter, “assessment” refers to the systematic description and/or measurement of a learner’s level of proficiency or achievement, whereas “evaluation” refers to the systematic description and/or measurement of the effectiveness of an education system, institution or programme (which might consist of a course of study lasting several years, a series of lessons over several days, or even just a single lesson or learning activity). Assessment and evaluation are related because the results of assessments can be used as one element of an evaluation. Assessment helps teachers to understand if and to what degree the teaching process actually supported them in developing the intended competences, thus informing the planning and adjustment of the next steps in the teaching. For more elements on evaluation, see the accompanying chapters in this volume on pedagogy, teacher education and the whole-school approach.

The purposes of assessment

Assessment can serve a wide variety of purposes. The following is a non-exhaustive list of these purposes, each of which may stand alone or be combined with others:

► To obtain a description and understanding of learners’ progress in the development of their competences.
► To decide whether learners are making expected progress in their mastery of the intended competences.
► To identify learners’ present progress and future learning goals, so that subsequent teaching can be tailored to enable learners to achieve those goals.
► To identify any specific learning difficulties that learners might be experiencing, so that subsequent teaching can be tailored to aid learners in overcoming those difficulties.
► To evaluate teachers’ practices in order to provide feedback on how their teaching might be adjusted in order to achieve greater effectiveness.
► To evaluate the effectiveness of a particular intervention or programme of teaching and learning.

The outcome of a single assessment can be used to serve more than one purpose, and the results from assessment can be used in different ways and at all stages of teaching and learning processes.

Assessment as a means of empowering learners

The Framework is informed by the overall Council of Europe approach towards education for democratic citizenship and human rights education (EDC/HRE), with a particular focus on the empowerment of learners as active democratic citizens. The Framework is based on the three principles of transparency, coherence and comprehensiveness, and takes a holistic perspective on democratic learning processes (see Chapter 2 on pedagogy) and institutional contexts (see Chapter 5 on the
whole-school approach). This means that education processes and contexts should reflect the values of democracy and human rights, and that they should cater for experience-based learning across the whole range of CDC. These dimensions of empowerment have particular implications for the assessment of CDC.

First of all, teaching, learning and assessment of CDC should be viewed and organised as one coherent process. Methods of teaching and learning need to be appropriate for developing the competences one wishes to assess. Co-operation skills, for example, can best be developed through learning activities which allow and encourage learners to co-operate. This means that co-operation should also be part of the assessment process. Opportunities to interact with others, to engage in discussions and to participate in decision making create contexts in which co-operation skills can be displayed by a learner and observed by an assessor.

Second, the holistic perspective refers to the coherence between teaching and assessment methodologies. For example, a learning unit based on co-operative learning methodology (for a description, see Chapter 2 on pedagogy) may be followed by a type of assessment in which learners’ individual reflections on their own achievements are combined with peer assessment in order to maintain an atmosphere of mutual support and trust. Empathy is another example. In order to develop empathy and respect, learners need to have the opportunity to put themselves “in another person’s shoes” and this then informs the assessment practice.

The above examples are linked to the issue of empowerment. First, assessment should enable learners not only to become aware of their achievement or level of proficiency in CDC, but also to reflect on the learning process that resulted in this particular outcome. Second, assessment should determine what is needed in order to develop these competences further. Third, assessment should enable learners to take appropriate action in relation to their own learning. In other words, assessment should contribute to learners’ ownership of their learning process.

To this end, assessment should be informed by a set of principles allowing learners to experience the procedure as valid, reliable, fair, transparent and respectful. These principles are presented in the following section.

**Principles of assessment**

In order for education assessments to be acceptable to learners and, in the case of young learners, their parents or caregivers, it is important that they meet a number of criteria. These criteria include validity, reliability, equity, transparency, practicality and respectfulness.

**Validity**

Validity means that an assessment should accurately describe and/or measure a learner’s level of proficiency or achievement of the intended learning outcomes, and not of some other unintended outcomes or extraneous factors. A valid assessment is one that assesses what it is intended to assess. For example, an assessment task designed to assess a set of CDC might require the learner to comprehend linguistic material and to produce a verbal response. However, such a task might then
actually be assessing learners’ linguistic competence rather than their democratic competence, with the result that only the more linguistically able learners are credited with a high level of democratic proficiency. Similarly, when the frequency of students’ contributions is measured in an assessment task that requires learners to collaborate, interact and talk with peers, those learners’ personalities might be assessed rather than their democratic competence.

It is vital to use assessment methods in relation to the Framework that assess learners’ democratic competence and not unintended factors. Only valid assessments allow accurate and fair conclusions to be drawn about the learner’s level of proficiency or achievement. Invalid assessment methods should not be used because such methods provide misleading descriptions of learners’ level in specified competences. This could then divert learners’ future learning in an inappropriate direction, undermine their trust in the education process, or even endanger their willingness to engage in further learning.

A common misperception is that validity applies only to quantitative assessment. However, it is not only scores or grades that may be invalid. Qualitative assessments can also be invalid if the assessment is influenced by irrelevant factors.

**Reliability**

Reliability means that an assessment should produce results that are consistent and stable. A reliable assessment is one that is dependable in its outcomes and those outcomes should be replicable if the same assessment procedure were to be administered again to the same learner and by a different assessor.

There are various reasons which can make an assessment unreliable. For example, an assessor might be tired, or might be unclear about the precise meanings of the learning outcomes that are being assessed. If the same assessor were less tired, or more knowledgeable about the meanings of all the learning outcomes, then different results might be obtained.

Reliability is different from validity. Even when an assessment method is known to be reliable, it might not be valid (that is, it might not accurately describe the achievement of the intended learning outcomes but of some unintended factor, such as the learner’s linguistic capabilities or personality, as described above). On the other hand, if an assessment is unreliable, it cannot be valid. This is because if an assessment procedure is unreliable, something other than the learner’s competence level (for example the assessor’s level of alertness) is influencing the outcome of the assessment.

As with validity, it is often thought that reliability only applies to quantitative assessments. This is incorrect. The results of qualitative assessments can also be either reliable or unreliable. For example, they would be unreliable if the judgments made by an assessor vary over time and are inconsistent.

**Equity**

Equity means that assessment should be fair and should not favour or disadvantage any particular group or individual. An equitable assessment method ensures that
all learners, regardless of their demographic or other characteristics, have an equal opportunity to display their level of competence.

Inequity in the assessment can arise for a variety of reasons. For example, an assessment requiring learners to have access at home to a wide range of information sources could discriminate against those who do not have such opportunities. An assessment that requires learners to have background knowledge of the culture of the majority cultural group could discriminate against learners from minority groups. Assessment methods that are unfair to and discriminate against disadvantaged learners or those belonging to different kinds of minorities should not be used.

Because the assessment of CDC should form an integral part of learning processes that reflect democratic values and empower learners, it is important that the principle of equity is respected.

**Transparency**

Transparency means that learners should receive in advance explicit, accurate and clear information about the assessment. A transparent assessment procedure is one in which learners are informed in advance about the purpose of the assessment, the learning outcomes that are going to be assessed, the types of assessment procedure to be used, and the assessment criteria. Methods which require learners to make guesses about what is required of them in order to perform well in the assessment are not transparent.

Transparency is an important principle informing democratic processes and a democratic culture. For this reason, the assessment of CDC should always follow this principle and use methods that are comprehensible to learners.

**Practicality**

The principle of practicality means that any assessment method that is used should be feasible, given the resources, time and practical constraints that apply. A practical assessment procedure does not make unreasonable demands on the resources or time that are available to the learner or the assessor. The limitations that render a method impractical are also likely to render that method unreliable and invalid.

**Respectfulness**

A further principle of particular importance in the context of the development of competences for democratic culture is respectfulness. Assessment informed by respectfulness may motivate those being assessed to accept and understand the assessment and its purposes. This principle applies to all assessments that take place in relation to the Framework. Because the principle of respectfulness is not usually included among assessment principles, it is dealt with in greater detail here than the other principles.

Assessment procedures should always respect the dignity and the rights of the learner who is being assessed. Learners’ rights are defined by the European Convention
on Human Rights\textsuperscript{1} and the Convention on the Rights of the Child,\textsuperscript{2} and they include, \textit{inter alia}, the rights to freedom of thought, conscience and religion, freedom of expression and freedom from discrimination. Assessment methods or procedures (and any other education practices) that violate one or more of these rights of learners should not be used.

In its interpretation of the European Convention on Human Rights, the European Court of Human Rights explicitly allows freedom of expression even in cases where the views that are expressed are regarded as offensive, shocking or disturbing, because freedom of expression constitutes one of the essential foundations of a democratic society. However, the Court also holds that, in the case of forms of expression that spread, incite, promote or justify hatred based on intolerance, it may be necessary to sanction or even prevent such forms of expression. This is because tolerance and respect for the equal dignity of all human beings constitute a further essential foundation of a culturally diverse democratic society.\textsuperscript{3}

The principle of respectfulness therefore means that learners should not be sanctioned or censured in an assessment merely because the views which they express in that assessment are offensive, shocking or disturbing. However, learners may be censured in an assessment if the expression of their views spreads, incites, promotes or justifies hatred based on intolerance. If they do express hate speech, they should be challenged, and these expressions should be used as a learning opportunity to explore how the learner might be helped to develop empathy, mutual respect and a sense of human dignity for all. Thus, assessment, if conducted in respectful ways, can turn a problematic behaviour into a turning point in the education process.

In the case of assessments based on the Framework, education practitioners therefore need to make careful judgments concerning assessments in which learners are found to express opposition to valuing human dignity and human rights, valuing cultural diversity and valuing democracy, justice, fairness, equality and rule of law. It is crucial that such opposition is only taken into consideration in the assessment when the learner spreads, incites, promotes or justifies hatred based on intolerance.

The principle of respectfulness does not only involve respecting the human rights of learners, it also involves respecting the dignity of learners. As such, assessments that are linked to the Framework should also observe the following general rules:

- Learners should not be placed under continual stress by being constantly assessed.
- Learners have a right to privacy and confidentiality, especially in relation to their values and attitudes.
- There is a need for sensitivity when revealing assessment results to learners.

\textsuperscript{1} Available at: www.echr.coe.int/Documents/Convention_ENG.pdf.
\textsuperscript{2} Available at: www.ohchr.org/Documents/ProfessionalInterest/crc.pdf.
\textsuperscript{3} See: European Court of Human Rights (2016), \textit{Hate speech}, Council of Europe, Strasbourg. Available at: www.echr.coe.int/Documents/FS_Hate_speech_ENG.pdf.
Feedback to learners from assessments should focus on positive rather than negative outcomes, mainly on learners’ achievements rather than their deficiencies.

There may be cases and issues where assessments should not be conducted because the issues or topics are too sensitive for the learners concerned.

Special precautions should also be taken where the outcomes of an assessment will be used to decide if a learner can continue to the next level of education.

In addition, users of the Framework may wish to consider whether, in order to respect the dignity of learners, learners have a right for the values, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours which they have exhibited at earlier points in their development to be forgotten. It may be argued that there should be no permanent track record of learners’ values, attitudes and beliefs, because this violates their right to privacy. Alternatively, it may be argued that only acceptable or positive values, attitudes and beliefs should be traceable through assessment records (and that these records should therefore not document any unacceptable speech or behaviours that have violated or aimed to violate other people’s dignity or human rights, because this documentation could later harm the learner). A third possibility is that, if learners engage in behaviours or hold values, attitudes or beliefs that are democratically unacceptable, but then progress in their development, they should have the right for their previous behaviours, values, attitudes or beliefs to be removed from the records of their education. Users of the Framework will need to consider the range of possibilities and decide upon the course of action that is most suitable in their own education context, bearing in mind the need to ensure that assessment should always respect the dignity and rights of the learner who is being assessed.

Finally, it should be noted that four of these six assessment principles do not apply only to assessment methods. They also apply to the adequacy and appropriateness of the conclusions that are drawn from the results of assessments. Invalid, unreliable, inequitable or disrespectful conclusions about learners should never be drawn from an assessment that has been conducted in relation to the Framework. For example, using the outcomes from the assessment of a learner to make the claim that the learner is more or less competent than most other learners of his or her age is an invalid conclusion if there is no information available about the performance of a representative sample of learners on that same assessment. Similarly, overgeneralising the outcomes of assessing learners from a single classroom to make broad claims about differences between the competences of males and females or of majority and minority ethnic groups would be both invalid and inequitable.

**Approaches to assessment**

In addition to thinking through the implications of these six assessment principles, users of the Framework will need to consider the specific approach that they might use for assessing CDC. There are contrasting approaches to assessment, some of which form dichotomies and some continua. In general, types of assessment can be characterised using these dichotomies and continua.
Table 1: Concepts and contrasts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High-stakes (e.g. national examinations)</th>
<th>Low-stakes (e.g. confidential portfolios)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement (e.g. end-of-course test)</td>
<td>Proficiency (e.g. test in a real-world context outside the school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm-referenced (e.g. examinations for selection to next stage of education)</td>
<td>Criterion-referenced (e.g. portfolio demonstrating a profile of competences)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summative (e.g. end-of-course examination)</td>
<td>Formative (e.g. mid-course assessment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective (e.g. computer-based test)</td>
<td>Subjective (e.g. observation of behaviour)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

High-stakes and low-stakes assessment

One important continuum is between high-stakes and low-stakes assessment. High-stakes assessments are assessments which yield results that are used to make important decisions about the learner and therefore have significant consequences for the learner. Examinations by national testing, leading to certification which opens doors for further study or workplace opportunities, are at the high-stakes end of this continuum. Portfolios or journals of learning which are confidential to a learner and to those to whom they give permission of access, are at the low-stakes end, because they are not used by others to make decisions. Assessments where a teacher provides feedback only to the learner – with or without a grade – lie in the middle of the continuum, as do other variations of “assessment by others”, with different kinds of feedback. “Peer assessment” – with observation and feedback in private – lies nearer still to low-stakes, as does “self-assessment”. “Teacher assessment” in tests, with grades made public, lies near the high-stakes end of the continuum, especially if it influences progression through an education system and other life chances.

Users of the Framework will need to consider the extent to which they should use high-stakes assessments. It may be judged that it is important to lift education for democratic citizenship out of the status of a less prioritised matter in education, and that this can be best achieved by using high-stakes assessments. High-stakes assessments are much more likely to have significant effects on the behaviour of both teachers and learners. If something is not subjected to high-stakes assessment, then it is more likely to be undervalued and not receive the attention that it requires from teachers and learners. However, if an assessment has high stakes, then it is essential that the assessment methods that are used have high reliability and high validity. It would be unethical to make significant decisions about a learner’s future on the basis of unreliable or invalid assessment outcomes. Hence, any decision to use high-stakes assessment should only be made if it is judged that reliable and valid assessment methods are available.

Conversely, it could be argued that the only suitable assessment types for the Framework are those that lie towards the low-stakes end of the continuum, and that
high-stakes assessment should never be used, in order to ensure that the principle of respectfulness is maintained. This argument might apply especially to the assessment of learners’ values, particularly given the concerns about learners’ rights to freedom of thought, conscience and religion that were discussed above. Exactly the same argument might also apply to the assessment of learners’ attitudes, given that attitudes consist of multiple components and interrelations between them, and are complex and personal. Assessing attitudes could therefore be perceived as an assessment of the person rather than of the person’s competences, and so high-stakes assessment could damage the person and their future prospects.

Users of the Framework might wish to consider employing a mixed set of assessment types, in which only low-stakes assessments are used in relation to values and attitudes, but high-stakes assessments are used in relation to skills, and knowledge and critical understanding.

Users of the Framework will need to consider these various possibilities and decide upon the course of action that is most suitable within their own education context, bearing in mind the need to ensure that the principle of respectfulness is observed.

**Achievement and proficiency assessment**

Assessment by teachers is usually achievement assessment where the teacher seeks to establish what and how much a learner has learned from the teaching. It is usually closely tied to a syllabus or programme of learning, for example as presented in a textbook. Achievement assessment contrasts with proficiency assessment, which reports on the level of performance demonstrated by a learner in general, without reference to a particular course of learning. Proficiency assessment is often tied to demonstration of knowledge, understanding and skills when applied to situations outside the classroom, for example through simulations or project activities that take place in the local community. For this reason, proficiency assessment is useful to employers and it may therefore be high-stakes. Proficiency assessment takes into account achievement resulting from teaching and learning but also includes the results of learning outside the classroom.

Both achievement and proficiency assessment may be suitable for CDC since they have different purposes: to inform teachers and learners about learners’ success in a course of learning, and to inform teachers, potential employers or other stakeholders about individuals’ broader capacities. However, if proficiency assessment is to be used to inform external stakeholders about learners’ broader capacities, then it is essential to use highly reliable and valid assessment methods for this purpose because of the high stakes that are attached to the outcomes of the assessment. It is also important to take into account the principle of respectfulness when considering the use of high-stakes methods so that such methods are only used if they are respectful of the dignity and rights of the learner.

**Norm-referenced and criterion-referenced assessment**

Performance on assessment tasks, whether in tests or other kinds of assessment, can be graded by norm-referencing or criterion-referencing. The former involves
comparing the performance of an individual against the performance of a reference group of that person’s peers. The performance of the reference group is sometimes standardised into a normal “bell curve” distribution, in which a minority are near the lower end of the range, a majority are on both sides of a mid-point (the average), and a minority are near the top of the end of the range. By comparing an individual’s grade against the grades of the reference group, that individual’s performance can be situated in relation to the full range of performance that is possible. In order to do this, however, it is essential that the individual is given the same tasks under the same conditions as those that were given to the peer group in order to generate the distribution. In addition, it is important that a large representative sample of peers drawn from the full ability range is used to establish the distribution. Finally, the peers should have the same demographic characteristics as the individuals who are to be tested. For this reason, a great deal of preparatory work is required before norm-referencing can be used.

A subtype of norm-referencing is cohort-referencing. This occurs when a learner’s performance in an assessment is compared against the performance of other learners within their group (cohort), and only a fixed proportion of the cohort taking the assessment are allowed to obtain particular grades (for example only 30% can get an above-average grade, 40% can get an average grade, while the remaining 30% have to get a below-average grade). Because the learner’s outcome depends not only on how well they themselves perform but also on how well others in their cohort perform, exactly the same level of performance can result in grades that vary significantly from one cohort to another.

Criterion-referencing requires learners’ performance to be assessed against a set of pre-specified criteria. The outcome is determined solely on the basis of the learner’s own performance, and not in relation to how other learners perform on the assessment task. Using criterion-referencing in proficiency assessment requires descriptions of levels of increasing proficiency, with clear and explicit criteria being specified for each level of proficiency. Proficiency may be described holistically or broken down into a set of different elements.

The descriptors that have been developed for the Framework can be used as assessment criteria for three levels of proficiency – basic, intermediate and advanced. The descriptors have been through an extensive testing process to ensure that they are reliable and valid and can therefore provide a sound basis for criterion-referencing.

It could be argued that ranking learners through norm-referencing or cohort-referencing is contrary to the principle of respectfulness as these methods do not focus on the learner, their existing capacities and what can be built on and strengthened in the further education process. Instead of giving the individual learner a sense of his or her own capacities, norm-referencing and cohort-referencing can lead to a notion of deficit, and to a competitive perspective. Especially for low-performing learners, this can be extremely discouraging. The message “Look, you have improved your communication skills since we talked last time” can be devalued by the information “but you are still below average”.

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From the perspective of co-operative learning principles, norm-referencing and cohort-referencing have the disadvantage that learners, rather than being encouraged to find out the best in everyone, are prompted to compare themselves with each other and to compete. Given these concerns, users of the Framework may wish to consider whether they should employ norm-referencing or cohort-referencing in relation to CDC assessment.

**Formative and summative assessment**

Formative assessment (that is, assessment for learning) is a process of gathering and interpreting information about the extent and success of an individual's learning, which the learner and/or their teacher can then use to set further learning goals and plan further learning activities. The purposes of formative assessment presuppose that learners can benefit from results when given as feedback. This requires raising learners’ awareness of their learning, of the competences to be achieved, and of the opportunities for learning. The criteria must be specified in a form which is useful in further planning, that is, be specific enough to identify weaknesses to be remedied and strengths to be developed.

Formative assessment contrasts with summative assessment (namely, assessment of learning) where the purpose is to summarise the learner’s achievement or proficiency at a given point in time. Summative assessment is often used at the end of a programme of study, although it can also be used during a programme to enable learners and/or their teachers to take stock of their achievement or proficiency at that point in the programme. Summative assessment can be criterion-referenced, norm-referenced or cohort-referenced. It is sometimes assumed that summative assessment is equivalent to high-stakes assessment. This is not necessarily the case, for example, when summative assessment is used during a programme solely to provide information about the learner’s current level of achievement or proficiency.

Although the terms “formative” and “summative” are often used as if they describe different kinds of assessments, the outcome of a single assessment might be used to serve more than one purpose. For this reason, these two terms are not descriptions of different kinds of assessment but rather of the different uses to which the information arising from an assessment is put. The same information, gathered using the same assessment method, is called “formative” if it is used to help learning and teaching. It is called “summative” if it is used for summarising and reporting learning. Both formative and summative assessment may be suitable for CDC depending on the purposes to be served.

**Subjective and objective assessment**

Given the sensitivity of assessing values and attitudes, the contrast between subjective and objective assessment is crucial. The former is usually thought of as assessment by a person (who could be the teacher, the learner themselves, a peer or an external assessor) whose subjectivity may affect their judgment, whereas objective assessment is thought of as removing subjectivity and possible bias in the person making the assessment, whether conscious or not.
Subjective assessment is often associated with qualitative data obtained from types of learners’ performance which produce text that is read or an activity that is observed by a teacher or some other assessor and judged, usually against criteria. However, subjective judgments can also arise when quantitative data are collected, for example using rating scales. Subjective assessment requires teachers or other assessors to be properly trained in the methods of assessment that are to be used. If they are not, there is a danger that the reliability of the assessments will be compromised.

Objective assessment is often associated with quantitative data produced by learners responding to questions or similar stimuli where only one response is correct and can be easily judged as correct; in many cases this is done by a person (the teacher, the learner, a peer or an external assessor), although in some cases this can also be done mechanically (for example by a computer programme). However, objective assessments can be made not only of quantitative data but also of qualitative data. This applies when the categories that are used to interpret or code the qualitative materials are clearly and explicitly defined and leave little room for ambiguity or personal interpretation (for example, if clear and transparent criteria are applied in a portfolio assessment, the assessment can be objective).

The descriptors that are provided by the Framework can be used to create a common understanding of criteria for assessing learners. For this reason, they can contribute to enhancing the reliability and hence the objectivity of the assessments that are made by different assessors.

**Face validity and coherence**

In most educational assessments, there is a need for face validity as part of the coherence between teaching and learning and assessment, as discussed earlier. This means that the assessment tasks given to learners should resemble the tasks through which they have learned, and should also have relevance to how the competences would be used outside the classroom. Learners should be able to see this for themselves.

Face validity is particularly important in CDC assessment. A learner will expect to see the relevance of what they are learning to their life in society. Some of the principles of assessment might be harder to ensure when “real-life” assessment tasks with good face validity are used, but it is important to maintain the principle of face validity nonetheless.

**Summing up**

Users of the Framework need to consider numerous issues in the choice of assessment approaches. These choices should take into consideration different issues related to the assessment of values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge and critical understanding. What is suitable for one set of competences might not be suitable for another. In addition, all of the assessment methods need to be valid, reliable, equitable, transparent, practical and respectful of the dignity and rights of the learners being assessed.
The importance of context for assessment in CDC

In addition to the preceding general considerations, the choice of assessment methods needs to be informed by more specific considerations that arise from the characteristics of the competences that are included within the Framework and from the way in which these competences are likely to be acquired by learners.

These competences are unlikely to be acquired by learners in linear ways, and they are not something that a person acquires at a certain moment and then possesses for the rest of their life. In the Framework, competence is defined as the ability to mobilise and deploy relevant values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and/or understanding in order to respond appropriately and effectively to the demands, challenges and opportunities that are presented by a given context. This means that context is always crucially important for assessment.

Education settings provide a broad variety of contexts in which CDC can be mobilised, developed and displayed. Furthermore, competences can be expressed in different ways in different contexts. For this reason, performing a single assessment of competences in a single context is not sufficient. Teachers and other assessors need to observe competences at different times and across different situations. They also need to take into account the fact that a specific task or education setting will activate the interplay of a number of competences that cannot be assessed individually. This means that, rather than generating an overall assessment, or even repeated assessments of all 20 competences, teachers should instead aim to build competence profiles of learners across multiple contexts.

In addition, the distinction between achievement assessment and proficiency assessment is relevant here. As we have seen, achievement assessment focuses on the performance of learners in relation to a specific education activity, task or programme, whereas proficiency assessment is an assessment reflecting the acquisition of competences whatever the source of learning. While teachers are often more interested in achievement assessment, users of the Framework may wish to consider whether assessment should be focused instead on proficiency, because contexts in the wider social, civic or political world beyond the school are particularly important and relevant for assessment in relation to the Framework.

All of the contexts that are used for assessment will be specific to the particular setting in which the assessment takes place. Assessment contexts cannot be specified in the abstract, and users of the Framework will therefore need to identify for themselves the contexts in their own local settings that are most suitable for assessment purposes.

The dynamic nature of clusters of competences

A further complexity for assessment of CDC is that individuals need to mobilise and deploy their competences in a dynamic manner if they are to respond appropriately and effectively to the demands and opportunities that are presented by a particular context. Democratic and intercultural situations are not static. They change and develop in a fluid fashion as people interact with one another and adjust their
behaviour in accordance with the varying demands of the situation. In making these adjustments, they often need to adapt their behaviour by mobilising and deploying further competences, perhaps no longer using others because the situation has changed. Some examples of how competences need to be applied through clusters in a flexible and dynamic manner are shown in the Examples section on pages 70 and 71.

This view of learners’ competences presents challenges for assessment. It implies that learners need to be equipped not only with the ability to apply their competences in democratic and intercultural situations but also with the ability to adapt their application to new situational circumstances as these arise. As a consequence, assessment needs to provide a picture of how proficient a learner is in mobilising and applying a cluster of relevant competences to a range of contexts, and also of how proficient he or she is in adapting these competences as the circumstances within those contexts change. This means that assessment methods that provide only a static description of a learner’s competences at one moment in time are unlikely to be adequate.

Users of the Framework will need to choose methods of assessment that are suitable for detecting the dynamic use of clusters of competences within and across contexts, and that can produce a profile of a learner’s performance.

The use of descriptors

In the Framework, descriptors for all 20 competences have been developed. These descriptors provide a set of positive descriptions of observable behaviours which indicate that a person has attained a particular level of proficiency in a specific competence. They have been formulated using the language of “learning outcomes”. This means that they can be used not only for assessment purposes but also for curriculum development and pedagogical planning purposes, and therefore help to create coherence.

Assessments based on observation of the behaviours specified in the descriptors can reveal the proficiency of learners, if they take place over a reasonable period of time and across different settings. Such assessments can also indicate the themes on which teachers need to focus their interventions and can be used to inform the design of education activities. In other words, assessments based on the descriptors can be used for both summative and formative purposes.

It is important to avoid the misuse of descriptors for assessment. The list of descriptors should not be used as a checklist on which to mark the behaviours that are displayed by a learner, or to calculate an overall score on that basis. The goal is not to have learners display a maximum number of behaviours that are specified by the descriptors per se. Rather, the descriptors should be used to assess the proficiency and progress of learners using methods that can capture profiles of clusters of competences as these are dynamically mobilised, applied and adjusted across multiple contexts.
Further information on the use and misuse of descriptors in assessment is provided in Volume 1 of the Framework (see Chapter 7 on “Descriptors – their uses and purposes”).

**Assessment methods**

There are many assessment methods that are potentially available for assessing learners’ values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding. They include checklists, ranking and sorting tasks, Likert scales, multiple-choice questions, constructed-response questions, situational judgment tests, computer-based assessments, open-ended diaries, reflective journals, structured autobiographical reflections, observational assessment, dynamic assessment, project-based assessment and portfolio assessment.

However, some of these methods are unable to describe the dynamic mobilisation, deployment and flexible adjustment of clusters of competences across contexts. This renders them unsuitable for assessing learners’ competences as described in the Framework. Methods that may be excluded on these grounds are checklists, ranking and sorting tasks, Likert scales, multiple-choice questions, constructed-response questions and situational judgment tests. In principle, computer-based assessments may be appropriate, but the necessary software needs to be available. All of the remaining methods can meet the needs of assessing the activation, application and flexible adjustment of clusters of competences across multiple contexts.

The descriptors provided by the Framework can be used to systematise assessment. This is because they provide a coherent reference base through which a learner’s behaviour can be assessed against criteria specifying three different levels of proficiency for each of 20 competences.

**Open-ended diaries, reflective journals and structured autobiographical reflections**

These methods require the learner to record and reflect on their own behaviour, learning and personal development. The record which is produced is usually a written text, but it could also include non-verbal self-expressions or art works. The reflections may be freely structured by the learner, or they may be structured through the use of a pre-specified format that has been designed to ensure that the reflections provide evidence on the specific learning outcomes that are being assessed. In using these methods to assess CDC, the format could therefore require learners to structure their narratives or reflections in such a way that they record and reflect on the full range of competences that they have deployed across a range of situations or contexts, and how they adapted or adjusted the competences that they were using as those situations developed.

However, a difficulty with using diaries, journals and autobiographical reflections is that they are vulnerable to socially desirable responding. In other words, learners might only record content that they think will be viewed favourably by an assessor. For this reason, ensuring satisfactory validity can be a challenge when using diaries,
journals or autobiographies for assessment purposes when the assessments are to be carried out by anyone other than the learner.

**Observational assessment**

Observational assessment involves a teacher or other assessor observing learners’ behaviours in a range of different situations in order to ascertain the extent to which the learner is deploying clusters of competences appropriately and is actively adjusting those clusters according to the changing situational circumstances. Using such a method requires the assessor to develop a plan of the range of situations to which the learner is to be exposed, and to make a record of the learner’s behaviour in those situations. This could be a written record using either a structured observation sheet or a more open-ended logbook in which a description of the learner’s behaviour is captured. Alternatively, a direct record can be made of the behaviour that is being observed using an audio or video recording, so that the assessment can be made after the event.

A potential vulnerability of observational assessment is that it can be affected by the attentiveness, preconceptions and expectations of the assessor, which can lead to selective perception and inappropriate conclusions being drawn about the learner. Here, class size can be an important factor. There can also be inconsistency in the assessments that are made across different situations or contexts. In other words, ensuring satisfactory reliability can be a challenge for observational assessment.

**Dynamic assessment**

Dynamic assessment involves the teacher or other assessor actively supporting the learner during the assessment process in order to enable the learner to reveal his or her maximum level of proficiency. This is accomplished by exposing the learner to a planned range of situations or contexts in which the teacher interacts with the learner. The learner has to provide an ongoing commentary about their behaviour, the competences which they are using, and how they are adjusting their competences as the situation shifts and changes. The assessor probes the learner’s commentary using questions and implicit and explicit prompts; the assessor also analyses and interprets the learner’s performance, and provides feedback as required. The assessor’s behaviour may lead the learner to perform at a higher level of proficiency than he or she might have displayed if no support had been provided.

This method has more restricted uses than observational assessment, because the situations that can be used for dynamic assessment will need to be ones that allow interaction with the assessor to occur. Furthermore, if the elicited performance requires assessor support to be sustained, the general validity of the method may be limited. Dynamic assessment is also subject to exactly the same challenges to its reliability as observational assessment.

**Project-based assessment**

For the purposes of this chapter, project-based assessment is defined as an integral part of project-based learning (in contrast to assessment done at the end of student projects). It can be used to ensure that learners engage in activity not only in the
classroom but also in the wider social, civic or political world. Thus, project-based learning (see Chapter 2 in this volume on CDC and pedagogy) is a very suitable approach for combining learning and assessment within the same process. To maximise learner performance, projects need to be based on issues or situations that are meaningful and engaging to the learners themselves, to have face validity. They also need to be constructed in such a way that learners have to apply values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding across a wide range of situations. Projects can be undertaken either independently or in collaboration with other learners, and they can require learners themselves to undertake the planning and design work, decision making, investigative activities and problem solving as part of the project. A project normally leads to the creation of substantial products. Learners can also be required to provide documentation on the process of conducting the project and on the learning process, as well as critical self-reflections. In order to use this method, the project needs to be structured in such a way that the products and the accompanying documentation provide information about how clusters of competences have been mobilised and deployed across contexts, and about how they have been adjusted over time according to the needs of the situations encountered during the project.

However, project-based assessment also has its disadvantages. It is, for example, difficult to know whether the competences that are deployed during the project are deployed by the learner in situations beyond the project itself. This is a problem of validity. In addition, teachers and other assessors may find it difficult to assess the products and documentation that result from projects, and assessments can also be very time-consuming. Assessments may have low reliability if teachers have not been adequately trained to carry them out.

**Portfolio assessment**

A portfolio is a systematic, cumulative and ongoing collection of materials that is produced by the learner as evidence of his or her learning, progress, performance, efforts and proficiency. The materials are selected for inclusion following a set of guidelines, and the learner has to explain and reflect on the contents of the portfolio. The guidelines specify the competences that are being assessed, as well as the learning outcomes and assessment criteria for which the portfolio needs to provide evidence. They may also specify the range of contexts from which the portfolio contents need to be derived. In addition, the guidelines might specify that the portfolio entries should comply with a particular format, and that they should contain particular types of evidence. Thus, the guidelines can be constructed to ensure that learners provide evidence of the mobilisation, deployment and flexible adjustment of competences across a range of contexts and situations. The use of an e-portfolio has the additional benefit of enabling learners to include electronic entries such as audio and multimedia files. Portfolios can be tailored to the needs of particular learners, levels of education, education programmes and education contexts.

There are several advantages to using portfolios for assessment purposes in relation to CDC:

- they help learners to demonstrate their proficiency while simultaneously providing the scaffolding that can facilitate their further development;
they encourage learners to reflect critically on their own performance;
they allow learners to proceed at their own pace;
they can help learners to document the development of their competences as they are applied, adjusted and adapted in a variety of contexts inside and outside the classroom or school;
they enable learners themselves to take ownership of the assessment materials;
they can be used for both formative and summative assessment purposes.

One disadvantage associated with portfolios is that they are potentially vulnerable to social desirability effects, when learners select or change the contents of their portfolios so that they only contain material which they think will be viewed favourably by an assessor.

Assessment of portfolios requires specific training for assessors and can therefore be very difficult for teachers without training, with the result that reliability may be low. Portfolio assessments can also be very time-consuming to conduct.

Maximising validity and reliability in assessment

Irrespective of the method that is used for assessing CDC, there are measures that can be taken to maximise the validity and reliability of assessments. These include:

- the provision of teacher education on the principles of assessment, and on the threats to validity and reliability that are associated with each individual method of assessment;
- the provision of banks of assessed examples that are drawn from across the full proficiency range;
- moderation meetings using blind assessment (that is, when the assessor does not know the identity of the learner whose performance or products are assessed);
- comparing, discussing and resolving teachers’ judgments across the proficiency range.

In addition, when assessments are used for high-stakes purposes, further measures include:

- discussions between teachers from different institutions to compare their practices and assessment standards;
- regular/periodic review of assessment tools/forms/methods to adjust to changing contexts/education settings sharing assessed examples across institutions;
- external moderation.

Who should conduct the assessments?

It is often assumed that assessments need to be conducted by teachers or by specially trained assessors. However, assessments can also be carried out by one or more peers, or by learners themselves, or co-assessment may be used (which enables peers or the learner to conduct the assessment but allows the teacher to maintain some control over the final assessment).
Peer assessment and self-assessment have advantages because they can lead to learners acquiring a much better and clearer understanding of assessment criteria (and hence of learning outcomes) and of the quality of work that is expected, and they can also improve learner engagement with the learning process. However, it is important to ensure that validity and reliability are not compromised when individuals other than a trained teacher or assessor makes the assessment, which is why co-assessment provides an attractive option.

**Examples of dynamic clusters of competences**

In this section, we provide two examples to illustrate how democratic competence involves the dynamic mobilisation of clusters of competences that are applied and adjusted in a flexible and dynamic manner to meet the needs of democratic situations. The teaching of CDC needs to encourage the acquisition and utilisation of dynamic clusters of competences, while the assessment of CDC needs to use methods that can capture the flexible mobilisation, deployment and adjustment of clusters of competences according to situational needs.

**Example 1**

Activities and programmes related to the wider community are particularly well suited to develop competence clusters that combine the acquisition of new knowledge and critical understanding with the experience-based development of skills, attitudes and values. The encounter with unfamiliar people and phenomena is also a chance for self-reflection and adjustments of attitudes.

In this first example, the school conducts a project on religious diversity in the local community. Learners choose one of the religions represented in their city, which they will study over one week. First, they engage with some literature on this particular religion and critically reflect on how this religion is represented in a variety of media. Next, small groups of learners visit a place of worship connected to the religion on which they are focusing. Here, they work on an ethnographic observation task and talk to members and religious leaders of this religious community. Finally, learners work in groups in order to present their findings and experiences related to the religion and religious community to their co-learners.

During this process, a number of competences are activated, orchestrated and adjusted, as follows.

In the initial study phase, a number of competences are developed:

- Knowledge and critical understanding of culture, religion and history
- Autonomous learning skills
- Analytical and critical thinking.

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4. Example contributed by Claudia Lenz, Norwegian School of Theology, Norway.
During the course of the visit to the place of worship/encounter with members of the religious community, another cluster of competences is activated:

- Knowledge and critical understanding of culture, religion and history
- Skills of listening and observing
- Respect
- Communicative skills.

The encounter with the lived religion will probably challenge, contradict or conflict with some of the learner’s existing assumptions. This requires a central competence in the Framework:

- Tolerance of ambiguity.

Through the process of creating a presentation to be given to their peers, learners develop:

- Co-operation skills
- Communicative skills
- Self-efficacy.

Throughout the entire process, the following competences are involved:

- Openness to cultural otherness and to other beliefs, world views and practices
- Civic-mindedness
- Valuing cultural diversity.

**Assessment**

In this first example, a range of assessment methods could be applied and combined. The entire range of activities could be covered by project-based assessment. The learners could receive particular assignments to work on during and after each step of the project, allowing them to document and reflect on their learning process and on their ability to adapt their competences according to the situation. Learners could also keep a learning diary, following guidelines which focus on the specific values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding that are being developed and applied. In addition, they could use a guided self-reflection tool such as the *Autobiography of intercultural encounters* to help scaffold their reflections. As some of the activities in the project are conducted in smaller learner groups, learners could also give feedback to each other and assess each other’s competences. This would further help to familiarise them with the CDC descriptors. The products resulting from these various activities could also be incorporated into a larger portfolio that is compiled over an extended period of time (for example an entire school year).

**Example 2**

Contemporary mathematics education promotes an understanding of mathematics that moves beyond the rote memorisation of facts and procedures that was common in the 20th century. The focus is now on the development of learners’ mathematical

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5. See: [www.coe.int/t/dg4/autobiography/default_en.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/autobiography/default_en.asp)
6. Example contributed by Manuela Wagner and Fabiana Cardetti, University of Connecticut, USA.
proficiency and habits of mind necessary to work collaboratively with others in analysing authentic world problems with mathematics. The ability to engage in mathematical discussions and arguments is crucial to making progress in problem solving, as well as in the interpretation and presentation of results.

An example of this approach is a project in which learners use mathematical reasoning to explore local and global water issues (e.g. accessibility, shortage, pollution or others). Learners use and improve proportional and algebraic reasoning skills, enhance statistical knowledge, and expand their understanding of mathematical representations. Starting with their personal water consumption, learners calculate the “water footprint” generated in each individual’s home, in the homes of a group of learners, and in the homes of the whole class. These are then compared to discover patterns and potential problems. Groups of learners then investigate water issues in their communities and choose a specific one to study in more depth at national and global levels. Based on their findings and supported by well-founded (mathematical) arguments, learners develop solutions for the chosen local water issue.

Learners may also conduct experimental testing of their solutions (in class or on-site), presenting results to the community, taking action to raise awareness and advocate for solutions to the specific water issue they investigated.

Throughout the process, CDC are activated. For example, to participate in discussions, learners need to be able to express their mathematical reasoning so that others can follow their thinking, seek out other perspectives on approaching a problem, be open to thinking about what others have to offer, and ask questions that help them clarify someone else’s rationale. They activate the following competences:

- Openness to cultural otherness and to other beliefs, world views and practices
- Skills of listening and observing
- Tolerance of ambiguity
- Co-operation skills
- Communicative skills.

Exploring and finding solutions to new problems involves comparing and relating different perspectives, developing new understandings to interact with new material and negotiating the content with others. They activate the following competences:

- Analytical and critical thinking skills
- Respect
- Conflict-resolution skills.

Learners learn to make critical judgments based on explicit criteria. They learn to support judgments with arguments that use mathematically sound insights and are backed by their interpretations and interactions with the relevant issues surrounding the problem. They activate the following competences:

- Knowledge and critical understanding of culture, religion and history
- Civic-mindedness
Assessment

As both CDC and other subject-specific competences are involved in this second example, a mixed-methods assessment approach could be applied. Learners could work on specific assignments covering different elements of the competence clusters throughout the project, and they could reflect on their learning process in a learning diary. At the end of the project, both the subject-specific skills and knowledge and some CDC could be assessed through presentations, oral or written examinations. Self-assessment, peer assessment and/or co-assessment could be used. Based on their observations and the learner reports, teachers could give learners formative feedback on their strengths and weaknesses, and on development opportunities. Alternatively, or additionally, the teacher could use a dynamic assessment approach to encourage learners to attain a higher level of achievement or proficiency. Once again, the products resulting from all of these activities could be incorporated into a larger portfolio that is compiled over an extended period of time.

Conclusion

It is paramount for any assessment of CDC that it should be an integral part of learning environments and processes which empower learners – it should encourage and support the learner’s self-esteem and help to identify perspectives for further learning.

Assessment should always be based on valid, reliable, equitable, transparent and practical methods. However, in the case of assessing CDC, it is also vital to ensure that the methods that are used are respectful of the dignity and rights of learners. In addition, equity and transparency carry particular importance in the case of assessing CDC. Any assessment practice that deviates from these principles would itself contradict the standards and values of an education that aims to strengthen and promote democratic values and respect for human dignity and human rights.

Assessment of CDC can contribute to increasing the status and visibility of education for democratic citizenship and human rights education within education systems that are dominated by measurable education outcomes. However, there are risks related to summative and high-stakes approaches, as well as challenges (particularly related to values and attitudes) which arise from the vital need to protect learners’ freedom of thought, conscience and religion.

When considering appropriate assessments in the context of the Framework, educators need to bear in mind the strengths and weaknesses of the various approaches and methods. Mixed-methods approaches, including self- and peer assessment, might be most feasible in many cases.

Assessments that are conducted by external stakeholders can provide additional information about the overall achievements and progress of a cohort of learners, and, if anonymised, can avoid some of the risks related to the individual learner.
External assessment may be particularly helpful for evaluating the effectiveness of a particular education system, institution or programme. In a holistic view of democratic education, the assessment of CDC can also be a valuable source of information for teachers’ evaluation of their teaching and can assist their planning and evaluation of teaching processes.

Further reading


Brookhart S. M. (2013), How to create and use rubrics for formative assessment and grading, ASCD, Alexandria, VA.


Isaacs T. et al. (2013), Key concepts in educational assessment, Sage, London.


Chapter 4

CDC and teacher education

Summary of contents

► Who is this chapter for?
► Purpose and overview
► Why is CDC relevant to teacher education and teacher educators?
► Integration and application of the CDC framework in teacher education
► Practice – How to achieve these objectives
► Recommendations
► Further reading
Who is this chapter for?

This chapter is addressed to pre-service and in-service teacher educators and teacher education institutions, education policy makers, school leaders as well as practising teachers (practitioners) in schools and student teachers.

The concept of “teachers” is used in this chapter in a generic sense and includes all professionals involved in the education process, both in the formal and non-formal context. Similarly, the concept of a “school” refers to all educational establishments while the concept of “teacher education institution” includes all (higher education and other) institutions that are engaged in the field of pre-service and in-service teacher education and training.

Purpose and overview

The chapter explains the role and multiple tasks of pre-service (initial) as well as in-service (continuous) teacher education and training in promoting and implementing education based on the CDC Framework. It explains why CDC is relevant to teacher education and teacher educators. The double dimension of CDC in teacher education is stressed: CDC for future as well as practising teachers and CDC for teacher education institutions. Further, it deals with the integration and application of the CDC Framework in teacher education and training. In their everyday work, teachers strive to provide quality education in their respective subject areas; however, they are also challenged to apply and implement the values underpinning the education system (for example human rights, democracy, cultural diversity, justice and the rule of law). In order to meet these challenges in an effective way, it is important that the knowledge, skills and competences that do not fall within the narrow subject area should not remain neglected. Applying the CDC approach means that these challenges are not left solely to the specific subject study orientation (such as civic education, history, ethics). On the contrary, the CDC approach must be applied as a transversal dimension of educating and training future and practising teachers in general. This section also tries to answer some key questions regarding implementation of the CDC Framework in teacher education.

The chapter presents three cases of good practice, from various European countries and in different perspectives, that might inspire individual institutions in implementing CDC principles and developing new practices. Finally, some recommendations are offered to education policy makers and teacher education institutions as well as to school leadership, practising and future teachers, along with suggestions for further reading.

Why is CDC relevant to teacher education and teacher educators?

The CDC approach would remain theory without properly educated and trained teachers; teachers are the only ones in a position to implement it in the field. The CDC approach applies not only to the education of pupils and students in schools, but also to the preparation of future teachers and the professional development of practising teachers. Finally, teacher education departments at higher education
institutions could also play an important role in the implementation of CDC in higher education institutions in general. Therefore, the role of teacher education institutions (units) is truly complex and multifaceted: it is not only to train teachers to be able to make effective use of the CDC Framework in schools and other educational institutions (the “technical” side), but also to equip them with a set of competences necessary for living together as democratic citizens in diverse societies (the “substantial” side). Teachers who themselves act successfully in the everyday life of democratic and culturally diverse societies will best fulfil their role in the classroom. In this sense, teacher education institutions are responsible for enhancing study programmes in which future teachers are educated and trained, and providing practising teachers with high-quality in-service courses, newly developed teaching materials and aids, new teaching methods and so on. It is equally important to engage in research and innovation projects which provide bases for improving existing practice both in schools and within teacher education institutions themselves.

It is therefore necessary to stress this double dimension of CDC in teacher education: on the one hand, competences for democratic culture enable future and practising teachers to tackle a range of challenges in their schools and classrooms successfully, and on the other, they are equally important for teacher education institutions and teacher educators facing similar challenges, but at higher education level and from a slightly different perspective.

In other words, to be able to educate children and young adults in ways that foster the development of CDC, teachers – including teachers of teachers – also need to develop these competences themselves. Their role as educators primarily (but not only) requires that they:

► value human dignity, human rights, cultural diversity, democracy, justice and the rule of law;
► be open to cultural otherness and to other beliefs, world views and practices, respectful and responsible, civic-minded, etc.;
► develop autonomous learning skills, in particular analytical and critical thinking skills, and including co-operation, conflict-resolution and other related skills;
► develop knowledge and critical understanding of the self, of language and communication and of the world.

As competence is always achieved through the interplay of different aspects of the four dimensions of values, attitudes, skills and knowledge/critical understanding, the CDC Framework implies a holistic approach. It is therefore necessary to pay due attention to all its aspects.

It should be emphasised again that the development of CDCs in future and practising teachers as well as teacher educators is an integral part of professional training, and therefore a continuous (self-)reflection and (self-)evaluation of this process is extremely important.
Using CDC for professional development

As part of pre- or in-service teacher education, teachers can reflect on how they develop their own CDC. This can, for example, take the form of learning diaries or logbooks, where the student teacher/teacher regularly reflects on:

- which competence components are being developed in a course, study programme or specific activity;
- their level of competence;
- what they can do to further develop these competences.

Student teachers and teachers can use the descriptors for self-reflection and self-assessment. In this way, they also get familiar with the different elements of the competence Framework and will find it easier to apply it in their teaching.

In addition to quality education in the field of various school-subject area(s), the central mission of teacher education and training is to upgrade competences in the fields of curriculum, pedagogy, assessment and whole-school approach. The development of CDC and related issues in these specific fields is addressed in Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 5 of this volume. Therefore, these chapters should be taken into account with the various sections of this chapter (Chapter 4), irrespective of the fact that they are often primarily focused on compulsory education: general principles and guidelines can be easily transferred to the specific field of teacher education.

Integration and application of the CDC Framework in teacher education

One of the aims of this chapter is to support teacher education institutions and their stakeholders by drawing attention to the structures, policies and practices needed to implement the CDC model. National education legislation always defines, inter alia, the values underpinning the education system and provides for ensuring human rights, democracy, cultural diversity, justice and the rule of law. For teachers being challenged to apply and implement this provision in education practice, good knowledge of the subject area they teach is a weak basis for competing with everyday challenges. Therefore, it is recommended that integration and application of the CDC model is consistently included in education and training of student teachers (namely future teachers) and in the professional development of practitioners (practising teachers). The key role in this belongs to pre-service and in-service teacher education institutions and professional development programmes.

Pre-service and in-service teacher education across Europe, and even within some national systems, is organised very differently. A number of countries have recently decided that the qualification of future teachers corresponds to the level of master’s degree, but this is not the case in all countries or for all teacher profiles. There are also differences in institutional contexts: teacher education programmes are carried out at universities as well as non-university institutions. There are parallel as well as consecutive ways of providing teacher education. All these approaches have their advantages and disadvantages.
This is particularly important in the education of subject teachers. In this area, the knowledge, skills and understanding that do not fall within the narrow subject area may often remain neglected. Applying the CDC approach in teacher education means that these issues are not restricted to the programmes for specific subject study (for example civic education, history, ethics). On the contrary, the CDC approach must be applied as a cross-cutting dimension of education and training of future teachers in general.

This point is specifically underlined in the consideration of the overall goals of education (see Chapters 1 and 5) as expressed in the education laws of all European countries. This value base of education is linked to a comprehensive idea of education: the ideal of Bildung, the lifelong process that enables people to make independent choices for their own lives, to address others as equals and interact with them in meaningful ways. All teachers and teacher educators, regardless of which subject they might be teaching, contribute to this educational goal. However, the way in which this is related to particular subjects should not be left to mere intuition. The CDC Framework offers a concrete support for teacher education institutions and individual teacher educators in developing comprehensive curricula and pedagogies (see Chapters 1 and 2). Moreover, it can help student teachers to develop an awareness of the full scope of their role as teachers and professional ethos.

It is important to distinguish between pre-service and in-service teacher education. The roles of these two stages of teacher education are very different and for this reason they must be carefully distinguished in the process of implementing the principles of CDC in education practice. Pre-service education should especially, but not only, aim to prepare future teachers to understand the importance of CDC irrespective of their specialised subject orientation and ensure that they are capable of pursuing this approach in everyday school practice. In-service education should focus particularly, but not exclusively, on the current challenges in specific situations at specific levels of education and in specific environments, helping practising teachers to become more competent and professional in their everyday work. In every school, teachers from several different age groups work together, and their pre-service as well as in-service education is in many ways quite different. Various modes of in-service education, including teachers’ communities of practice, can – and must – bridge these differences. In this regard, continuous professional development has an especially important role to play in developing teacher CDC.

It therefore follows that different types of teacher education will propose different ways of introducing CDC in their curriculum (see Chapter 1, for example, Using the CDC Framework for curricula). These varying approaches must be carefully considered and adapted to the later pedagogical work with pupils and students’ age groups. Implementing the CDC Framework requires motivation and commitment, shifts of perspective – the teacher having multiple roles to play – as well as the personal and shared responsibility of teachers. In this respect, several important questions should be raised and answered concerning the role of teacher education institutions.

The principal question is: What can and what should teacher education institutions do in this regard? They can and should:
1. support practising teachers in a quality and efficient way through in-service courses, by developing teaching materials, promoting new teaching methods, etc.;

2. enhance their pre-service courses, in which future teachers are educated and trained;

3. engage in research and innovation at teacher education institutions, both to strengthen the research-based character of their study programmes and to inform policy makers, programme developers and other stakeholders.

The next issue in this area concerns the complex and multiple role of teacher education institutions, which are called upon to:

a. motivate and support practising and future teachers and teacher educators (namely staff at these institutions) so that they develop their own competences for democratic culture; and in so doing become more apt in this field in their daily work to help students, student teachers and practitioners to develop the values, attitudes, skills and understanding that are described in the model of competences required for democratic culture (see Volume 1);

b. (re)train practising and/or future teachers to be able to promote the development of competences for democratic culture and intercultural dialogue through their (future) daily work with children and young people in schools;

c. integrate the development of competences for democratic culture and intercultural dialogue into their institutional mission (see Chapter 5); the development of these competences is not just a matter of transferring knowledge to pre-service and/or in-service teachers via education courses but concerns the institution in all its purposes and functions.

This multiple role raises a number of further questions which institutions must try to respond to in order to meet the challenges of developing CDC, for example:

► Are CDC integrated into existing curricula in an appropriate manner?

► Are teacher educators aware of and adequately prepared for performing this task?

► Do they pay enough attention to this dimension in their everyday work?

► Is this task rather prescriptive or is it formulated in a way which requires creativity and academic freedom?

► Is this task integrated in their research and innovative work? Do they include students?

► Is this task treated as related only to those members of academic staff who are directly concerned in their courses with various issues related to democratic culture (e.g. philosophy of education; sociology of education; civic education; ethics; education and media) or is it understood as a wider task which should be addressed accordingly in all subject areas? In what ways?

► Concerning in-service courses: Do all practising teachers, regardless of the subject they teach, have access to training in CDC; is this training connected to their teaching practice and challenges in the classroom?
This is an open-ended list and, therefore, further issues can be addressed and discussed in different environments across different countries and different levels of education.

**Using CDC for the revision of existing courses or study programmes**

If a teacher education institution or faculty decides to include a focus on democracy systematically in their existing courses and study programmes, CDC can be used in order to reach a comprehensive and balanced result.

Existing courses can in a first step be evaluated by using the 20 components of the competence model:

- Which competences are already addressed, either by the contents, the teaching methods or student activities/assignments?
- Which elements are missing?

In a second step, content can be added, teaching methods changed or assignments included, which address additional competence elements, or even the whole range of the model.

In the case of the revision of study programmes, these two steps can contribute to better coherence and synergies between different courses within the programme.

If this revision is done in a way that involves the teaching staff of an institution or faculty, it prepares the teachers/educators in a very effective way to include CDC in their teaching.

The success of individual institutions in the development of competences for democratic culture depends on the answers to these and similar questions. As regards the functioning of teacher education institutions, the following possible forms of activity can be undertaken:

- spreading information on those institutions that have been recognised for good practice in this area (nationally and internationally);
- encouragement to carry out intentional pilot projects (project groups within an institution; inter-institutional consortia; collaboration between teacher education institutions and schools at local, regional, national and European/international level);
- recognition of the necessity of integrating CDC in study programmes and/or courses in an array of ways, to include participation and community outreach as an integrated part of the programmes/courses with a credit system (e.g. ECTS): the development of CDC can be sometimes more efficient when action/participation in the economic, social and political sphere and the broader environment in which these institutions operate is integrated in formal study programmes and/or courses.

As regards study programmes and/or courses, several possible forms of activity related to developing CDC can be undertaken at all teacher education institutions:
developing and providing in-service specialised courses for practising teachers (diversified in relevant ways, e.g. those for teachers in social sciences and in other subject areas; for teachers teaching at different levels);

integrating and implementing necessary elements/topics in pre-service study programmes (compulsory courses) already provided;

developing and providing specialised, advanced and/or optional courses (e.g. at master's level) that could target those (future) teachers, who will later take on the role of disseminators (co-ordinators) at the level of individual schools;

promoting relevant topics at the level of doctoral studies in teacher education and educational sciences.

Using CDC for educational research and teachers’ action research

Teacher education institutions are in different degrees involved in research activities. In some countries, teacher education faculties are part of universities and have master's and PhD programmes, and the teaching staff have the possibility of doing their own research. In these cases, CDC can be a framework for empirical studies on a wide range of topics, such as the ways clusters of competences are developed in specific subjects or cross-curricular teaching in schools, how schools work with democratic school cultures, etc. The insight from this research can, in turn, be used in pre- as well as in-service courses for teachers.

In institutions without research accreditation, teachers can use CDC for the systematic reflection of their own teaching practice, for instance taking the form of action research.

Teacher education institutions can also co-operate with schools and support the teaching staff in using CDC for action research or other forms of systematic evaluation of their teaching practice or other aspects of school life.

In this challenging work, institutions can help with the guidance for implementation in all three present volumes. In addition to the model of competences (see Volume 1), descriptors of competences for democratic culture will be of great help, especially those at advanced level (see Volume 2). In the renewal and/or restructuring of study programmes, courses and other activities, other chapters of Volume 3 can be helpful: organisation and design of curricula (see Chapter 1), pedagogical methods and approaches (see Chapter 2), specific aspects of assessment in CDC (see Chapter 3) and a whole-school approach to develop CDC (see Chapter 5). Finally, in the specific context of teacher education programmes, building resilience to violent extremism and terrorism (see Chapter 6) may also find an important place.

Co-operation between teacher education institutions from several European countries should be especially encouraged; the Erasmus+ programme is highly recommended as an appropriate instrument for this. There are, of course, other available programmes which support these kinds of activities. In particular, the EU Comenius programme could support the development of CDC in institutions and with teachers by allowing educators to go on specific study visits to share good practices and develop strong networking.
The implementation of the CDC Framework at the level of teacher education institutions, and consequently the development of CDC, is a challenging task. This demanding work will be significantly facilitated if institutions systematically examine the issues discussed above, relate them to their own practice and reformulate them accordingly, find comprehensive answers to them and, on this basis, prepare their own strategy in the field of developing CDC.

**Practice – How to achieve these objectives**

Although it has just been said that the implementation of the CDC Framework is a challenging task, we must be aware that we are not at the very beginning of a long and unknown path. Many steps have already been taken and in this area we can learn a lot from each other. Below are three practical examples of cases of good practice in this field.7

**Case No.1: The Tuning Project**

Among the important questions addressed above we asked: Are CDC integrated into existing curricula in an appropriate manner? One of the difficult issues that individual teacher education institutions can encounter is the question of how to design a study programme that focuses on competence development and learning outcomes. The Tuning Project (launched in 2000, still ongoing, see the website below) can be of great help: it is a project initially designed to “tune” higher education study programmes in different disciplinary areas across Europe, and which later spread successfully all around the world. One of the areas involved from the beginning of the first phase of the project was that of teacher education. The project results include, among other issues, two “tuned” lists of the key competences (general as well as subject-specific) that institutions of initial teacher education should implement in their curricula. These lists contain, *inter alia*, a number of competences related to CDC. For more details see Tuning Project (2009), pp. 40 and 42-43.

On this basis, many European teacher education institutions have modernised and/or updated their study programmes in recent years and made them mutually compatible and comparable. These institutions are likely to implement the current CDC Framework more easily, as some of them already have considerable experience in this. They could also participate and advise on similar efforts at institutions that do not yet have such experience. European co-operation can be a very important means of supporting and facilitating implementation of the CDC Framework.

For further information see: www.unideusto.org/tuningeu/subject-areas/education.html.

**Case No. 2: Life is Diversity (*Leben ist Vielfalt*) students’ network**

Above, we have already highlighted the importance of connecting and involving all actors in teacher education. It was mentioned that developing CDC should be integrated in research and innovative work and that student teachers should be

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involved in activities. The network Life is Diversity is a case of good practice in this area: it was set up in 2011 by a group of student teachers and practising teachers in co-operation with the Network of Teachers with a Migrant Background (Netzwerk Lehrkräfte mit Zuwanderungsgeschichte) in North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany, and the Centre for Education Research and Teacher Education (Zentrum für Bildungsforschung und Lehrerbildung – PLAZ) at the University of Paderborn, Germany. The network, which has become a registered university group since 2016, is located at the University of Paderborn but its activities are not limited to the university and reach out to the community and city of Paderborn.

The main target group of the network is student (or future) teachers, but practising teachers and other relevant groups such as university staff are also targeted.

The network was initially intended for student teachers with a migrant background, but it soon shifted its focus towards all students. The main aim of the network is to prepare student teachers to teach in diverse classrooms. More specifically, the network helps student teachers develop intercultural sensitivity, inspire ideas and promote the implementation of intercultural practices in schools. It also acts as a forum for discussion and exchange about challenges and approaches in teaching in diverse classrooms, providing student teachers with specific knowledge and practical experiences, etc.

For further information see: www.schooleducationgateway.eu/de/pub/resources/toolkitsforschools/detail.cfm?n=2921

Case No. 3: Responding to Student Diversity in the Primary Classroom

Teaching in classes characterised by social, linguistic, cultural and other differences is one of the more difficult problems that today’s teachers face in our schools. Are teachers and teacher educators aware of and adequately prepared for performing this task? The Maltese project Responding to Student Diversity in the Primary Classroom provides important experience in this area. It was first developed in 1996 for primary education teachers in Malta, initially aimed at preparing teachers for the inclusion of students with disabilities. However, with a significant increase in immigrant students in Malta since 2002, and through a Comenius project in 2004-07, it shifted its focus to responding to the students’ increasing ethnic and cultural diversity. The unit was first offered as an optional course and was later made compulsory for second- and third-year bachelor’s degree student teachers enrolled in primary education programmes at the University of Malta. This unit has been an integral part of the new master’s in Teaching and Learning since October 2016. The unit aims to prepare student teachers to teach students with diverse backgrounds, through gaining both theoretical knowledge and practical experience on diversity.

There are two main aspects of the unit’s activities: theoretical and practical training. In the first semester, student teachers are introduced to the topics of diversity and inclusion, and to approaches on how these can be addressed in the classroom, for example, through the use of individual educational planning (IEP) (through reflection on one’s own background, discussion and group work). In the second semester, while student teachers are doing their six-week teaching practice, they have to
identify a pupil who is having some difficulty in coping with learning and implement an IEP for that student’s inclusion in the education process.

For further information see “Study-Unit Description PRE2806 Responding to diversity in the primary classroom”, University of Malta, 2015, available at: www.um.edu.mt/educ/studyunit/PRE2806.

Recommendations

General

► The starting point for implementing and developing CDC in education is motivated, appropriately supported and well-trained teachers at all levels of education, including teacher educators at teacher education institutions. The condition for a teacher’s successful pedagogical engagement with her/his pupils and students is work on herself/himself: a teacher as well as a teacher educator has to develop competences for democratic culture. This should be considered an important part of continuous school-based professional development (through, for example, a community of practice, action research, etc.) and not only the task of teacher education institutions. All actors must therefore strive to contribute, through their action and on different levels, to strengthening competences of teachers in this field.

To education policy makers

► Review the existing national (regional and/or local when appropriate) strategies and regulation regarding the organisation of study programmes and/or courses which provide future (student) teachers and/or practising teachers with a broadening and deepening of competences in the area of CDC and react to your findings in an appropriate way.

► Prepare an action plan to implement the CDC Framework in the national education system; in this context, pay special attention to pre-service and in-service teacher education and collaborate closely with both teacher education institutions and schools.

► Provide material and human resources necessary for implementing the CDC Framework and, in particular, provide conditions for educating and training practitioners in all areas and at all levels.

To teacher education institutions

► Review your offer of teacher education and training courses and pay attention to the difference between specific needs of future (student) teachers versus practising teachers, and adjust your pre-service and in-service programmes accordingly.

► Review the extent and the depth in which your study programmes and/or courses provide future (student) teachers and/or practising teachers with a broadening and deepening of competences in this area and react to your findings in an appropriate way.
Make sure that the topics related to CDC are regularly included on the agenda of relevant decision-making bodies in your institution; analyse findings and consider possible improvements to your study programmes and research and/or developmental projects (including action research together with practising teachers and/or PhD research projects where and when appropriate).

In your contacts with schools and other institutions in which your students do their internship and/or your graduates are employed, pay due attention to the CDC issues; consider their needs and observations in improving your programmes and other relevant activities.

Future (student) teachers as well as practising teachers need to be supported in developing open-mindedness; international student exchange programmes and international exchange programmes for practising teachers can contribute substantially to this goal.

Pay attention not only to the regular study programmes and courses, but also to your co-operation in organising other relevant activities (e.g. summer schools, youth camps, various workshops, action research projects together with school teachers).

To head teachers and school leadership

Build a democratic culture in your school first.

Consider challenges in conjunction with the CDC which your teachers encounter in their work, identify relevant in-service teacher training courses, workshops and other activities and help your teachers in terms of organisation and financing to participate in these activities.

Consider challenges in the field of CDC encountered by teachers in your school, give them support and encourage them to organise study circles, which could improve their competences in this area.

Make sure that topics related to CDC are regularly included on the agenda of pedagogical meetings in your school; analyse findings and report on your needs and observations to relevant teacher education institutions, education policy makers and other stakeholders.

Do your best to improve opportunities for in-service teacher training (both off-school and school based) and teachers' professional development in your school.

To practising teachers

Consider challenges in conjunction with CDC which you encounter in your work and familiarise yourself with the offer of relevant courses, workshops, on-the-job training and other activities within the in-service teacher training system in your school or country.

Consider challenges in the field of CDC encountered by teachers in your school (or teachers of a particular subject area in neighbouring schools, etc.) and try to organise joint study circles, which could improve your competences in this area.

Initiate action research projects in parallel with your pedagogical work; when possible, join teacher education institutions with such projects.
Get to know what options to improve your competences in the field of CDC are available in various informal activities, like taking part as a teacher in relevant summer schools, youth camps, workshops, etc.

**To student teachers**

- Find out what options for improving your competences for democratic culture are included in your study programme; pay special attention to the deadlines for signing on.
- Find out what options for improving your CDC would allow you to participate in exchange programmes such as the European Union’s Erasmus+ programme.
- Find out what options for improving your CDC are available in various informal activities (including those organised by NGOs) like relevant summer schools, youth camps, workshops, etc.

**Further reading**


CDC supporting documents on curriculum, pedagogy, assessment and on preventing radicalisation and violent extremism.


Chapter 5

CDC and the whole-school approach

Summary of contents

► Who is this chapter for?
► Purpose and overview
► The added value of a whole-school approach
► Key concepts
► How to apply a whole-school approach to develop CDC in learners in practice
► Forward-looking conclusions
► Resources
Who is this chapter for?

This chapter is first and foremost addressed to all stakeholders in schools – school leaders, teachers, other school employees, students, parents and local community actors such as local education authorities, NGOs, parents’ associations, school boards, etc.

Although specifically addressing a whole-school approach, much of this chapter is also relevant for higher education institutions through a whole-institutional approach.

Purpose and overview

The chapter explores the added value of a whole-school approach in developing a democratic culture at school and the competences that need to be acquired by learners if they are to participate effectively in a culture of democracy and live peacefully together with others in culturally diverse democratic societies.

There is quite substantial evidence to suggest that whole-school approaches – which integrate democratic values and human rights principles into teaching and learning, governance and the overall atmosphere of the school – contribute significantly to young learners’ experience of, development of and practice of democratic competences.

This chapter explores the key concepts commonly contributed to a whole-school approach: teaching and learning, school governance and culture, co-operation with the community. It gives some examples of how clusters of competences from the CDC model can come into play in each of the three areas, and looks at possible benefits of applying a whole-school approach to developing competences for a democratic culture in learners, for a democratic school culture and ultimately for a sustainable democratic and inclusive society for all.

The added value of a whole-school approach

What is the added value of adopting a whole-school approach in order to develop a democratic school culture and competences for democratic culture in learners? Competences for democratic culture are important for learners, but also for schools as an institution and for the community as a whole. If they are to participate effectively in a culture of democracy and live peacefully together with others in culturally diverse democratic societies, citizens need to be able to recognise and practise democratic principles. These principles are set out formally in the Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education.

For democracy and human rights to become a reality in daily life in a society, they should become a reality in daily life in schools. Schools are where young people often get their first opportunity outside the family to develop and practise the democratic competences that they need for active engagement and living together in diverse societies.

Making democracy and human rights a reality in the daily life of schools is not only a question of classroom teaching. It is a function of all aspects of school life. Participation in shared decision making and school governance, for example, helps
all school actors, and in particular young people, to gain practical knowledge of and develop trust in the democratic and participative processes. It encourages them to practise their own democratic competences with increased confidence.

A whole-school approach to CDC ensures that all aspects of school life – curricula, teaching methods and resources, leadership and decision-making structures and processes, policies and codes of behaviour, staff and staff–student relationships, extracurricular activities and links with the community – reflect democratic and human rights principles. In turn, this may create a safe learning environment where these principles can be explored, experienced and even challenged in a peaceful way. Engaging the whole school in creating a positive and safe learning environment might also influence student achievement positively and even increase their life satisfaction. Students who feel part of a school community and enjoy good relations with their parents and teachers are more likely to perform better academically and be happier with their lives.

Key concepts

A whole-school approach implies the active involvement and commitment of all stakeholders in a school. The joint effort and co-operation of school administration, teachers, students and parents as well as local community members in school life are essential.

School life has many facets. At least three key areas need to be considered as part of a whole-school approach to develop a democratic culture at school and competences for democratic culture in learners: teaching and learning, school governance and culture, co-operation with the community.

These three areas are not entirely separated from each other but overlap, which means that actions in one area will have an impact on the others. However, it is important to remember that creating a democratic functioning school, and thus integrating principles of democracy and human rights into all areas, is a gradual process and will take time.

Likewise, it is important to consider that competences for democratic culture are unlikely to be deployed individually. Competent behaviour is likely to arise from the flexible use of clusters of competences in response to the particular demands that are presented by specific situations. This is relevant for all three areas, as shown in the boxes below.

Teaching and learning

The school’s formal programme, including curriculum and lesson planning, teaching and learning methodology and extracurricular activities, provides opportunities for learning about democracy and human rights at a formal level.

In the curriculum, competences for democratic culture might be incorporated into the school’s academic programme:

► in the form of a new subject or course;
into different curriculum subjects;
► as a cross-curricular theme incorporated into all or some curriculum subjects.

For further information, see Chapter 1 on curriculum.

Teaching and learning methodologies and learning environments potentially have a great impact on the development of competences for democratic culture in learners, in particular by giving learners opportunities to learn through experiencing democracy and human rights in action in the classroom. This can be done by:

► ensuring the classroom is a safe space where students feel able to discuss their views openly, even when their views may be controversial, by creating an open, participative and respectful classroom environment that allows all class members to share their experiences, to express their own opinions and emotions, and where the students participate in the setting and respecting of ground rules, such as listening to and respecting others;
► creating opportunities for students to participate in their own learning, e.g. through peer assessment, student-generated questions, or co-research;
► facilitating forms of co-operative learning across the curriculum through the use of different forms of group and team work, e.g. paired, small and large group work;
► finding ways for teachers to work collaboratively to include CDC across the curriculum, to reflect on how their practice may facilitate, or hinder, equity and equal access to learning, and engage in action research to develop ownership of approaches for the inclusion of CDC in their teaching and assessment practices;
► creating opportunities for students to acquire positive high-quality participation experiences through projects in which the experiences are focused on issues that are of importance to the students themselves;
► providing students with the opportunity to find out about and explore alternative ways of perceiving issues, enable them to consider and discuss alternative perspectives with others, to participate in group and institutional decision making and to take part in action that is aimed at producing change on the issues concerned.

For further information, see Chapter 2 on pedagogy.

Extracurricular activities are important arenas for developing and practising democratic competences, and for active engagement in school and societal issues. For instance:

► plan and run a whole-school or part-school activity on an aspect of education for democratic citizenship and human rights, e.g. an outreach programme or a study of economic conditions in the neighbourhood;
► organise out-of-lesson groups, activities or projects relating to education for democratic citizenship and human rights, e.g. a discussion group, debating society or young citizens’ action group.

Through democratic teaching and learning practices clusters of competences might come into play. For instance, a conversation on a sensitive or controversial issue, held in a safe atmosphere, and by giving voice to all arguments and perspectives, while encouraging perspective-taking, might:
support the development of self-effi cacy and empathy;
– foster analytical and critical thinking skills;
– develop tolerance of ambiguity;
– contribute to valuing democracy and fairness;
– strengthen knowledge and critical understanding of the topic discussed.

School governance and culture

The organisational culture of a school can help people in the school community to play a role in the way the school is governed and managed – through its approach to leadership, vision, system of governance and decision-making processes, student participation and general working atmosphere. A democratic approach to school governance helps create a culture of openness and trust in the school and improve relations between its members.

An inclusive school ethos which is safe and welcoming, where relations between staff and between staff and students are positive, and where everyone feels they have a part to play and their human rights are respected, will better facilitate development of competences for democratic culture. To this end, school administration, teachers, parents, students and other stakeholders may join their efforts to make school governance and environment more democratic, including its approach to management and decision making, school policies, rules and procedures, student participation and general school environment. Such efforts may include concrete actions as suggested below.

Leadership and school management (including school planning, evaluation and development)

► Develop a leadership style nurtured by respect for human rights, democratic principles, equal treatment, participatory decision making and responsible accountability.

► Encourage participation of all stakeholders in the review of the whole-school environment and its capacity to promote democratic citizenship and respect for human rights – including programme coherence, extracurricular activities and school governance, for example through review meetings, observations, liaison with student representatives, school-wide surveys, and feedback from parents and community actors, etc.

Decision making

► Establish inclusive and participative decision-making structures and procedures, including powers for teachers, students and parents in setting agendas and participating in policy decisions, for example through representation on school boards and working parties, focus groups or consultations.

Policies, rules and procedures

► Draw up and revise school policies to reflect the values and principles of democratic citizenship and human rights, including general policies on issues
such as equality and sexual orientation, and special interventions, for example anti-bullying programmes.

- Introduce functioning rules at school that guarantee equal treatment and equal access for all students, teachers and other members of staff regardless of their ethnicity, cultural identity, lifestyle or beliefs; establish procedures for peaceful and participatory resolution of conflicts and disputes.

**Student participation**

- Develop opportunities for students to express their views on matters of concern to them, both in relation to school and to wider issues, and participate in decision making at school and in the community, for example through class discussion, student councils, surveys and suggestion boxes, representation on working parties and policy groups, presentations in school assemblies and debating clubs.

- Make sure that participative approaches that the students are involved in are authentic, meaning participation as an exercise of power and a means of taking over responsibility, while clarifying conditions and limitations of participation to avoid pseudo-participation or the notion of “just pretending”.

Student participation and inclusive forms of decision making have a great impact on the development of CDC, as they allow for experience-based learning (learning through). This dimension of school life helps to develop several competence clusters including:

- Civic-mindedness, responsibility and self-efficacy
- Analytical and critical thinking skills and communicative skills
- Knowledge and critical understanding of politics (decision-making mechanisms)
- Valuing democracy and fairness.

**Co-operation with the community**

A school’s relations with the wider community – including parents, authorities, NGOs, universities, businesses, media, health workers and other schools – can help to foster a culture of democracy in the school. Schools that partner with NGOs, for instance, can benefit from such actions as increased training opportunities, visiting experts and project support. Close links with the community can also help schools address relevant community issues. Schools can co-operate with the community in a number of ways.

**Parents and community participation**

- Encourage parents or community members with expertise relating to aspects of education for democratic citizenship and human rights to contribute to teaching and learning on a voluntary basis, for example lawyers, health professionals, politicians or charity workers.
Facilitate student projects designed to solve community problems or challenges, for example relating to personal safety, youth crime, or old or vulnerable citizens, etc.

**School to school partnership**

- Set up or join a network of schools for sharing resources and experiences.
- In the case of culturally or religiously homogeneous schools, establish cooperative and learning links with other schools to enable students to have meaningful interactions and contact with students from other ethnic backgrounds and religions.
- Facilitate online dialogue with students in schools in other countries to discuss social, cultural and global issues from a variety of national and cultural perspectives, and perhaps to take action together on those issues that are of mutual concern to the students.

**Partnerships with community institutions**

- Develop partnerships with, for example, NGOs, youth organisations, higher education institutions, etc., to enhance aspects of the school programme of education for democratic citizenship and human rights in and out of school.
- Develop partnerships with local authorities to encourage participation of students in formal governance structures representing young people, for example youth councils or local municipalities, and to encourage local authorities to seek out proactively the views of students on civic matters that have relevance to the lives of young people, in order to foster their active citizenship and political participation.
- Develop partnerships with religious and belief organisations in their local community, to facilitate student visits to religious institutions and places of worship, and visits by members of faith communities to the school.
- Develop partnerships for action with advocacy groups promoting human rights, e.g. LGBTQ, anti-racism, women’s rights, children’s rights and other issues that students express their interest in.

Activities and programmes related to the wider community are particularly well suited to developing competence clusters which combine the achievement of new knowledge and critical understanding but also experience-based development of skills and attitudes. The encounter with unfamiliar people and phenomena is also a chance for self-reflection and adjustments of attitudes. For instance, student projects designed to solve community problems or challenges might:

- contribute to civic-mindedness, responsibility and self-efficacy;
- strengthen empathy;
- develop flexibility and adaptability as well as co-operation skills;
- foster knowledge and critical understanding of the self as well as culture, society and environment.
Below are some examples of the possible benefits of applying a whole-school approach to developing competences for democratic culture in learners, in schools and communities.

**Individuals**
- Increase in empathy among students.
- Improved co-operation among students–students, students–teachers, etc.
- Students are listening more to each other.
- Stronger sense of responsibility (for own learning and school environment).
- Increase in civic-mindedness (students show a stronger interest in community issues).
- Students show more respect towards each other and their teachers.

**Schools/classroom**
- Teachers feel more confident about applying democratic citizenship and human rights education.
- Classes which include elements of democratic citizenship and human rights education components tend to use interactive methodology for teaching and learning more often.
- More positive learning environment at schools based on openness and trust.
- Improved collaboration, including between students and teachers, teachers and teachers, school management and staff, and between teachers and parents.

**Community**
- Partnership with NGOs and local authorities resulting in possibilities for students to experience how democracy works in practice.
- Partnerships with actors in the local communities result in more training possibilities for teachers and expert support when implementing democratic and human rights-based initiatives.

**How to apply a whole-school approach to develop CDC in learners in practice**

At operational level, applying a whole-school approach to CDC shifts the focus from developing purely individual competences towards building a democratic learning environment where clusters of democratic competences can be learned and practised.

From this point of view, CDC and a whole-school approach provides a valuable development perspective for schools on how to become more democratic, taking into consideration key areas of school life such as teaching and learning, school governance and culture, and co-operation with the community. In this way, development of a democratic school culture and competences of democratic culture in learners becomes a school mission.
There are many ways of applying a whole-school approach in school. Below are some key principles and five possible stages of application.

**Key principles**

► *Respect for the local context and local ways of working.* A democratic culture cannot be imposed on a society from the outside, but needs to be built by citizens themselves, just as a democratic school culture cannot be imposed from outside, but needs to be built by involving all stakeholders.

► *Empowering all stakeholders to develop their own solutions to challenges based on situation assessment.* There is no one master solution to the challenges faced by individuals across different institutions and countries. Through assessment of the current situation at school, including its needs and capacity, key stakeholders get a better understanding of specific challenges and are empowered to develop their own tailor-made actions. This in turn increases the sense of ownership and of motivation for change.

► *Encouraging learning by doing with the participation of all stakeholders.* Democratic competences are best developed through daily practice, including through participatory decision making, respectful and equal relations, and democratic teaching and learning methods. This implies a committed partnership of all stakeholders – ranging from students, teachers, school leaders and parents to local authorities and other community actors – which explains the importance of approaching education institutions as a whole in learning and promoting the culture of democracy.

► *Integrating capacity-building into the school planning process.* Changes in school culture are more sustainable when they are built into a school’s formal planning process.

► *Supporting local projects and initiatives over the long term.* It takes both time and effort to overcome resistance to change and transform relations and practices in schools. Systemic change cannot be achieved by a one-off effort. Long-term support is crucial for tangible outcomes and sustainable impact.

**Five stages of application**

Below are five steps a school can take to become more democratic through applying a whole-school approach to the development of a democratic school culture and the development of competences for democratic culture in learners.

1. Conduct a situation analysis to identify how principles of democracy and human rights are integrated into school life, including strengths and weaknesses, and with the participation of all stakeholders (e.g. whole-school assessments, SWOT analysis).

2. Identify potential areas of change and develop an action plan with concrete activities you will undertake to achieve these changes (e.g. CDC as the expected learning outcome).

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8. Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
3. Implement the action plan involving the school community.
4. Evaluate progress and assess the impact of your work.
5. Share lessons learned with all stakeholders involved in your efforts as well as with other schools and plan further actions accordingly.

**Forward-looking conclusions**

It is recommended that all stakeholders in school consider the added value of a whole-school approach to develop a democratic school culture and competences for democratic culture in learners. Much research evidence shows that when learners experience a safe learning environment in which democratic and human rights values and principles can be explored, understood and experienced, they are more likely to:

- have higher levels of civic knowledge;
- support democratic values;
- develop an understanding of their own rights as well as their responsibilities towards other people;
- become supportive of the rights of others;
- develop higher-order critical thinking and reasoning skills;
- develop positive and socially responsible identities;
- develop positive and co-operative relationships with their peers based on listening, respect and empathy;
- accept responsibility for their own decisions;
- develop positive attitudes towards inclusivity and diversity in society;
become engaged with political and social issues;
- feel empowered as citizens who can challenge injustice, inequality and poverty in the world;
- engage in democratic activities in the future.

In conclusion, taking a whole-school approach to develop a democratic school culture and competences for democratic culture in learners has significant potential for supporting young people to become knowledgeable, thoughtful, responsible, engaged and empowered citizens.

Resources


Chapter 6

CDC and building resilience to radicalisation leading to violent extremism and terrorism

Summary of contents

► Who is this chapter for?
► Purpose and overview
► Why is the Framework relevant to building resilience to radicalisation?
► Definitions of radicalisation, violent extremism and terrorism
► Variability in the radicalisation process
► The conditions that can lead to radicalisation
► Resilience to radicalisation
► The relevance of the Framework to building resilience to radicalisation
► Practice – How to achieve these objectives
► Recommendations
► Resources
► Further reading
Who is this chapter for?

This chapter is addressed to:

► political decision makers and policy makers with responsibilities for democratic governance, public authorities, social integration, social cohesion, policing, security and education;
► educators with responsibilities for social integration, social cohesion, student welfare and security (e.g. heads and senior staff of education institutions);
► education practitioners;
► parents, parent associations and school boards;
► the police, members of security services and other state actors involved in the prevention of violent extremism and terrorism.

The use of more technical language to discuss radicalisation leading to violent extremism and terrorism has been deliberately avoided in this chapter in order to make the issues more understandable to a non-specialist readership.

Purpose and overview

This chapter explains why education based on the Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture (henceforward the Framework) has a central role to play in the prevention of radicalisation leading to violent extremism and terrorism. The Framework emphasises using education to equip young people with competences for democratic culture. These competences boost individuals’ resilience to the conditions that can initiate radicalisation, and build resistance to dehumanising behaviour and to the use of violence as a means of conflict resolution. In addition, developing these competences endows individuals with the capacity and the disposition to contribute to an inclusive society and to effect change through peaceful democratic expression and action rather than through violence.

For this approach to be successful, state institutions need to ensure that their structures are responsive to the concerns of citizens and strengthen their legitimacy through deliberative dialogue and robust democratic engagement. Accompanying actions also need to be taken to address the broader problems of disadvantage, discrimination and exclusion that are experienced by marginalised populations. A central feature of the strategy is the creation of a society that is democratic and underpinned by human rights.

The approach advocated by this chapter is aimed at preventing the initiation of radicalisation into violent extremism (rather than using education for deradicalisation after radicalisation has already begun). In other words, the approach based on the Framework is preventative (rather than reactive).

The chapter addresses two action plans that have been published by the Council of Europe: the Action Plan on the Fight against Violent Extremism and Radicalisation leading to Terrorism, and the Action Plan on Building Inclusive Societies.
Why is the Framework relevant to building resilience to radicalisation?

The Framework is relevant to building resilience to the conditions that can initiate radicalisation because the competences that are contained in the Framework are precisely the competences that young people require to:

- critically analyse, evaluate, challenge and reject violent extremist and terrorist communications, propaganda and rhetoric;
- avoid oversimplistic “us versus them” reasoning in their thinking, understand the complexity of social and political issues, and accept that these issues cannot always be adequately addressed through simplistic responses or solutions;
- imaginatively apprehend, understand and appreciate the beliefs, perspectives and world views of other people, and recognise that other people’s perspectives may be just as valid as their own when viewed from their position;
- understand and appreciate how non-violent democratic means are more effective tools to use for the peaceful expression of citizens’ views and opinions, for managing differences of opinions, and for pursuing political and social causes;
- value human dignity, human rights, cultural diversity, democracy, justice and the rule of law.

Definitions of radicalisation, violent extremism and terrorism

Four of the key terms that are used in this chapter (radicalisation, extremism, violent extremism and terrorism) are contested, with different authors using them to denote different underlying concepts. The four terms are used in the current chapter with the following specific meanings, which are intended to draw out their relationship to the concepts of human rights and democracy.

What is radicalisation?

A radical is someone who advocates for fundamental and far-reaching change or restructuring of a social or political system. The term therefore denotes not only those who use violence in an attempt to achieve deep reform, but also those who propose using legitimate and peaceful means to do so. However, in this chapter, we are concerned solely with radicals who advocate or use violent extremism or terrorism to try to achieve social or political change. As such, for the purposes of this chapter, “radicalisation” is defined as the process through which an individual moves towards supporting, advocating, assisting or using violent extremism or terrorism in order to bring about social or political change.

What is extremism?

From a human rights perspective, the term “extremism” may be defined as any position that deviates to a highly significant extent from the mainstream norms within a society, adopts highly unconventional beliefs that are at odds with those
of mainstream society, or is immoderate in the goals that it seeks to achieve or in the means that it advocates for achieving those goals. As such, if the behaviour that is associated with an extremist position does not violate or undermine the human rights of other people, or does not aim to introduce non-democratic social or political change, then that position should be respected. Under the European Convention on Human Rights, individuals who adopt an extremist position are entitled, like everyone else, to freedom of thought, conscience and religion, freedom of expression and freedom from discrimination, no matter how unusual or strange their position might appear to others.

However, in cases where an extremist position undermines, threatens or violates the human rights and freedoms of others, uses non-democratic means, or aims for non-democratic social or political change, restrictions need to be placed on those who adopt such a position. These restrictions should be those that are prescribed by law, are necessary to protect other people within a democratic society, and are proportionate to that need.

What is violent extremism?

“Violent extremism” is an extremist position that endorses, advocates or uses violence. Violent extremism does not necessarily have a transparent social or political goal. For example, it may be used to express hatred of the members of a particular racial, ethnic, national, religious or other cultural group, on whom the violence is inflicted directly, with no further explicit goal in mind. However, many violent extremists do have an underlying social or political goal which they attempt to achieve through the use of violence.

Inflicting violence on other people is the most profoundly anti-democratic act and the ultimate violation of the dignity and rights of others. Violent extremism must be opposed and prevented in any democratic society.

What is terrorism?

Terrorism is a more complex phenomenon than violent extremism – it is a special type of violent extremism that has the goal of generating terror in order to pursue political goals. The term “terrorism” may be defined as violent action, or the threat of violent action, without legal or moral restraint, that is designed to inspire fear, dread, anxiety or terror in a population. In terrorism, the immediate victims of the violence are chosen either randomly or selectively from the target population in order to generate a threat-based political message. This message is designed to manipulate its audience (either the government, the public or a section of the public), and to intimidate, demoralise, destabilise, polarise, provoke or coerce that audience in the hope of achieving from the resulting insecurity an outcome that is desired by the perpetrator.

Over the years, terrorism has been employed by many different kinds of actors, including individual actors as well as sub-state, state, state-sponsored and transnational actors (with state terrorism having been used in wars aimed at conquest and for subjugating populations and oppositions).
Causes for which violent extremism and terrorism have been employed

Violent extremism and terrorism have been used in the pursuit of many different radical causes over the years. They are not uniquely associated with any one cause, and they are not new phenomena, having been present in European societies throughout history.

This chapter concerns radicalisation leading to violent extremism and terrorism irrespective of the specific cause that is being pursued.

Variability in the radicalisation process

Research into the radicalisation process has revealed that there is no common pathway that all radicalised individuals take towards embracing violent extremism or terrorism. There is also no single psychological profile and no single set of demographic characteristics that are shared by all individuals who make the transition into violent extremism or terrorism. Instead, radicalised individuals come from a diversity of social backgrounds, have a variety of different personal motivations for moving towards violent extremism or terrorism, and experience a diversity of circumstances or conditions that either push or pull them into violent extremism or terrorism. Furthermore, exactly the same set of conditions that might propel one individual into radicalisation might also apply to many other individuals who, however, do not become radicalised.

In addition, radicalisation is not necessarily a straightforward linear process in which there is a gradual but progressively deepening commitment to violent extremism or terrorism culminating in conversion to the violent cause. Instead, some individuals follow a more fluid and complex path, drifting into and out of violent extremism depending on the specific environments and people they encounter in the course of their everyday lives.

Moreover, not all individuals who eventually adopt a violent extremist or terrorist perspective may consider committing violent acts themselves – those who are converted to a violent extremist or terrorist cause can instead show a variety of different levels of involvement or commitment to that cause. Some may be ready and willing to use violence, others may only be willing to assist in the use of violence (for example by providing funds or goods to those who commit the acts of violence), while others may advocate the use of violence but not be willing to either engage or assist in acts of violence themselves. Violent extremist and terrorist groups, like all other social groups, usually contain a great deal of internal diversity. That said, it is important to note that providing support to violent extremists or terrorists carry the same moral and legal consequences as committing the acts of violence oneself.

The conditions that can lead to radicalisation

Research has revealed that there are many conditions that can lead to radicalisation. These conditions may be divided into two main types: predisposing conditions and enabling conditions. In reading the following descriptions, it should be borne in
mind that different subsets of conditions operate in the case of different individuals, no single condition by itself is likely to lead to radicalisation, and even if a large subset of conditions applies, this will still not necessarily lead an individual into violent extremism and terrorism, especially if that individual is equipped with the competences that confer resilience to violent extremist and terrorist propaganda and rhetoric.

The following descriptions of the conditions are, in all cases, based on evidence from the research literature. Readers who are interested to find out more about these various conditions should consult the sources that are listed at the end of this chapter in the Further reading section.

**Predisposing conditions**

Radicalisation may arise from one or more of the following conditions, which range from the personal to the social and the political (but note that this ordering does not have any particular significance).

**Problematic family background**

In some cases, individuals are brought up in families that have a history of relationship conflict, domestic violence, parental substance abuse, parental mental illness or abusive parenting. Individuals from families with one or more of these characteristics are unlikely to have received appropriate intellectual, emotional and behavioural support during their development – they are more likely to have experienced poor supervision and harsh and erratic discipline. Individuals from these backgrounds are more likely to experience failure in education, and they are also more likely to engage in delinquent behaviour and to show a readiness for violence and aggression.

**Estrangement from other people or from society**

Estrangement from parents and other members of the family, alienation from peers, experiencing a sense of isolation from other people, lacking a sense of belonging to any social group, and estrangement from society can all lead to emotional insecurity, vulnerability and loneliness. Those who are socially estranged may be prone to radicalisation because membership of a violent extremist group readily provides the bonds of friendship and comradeship that such individuals might need.

**Difficulties with personal identity**

People sometimes experience a diffuse, confused, uncertain or unstable identity where they do not have a clear and secure sense of themselves and are not sure about how they would describe or define themselves, what the purpose of their life is, what their real interests are, or what their future ambitions should be. At any one time, identity uncertainty may apply only to a few aspects of the self or it may be more extensive and apply across many different aspects. Identity difficulties such as these are common during adolescence and early adulthood, and they can be associated with feelings of self-doubt, insecurity and instability. Because violent extremist and terrorist organisations offer a sense of certainty and can provide a
strong identity to their members based on fierce loyalty to the cause, they can hold an attraction for individuals who are struggling with their personal identity.

**Simplistic thinking style**

There are significant variations in people’s styles of thinking and reasoning. Some individuals use a style that is very simplistic. These individuals prefer single, definite and clear answers to questions rather than ambiguous or qualified answers. They use oversimplistic “us versus them” reasoning when thinking about social groups, and other people are readily seen as either friends or enemies. They make broad generalisations and ignore exceptions and alternatives, are quick to reject competing views, and are often unwilling to change their way of thinking. It has been found that people with this simplistic style of thinking are more likely to embrace conflict, are less likely to use collaboration and compromise to resolve conflicts, lack empathy for people who belong to other social groups, and are more likely to adopt dogmatic and authoritarian positions. It has also been found that individuals who display this style of thinking are more likely to endorse violent extremism.

**Lack of exposure to positive role models and alternative points of view**

Some individuals lack positive role models while they are growing up, only encounter a limited range of views and perspectives in their everyday environments, and are not exposed to analysis, reflection or dialogue about values, attitudes or social issues in their family or at school. Being exposed to other people who model altruistic and respectful behaviours, having access to knowledgeable people, and being exposed to a wide range of ideas, opinions and reflections from other people and texts, can divert individuals who might be considering violent extremism from pursuing this path. Those who lack these advantages are more likely to make the transition into violent extremism.

**Racism and discrimination**

When the members of the racial, ethnic or religious group to which an individual belongs are continually subjected to racism, discrimination and hostility, or when an individual has frequently experienced personal harassment, victimisation or attack due to their race, ethnicity or religion, they may be more prone to radicalisation. This is because the feelings of humiliation, resentment and anger that are aroused by racism and discrimination can act as significant motivators for making the transition into violent extremism.

**Deprivation and marginalisation**

It is possible for racism and discrimination to lead to unemployment or underemployment. This in turn can result in economic deprivation, blocked social mobility, limited socio-economic opportunities, exclusion and marginalisation. All of these conditions can predispose individuals to radicalisation. Perceptions of blocked social mobility and limited opportunities can also arise in the absence of racism and discrimination, for example in the case of disadvantaged members of a majority group.
When people compare their own position to the positions of others, and realise that by comparison they have far fewer resources than they ought to have, and they perceive barriers to their entry into mainstream society and an absence of prospects for a successful or prosperous future, the sense of unfairness and inequity can generate a wide range of emotions including frustration, resentment and anger. These emotions can motivate the radicalisation process, especially if an individual believes that their personal situation cannot be improved through legitimate means.

**Grievances and injustices**

It is not only racism, discrimination, deprivation and marginalisation that can motivate radicalisation. Indignation, outrage and anger about other injustices can also motivate the process. For example, grievances against the police, grievances against the media and their biased coverage of minority issues, anger about human rights violations, antagonism to, anger about or even hatred of a country’s foreign policy and overseas aggression, and perceptions of double standards in government policies, can all motivate a desire to act against the injustice. Grievances about injustices that have been perpetrated against members of one’s own cultural group can be especially powerful as a motivating factor. When individuals perceive grave injustices and hold grievances against the perpetrators, they are more likely to make the transition to violent extremism.

**Disillusionment with politicians and conventional politics**

There is currently widespread disillusionment with conventional political processes, and mainstream politics is frequently viewed as dominated by elites who are remote from the everyday concerns and lives of citizens. If mainstream politicians are perceived as failing to respond to citizens’ concerns, or if there is a belief that the actions that politicians take are not sufficient to address these concerns in a meaningful way, then distrust of politicians and dissatisfaction with the political system can occur. This can lead to feelings of frustration and disempowerment, a rejection of the democratic norms that are held by others, and a resort to alternative modes of action that might include violent extremism.

**Disillusionment with democratic forms of citizen participation**

Individuals can also feel disenchanted and disillusioned with democratic forms of citizen participation. For example, they may feel that institutional channels through which their point of view can be expressed are ineffective, and that they are unable to have any meaningful influence on public policy. A feeling of powerlessness may result, with the person seeing little point in engaging in conventional political actions (e.g. voting, writing to an elected representative) or alternative peaceful forms of political action (e.g. participating in protests, signing petitions). Under such circumstances, membership of a violent extremist group can provide a sense of empowerment that cannot be gained through other means.

**Enabling conditions**

When an individual has been following a personal trajectory towards radicalisation as a consequence of one or more predisposing conditions, the transition into violent
extremism or terrorism can take place when that individual encounters one or more enabling conditions. These conditions usually involve exposure to an ideology that justifies the use of violence.

**Exposure to violent extremist ideology through a social group that provides a sense of community and belonging**

Association with like-minded people (who could be family members, members of a local community or religious group, or members of a disaffected marginalised group) can provide bonds of friendship and a feeling of peer-acceptance. The friendships that are encountered through a violent extremist group may provide a sense of belonging and can compensate for the effects of social estrangement. Radicalisation through this route may happen in so-called “places of vulnerability”, such as religious proselytising settings, prisons or other settings that are invisible to the authorities, where newcomers can be disconcerted or unsettled and feel insecure or anxious. Sometimes, group leaders or charismatic figures play a role in welcoming and drawing a newcomer into the group. Alternatively, a few members of the group may act as role models who help to sustain the commitment of the individual in the early stages, facilitate their movement into the group, and introduce them to the group's violent extremist ideas and beliefs. A newcomer's receptivity to these ideas may be high if they already share the same grievances as the other members of the group and if they identify with those who are perceived as being victimised.

**Exposure to violent extremist ideology through the internet or written materials**

Radicalisation can also take place through exposure to violent extremist ideology on the internet or in pamphlets and other written materials. An individual will be receptive to the ideology encountered on the internet or in written materials if it helps them to make sense of the grievances that they hold or of their own personal experiences of the social or political world. Violent extremist ideologies usually legitimise the extremist position by exaggerating the differences between the extremist group and those who are to be targeted through violence, using an “us vs. them” framework. The specific contents of the ideology vary of course from one extremist group to another, but most violent extremist ideologies portray and exalt the use of violence as honourable and prestigious. The justification of the violence is commonly based on a narrative of oppression which argues that “we” are under attack from “them”, obligating a violent response and portraying the violence as a necessary and effective means to achieve the group's objectives. The ideology therefore builds a collective identity based on a narrative of violent struggle, with the violence being rationalised as “defensive”. The justification redefines conceptions of good and evil, and this can help to overcome potential moral inhibitions that an individual might have about advocating or using violence. In addition, violent extremist ideologies often dehumanise the targets of the violence, likening them to animals, which further reduces moral qualms which group members might have about the use of violence.

Some violent extremist and terrorist groups have become extremely sophisticated in the use of the internet for disseminating their ideologies. The internet offers
numerous advantages to these groups, including easy access, low cost, little regulation, anonymity, rapid information flows, interactivity, and potentially vast audiences. It also highly flexible, so that as soon as propaganda on one website is taken down by the authorities, the same material can be immediately relaunched on another website.

**Exposure to violent extremist ideology that satisfies other basic psychological needs of the individual**

Violent extremist or terrorist ideologies can also be attractive to some people because they satisfy other basic psychological needs. For example, in the case of those who are experiencing difficulties with their personal identity, are confused or uncertain about who they are, or are subject to feelings of insecurity and self-doubt, a violent extremist or terrorist ideology can provide them with a clear and compelling psychological focus and sense of purpose which might otherwise be lacking. The ideology may also provide them with a sense of control and empowerment, as well as a sense of self-esteem. Commitment to the ideology may be further enhanced if the person believes that the use of radical, defiant or violent language and action bestows a high social status on them within their social milieu.

**Exposure to violent extremist ideology that stimulates a moral, religious or political awakening**

It has also been found that radicalisation sometimes occurs as a consequence of exposure to ideologies that stimulate a moral, religious or political awakening. This may occur if the ideology presents it as a moral or sacred duty to take up arms in defence of a victimised people with whom the individual identifies. In some cases, the awakening may simply consist of an intensification of an existing religious commitment that leads the individual towards an increasingly strict religious observance; in others, the awakening may consist of conversion from having no beliefs to adopting a very strict and rigorous set of beliefs or convictions. While these kinds of awakenings have been found to have played a key role in the radicalisation of some violent extremists and terrorists, many other individuals undergo very similar moral, religious or political awakenings but do not become radicalised, and it is unclear why some individuals but not others make the transition into violent extremism or terrorism as a consequence.

**Exposure to violent extremist propaganda that offers a sense of adventure, excitement and heroism**

Finally, young men in particular may be radicalised through their exposure to ideologies that create a positive emotional pull by offering them the prospect of heroism and a sense of adventure, excitement, risk, thrill and danger. These are precisely the enticements that can appeal to young males who are in the process of developing and exploring their own masculinity. It has been found that terrorist propaganda frequently plays directly on this attraction, by presenting terrorist training camps in a manner that is strikingly similar to outdoor adventure activity settings where young people are able to chase thrills and engage in fantasies of glory and heroism. Some violent extremist and terrorist groups have become extremely adept in tailoring
their online materials and videos to youth audiences. Their video-editing techniques may be borrowed from mainstream television and cinema, the depicted violence may be scripted and staged, and the theatre of war may be turned into an arena that resembles a ‘gaming space’. These sophisticated methods enhance the attractiveness of online videos to young people. It is sometimes not just males who are attracted by the element of excitement. Some young women may also be attracted (e.g. by the thought of travelling to another country to support heroic fighters on the front line, to live a self-sacrificing spiritual life within a caliphate).

The preceding categories of enabling conditions are of course not mutually exclusive, and it is highly likely that in any single case, an individual will be radicalised through exposure to propaganda that aims to meet a large number of these needs at the same time. For example, a single piece of propaganda might simultaneously offer the spectator a sense of belonging, a narrative that helps them to interpret their political grievances, a sense of purpose and empowerment, self-esteem, and the additional lure of adventure, excitement and heroism.

In addition, it needs to be emphasised once again that individuals are rarely radicalised through the operation of just a single predisposing or enabling condition on its own. Instead, radicalisation is more often a consequence of a combination of several conditions that interlock in different and sometimes complex ways depending on the specific circumstances of the individual concerned. Furthermore, different subsets of conditions are operative for different individuals. However, individuals can be equipped with internal resources that confer resilience to these conditions. If this is done, then even if a large subset of conditions applies, radicalisation will not occur. The Framework provides a means of building the resilience of individuals to both the predisposing and enabling conditions of radicalisation.

Although the current chapter focuses on the individual level of analysis (because this is the level at which the Framework can be used to build the resilience of learners), it must not be overlooked that institutional structures, inequalities, discrimination, racism and poverty play a significant role in fostering the conditions that lead to radicalisation. This is especially the case when institutional structures fail to address problems of disadvantage and poverty, when they are biased in such a way that they exclude disadvantaged individuals, or when they target specific minority groups in a discriminatory and unjust manner. In other words, institutional structures themselves can contribute to the marginalisation of individuals, to their sense of alienation, and hence to their radicalisation.

**Resilience to radicalisation**

**The concept of resilience**

The term "resilience" refers to situations where individuals develop normally or function effectively, even though they have experienced significant disadvantage or adverse conditions. Human resilience is common because many people manage to find strategies for coping with the conditions which they encounter even when these are highly unfavourable, and socially desirable outcomes are therefore often achieved despite the presence of serious adversity. Negative or socially undesirable
outcomes occur when individuals fail to find suitable strategies for dealing with adverse conditions. This may happen if those conditions are exceptionally hostile, if an individual lacks sufficient social support from other people in their environment, or if an individual lacks the psychological resources that are required for finding suitable strategies for dealing with the adversity.

**Developing resilience to radicalisation**

Resilience to radicalisation therefore occurs when people are exposed to one or more of the predisposing or enabling conditions for radicalisation but do not make the transition into violent extremism or terrorism. Research has revealed that there are numerous actions that can be taken to enhance people’s resilience to radicalisation. These include the following.

**De-glamorisation of violent extremism and terrorism**

Violent extremism and terrorism can be de-glamorised by stripping away its mystique and by explaining what it is really like to be a member of a violent extremist or terrorist organisation. This can include explaining how such organisations manipulate their members, distort the truth and promulgate falsehoods, how they incite their members into committing violent acts, and explaining the effects that joining such an organisation has on recruits’ everyday lives and their relationships with families and friends. However, simply equipping individuals with knowledge of the harsh realities of violent extremism and terrorism may be insufficient by itself to build resilience to radicalising ideology and propaganda – individuals also need to critically reflect on how involvement in violent extremism and terrorism would fundamentally change and impact on their own lives and the lives of their loved ones if they themselves were to go down that path.

**The deconstruction of violent extremist narratives and the provision of counter-narratives**

Resilience can also be built by deconstructing the oversimplistic “us versus them” narratives that are typically advocated by violent extremist and terrorist organisations, and by providing counter-narratives, especially concerning the grievances and injustices that often provide the motivation for joining such organisations. Counter-narratives need to employ forceful counter-arguments against violent extremist ideas, explain why they are wrong, and if appropriate they need to provide rigorous theological refutations of violent ideology. Counter-narratives are unlikely to be effective if they are delivered by public agencies or authority figures in whom there is a low level of trust – they are much more likely to be effective if they are delivered by respected and trusted community figures who are perceived to be independent of government and the state.

**Training in the use of a more complex thinking style**

As was noted earlier, a common characteristic of those who embrace violent extremism is that they employ a style of thinking that is overly simplistic. Such individuals have a tendency to prefer simple answers to questions rather than ambiguous or qualified answers, to make overly broad generalisations, and to reject alternative or
competing views. It has been found that people who employ simplistic thinking can be trained to use a more complex style. For example, one such training initially requires participants to identify multiple viewpoints about an issue, then to think about the values that underpin all of the viewpoints that have been identified (which may include violent extremist viewpoints), and then to construct an overarching framework that makes sense of why people maintain a variety of differing views on the issue. It has been found that this kind of training can significantly increase the complexity of people’s thinking about social issues. To be successful, the training needs to be non-prescriptive, it should allow individuals to develop their own independent thinking, and it should encourage them to gather their own information, to be open towards and to explore a wide range of views, to subject those views to critical evaluation, and to tolerate and accept the lack of clear-cut answers to complex social and political questions.

**Education on the identification and deconstruction of propaganda**

Resilience to radicalisation can also be built by providing more specific education on how to recognise and deconstruct political and ideological propaganda. The deconstruction of propaganda requires skills in accessing and evaluating other independent sources of information, especially sources that provide alternative narratives to those that are provided by the propaganda. In addition, individuals need to be able to deconstruct the underlying motives, intentions and purposes of those who have produced the propaganda, which in turn requires understanding and interpreting the broader political and social context in which the propaganda has been produced. Individuals also need to be able to draw the results of the analysis together in a coherent manner in order to evaluate the propaganda that is under scrutiny. Educating learners about propaganda can be used to equip individuals with these important competences.

**Education in digital literacy**

As has been noted already, the internet is a key source of information and propaganda for violent extremist and terrorist organisations, and it is also used to communicate directly with potential recruits. The internet can function as an “echo chamber”, amplifying and confirming violent extremist and terrorist beliefs. Education in digital literacy is vital to enable individuals to engage not only with the literal meaning of the materials which they encounter on the internet but also with the communicative purposes of those materials. In addition, they need skills for identifying fabricated news stories on the internet (by, for example, checking the authorship, checking whether the sources of information cited within the story really do support the views that are being expressed, checking other independent sources of information to corroborate the story, checking the dates of photos that have been used, etc.).

Individuals also need skills for recognising the online grooming techniques that are used by violent extremist and terrorist organisations. Online grooming by such organisations often entails the use of graphic language and images to generate high levels of anger in the viewer, and the provision of carefully tailored information that has been deliberately designed to address the personal needs of potential recruits.
(for example their need for a sense of belonging, self-esteem, social status or adventure). The online grooming process typically leads on to interactive communications through chat rooms, forums or social networking sites, which allow the organisation to vet potential recruits and to gradually adjust their communications in a manner that increases their appeal to new recruits and progressively draws them in. Education in digital literacy is essential for equipping individuals with the competences that are needed for dealing appropriately with materials and communications from violent extremist and terrorist organisations that may be encountered online.

**Education in the use of democratic means for the expression of political views**

A further action that can be taken to build individuals’ resilience to radicalisation is to provide them with education in how to examine and explore complex social and political issues, how to use non-violent democratic means for the expression of political views, frustrations and grievances, and how to organise politically and take action in order to improve society. In many cases, the grievances that are held by young people (for example, concerning violations of human rights, countries’ violations of international law, a lack of action over blatantly discriminatory policies) can be well-founded, and young people need to learn how to critically explore and understand the issues involved, and how to take meaningful political action over these issues. Education for democratic citizenship (EDC) and human rights education (HRE) have a vital role to play in fostering the competences that are required for these purposes.

Young people are not always aware of the full range of options that can be used to express their views to those in power. These include not only voting and writing to elected representatives, but also participating in peaceful demonstrations and marches, signing petitions, contacting the media, writing articles or blogs for the media, forming a new campaigning group oneself, using social networking sites on the internet for political causes, joining political lobbying and campaigning organisations, participating in fundraising events for political causes, etc. In addition, individuals who are concerned about a particular social issue or cause can organise community action groups, undertake voluntary service, engage in fundraising or other activities for a political or community organisation or NGO, make donations of either goods or personal time to charities, engage in consumer activism by boycotting or preferentially buying particular goods, and so on. In short, there is an enormous range of possibilities for expressing political viewpoints, for pursuing political and societal causes, and for fulfilling the desire to contribute. In the case of individuals who are concerned about issues in other countries, further options are also available, such as working with international charities and NGOs, which can offer the opportunity to travel and volunteer abroad. In short, EDC and HRE can be used to equip individuals with a wide range of competences that are needed to contribute and take action politically through peaceful democratic means.

**The relevance of the Framework to building resilience to radicalisation**

All of the preceding methods that have been found to be effective for building resilience to radicalisation aim to develop the competences of individuals so that
they have the capacity to protect themselves against the predisposing and enabling conditions for radicalisation. By fostering these competences and building this capacity, the negative outcomes that might otherwise occur through exposure to these conditions are minimised and socially desirable positive outcomes are achieved instead.

**The competences that are targeted by the methods**

The specific competences that are targeted by these various methods are as follows. The de-glamorisation of violent extremism and terrorism equips individuals with knowledge and understanding of what violent extremism and terrorism entail in practice and stimulates them into reflecting critically on themselves and on what involvement in such organisations would mean for their own personal and family relationships and future lives. The deconstruction of violent extremist narratives and the provision of counter-narratives aim to stimulate individuals to analyse and critically evaluate oversimplistic “us versus them” narratives, and to be open-minded towards alternative narratives and explanations of social and political issues. Training individuals to use a more complex thinking style involves helping them to develop their own independent thinking – to gather their own information, to be open towards and to explore a wide range of views, to subject those views to critical evaluation, and to develop their tolerance of ambiguity (that is, to accept the lack of clear-cut answers) on complex social and political issues.

Education on the identification and deconstruction of propaganda equips individuals with skills in analysing and critically evaluating propaganda and in independently accessing other sources of information. It also builds their competence in understanding messages in the media (especially the underlying motives, intentions and purposes of those who have produced those messages), in understanding the communicative strategies that are used by those who produce propaganda, and in understanding the political and social contexts in which propaganda is produced. Education in digital literacy likewise encourages and supports the development of a wide range of competences, including the ability to understand the communicative intentions of those who post materials on the internet, the ability to analyse and evaluate the content of those materials, the ability to access other independent sources of information, and the ability to understand online language and communication processes.

Finally, education in the use of democratic means for the expression of one’s own political views involves equipping individuals with knowledge and understanding of democratic processes and the law, an understanding of communication (that is, of how communication needs to be targeted and tailored for its intended audiences), and skills in adapting their own communications appropriately. Such education should also ideally equip individuals with co-operation skills and conflict-resolution skills (so that they may undertake democratic actions together with fellow citizens), and a sense of civic-mindedness (so that they are predisposed to undertake democratic action), responsibility (so that they only undertake responsible actions), and self-efficacy (so that they feel that their goals may be achieved, at least in part, by undertaking democratic action).
In short, the methods that are effective in building resilience to radicalisation are methods that enhance the following specific competences:

- Knowledge and critical understanding of violent extremism and terrorism
- Knowledge and critical understanding of the self
- Analytical and critical thinking skills
- Openness to other beliefs and perspectives
- Autonomous learning skills
- Tolerance of ambiguity
- Knowledge and critical understanding of the media
- Knowledge and critical understanding of politics and law
- Knowledge and critical understanding of language and communication
- Linguistic and communicative skills
- Co-operation skills
- Conflict-resolution skills
- Civic-mindedness
- Responsibility
- Self-efficacy

It is noteworthy that all of these competences, with the sole exception of the first one, are included within the Framework. The Framework proposes that there are 20 competences that individuals require to function as democratically and interculturally competent citizens (see Volume 1 of the present publication). These include all but the first of the competences that are listed above.

This list of competences includes a range of attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding. Notably, however, it does not include values. However, values are integral to the Framework. In addition, EDC and HRE are aimed precisely at empowering learners to value human rights, cultural diversity, democracy and the rule of law. Thus, the Council of Europe’s (2010) Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education defines EDC as education, training, awareness raising, information, practices and activities that aim to empower learners to exercise and defend their democratic rights and responsibilities in society, to value diversity and to play an active part in democratic life with a view to the promotion and protection of democracy and the rule of law. The Charter likewise defines HRE as education, training, awareness raising, information, practices and activities that aim to empower learners to contribute to the building and defence of a universal culture of human rights in society, with a view to the promotion and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

**The use of a whole-school approach to foster the development of the competences**

Research has revealed that EDC and HRE are most effective in achieving their goals when they are delivered using a whole-school approach. This approach involves integrating democratic and human rights values and principles into all aspects
of school life, including curricula, teaching and learning methods and resources, assessment, leadership, governance and decision-making structures and processes, policies and codes of behaviour, staff–staff and staff–student relationships, extracurricular activities and links with the community. A whole-school approach creates a learning environment in which democratic and human rights values and principles can be explored, understood and experienced by learners in a safe and peaceful way.

There are numerous actions that need to be taken when implementing a whole-school approach to EDC and HRE. These include, inter alia:

► Introducing an open classroom climate within the school. This is a climate in which learners are able to raise issues that are of concern to them, are allowed to discuss controversial issues, are encouraged to express their own opinions and to listen to one another, and are allowed to explore a variety of different perspectives. The classroom is treated as a safe space which is open, participative, respectful and inclusive, with learners participating in the setting and implementation of the ground rules which provide the necessary codes of conduct if discussions become overheated or if there is serious disagreement over an issue.

► Introducing a rights-respecting ethos into the school, in which policies and practices based on the principles of human rights and responsibilities are placed at the core of the school’s activities and teaching and learning approaches, and are applied across all school relationships including learners, teachers, parents and governors, and to the wider local and global community.

► Requiring learners, as part of their formal education, to undertake organised service learning projects or action projects in their communities. Such projects require learners to participate in organised activities that benefit their communities, with the activities being based on what has been learned in the classroom; afterwards, learners are required to reflect critically on their service experience to develop their academic learning, gain further understanding of course content, and enhance their sense of personal values and civic responsibility.

► Providing opportunities for learners to participate in formal decision making both at school and in the local community, for example, through student councils, representation on working parties and policy groups, etc.

Further actions that may be taken when implementing a whole-school approach are described in Chapter 5 in this volume on the whole-school approach.

There is now an abundant body of research evidence which shows that when learners experience an open classroom climate, attend a school that has a rights-respecting ethos, undertake service learning and participate in school councils, they are more likely to:

► have higher levels of civic knowledge;
► support democratic values;
► develop an understanding of their own rights as well as their responsibilities towards other people;
► become supportive of the rights of others;
► develop higher-order critical thinking and reasoning skills;
► develop positive and socially responsible identities;
► develop positive and co-operative relationships with their peers based on listening, respect and empathy;
► accept responsibility for their own decisions;
► develop positive attitudes towards inclusivity and diversity in society;
► become engaged with political and social issues;
► feel empowered as citizens who can challenge injustice, inequality and poverty in the world;
► engage in democratic activities in the future.

In other words, EDC and HRE, delivered through a whole-school approach, help learners to become knowledgeable, thoughtful, responsible, engaged and empowered citizens (for details of the research evidence supporting this conclusion, readers should consult the relevant sources listed at the end of this chapter in the Further reading section).

**Building resilience to radicalisation using the Framework**

The Framework has been developed as a comprehensive, systematic and coherent means for implementing EDC and HRE using a whole-school approach to build the competences that learners require to defend and promote human dignity, human rights, cultural diversity, democracy and the rule of law. Through its competence model, descriptors and guidance on curriculum, pedagogy and assessment, the Framework provides the materials that are needed for systematically implementing EDC and HRE in the formal education system, ranging from pre-school through to higher education. Furthermore, as we have seen above, if it is implemented appropriately, the Framework also provides a means to equip learners with the competences that confer resilience to the wide range of predisposing and enabling conditions for radicalisation that were outlined earlier in this chapter.

The Framework notably provides a more comprehensive and systematic means for equipping learners with the competences required for resilience than any of the individual methods that were reviewed in the Resilience to radicalisation section above. In fact, education based on the Framework necessarily incorporates four of the six methods that were reviewed in that section (that is, fostering complex thinking, education about propaganda, digital literacy education, and education in the use of democratic means), and there is no reason why education grounded in the Framework cannot also be supplemented and enhanced by the use of the other two methods (namely, de-glamorisation of violent extremism and terrorism, and the deconstruction of violent extremist narratives and the provision of counter-narratives).

In short, the Framework provides a comprehensive system for building the resilience of young people to the conditions that can lead to radicalisation. There is abundant evidence that individuals who are equipped with the competences specified by the Framework will have the resilience to withstand the very wide range of predisposing and enabling conditions for radicalisation that have been outlined in this chapter.
Practice – How to achieve these objectives

Those wishing to build young people’s resilience to radicalisation should consider introducing a competence-based curriculum into the formal education system that will foster the development of the 20 competences contained in the Framework. Guidance on how the Framework can be used to audit and revise an existing curriculum, or to plan a new curriculum, is provided in Chapter 1 of this volume on the curriculum. This competence-based curriculum needs to be delivered through a whole-school approach if its impact on learners is to be maximised. Chapter 5 on the whole-school approach explains how the Framework can be implemented using this approach.

In addition, a competence-based curriculum should be delivered using appropriate pedagogical methods, and learners’ progress in mastering the competences should be assessed using appropriate assessment methods. Guidance on such methods is provided in Chapters 2 and 3 on pedagogy and assessment, respectively. Teacher education provision also needs to be adjusted to ensure that teachers have the necessary capacities and expertise to deliver the competence-based curriculum. Chapter 4 on teacher education provides guidance on this topic.

The Framework therefore provides a comprehensive set of materials which, if used to guide education policies and practice, can enable the formal education system to build learners’ resilience to radicalising influences and violent extremist communications, propaganda and rhetoric.

Recommendations

To political decision makers and policy makers with responsibilities for democratic governance, public authorities, social integration, social cohesion, policing, security and education

► Review, revise and renew formal education systems in your country to ensure that these systems are consistent with the Framework and enable learners to be equipped with the competences that are required to strengthen their resilience to radicalising influences and to violent extremist and terrorist communications.

To political decision makers and policy makers with responsibilities for education

► Ensure that suitable education in the principles and practices of the Framework is provided for all education professionals – including teacher educators, head teachers, teachers and trainee teachers.

► Ensure that suitable education is provided for all education professionals in the problem of radicalisation leading to violent extremism and terrorism and in how the Framework can be used to combat such radicalisation.

► Provide the material support and resources that are required for the implementation of the Framework throughout the formal education system of your country.

To education practitioners, the police, members of security services and other state actors involved in the prevention of violent extremism and terrorism

► Ensure that you are familiar with the principles and practices of the Framework.
To political decision makers and policy makers with responsibilities for democratic governance, public authorities, social integration, social cohesion, policing and security

► Use the Framework as a basis for co-operating with education policy makers to ensure that policies on social integration, social cohesion, policing and security do not undermine the education objectives of the Framework and the methods that can be used to foster learners’ competences for democratic culture (for example open classroom climate, rights-respecting ethos).

To political decision makers and policy makers with responsibilities for democratic governance, public authorities, social integration and social cohesion

► Ensure that the structures of state institutions are responsive to the concerns of citizens and strengthen their legitimacy through deliberative dialogue and robust democratic engagement.

► Provide systems and structures to ensure that learners can influence decisions that affect them.

► Take action to address the broader problems of disadvantage, discrimination and exclusion that are experienced by marginalised populations.

Resources


Council of Europe (2017), *Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture* (accompanying chapters in the present volume on curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, the whole-school approach and teacher education), Council of Europe, Strasbourg.


**Further reading**


Sales agents for publications of the Council of Europe
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Model of Competences for Democratic Culture

Values
- Valuing human dignity and human rights
- Valuing cultural diversity
- Valuing democracy, justice, fairness, equality and the rule of law

Attitudes
- Openness to cultural otherness and to other beliefs, world views and practices
- Respect
- Civic-mindedness
- Responsibility
- Self-efficacy
- Tolerance of ambiguity

Skills
- Autonomous learning skills
- Analytical and critical thinking skills
- Skills of listening and observing
- Empathy
- Flexibility and adaptability
- Linguistic, communicative and plurilingual skills
- Co-operation skills
- Conflict-resolution skills

Knowledge and critical understanding
- Knowledge and critical understanding of the self
- Knowledge and critical understanding of language and communication
- Knowledge and critical understanding of the world: politics, law, human rights, culture, cultures, religions, history, media, economies, environment, sustainability

Competence
The Council of Europe promotes and protects human rights, democracy and the rule of law. These principles have been cornerstones of European societies and political systems for decades, yet they need to be maintained and fostered, not least in times of economic and political crisis.

Most people would agree that democracy means a form of governance by or on behalf of the people and that it cannot operate without institutions that ensure regular, free and fair elections, majority rule and government accountability. However, these institutions cannot function unless citizens themselves are active and committed to democratic values and attitudes. Education has a central role to play here and this Reference Framework supports education systems in the teaching, learning and assessment of competences for democratic culture and provides a coherent focus to the wide range of approaches used.

This third volume offers guidance on how the model of competences and the corresponding descriptors, contained in volumes one and two respectively, may be used in six education contexts. The three volumes together therefore offer educators a reference and a toolbox for designing, implementing and evaluating educational interventions, in formal and non-formal settings.