Learning to Disagree

TEACHERS’ GUIDES
(combined)
Contents

Overview 5

Part 1: The Project 5
1.1: Values and principles: what inspires and informs our thinking 7
1.2: Why should dialogue, discussion and debate be taking place in classrooms? 9
1.3: Relevant Definitions
   1.3.1 Defining what we mean by dialogue, discussion and debate 10
   1.3.2 Defining what we mean by viewpoint 12
   1.3.3 Defining what we mean by competence 12

Part 2: Teacher Guide to support the use of discussion, debate and dialogue as teaching methods 15
2.1: Conditions: how can we ensure that classroom conditions are right so that all students can flourish and make progress with being able to dialogue, debate and discuss? 15
   2.1.1 Matters relating to the teacher and students 15
   2.1.2 Setting up the classroom and establishing the norms 16
   2.1.3 Setting up the task 16
   2.1.4 Managing the class during the activity 17
   2.1.5 Planning learning: how can we use enquiry questions to frame the learning and the assessment of learning? 18
2.2: What teaching strategies are most appropriate for developing dialogue, discussion and/or debate in the classroom?
   2.2.1: Strategy: Dinner party table 22
   2.2.2: Strategy: Balloon debate 23
   2.2.3: Strategy: Speed Dating 25
   2.2.4: Strategy: Boxing Match 27
   2.2.5: Strategy: Becoming a Picture 28
   2.2.6: Strategy: Fishbowl 30
   2.2.7: Strategy: Four Corners 31
   2.2.8: Strategy: Silent placemat conversation 32
   2.2.9: Strategy: Role-playing 34
   2.2.10: Strategy: All-stand consensus 36
   2.2.11: Strategy: Solution-focused debate 37
   2.2.12: Strategy: Dialogue to develop empathy 39
2.3: Lessons from the academic discipline of history 40

Part 3: Assessing competences 42
3.1: Formative and summative assessment 43
3.2: Assessing competences in Learning to Disagree 45
3.3: Assessment Tools
   3.3.1 Questioning as an assessment tool 46
   3.3.2 Using Rubrics 49
   3.3.3 Assessment items 51
   3.3.4 Student Self and Peer Assessment 52
   3.3.5 Using oral assessment 53
   3.3.6 Bringing the learning together – Assessing teaching strategies that are appropriate for developing dialogue, discussion and/or debate in the classroom 53
3.4: Concluding Comments on Assessment 56

Appendix 1: Argument Mapping (From Dwyer, 2017) 57
Appendix 2: Assessing Presentations 59
Appendix 3: Assessing posters 62
Appendix 4: Assessing through Graphic Organisers 63
Appendix 5: Assessing through Placemat Activity 65
Appendix 6: Hot / Cold: Assessing Persuasive Impact 66
Appendix 7: Exit Tickets 67

References for Part 2: Teaching Guide 68
References for Part 3: Assessment Guide 70
Overview

This teachers' guide has been written as part of the EuroClio Erasmus+ funded project ‘Learning to Disagree’. It has been produced to support the teaching and assessment of dialogue, debate and discussion in the classroom where the subject matter may, or may not be, sensitive and controversial. This Guide is structured into three parts. Part A introduces the project and contextualises why dialogue, discussion and debate (DDD) should be taking place in classrooms. Definitions relevant to the project are set out along with a clear indication of how they come to be used in this project. Definitions include dialogue, discussion, debate, viewpoints and competence with particular emphasis on social and civic competences. Part B is the Teaching Guide and Part C is the Assessment Guide. These two parts have been written to complement each other and should be used together. They both accompany the content and teaching materials of the Learning to Disagree project that can be found at www.historiana.eu and they consist of:

- Twelve sets of ‘Varieties of Viewpoints’
- Learning plans for lessons using some of the Viewpoints
- E-Learning activities using the ‘Variety of Viewpoints’ material.

The guide has been written with history and civics teachers and researchers from across Europe using multi-perspective materials from a wider variety of communities. This guide is not written for policy makers. While we hope it will be of interest to see how practising teachers work, please turn to the needs’ assessment document of this project for more detail about the theory that underpins this work, including a review of some of the relevant literature.
Part 1: The Project

1.1: Values and principles: what inspires and informs our thinking

“The history classroom should be a place to disturb and challenge. When we learn history we encounter all the time. We encounter the other, we encounter otherness. We encounter the strange (and we discover it’s surprisingly familiar) and we encounter the familiar (and discover how it is strange).”

Christine Counsell


This project is grounded in the statement of the EuroClio manifesto which states that high quality history, heritage and citizenship education...

...does not attempt to transmit a single truth about the past. It deconstructs historical myths and stereotypes, and raises awareness on the fact that the past is perceived differently according to a person’s background. It addresses sensitive and controversial topics in history in a responsible way, and promotes long-term reconciliation in divided societies.

...recognises that its significance is related to current experiences and challenges. It introduces global perspectives and encompasses the multiple dimensions of the study of the past, and addresses a manifold of human values, beliefs, attitudes and dispositions. It embraces cultural, religious and linguistic diversity, and uses the “history around us” as a powerful way to convey a vivid understanding of the past.

...is based on competences, including cognitive, functional, personal, and ethical components. It contributes to develop key competences and fundamental thinking skills and concepts, as well as the ability to understand and analyse issues and events. It includes pedagogical and assessment strategies that enhance independent learning, motivation and engagement.

(Source at: EuroClio.eu/manifesto/)

EuroClio recognises that good history, heritage and civic education goes beyond simplistic explanations or answers. It strives to understand the complexity of social events and processes: the different dimensions (social, political, economic, cultural, etc.) and how they relate to each other, their multi-causality, the impact of changes and continuity over time.

There are certain principles that ensure that classroom dialogue, discussion and debate are in keeping with this manifesto and they are outlined here:
a. The focus should always be on substance and not style. While there are well-established reputable styles of debating that credit the rhetorical and presentation skills of the debater, these are not what matters in the classroom. Instead, the focus should be on effective communication, which supports all assertions with a verifiable evidence base. That means other people can check out claims that are made in order to ascertain their veracity. Students should always be encouraged to speak from a position of knowledge, bringing their learning about the past to support their arguments.

b. While any view can be challenged about the conclusions it draws from the available evidence, the person expressing the view is respected and treated with dignity. The same applies to people from the past who are the subject of dialogue, discussion and debate. All people, past and present, are worthy of a respectful hearing until they have proved themselves not to be so by their own words and actions.

c. Everyone has the right to hold any view that they wish. However, it does not follow that all views are equally valid, or that people have a right to air views that might cause harm. Valid views expressed in the classroom are those based on verifiable evidence. Evidence should help us to try to prove that the alleged facts did exist. Participants should come to agree on the basic facts (what happened). Evidence is also used to make a case, to convince others that a given interpretation (why events happened, what did they mean, why are they significant) is plausible and credible. There can be much disagreement regarding interpretations, but not much about basic facts. Sometimes students may express views, which others regard as extreme. In a classroom where dialogue, discussion and debate are the norm, such views, as all others, will automatically be scrutinised for their evidence base and critiqued with verifiable evidence.

d. The behaviour of participants during classroom dialogue, discussion and debate should not contravene basic human rights. If students express views that contravene basic human rights, the teacher can use that as an opportunity to confront why, in the present, we regard those views as problematic, precisely because they contravene basic human rights agreed by the international community. Expression of these sort of views presents an opportunity to teach about human rights.

e. Diversity of opinion is a sign of a healthy democratic society and should be celebrated. Conflict is not wrong; it is a driver of human progress. However, conflict has to be managed constructively. Students need to learn how to express their opinions in a way so that they feel heard and can make a constructive contribution to the development of societies that are free and democratic. They also need to learn how to listen to other verifiably evidence-based views with an open-mind, even if they start and remain in disagreement with them.

f. Trying to win is rarely a part of dialogue and discussion. Even in classroom debate, the key focus should not be on winning. Complex matters are not easily resolved and there are rarely just two clear sides to an argument. Instead, the process of dialogue, discussion and debate should improve the level of knowledge of everyone taking part. This happens, in part, by exploring nuance and complexity so that a deeper and broader understanding can be reached.

g. Some topics are sensitive and/or controversial and can raise strong emotions. Teachers need to learn, and be trained in, how to handle these. Students arrive in our classes with their own pasts. It is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure that all students feel supported to take part constructively in dialogue, discussion and debate of such topics. It is not fair to expect students with no experience of how to take part in dialogue, discussion and debate to start with these topics.

There is a discipline to dialogue, debate and discussion. For example, in history lessons the topic is in the past. The topic is first approached by a disciplined approach to understanding the past. The implications and significance of the topic, including for the present, can then be analysed and evaluated. Students need to be helped to gain knowledge about a topic from a variety of perspectives before they are encouraged to dialogue, discuss or debate on that topic.

1.2: Why should dialogue, discussion and debate be taking place in classrooms?

The principles set out in Section 1 above have informed our thinking. In discussion, as a project team of teachers of history and civics from across Europe, we have arrived at the following statements about why we think dialogue, discussion and debate are important in classrooms.

- To take part in society confidently and constructively, young people need to develop competences relating to argument. We believe that disagreement and disputation is part of being human and that healthy societies are those in which most people know how to argue without resorting to harm and violence.
- History is not the past. It is an academic discipline that seeks to understand the past. History is always contested, with discussion and debate at its heart. That is, there may be agreement about certain established facts; there is rarely consensus about the meaning of these.
- Sometimes history, as taught in schools, can appear to be a fixed body of knowledge. Classrooms where there is discussion, debate and dialogue are those where students learn that there are many evidence-based opinions and have the opportunity to
participate and to learn that their voice also counts.

- Discussion, debate and dialogue in the classroom are active, engaging young people in their own learning. They are also usually oral in nature, allowing students to speak before writing. For many young people, this supports the development of complex thinking and writing.

- School should also be a place where young people can test out ideas and explore new thinking and change their views without fear of judgement. They may also safely experience what it feels like to be misunderstood and to have cherished views challenged, thereby learning and growing with the skilled support of teachers.

1.3: Relevant Definitions

1.3.1 Defining what we mean by dialogue, discussion and debate

The Oxford English Dictionary (OUP 1993) and Chambers Dictionary of Etymology (Chambers Harrap 1988) define the terms as follows:

**Dialogue:** a conversation, a discourse. A conversation between two or more people; verbal interchange of thought; discussion. From the middle of the 20th century it also took on a meaning of discussion or diplomatic contact between representatives of two nations, or blocs; the exchange of proposals, valuable or constructive communication between different groups. The etymology is from the Greek diálogos, related to dialégesthai – speak alternately, converse with each other. Dia – across, between + legéin – speak.

**Discussion:** examination (of a point) by argument etc; debate; an exchange of views; a conversation. The etymological root of the word is from Latin discussus, past participle of discutere (strike asunder). Dis – apart + quaterē - to shake.

**Debate:** contention in an argument, a discussion; esp. a formal discussion of a matter in formal legislature or public assembly. To argue, discuss, esp. formally in a public assembly etc. Consider in one’s mind, deliberate (on), ponder. The now archaic meaning in the early middle ages was to quarrel, fight, dispute and the etymology reflects this: de- down + batre – to beat.

In August 2018, a focus group of teachers from across Europe gave the following thoughts about the way the words are defined and the relationship between them.

**Dialogue:** between two or more people sharing ideas. People in a dialogue are willing to change viewpoints. It is freer of rules and organisation. However, there is a Socratic meaning that involves a guided dialogue. Someone in dialogue could be trying to find a definition of a problem. Therefore dialogue could also be very structured. Dialogue is not necessarily around a contentious issue. It could be seen to be more values based.

**Discussion:** feels to be more about informal and circular and back and forth conversation. People in a discussion are more willing to change viewpoint. Many issues can be part of a discussion. It is freer of rules and organisation. Discussion in Spanish has different connotations – a colloquial struggle. More controversy is likely than is the case with dialogue.

**Debate:** seen more as a difference of viewpoints, a sharing of ideas with sides to be taken. Debate is something where the parties are defending their viewpoints and therefore may be less willing to change their viewpoint at the time, although their views may shift later. Perceived as mostly two sided with the goal being to win a one-issue controversy. Debate means preparation, rules, organisation and presentation. It has a more established procedure that may have to be learnt. Debate can also be broadened out into something more dialogic in the classroom.

It is interesting to note the similarities and differences between the definitions from dictionaries and the perceptions of a group of history teachers from across Europe. There is similarity in seeing debate as more formal and more oppositional than dialogue and discussion. There is not the same understanding of discussion as a detailed examination of all aspects of the point in question.

In the case of the dictionary definitions and the teachers’ perceptions, there is overlap and we could portray this as:
This diagrammatic representation is just one viewpoint. The important word in that last sentence before the diagram is ‘could’, it is not ‘should’. We had interesting discussions about the diagram when working on this project. For example, a Turkish colleague would draw the circles so that there was no overlap at all between dialogue and debate. She also made the point that there is not a particular Turkish word for dialogue and she would see more of an overlap between dialogue and discussion. As you think about this topic and working with the three elements, your ideas will probably change about the balance between the three.

**Taking us forward from here**

While acknowledging that the usage of the terms and their overlap will always be subject to dialogue and/or discussion and/or debate, we have adopted the following approach in this project.

1. To acknowledge the considerable overlaps between the terms and to avoid a rigid distinction between the three while recognising the widely accepted views that:
   a. Discussion and dialogue are less formal than debate and a conversational style forms part of them.
   b. Discussion forms part of dialogue and debate.
   c. And debate are associated with taking apart viewpoints to examine them, while dialogue is more constructive (in the sense of building up a (metaphorical) structure).

2. To use the purpose of the learning to define the approach taken and to focus on practical approaches known to be effective in classrooms, without feeling the need to focus on labelling approaches.

1.3.2 Defining what we mean by viewpoint

A viewpoint is defined as a view that has come down to us from the past, or a view on the past. This could include the very recent past when teaching civics. Each one of the ‘Variety of Viewpoints’ will provide multi-perspective content on key topics. The lesson plans provide teachers with a way to work with the viewpoints.

1.3.3 Defining what we mean by competence

Early in the discussion on competence education, Rychen and Salganik (2003), as part of the DeSeCo work, offered a useful definition of competence. They suggested that a competence is a key competence if it meets the following three general criteria: contributes to highly valued outcomes at the individual and societal level, is instrumental for meeting important, complex demands and challenges in a wide spectrum of contexts, and is important for all individuals. The European Reference Framework, Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, extended this definition to include a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context. Key competences are those which all individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment (European Commission, 2007, p.13).

It is interesting how the concept of values is not included in this European Reference Framework (2018). The Competences for Democratic Culture framework used in this project describe competences under four broad categories and cover a range of values, attitudes, skills and knowledge and critical understanding. Figure one gives an overview of this framework.

![Figure 1: Competences for Democratic Culture source (Council of Europe, 2016)](image-url)
teaching and learning approaches in citizenship education, from active, interactive, critical, collaborative and participative learning to whole school approaches and learning through extra-curricular activities. The challenge is to think about how we can teach and assess this kind of learning. This will be discussed in the next two sections.

Part 2: Teacher Guide to support the use of discussion, debate and dialogue as teaching methods

2.1: Conditions: how can we ensure that classroom conditions are right so that all students can flourish and make progress with being able to dialogue, debate and discuss?

The experience and skills of the individual teacher, the rigour of the subject discipline and the quality of the teaching strategies and resources deployed are of crucial importance to all effective learning in school classrooms. However, there are also specific matters that impact upon the effectiveness of the use of dialogue, debate and discussion with students. These are the subject matter of this section. Please see the further reading section for support with the points raised here.

2.1.1 Matters relating to the teacher and students

• The teacher must be very knowledgeable about the learning topic, including the context to the topic and the points of contention. The teacher will have a key role in focusing students on substantiation of views with verifiable evidence to build knowledge and explore points in depth and this will not be possible if the topic, and the sources used as evidence for the topic, are unknown to the teacher.

• The teacher needs to acknowledge their own prejudices and perspectives on a topic. Their perspectives may be evidence-based and valid, but every perspective is just a part of the whole and is informed by disposition, context and experience. Being aware of these matters helps teachers to support learners to explore their own ideas more fully. Being more knowledgeable (see above) helps a teacher to see their own prejudices and perspectives more easily.

• The teacher needs to know the students in their class, their previous experience and their ability, and to be aware, as far as possible, of any personal reasons why certain topics may not be appropriate for students (possibly at a certain time) and why and how students may need support to participate and learn.

• The teacher will need to become expert in judging the teaching strategies that are most suitable to the topic and their students. Certain strategies are not usually appropriate for controversial, emotional and sensitive topics.

• The teacher must model the standards of respect for people and for evidence that is expected of students. The teacher must also make it OK for people to change their minds and to be proved wrong, by focusing all the time on the content and not the person expressing the content.
2.1.2 Setting up the classroom and establishing the norms

- Thought needs to be given to the physical lay-out of the classroom before dialogue, debate and discussion can take place. Some arrangements of chairs and tables are more confrontational than others; for example, rows behind desks as opposed to chairs in circles. However, sometimes students will need desks on which to place their resources. You also need to consider how students can hear and see and take part with ease.

- It may be appropriate to agree a code of conduct with students before the activity. That is, to get a consensus about the rules for respectful, ordered and focused behaviour. To increase ownership of the code it is a good idea to start with students’ concerns about talking about the topic, to ask what they do like and what they do not like and to ask them to think about what would help them to participate. Another useful idea is to observe examples of good and bad debates and to get students to identify the features. The code of conduct may then include items such as agreed rules about attitude, tone, appropriate language, process and consequences if rules are not respected. Confidentiality beyond the classroom may sometimes be appropriate, or at least an agreement to continue to follow the code beyond the lesson time.

- Related to this, some of the expectations could be defined. For example that students will engage with complexity, advocate for their view but listen and learn from others, be prepared to ask for, and allow, sharing time and air space, be prepared to change positions, work to identify areas of agreement and disagreement, and not focus on winning. Publicly defining the assessment criteria will help with this.

- Students may need to be taught how to check the validity of a source and how it has been interpreted. In the reading section (below) you will find a link to the useful CRAAP test. This takes students through a series of steps to ascertain the: currency, relevance, accuracy, authority and purpose of a source.

2.1.3 Setting up the task

- Once they have gained the relevant knowledge, the teacher will need to scope what is to be taught by identifying the widely accepted facts, the issues of contention, the points where consensus exists, or where it is not necessary.

- There is considerable professional consensus in the history teaching community that establishing an enquiry question that will structure the learning is time well spent in the lesson planning. An enquiry question is an overarching question that shapes and connects the learning. It has a strong conceptual focus and enables us to frame controversies positively. It is an approach which is also applicable to other disciplines. It frames a purpose to the learning that may include dialogue, discussion and debate and should be related to key points of contention. There is more detail on this in the section that follows.

- Taking a multiperspective approach to teaching underpins successful dialogue, discussion and debate in the classroom. “Multiperspectivity is a way of viewing, and a predisposition to view, historical events, personalities, developments, cultures and societies from different perspectives through drawing on procedures and processes that are fundamental to history [and related subjects] as a discipline” (Stradling 2003). Related to this, it is often helpful to set up a task with complexity and nuance. That is, do not reach for the simple / ‘black and white’ perspectives. Work like this will often result in ahistorical thinking and can encourage false division. This brings us back to knowledge. The more knowledgeable teachers and students are about a topic the more likely they are to be able to see points of connection, how a wide variety of viewpoints are possible and the contested nature of any reconstruction of a past event.

2.1.4 Managing the class during the activity

Some students may be more able to sit and listen than others. Teachers need to think about how they are going to keep every student engaged. They also need to plan to avoid the more vocal and more confident students dominating the activity. There are various general questioning strategies that can be used to make sure everyone takes part. For example:

- There could be a rule that everyone can only make one contribution in each round. That is, they cannot contribute a second time until all other first contributions have been made. This can be useful to help students to really reflect carefully on what they want to say and to summarise their views.

- The teacher can write all the students’ names on lolly-pop (or coffee-stirrer) sticks. The person asked a question, or able to speak, is the person whose name comes out of the jar of sticks.

- The teacher could refuse to accept hands-up and simply select students to respond.

- Giving students time to think on their own, then share their ideas with a peer and then share with the group is a way to build in thinking time, build confidence and engage more students. This is known as ‘think, pair, share’.

- Questioning with a pounce (the teacher asks one student) and then bounce (instead of responding immediately the teacher asks another student what they think of/ to elaborate on what has been said).
2.1.5 Planning learning: how can we use enquiry questions to frame the learning and the assessment of learning?

The first question to ask when planning an activity, or lesson, or sequence of lessons for students is: ‘What do I want students to have learnt by the end?’ This apparently simple question can be harder to define than it first seems. However, without a clear sense of the learning to be achieved, the time spent with students will be less effective. From the answer to the question the teacher can then write the learning objectives. These make clear each specific aspect of the learning to be achieved and direct the rest of the learning plan.

The second question to ask is: ‘How will I know that the learning I want has been achieved?’ That is, how will I assess while I am teaching that the students are learning so that by the end they have learnt what I want them to have learnt? Also, how will I assess at the end that the learning has taken place? And, how will I assess that students retain the learning from this activity/lesson/sequence that I need them to retain for the future? Again, these are not easy questions to answer. As part of this project a whole guide has been produced about assessment. It is crucial to remember that assessment cannot be added on at the end. The planning of the assessment starts close to the start of the whole planning process. Assessment plans are a key part of the learning plan.

The third question to ask is: ‘What enquiry question can I develop that will frame the learning I want to achieve?’ The enquiry question is the title of the learning plan and should encompass the learning. It may be the final assessment question. The process of thinking about an enquiry question is a useful check that the learning and the assessment aims are clear and workable. It is also a chance to think whether what is being planned is at its heart a lesson about history or a lesson such as civics, where an issue is engaged with in order to engage in moral and ethical judgement. For example, the topic of how people survive under pressure can be examined as an academic historian might approach the topic, or in the manner of someone seeking to examine the ethics and morals of the issue. The historian may ask a question such as: ‘What conditions and perspectives influenced the choices people made when under pressure?’ The civics teacher may ask: ‘How can a historical perspective help us to make a judgement about choices people made when surviving under pressure?’ Enquiry questions work better if they reflect live debate. That is, the historical enquiry question is one that is concerned with an aspect argued by academic historians, and the civics enquiry question is concerned with a topic relevant in contemporary society.

Following the answering of these three questions planning can continue. It may be written up as a detailed learning plan. Decisions that need to be made will include:

- **At what point discussion, dialogue and/or debate will take place.** These are usually more effective taking place when students have had time to be introduced to, or acquire, sufficient knowledge to enable their views to have substance (that is, for them to be able to use evidence to substantiate their assertions) and to enable them to explore a topic in depth and with nuance. In thinking about the level of knowledge that students require, it can be helpful to think of knowledge on three scales. The ‘topic scale’ is the specific knowledge they need about the issue. The ‘period scale’ is the knowledge they need of the time and place being studied. The ‘wider knowledge scale’ relates to broad conceptual understanding, for example, where the Russian Revolution fits into the history of 20th century political development. Discussion, dialogue and/or debate is also better constructed around genuine historical debates in history lessons or on topics that matter to contemporary society in civics lessons.

- **The stance that the teacher will take in discussion, dialogue and/or debate.** A teacher is never entirely neutral. However, a teacher can choose to be as neutral as possible, or to deliberately take a position. If a teacher is as neutral as possible, then influencing of views and trying to please the teacher should be minimised and there could be more space for new views and questions. However, it may seem artificial for students and it puts students in a position of being expected to give views while their teacher is exempt from this. It may not suit the teacher’s personality and students may simply make assumptions about views in any case. If a teacher takes a stance, then students can argue with or against them using their knowledge and the teacher is not uniquely exempt from expressing themselves. However, some students may then find it hard to argue against their teacher, or feel they have to oppose them even if they do not hold opposing views. It can also make it harder to distinguish fact from opinion when the teacher speaks.

- **How to help the students to care.** It has already been said that the stirring up of competition and a desire ‘to win’ is not helpful in the context of classroom dialogue, discussion and debate. Instead, the teacher needs to think about how the students will be encouraged to care or to be bothered about the subject matter enough so that they will work to learn about it, construct arguments about it, and want to fully explore it. It may also be the case that a topic is so sensitive and/or controversial that students care passionately already and arrive with strong personal opinions. In which case, the focus may need to be on helping students to care about alternative perspectives to their own. The activities section and lesson plans include examples of how to help students to engage with material.

- **The questioning that will be needed to support dialogue, discussion and/or debate.** Responses to teacher questioning are not the same as discussion, debate and dialogue, but high-quality teacher questioning is important to support them. For example, teachers can sustain and deepen discussion by using their questioning to act as ‘devil’s advocate’. Again, the activities section and lesson plans include examples of questioning. Teachers who are less confident with managing dialogue, discussion and/or debate in class may...
want to script their questions for different stages of an activity or lesson to ensure that the desired learning is achieved.

- **How to assess throughout.** Please refer to the assessment guide part of this project. The purpose of assessment also needs re-stating here. As teachers assess they create new knowledge about what their students know. They then need to make decisions about what they are going to do with that new knowledge. Are they going to use it to put their students in rank order? This is commonly known as summative assessment. It can sometimes be used badly and gives students the message that they are negatively judged and stuck in a particular position they cannot change. The teacher who is positive and always tuned in to their students’ learning is constantly assessing formatively as part of their teaching to enable their students to develop and grow. Teachers often have to work with systems that require summative assessment. However, strong formative assessment is more focused on enabling an individual person to become the best they can and want to be.

The following sections of this guide now give practical explanations and examples of strategies to encourage dialogue, debate and discussion.

### 2.2 What teaching strategies are most appropriate for developing dialogue, discussion and/or debate in the classroom?

In this section, we describe twelve different strategies for developing dialogue, discussion and/or debate in the classroom. They are not learning plans (see section above). They are strategies that have been developed by teachers over many years and can form part of learning plans for lessons. As made clear in the section above, lesson planning does not start with planning the activity (the teaching strategies), it starts with thinking about the learning to be achieved.

However, these tried and tested strategies are useful for achieving a variety of learning outcomes.

We have given examples of content that could be used with each strategy in Appendix 1 (available in English). This content is taken from, or refers to, the ‘Varieties of Viewpoints’ or another content area of Historiana. The specific content could be used to demonstrate each strategy in a teacher training session. Teachers at the training session could then be asked how they could incorporate the particular strategy into their own lesson plans for learning. The ‘Varieties of Viewpoints’ and other content can be found online at [http://historiana.eu](http://historiana.eu).

At the end of this section you will find a sub-section that discusses how the academic discipline of history, which has debate and discussion at its heart, can also be a source of inspiration for teachers seeking to promote dialogue, debate and discussion in their classrooms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Summary table of the teaching strategies</strong></th>
<th><strong>Student activity:</strong></th>
<th><strong>Student learning</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dinner party table</td>
<td>Engaging in discussion about the relative similarity and difference of specific viewpoints.</td>
<td>Practising discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon debate</td>
<td>Engaging in debate about the relative importance of a factor to a topic.</td>
<td>Practising researching and constructing an evidence-based argument for debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed-dating</td>
<td>Dialogue in pairs in sequence leading to whole class discussion of perspectives on a topic.</td>
<td>Practising refutation, with evidence, of an argument during a debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing Match</td>
<td>Debating in pairs focusing on use of factual evidence and not assertion or style.</td>
<td>The importance of substantiating assertions with a verifiable evidence base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becoming a picture</td>
<td>Purposefully and literally taking a position in order to better understand a perspective.</td>
<td>How a wider event was experienced from a particular perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishbowl</td>
<td>In depth discussion on one aspect of a topic and listening to an in-depth discussion.</td>
<td>How to gain knowledge to discuss in depth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four Corners</td>
<td>Expressing and justifying an opinion by moving into position for discussion.</td>
<td>Forming, expressing and justifying an opinion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silent placemat conversation</td>
<td>Giving thoughts and opinions and raising questions in writing.</td>
<td>How opinions can change as a result of discussion and gaining further knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role-playing</td>
<td>Taking on a character or role in order to discuss/debate a topic/issue.</td>
<td>The complexity, plethora of perspectives and overlapping positions that exist in relation to a topic or issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All-stand consensus</td>
<td>Working together to explore common ground and articulate an answer or position.</td>
<td>The extent of common ground on a topic, or a widely acceptable answer to a question.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Student activity:</strong></th>
<th><strong>Student learning</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dinner party table</td>
<td>Practising discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon debate</td>
<td>Practising degrees of connection between viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed-dating</td>
<td>Practising refutation, with evidence, of an argument during a debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing Match</td>
<td>The importance of substantiating assertions with a verifiable evidence base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becoming a picture</td>
<td>How a wider event was experienced from a particular perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishbowl</td>
<td>How to gain knowledge to discuss in depth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four Corners</td>
<td>Forming, expressing and justifying an opinion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silent placemat</td>
<td>How opinions can change as a result of discussion and gaining further knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role-playing</td>
<td>The complexity, plethora of perspectives and overlapping positions that exist in relation to a topic or issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All-stand consensus</td>
<td>The extent of common ground on a topic, or a widely acceptable answer to a question.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Solution-focused debate

| Discussing and debating an issue to thoroughly explore an issue of disagreement and to decide what a successful outcome would look like. | To better understand all the issues, the perspectives and the change that would be needed to reach resolution. Students become better informed. |

Dialogue for empathy

| Facilitated deep listening with respect in order to explore reasons for positions. | To better understand why people have deeply held positions on topics. |

Please see Section 5.3.6 in Part C: “Assessing Competences” for detail and development of these suggestions.

2.2.1: Strategy: Dinner party table

Purpose
The aim of this strategy is to enable students to engage with and discuss a range of viewpoints and to understand how a person’s background can shape their viewpoint. It enables students to identify where there are overlapping ideas, where there may (or may not) be opportunities for reconciling viewpoints, and the nuances of viewpoints on a topic. That is, it encourages students away from the idea of there being ‘two sides’ to a topic and towards the idea of a continuum, or tangle, of viewpoints.

The basic strategy
- The teacher selects a range of people with viewpoints on a topic (usually between 6 and 12). These people’s viewpoints should not all be polarised. They should be on a spectrum and an overlap between viewpoints is good for this exercise. The most interesting discussions often take place when there is ambiguity and proximity.
- Students, in groups, are given the range of viewpoints and also the relevant background information about the people who held them. This background helps students to understand why a person had/has their viewpoint. Students read the material.
- Students are then told that they are setting the table for a dinner party. They are required to place the characters around the table, which is oval in shape, so that there will not be any nasty disagreements between the guests.
- The students then discuss how to position the guests. Once they have made their decisions, they can look at the decisions other students have made and question their peers about their decisions. They can then revisit their own table and discuss any changes that they may wish to make in the light of having seen/heard others’ thinking.

Adaptations to the strategy
- Students could be asked to place people so there would be a chance to hear alternative viewpoints and also change minds. This should lead to a discussion about whether it is better to sit people together who completely disagree, or whether to sit people together who have some points of agreement as well as disagreement.
- Students could be asked where they themselves would like to sit and/or where they would not like to sit. This is to encourage them to think about which viewpoint they most identify with, or do not identify with.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking
Debriefing the discussion needs to focus upon helping the students to cement their understanding of the range and nuance of the viewpoints. It can move students to engaging with the topic by expressing their own position on the topic having become informed about a range of viewpoints. Asking students which viewpoint(s) really made them think, and why, is a good way to deepen the whole class discussion.

Resources needed
Oval dinner table shape (in real space, or on paper), 6-12 perspectives on a topic, background information on people who held all these perspectives.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan:
- When students have studied a topic with plenty of characters whose interaction with each other needs to be better understood.
- When students have to understand the perspectives of different historians, or other leading thinkers, on a specific topic.
- When wanting students to explore a range of views and to learn that views can be complex and nuanced.
- To enable students to place themselves in a discourse without the fear of being in direct opposition to their own peers.

2.2.2: Strategy: Balloon debate

Purpose
The aim of this strategy is to enable students to debate a topic that they have learnt about in class. It gives all students a chance to engage in debate and to demonstrate their knowledge. It enables them to practise making a case and justifying their own viewpoints. It can also enable
them to challenge the perspectives of others using evidence to persuade their peers that they have the stronger argument.

The basic strategy
- The teacher gives pairs (or small groups) of students a character, or event that they have studied, or are about to research, and a topic. The teacher announces that all the characters (or events) are in a hot air balloon. There is a problem, the hot air balloon is losing height. Some people (or things) will need to be thrown overboard. Who/what should be thrown out? This will be decided by the quality of the evidence-based defence that the students present. Can the students defend their character / event so that it stays in the balloon?
- Students then research and prepare an argument as to why their character (or event) was so important to the topic that they must stay in the balloon.
- Students then present their arguments in the debate. All students listen and judge the presentations on the quality of evidence-based argument. A class vote follows. The group with the least votes would be the first to be thrown out of the balloon and the group with the most votes is the last to stay in the balloon.

Adaptations to the strategy
- Several rounds of voting could be held. The groups eliminated from the first round would then prepare questions for the remaining groups. The remaining groups would prepare to argue why they should stay in the balloon instead of others. That is, the focus of the debate turns to refutation of the argument of others. Voting then takes place once again to determine who stays in the balloon the longest.
- This activity could be done on paper. Students could be given images of all the people / events and asked to arrange them in their exercise book and then write evidence-based explanations as to why they have thrown them out in the order they have chosen. They could swap books with another student and write challenges to the other’s thinking, before swapping books back.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking
During the presentations, teachers should encourage students to deepen their thinking and reveal the depth of their knowledge by asking questions that require students to use evidence to answer. In the debriefing afterwards, teachers can draw students’ attention to the type of evidence that proved effective in substantiating an argument, the challenges that students faced in putting their arguments together and the other elements of the work that enabled success.

Resources needed
A picture of a balloon (a submarine also works the opposite way as a metaphor), information on a range of characters or events relating to a topic.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan:
- This is not a strategy that should be used with controversial and sensitive issues. It has to feel morally and ethically right for all perspectives to be considered equally and for everyone to have a reasonable emotional distance from the topic.
- That said, it is an excellent device for any topic that has at its heart a debate about relative importance, or relative contribution to change. The exemplar takes the topic of the most important document for the development of the rights of migrants. Another example would be to debate in history the most important scientific discovery leading to medical progress in the 19th and 20th centuries. An example relevant to civics would be to debate the relative contribution of different factors to a particular outcome, such as the Paris Climate Change Agreement of 2016.

2.2.3: Strategy: Speed Dating

Purpose
The aim of this strategy is to enable students to practise dialoguing about a particular topic. Individuals engage in a series of dialogues where pairs give their perspective and hear in turn the perspectives of each other. This repeating process enables students to compare and contrast their views to those of others. It encourages them to deepen and amend their views on a topic without the need to present their change of mind to a wider group. It enables them to see points of connection and divergence and prepares them to take part in a whole-class discussion.

The basic strategy
- Students are given an open question or a thesis statement to form a judgement upon. They then have a short time to think and research their perspective. This could involve looking back over previous learning or internet research.
- Students are paired up to exchange via dialogue their ideas in a fixed time period. If possible, arrange the chairs in the room in two rows, facing each other, ready for the conversations to take place.
- There is then a short period of reflection time for students to adjust their original answer to accommodate any fresh ideas gained as a result of the dialogue.
- Students then exchange ideas via dialogue with a new partner. The process is then repeated over several rounds until a variety of perspectives have been heard.
Adaptations to the strategy

- Students could be given a particular perspective on a topic, or a particular person, to present (speed-dating in role) and then the purpose of the speed-dating becomes for everyone to engage with all the different perspectives / people. Quick notes could be taken after each ‘date’, with a score between -2 to +2 to indicate difference to similarity between the perspectives people. A full comparison of the perspectives / people can then take place during discussion as a whole-class after the speed-dating process.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking

- Whichever version of the strategy is chosen, most classes are likely to need support via whole-class discussion to make sense of all they have heard. Discussion could focus upon creating a diagram or decision-making tree highlighting the connections between perspectives / people. The aim is not to decide which perspective/person is right or wrong, or to rank perspectives, it is rather to explore points of similarity and difference and to find points of connection on topics. Some teachers may want to explore with students who changed their own perspectives, why they did this and what they have learnt from that experience.

Resources needed

Open questions (or particular perspectives on a topic / people with views), classroom arranged for easy movement from chair to chair.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan

- This strategy can be used with controversial and sensitive issues, but only with a known class. Teachers will need to know their students and to have the professional relationship with them that means students feel safe to talk in their classroom. Contracting may be necessary with such topics (see earlier in this Teachers’ Guide).

- An example of a topic where students are asked to speed-date in role could be in taking on the persona of German Chancellors since 1945 and exploring their similarities and differences. Or they could take on different perspectives on the campaign for voting in the 20th century and compare and contrast the positions taken. Students could be ‘hot-seated’ in role at the end. That is, asked to speak to the whole class about their character’s perspective and what they have learnt about their relationship to other characters.

- An example of an open question would be: ‘What age should someone be able to vote in a national election?’ An example of an open thesis statement would be: ‘Referenda are never a good way to resolve disputes in society.’

2.2.4: Strategy: Boxing Match

Purpose

The aim of this strategy is to provide a lively way to show students the importance of factually based evidence to support their arguments. It is a form of debate where only factually based evidence is rewarded. Assertions may be made, but they do not contribute to success. The metaphorical boxers must punch each other with factually based evidence to be successful.

The basic strategy

- After a topic has been studied, students are given a causal question to answer. They then identify the different causes that are commonly thought to have made an event or change happen.

- Small groups of students are then given one of the agreed causes to represent. They have to recall all the factually based knowledge they can about their cause and select a spokesperson for their group.

- Two spokespersons from two causes are then chosen to come to the front of the class. They have two minutes to debate with each other that their cause is most effective. The teacher keeps time. The other students give a mark every time they hear an accurate and factual detail deployed. After two minutes the spokesperson who has laid the most factual punches wins the first round.

- The spokesperson then continues into debate round two with another cause spokesperson as their opponent. Two minutes of sparring takes place and the students are again scored on evidence-based punches.

- The activity can go into several rounds until the point is made about factual evidence.

Adaptations to the strategy

- Students could be given a case study and then argue why this is the best illustration of a topic that could be put into a textbook. Again, they would be judged on their detailed knowledge of the topic in the case study.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking

After the rounds, the teacher should draw students’ attention to the importance of factual evidence to underpin assertions. Students should be asked to reflect upon how hard it was to marshal evidence for every point, how persuasive it was when factual evidence was successfully deployed and to think of strategies for gaining factual knowledge to deploy and how to be sure that it is factual.
Resources needed
Causal questions to debate or case studies to defend, content from which to extract detailed knowledge about these.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan
- Students need to have studied a topic in depth to be able to take part in this activity and demonstrate to themselves and the teacher the level of their factual knowledge base.

- An example of a topic where there is debate requiring detailed factual knowledge would be in answer to the question: ‘Why was Hitler able to take power in Germany in 1933?’

- An example of a case study approach would be to reflect on a topic, such as ‘Understanding Borders’ and for students to then argue with factual evidence why their case study illustrates the topic most successfully.

2.2.5: Strategy: Becoming a Picture

Purpose
The aim of this strategy is to enable students to have the experience of ‘being in the shoes’ of another person and to try to take their perspective. It also highlights how gaining knowledge about a topic makes it easier to try to do this. At the same time, it naturally introduces elements of doubt, uncertainty, nuance and overlap in thoughts and viewpoints. As such, it is an engaging and useful way to prepare students for discussion or debate where they evidence their own views. Once they have been through this process, their own views tend to take a greater account of the personal and the particular in a topic. It becomes harder to make generalisations and to see the world as two simple ‘sides’.

The basic strategy
- Students are shown a projected image of a picture with lots of people in it. Here is an example: https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Staff_Train_at_Charing_Cross_Station_1918_Art.IWMART1881.jpg

- Students are asked to stand in position, each one taking on the position and stance of a person in the picture.

- Students hold their positions and the room is silent and when tapped on the arm, each one says, in the first person, what they are thinking and feeling.

- Students then come out of position and do some research / learning about the topic over a lesson or for longer.

- Students then recreate the picture in the same way once more. This time when asked to speak the possible thoughts and feelings of their character, teachers should find the responses more informed and yet also more tentative.

Adaptations to the strategy
- Sometimes it is appropriate with pictures to ask students to say why the painter put them in the picture. Likewise, with photographs to suggest where a person may have come from or be going to.

- Sometimes the characters in an image are so well-known and specific that students can be asked to recall with certainty and detail their actions and perspectives. Nevertheless, this ‘standing in the shoes’ of a person is an effective way to prepare to take on the role of this person in a debate.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking
In the second positioning of students (after research) it is sometimes useful to push students (still in role) to explain their position more fully. This then provides the depth of perspectives to draw upon in a class debate about a topic. For example, using the picture given as an example, the class discussion could be about the range of viewpoints that might have been aired in that train on the way to France about the progress of war on the Western Front in 1918. If this is being done as preparation for a debate, it is a good idea to reflect explicitly on how the personal and the particular has informed students’ perspectives on the topic.

Resources needed
An image that has lots of people with movement and action that can be imagined relevant to a specific topic.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan
- This strategy is useful whenever you want to open students’ minds to the diversity of people involved in any complex moment or event.

- It can be used with historic or contemporary images.

- It can be used at the start of a topic to engage interest, or to deepen understanding of a topic already studied, or (as already indicated) to prepare students for a debate on the topic.
2.2.6: Strategy: Fishbowl

**Purpose**
This strategy enables students to practise **discussion** in turns, to receive observations and feedback from their peers and to listen to discussion. It is very useful when it is necessary to actively involve all, as every student has a role and must participate. It enables a high degree of reflection about what makes a good quality discussion. It also provides useful structure for discussing sensitive or controversial topics, as different perspectives can be listened to in depth before any direct discussion. It can prepare students well for written work, as it enables students to deepen their questions and ideas about a topic.

**The basic strategy**
- Students are given a topic that is open to different perspectives and does not have a simple, closed answer. They should have time to research and think before starting.
- The ‘fishbowl’ is created by making a circle of chairs around a cluster of 2-6 chairs. The 2-6 chairs are for the pair or small group who will do the discussion. The outside circle is for the students who will listen to the topic and the quality of the discussion.
- The ‘fish’ (students in the centre) have a period of time (perhaps 10 minutes) for a discussion. Students around the outside are asked to listen for the content and quality of the discussion. You need to agree the criteria for judging this before you start. (Criteria could include: use of verifiable evidence and/or use of respectful language and gestures and/or everyone having a chance to speak.)
- After the period of time is up, they switch places with students on the outside and become listeners, with the new students now ‘fish’. The process is repeated.

**Adaptations to the strategy:**
- Rather than swap all the ‘fish’ and listeners, another variation is to switch students one pair at a time as the discussion continues.
- A ‘fishbowl’ can operate when there are two or more defined positions on a topic. Students representing one perspective are the ‘fish’ while the others listen. Then the ‘fish’ are changed and a discussion about each perspective is heard. This can give an insight into a perspective without setting up setting two perspectives against each other. Students can hear a sensitive or controversial topic explored and learn more about alternative viewpoints. Questioning across groups may, or may not, then occur.

**Teacher questioning to deepen thinking:**
Teacher questioning should focus on enabling reflection. It should focus on evaluating the effectiveness of the discussion and what was learnt from it; both in terms of how to conduct effective discussion as well as about the substance of the discussion itself. You might ask students to suggest how the discussion could have been improved. This reflective discussion could lead to individual written reflection.

**Resources needed**
Open topics, circle of chairs.

**Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan:**
- This strategy is useful for enabling students to really explore different perspectives on a topic. It encourages depth of thinking. It works best when students are genuinely knowledgeable about a topic, or part of a topic.
- In a history lesson the topic could be, for example, the consequences of the First World War. If each ‘fish’ group had a discussion topic of a particular aspect to research (a different country, or a different group such as women, wounded ex-soldiers, industrial workers, property-owners etc), they could then discuss their aspect as the others listened, leading to a general class discussion about the impact of the War and the reasons why there are many perspectives about its impact.

2.2.7: Strategy: Four Corners

**Purpose**
The Four Corners strategy provides a structure for students to show their viewpoint about a statement or assertion. Every member of the class takes part and gives their opinion in the discussion which follows. It can be used several times on one lesson to show changing opinions as more knowledge is gained. It can help students to think through and justify their opinions before a written task.

**The basic strategy**
- Identify the four corners of the classroom as ‘strongly disagree’, ‘disagree’, ‘agree’, ‘strongly agree’.
- Give students a statement or assertion and ask them to go to the corner that reflects their viewpoint. Some students may stand between corners and that is OK (see scaling in adaptations)
- Ask students to explain the reasoning for their choice of position. Give all students a chance to shift if they are persuaded by others’ arguments.
- By articulating their reasoning and hearing the reasoning of others, students are able to deepen and broaden their discussion of topics.
Adaptations to the strategy

• It is likely that students will automatically introduce nuance by standing between corners. Do not discourage this, but ask students to articulate their thoughts.

• Students from a corner can respectfully question and challenge the views of other corners.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking

Make sure to ask for evidence and developed reasoning when asking volunteers for their reasoning about their positioning. Be prepared to push students to deepen their answers. If students move position as a result of hearing an opinion, ask the student who moved to reflect on what it was that made the opinion they heard so persuasive. Model how the opinions articulated could be transferred into quality written work.

Resources needed

Headings for the four corners of the room to students know which is which, statements or assertions that are contested.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan:

• If the statement or assertion is one on which students are likely to already have some knowledge and therefore an opinion, this can be used as a starter activity.

• Once some more learning about a topic has taken place the strategy can then be deployed (once again). If the strategy is being repeated, then questioning can also include reasons why the positions may (or may not) have changed.

• An example of a civics style assertion that could be used is: ‘Migration benefits a country’. An example of a history style statement that could be used is: ‘A sudden migration is rarely in hindsight the ‘problem’ it might have seemed at the time.’

2.2.8: Strategy: Silent placemat conversation

Purpose

The aim of this strategy is to enable calm, thoughtful and democratic discussion. The activity is conducted in silence and all contributions are written on paper. This prevents head-to-head emotional discussion. It also facilitates reflection and participation from every group member, not just the most vocal and confident. It can be used to explore a topic in depth, to reach a consensus and/or to cooperate in arriving at a comprehensive answer to a question.

The basic strategy

• Students work in small groups (about 4) around a large piece of paper. In the centre is the material they are working upon. There are placemats (as per a dining table) drawn around the edge of the paper. Each student sits at a placemat.

• The material in the centre is a topic or theme that will provoke thought, a variety of perspectives and discussion. Students read about it in silence.

• They then work at their own placemat. This may be blank, or it may have a perspective on the topic to stimulate their thinking. Students write the knowledge, opinions and questions that they have about the topic/theme (using the perspective if there is one) onto the placemat.

• Students then rotate, in silence and read each of the other placemats, with their knowledge, opinions and questions of their peers. They add any written thoughts/questions they have stimulated by what they are reading onto the placemat.

• Students have then engaged with a range of thinking and are ready for a class discussion, or more input on the topic, or a written piece of work.

Adaptations to the strategy

• This strategy could be used at the start of a topic to enable students to discuss what they want to learn about a topic in a way that allows all ‘voices’ to be heard. A description of a key event, or a particular perspective is put in the centre. Students then write on their own placemats all the knowledge they would need and questions that they would need answering to understand it better. They then silently rotate from place to place around the table, reading each other’s ideas. They then have a silent conversation, writing around the centre and drawing lines, to agree as a group what they would like to know and investigate. This then becomes the group’s work-plan.

• It could also be used at the end of a topic. Students could have a question to answer in the middle. They firstly work silently making notes on what they would include in an answer to the question in their own placemat. They then rotate to read each other. They then have a silent discussion to agree the best answer that the group can form and write the notes for it in the centre around the question.

• Students could have a question or statement on the classroom board. They could then work silently and in writing to discern points of common ground to write in the centre of their table and points of disagreement to be written around the side in individual placemats.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking

As this is a silent strategy, it is good to intervene as little as possible. Teachers may well need to circulate and discreetly check in with individual students to give them the confidence and focus to write. This is often quite an unusual activity for students, especially if they are vocal and opinionated. In discussion afterwards, it is a good idea to explicitly debrief the process. How did this activity
help them to engage with a variety of opinions? What are the advantages of this process for making sure all ‘voices’ are ‘heard’? What are the limitations/frustrations of this process? Do the positives outweigh the negatives?

Resources needed
Large piece of paper, tables that can be sat around by a small group, theme/topic/stimulus material for the centre, possibly perspectives on the centre for each placemat.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan
- As the adaptations make clear this could be used as a starter.
- Or is could be used to conclude a topic.
- In a history lesson there could be a historical source in the centre and students could be asked to deploy their knowledge to contextualise it. Or there could be a piece of writing by a historian in the centre and the placemats could contain different pieces of source material. Students could identify the links between the source material and the constructed interpretation of the historian.
- In a civics lesson, there could be an opinion about a contested topic in the centre. Students could be asked to write their views in their placemat and then work silently to identify points of consensus, in order to come up with a view on the question that all group members can accept.

2.2.9: Strategy: Role-playing

Purpose
The aim of this strategy is to enable students to step away from their own perspective and to try to take on the perspective of another. This may be as an official role, such as a note-taker, or as a person who is/was involved in the events being studied. This distancing reduces the pressure on the individual student; the views being scrutinised by others are not ‘theirs’. It also requires students to deliberately acquire knowledge and think through a position before engaging with others. It enables a wider range of perspectives to be included than would be possible if just taking the views of everyone in the classroom.

The basic strategy
- The teacher selects a topic for debate or discussion. (A historical example could be: ‘Why was the considerable opposition to Hitler’s rule unsuccessful in the early 1930s?’)
- Students are then given a briefing sheet about a particular role. (In the example above the role could be about groups such as the communists, the youth groups, the churches, the liberals etc).
- These briefing sheets are read and enable students to learn about the role they are taking on, the stance of their person or group to other people or groups and the topic for discussion. Students prepare their positions.
- The teacher then chairs the role play meeting of participants.
- The teacher then leads a debrief of the learning. (In the exemplar case above, the discussion that ensues enables students to see that the majority opposition to Hitler were hopelessly divided about how to oppose him.)

Adaptations to the strategy
- Students can take on formal ‘workplace’ roles, such as chair, secretary, data-collector. They research the formalities of these roles and play their part in the discussion from these positions.
- Students could choose the topic for discussion and agree the roles and research them for themselves, agreeing terms of reference before the role play discussion to explore ideas in a ‘safe space’.
- Some students could take on roles and others could act as observers, whose role is to feedback on the feel and shape of the discussion and the dynamics between participants.
- A few students could take on roles and then be ‘hot-seated’ at the front of the class, with other students posing questions and counter-points to their arguments.

Teacher questioning to deepen thinking
During the discussion it may be appropriate for the teacher to act as a ‘devil’s advocate’ and/or to direct the conversation via questions in order to ensure the topic is fully explored in all its breadth and depth. Debriefing of work using this strategy should focus on what knowledge has been gained that has deepened understanding of the issue and perspectives on the issue. It may also be appropriate to question students to enable them to reflect on how it was possible to discuss a topic in role, that may have been less easy/comfortable to discuss out of role.

Resources needed
Briefing sheets about the roles that students are to adopt.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan
- It is usually best to use this strategy when students already have good general knowledge about a topic, including a good sense of period and place.
- This strategy is an excellent way to highlight complexity of issues, diversity of perspectives, overlap between perspectives and genuine dilemmas that people face in taking positions.
2.2.10: Strategy: All-stand consensus

**Purpose**
The aim of this strategy is to enable students to explore the common ground between different perspectives and to decide and discern what they (or their characters) can agree upon about a topic. It introduces and/or involves practising the reaching of consensus, rather than requiring a ‘win’ or a detailed outcome. Students arrive at their consensus through dialogue and discussion. They need to support each other so that every group member is confident to articulate the group's position.

**The basic strategy**
- The teacher gives small groups of students (about 4 per group works well) a topic or question to discuss.
- Students stand and discuss the topic or question with a view to arriving at a position or answer that everyone in the group is happy with and able to clearly articulate.
- When students feel they have reached a consensus that everyone is happy with and able to articulate, they indicate this by sitting down.
- The teacher then asks one of the group members to articulate the position or answer. If the group member is unable to do so, then all the group stand up again and continue to discuss until every group member can speak about the topic.
- Whole class feedback then focuses on what the common points of agreement were about the topic or question and how easy (or not) it was to reach a consensus, and why. Also, methods that were used to ensure that everyone felt confident to articulate the group’s position or answer.

**Adaptations to the strategy**
- Students can take on a role, such as a character in a historical event. (An example could be the different roles at a historic peace negotiation.) They then explore what the common ground was on the topic.
- Students can use this strategy to teach each other so that they can answer exam-style questions, or can then move to another group where they have to explain some learning and/or the thinking of their colleagues.
- Students can use the silent placemat conversation strategy to write their own positions and then to agree a written position into the placemat in the centre of the table. The consensus finding stage could be done verbally or in writing.
- Students can explore all the points of disagreement, rather than agreement.

**Teacher questioning to deepen thinking**
The concept of consensus may need to be explained to students. Consensus is not about winning or fixing on one person’s viewpoint. It’s about making a decision, or arriving at a perspective that everyone can support to some degree. Reaching a group consensus is challenging and students may need careful support.

Questioning should explore the common ground, perhaps there is plenty, perhaps there is very little, perhaps some of it is detailed, perhaps some of it is only very generally scoped out. Questioning about process should encourage students to reflect on the task, the general lessons and not each other. For example, the ways they identified areas where no consensus was possible, rather than a focus on who did not agree with whom. Questioning can also draw out what made for effective teamwork.

**Resources needed**
Topic / question chosen by the teacher.

**Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan**
- The decision about where to use this in a sequence of learning is very topic and question dependent. Some topics may require students to have a good knowledge base taught by the teacher in advance, others may not.
- All-stand consensus can be used as an effective revision strategy, when students are required to use information previously taught. It encourages students to deploy learning and helps them remember knowledge.

2.2.11: Strategy: Solution-focused debate

**Purpose**
This is not a strategy that involves debating a particular position, or even arriving at a conclusion. It is about thoroughly exploring an issue and what a successful outcome would look like. Its purpose is to enable all participants to better understand all the issues, the perspectives and the change that would be needed to reach resolution; whether or not this is currently likely or possible. It does not require students to take positions, but encourages them to become better informed.

**The basic strategy**
- Identify a problem or an issue with as much factual detail as possible. Students may need information cards to do this, or they may already have enough knowledge.
- The teachers usually acts as the discussion facilitator.
• Describe the problem or issue from as many directions as possible. For example: Who is it a problem for? Where is it a problem? How is it a problem? When it is a problem? Why is it perceived as a problem? The idea here is not to find a resolution, but to fully explore all the different ways that the problem (or issue) is perceived by people.

• Moving to a solution-focused exploration. To do this a group needs to first talk about how people would know a problem or issue had been resolved. Then discussion focuses on what approaches could solve the problem. Questions such as: what would happen in an ideal world? Where can we find examples of a similar problem being resolved? How do you think this problem would be approached by…? Again, the aim is to explore all thoughts about solutions, not to decide upon or to judge them.

• Finally, the discussion returns to the concrete and asks what would need to happen for any of these solutions to be adopted? What are the blocks to a solution?

Adaptations to the strategy
• Students could use a similar process to talk about implementing a law. What would a law to achieve something look like? The focus is thus not on a principled position, but on a practical solution.

• To build empathy for a historical situation, students can be given a historical problem before they study the actual approach taken. For example, by taking this approach with a topic such as the making of peace in Europe in 1919 students are better able to understand the complexities and less likely to leap to unhelpful, over-simplistic moral judgements about the participants.

• In some situations it may be helpful to ask students to think from a perspective on the problem or issue that is different from their own.

Resources needed
• Problem / issue chosen by the teacher.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan
• In history lessons it can be used when the problem is well-known to students, but attempts to solve it have not yet been studied and it would be helpful for students to have a better sense of period in order to enable them to think and understand the topic more deeply.

• It can be used when there is a topic in the news that students want, or ought, to engage with. A topical matter of political policy could be chosen so that students can better understand/mirror the discussions going on in society / their parliament.

• It can be used with any complex topic that is unlikely to have easy solutions, but where a depth of understanding is required to move beyond simple polarised positions.

2.2.12: Strategy: Dialogue to develop empathy

Purpose
This is a strategy designed to build empathy for other viewpoints, where strongly held viewpoints may seem irreconcilable. It is unlikely to create agreement, but should create empathy for other positions. It is used to give people a chance to express themselves and to be listened to at a deep level. It is about why people hold their views.

The basic strategy
• Explain to students that the focusing is on understanding the needs and interests of people who express particular viewpoints on issues. The aim is not to prove ourselves more right that the other people, but to listen deeply, to ask open and non-judgemental questions and to deepen understanding of the other person’s interests and needs.

• Students state their positions on a topic and everyone listens carefully, not attempting to argue even if they disagree.

• Participants are asked to describe and explain what in their professional or personal experience has influenced their position on the issue.

• After each participant speaks, the teacher summaries and reflects accurately what has been said, giving the participant a chance to clarify and contribute.

• Questions on cards are then presented to the group. They choose what they want to ask. Questions are general, such as: ‘What is it that you want?’ ‘What do you want to achieve through the position you are taking?’

• After each question has been responded to, the listeners then say: ‘What I have understood from you…’ They try to summarise what has been said and the emotions behind it. There can then be clarification to ensure there is a full understanding.

• The aim is to reach a deeper understanding and not to reach agreement. The teacher needs to keep the focus on what has been heard and what deeper understanding has been achieved.

• In the final stages it is important to summarise and to ask people what has surprised them about the learning.
Adaptations to the strategy
- Students could be asked to take on roles and/or the position of the opposite side. However, this drastically changes the strategy as they cannot speak from the heart in the same way. It can however be ‘safer’, while also less potentially transformative.

Resources needed
- The space needs to be safe. The teacher needs to be well-prepared and have thought of questions and any problems for students that might emerge doing this.

Ideas about where to use this strategy in a learning plan
- This strategy should only be used by a teacher who feels confident and with a known class. It will be necessary to lay ground rules for respect and to leave sufficient time for a debrief (see earlier sections of this guide for support with how to do this).

2.3 Lessons from the academic discipline of history

The academic discipline of history has discussion and debate at its heart. For academic historians the past is contested. They engage in evidence-based debate, using surviving source material and the views of other historians, to construct interpretations of the past which are contestable. As a result, we can think about the knowledge and skills of a historian to provide us with inspiration for classroom activities to promote an understanding of dialogue, debate and discussion not only in the history classroom, but also in civics and social sciences education classes. In this section we outline some examples of these.

- The same evidence can be used to arrive at different conclusions
- Give students two interpretations from historians that draw upon the same evidence base. Give students some of the source material that has been used by the historians as evidence. Ask students to identify how the same source material has been used to arrive at different conclusions. This may be via selection, or it may be via interpreting exactly the same information differently, or by asking different questions of the source material.
- The context and purpose of historical research impacts the interpretation produced
- Give students different parts of the same event or person’s life but the same question to ask of the information. Sometimes people or events were so complex that there are many different interpretations of them that are possible. Take, for example, a figure such as Winston Churchill who led a long and complex public life. A historian studying Churchill in the context of India would be likely to arrive at a very different perspective from a historian studying Churchill in Britain in 1940. It is not a case of one wrong or one right, but that the questions lead to different answers depending on the focus taken.

- Historians are products of their time
- Historians expect many causes
- Academic historians know that events and changes are not caused by one thing. There are many reasons why things happen. Instead, historians are interested in thinking about how the conditions, characters and events interact to bring about a historical shift or moment. This focus on the interplay of causes creates lively debate as historians try to understand the reasons for events such as the outbreak of war in Europe in 1914. Set up card sorting activities of causes so that students have to discuss connections.
- Historians are open to evidence shifting their perspectives
- You can model this for students by describing an image they think is familiar and then revealing it. For example, in northern Europe the classic image that comes to mind when one thinks of the Western Front is white men in trenches. You could describe an image of men in trenches and then reveal a trench full of men from the Indian army. This is a simple and effective way to reveal and challenge assumptions and encourage students to be open-minded.
- Historians are fascinated by how views are created
- Historians often engage with trying to understand how views and positions have come about. That is, the processes and experiences that have brought a person or group of people to arrive at a particular way of looking at the world. In classrooms, students can be asked to study a controversial text, but to concentrate on how the view is constructed and what other knowledge is being used to inform what is written. Or they can take a controversial decision and investigate the chain of events and thoughts that led up to it being made. This process enables students to develop a better understanding of viewpoints and experiences that may be different from their own.
- Historians study texts in depth and read for meaning
- Encouraging students to really take time with a text that gives an opinion encourages them to look beyond the surface features. If students are given two texts of opinions on some length, they can identify areas of common ground, divergence, contradiction etc. This sort of activity develops a greater critical faculty and an appreciation of complexity and nuance.
Part 3: Assessing competences

There is more to enabling effective dialogue, debate and/or discussion in the classroom than a tool-kit of teaching and assessment strategies. That is why, in both the lesson plans and sections of this guide, attention is given to how to teach and assess in a way that is in line with the values and principles that underpin high quality history, heritage and citizenship education. For example, how to plan effective lessons, how to use questioning and how to plan assessment and carry it out as learning is taking place. While the guide itself is not theoretical, there is a reading and resources section for teachers who would like to read and research more for themselves.

Figure 2: The need for curriculum alignment in planning for learning

When planning for assessment it is important to ensure that we align the curriculum or topic with teaching, learning, assessment and reporting. It is important to decide which set of Variety of Viewpoints you want to use to teach a particular topic. Then to use the teaching guide to decide which teaching methodology you will use and focus on what exactly the students will be doing for the lesson. Next, decide how you might assess this learning and how you will report or give feedback using this assessment information. To summarise these three questions are helpful:

- Q1: What do we want students to know by the end of the lesson or activity?
- Q2: What activities do we need to put in place so that students can gain the knowledge we want them to gain?
- Q3: How will we know students have learnt what we planned for them to learn?

3.1 Formative and summative assessment

In a project where discussion, dialogue and debate are the focus of the teaching and learning, formative assessment, that is, assessment that happens in real time, or has an impact in real time, in the classroom is central to any discussion of assessing competences. Formative assessment (FA) (also referred to as Assessment for Learning or AfL) strategies feature prominently in KeyCoNet’s review of literature on assessing key competences (Grayson, 2014; Pepper, 2013).

Black and Wiliam (2009, p.9) define formative assessment:

Practice in a classroom is formative to the extent that evidence about student achievement is elicited, interpreted, and used by teachers, learners, or their peers, to make decisions about the next steps in instruction that are likely to be better, or better founded, than the decisions they would have taken in the absence of the evidence that was elicited.

The important focus here is that formative assessment is used to make decisions about the next steps in learning, this means it is used to inform the teacher and the student on learning and teaching, it is about moving the learning forward.

Wiliam (2010, p.154) suggests that formative assessment entails five key strategies. These are:

- Clarifying, sharing and understanding learning intentions and criteria for success.
- Creating effective classroom discussion, debate and dialogue, use activities and tasks that elicit evidence of learning. Here teachers used questioning skills, poster presentations, dialogical teaching, show-me-boards and so on to elicit evidence of learning.
- Providing feedback that moves learners forward. The feedback must be linked to the criteria for success and learning intentions and be task focused, letting students know where they are in their learning, where they are going and what needs to be done to get them there. This feedback should support the development of self-knowledge and motivation of the learner. Harlen (2006, p.105) advises that the process of deciding on the steps to move learning forward should involve the students so they are not passive recipients of the teacher’s judgement of their work. Feedback needs to focus on:

  - Formulating: Can you think of a different way of tackling this issue? What sort of information might be helpful? What assumptions have you made?
  - Reasoning: How have you come to this conclusion? Have you checked your sources? What would happen if...?
Interpreting: How can you test the accuracy of your sources? What other sources could you have chosen?

Communicating: I find it difficult to follow your thinking here. Can you present your reasoning so that someone else can follow every step?

Activating students as instructional resources for one another. Here, teachers are encouraged to use cooperative learning, peer feedback, peer teaching and group discussions. These pedagogical strategies are under-used in most settings (Volante, 2010).

Activating students as the owners of their own learning. This focus on student self-evaluation is intended to help students to feel responsible for their own learning, and to be aware of the process of learning (not just the outcomes), and their development (Voogt and Kasurinen, 2005). According to Petty (2009) it encourages students to realise that success or failure depends not on talent, luck or ability, but on practice, effort and using right strategies. The advantage of helping students develop self-assessment skills are manifold, including:

- Makes students aware of the characteristics of ‘good work’
- Helps them to improve their work
- Encourages them to set goals
- Encourages them to take responsibility for their own learning
- Encourages them to reflect on themselves as learners and so learn how to learn.

Harlen (2012) maintains that feedback to students plays a key role in determining their self-efficacy, their motivation for learning and their ability to take on learning activities. Appendices 4, 6 and 7 offer some useful strategies when encouraging students to self-assess their learning.

Summative assessments are used to evaluate student learning, their level of skill acquisition and academic achievement at the conclusion of a defined instructional period—typically at the end of a project, unit, course, or school year. Generally, summative assessments are defined by three major criteria:

- The tests, assignments, or projects are used to determine whether students have learned what they were expected to learn. In other words, what makes an assessment “summative” is not the design of the test, assignment, or self-evaluation, but the way it is used—i.e., to determine whether and to what degree students have learned the material they have been taught.

- Summative assessments are given at the conclusion of a specific instructional period, and therefore they are generally evaluative, rather than diagnostic.

- Summative-assessment results are often recorded as scores or grades that are then factored into a student’s permanent academic record.

It is useful to see formative and summative assessment as existing along a dimension. The difference is how the assessment evidence is used. If it does not feed back into and inform teaching then it is summative.

3.2 Assessing competences in Learning to Disagree

Boud (2000) writes of the double duty of assessment in which assessment activities have to focus on the immediate task of equipping students to develop lifelong social and civic competences. Certain tools such as VINTAGE (questionnaire-based tool to assess the range of key competences) have been devised but these do not adequately assess the transversal competences (soft skills rooted in experience), such as the social and civic. Assessment of competences must therefore assess not only skills and knowledge but also values, and attitudes that support the development of these.

Assessing social and civic competences has to date proven challenging. A 2009 communication from the Commission of the European Communities stated:

A large number of countries are introducing reforms that explicitly use the Key Competences framework as a reference point. Good progress has been made in adapting school curricula. But there is still much to be done to support teachers’ competence development, to update assessment methods, and to introduce new ways of organising learning (2009, 3).

Research highlights the significant range of challenges here. For one, there are real and substantive risks in privileging individual testing and examination, in particular for marginalised and disadvantaged groups who may have experienced failure in school. Overly specified learning outcomes with behavioural indicators can reduce learning to a sequence of isolated tasks rather than assessment of holistic competences. Attitudinal questionnaires can be problematic because attitudes vary over time and in real life contexts, whilst questionnaires give only a snapshot in test-based conditions. Additionally, these snapshots are reliant on the accuracy of the learners’ self-reports, and the answers may be influenced by perceived social desirability of certain answers. It has also been argued that this method measures relatively superficial knowledge and learning and may not pick up on key competences. Hipkins et al. (2007) pointed out that when we assess these competences we need to reflect on the traditional approaches to learning outcomes in schools, assessment and rationale for assessment, alongside the use made of assessment information. She questions
the assumptions underpinning traditional assessment by noting that for assessment of competences: one-off judgments have little validity in themselves but may contribute to a growing assessment picture as the student works towards meeting identified learning goals.

The context of the task requires careful attention. Tasks need not only to provide opportunities for demonstrating competences but also to invite students to show what they know and can do. That is, the task must be meaningful and engaging for the student. The European Commission Thematic Working Group: Assessment of Key Competences (Pepper, 2012) explored how to make key competences (sic. social and civic) assessment ready in line with validation concerns calling for teachers to explicitly identify and state what it means to be competent at given levels of learning. While this is admirable, it risks creating an overly detailed list of specific criteria and standards. To minimise this, what is needed are clear, tangible learning outcomes associated with each competence, along with the range of contexts in which they can be developed and therefore reliably assessed. The emphasis here is focused not just on product but also on process so that social and civic competences are firstly developed and then reported. This requires agreeing upon a clear definition of the competence and developing it into more specific learning outcomes. Work is then required to develop a shared understanding among teachers of these intended learning outcomes (Gordon et al. 2009). For the assessment methods to be valid requires “not only the learning outcomes to be clearly specified but also for these learning outcomes to be the sole focus of the methods used to assess learners’ key competences” (European Commission 2012, p.11). In effect assessing only those aspects deemed competence relevant.

3.3 Assessment Tools

3.3.1 Questioning as an assessment tool

Bloom’s Taxonomy (Bloom and Krathwohl, 1956) offers a way to think about varying levels of difficulty (from the simple to the complex) when assessing. The table below sets out the kinds of questions that can be used as part of this strategy. It is important to note that although Bloom wrote his taxonomy as a list of question types that are ranked in order of level of difficulty - from lower order knowledge recall (remembering) and comprehension (understanding) skills to higher order skills of application (can you apply what you learnt), analysis, synthesis (making high level judgements) and evaluation, all levels are important in teaching and learning and are especially useful when assessing social and civic competences. Bloom’s idea of a hierarchy of difficulty is contested, but each aspect can still be used to develop topics specific questions that vary in levels of difficulty, both within as well as across the aspects. Table 1 below suggests some of these.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Comprehension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who, what, why, where, when, which?</td>
<td>Describe in your own words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe or define</td>
<td>Summarise what you have learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you find?</td>
<td>Classify, categorise the facts to show</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall, select, list</td>
<td>What is the main idea of?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How did … happen?</td>
<td>Interpret in your own words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What were the main?</td>
<td>Compare and contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Label, select</td>
<td>Can you explain what is happening?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What examples can you find to?</td>
<td>Why do you think?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What facts show that?</td>
<td>What conclusions can you draw from?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How would you organise … to show?</td>
<td>What would you infer from?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would happen if?</td>
<td>What is the relationship between?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How could you use what we have learned?</td>
<td>Classify or categorise the evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can you make a distinction between?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Synthesis</th>
<th>Evaluating understanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How would you improve/solve?</td>
<td>What do you think about?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you propose an alternative?</td>
<td>What would you prioritise?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How could you adopt/modify?</td>
<td>What do you think is the most important?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How could you test?</td>
<td>Why do you think … is not/is important?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would happen if?</td>
<td>What would you recommend?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you predict?</td>
<td>How could you solve/improve?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What solutions would you suggest?</td>
<td>How could you determine?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is important to think and plan what questions you will ask in a class. The variety of viewpoints in this project can provide a stimulus for the learner to engage with the controversial issue, however, the teacher needs to be skilful in asking probing questions. There are many opportunities for formative feedback through how the teacher responds to the student answers. Effective questioning displays the following five characteristics:

- Questions are planned that encourage thinking and reasoning
- Students are given time to think
- The teacher avoids judging students’ responses
- Students’ responses are followed up in ways that encourage deeper thinking (see for example Petty, 2009; Gardner, 2012).
Webb's *Depth of Knowledge* provides another useful framework for thinking about the varying levels of assessment strategies set out in Bloom's Taxonomy. As a model it sets out four levels with each new one becoming progressively more higher order and demanding, although, again, this is contested, for example, is explanation of how a historical event happened always easier that explaining its outcome?

Table 2: Webb’s Depth of Knowledge linked to potential activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>DOK 1</th>
<th>DOK 2</th>
<th>DOK 3</th>
<th>DOK 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recall and Reproduction</td>
<td>Skills / Concepts (basic application)</td>
<td>Short-term Strategic Thinking</td>
<td>Extended Thinking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Verbs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>DOK 1</th>
<th>DOK 2</th>
<th>DOK 3</th>
<th>DOK 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Possible products**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>DOK 1</th>
<th>DOK 2</th>
<th>DOK 3</th>
<th>DOK 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiz, list, worksheet, explanation, podcast, blog</td>
<td>Illustration, simulation, interview, blogging commenting</td>
<td>Debate, report, podcast, film, investigation</td>
<td>Film, project, newspaper, media product, story</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Potential activities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>DOK 1</th>
<th>DOK 2</th>
<th>DOK 3</th>
<th>DOK 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop a concept map Make a timeline Write in your own words Report/ present to the class Write a brief outline of the event, process or story</td>
<td>Write an explanation of this topic for others Make a model Research project</td>
<td>Make a flow chart to show critical stages Prepare a report about an area of study Prepare a list of criteria to judge</td>
<td>Tasks that require perspective taking and collaboration with groups of people Writing tasks that have a strong emphasis on persuasion Applying information to solve ill-defined problems in novel situations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Role for the teacher**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>DOK 1</th>
<th>DOK 2</th>
<th>DOK 3</th>
<th>DOK 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directs, examines, listens, questions Shows, observes, facilitates, questions Probes, guides, evaluates, accepts</td>
<td>Facilitates, reflects, extends, analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Role for the student**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>DOK 1</th>
<th>DOK 2</th>
<th>DOK 3</th>
<th>DOK 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Responds, memorises, explains, describes Solves problems, demonstrates use of knowledge, illustrates Discuss, debate, assesses, justifies, disputes, decides, argues Designs, takes risks, proposes, creates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Adapted from Webb’s Depth of Knowledge Guide Career and Technical Education Definitions (Source: [https://www.aps.edu/sap/documents/resources/Webbs_DOK_Guide.pdf](https://www.aps.edu/sap/documents/resources/Webbs_DOK_Guide.pdf), 2009)**

Much like Bloom’s Taxonomy these strategies encourage the design and use of varied, real-world assessment strategies. Certain strategies that might include the following:

Table 3: Description of assessment strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment strategy</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rich Tasks and Extended Projects</td>
<td>Projects and task that require enquiry and higher order thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolios</td>
<td>Provide a form of concrete documentation and can be a resource in identifying and specifying examples of competences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Based Assessment</td>
<td>Authentic tasks such as exhibitions, group work, interviews, presentations, debates, role-plays, etc.… (see Appendix 2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image Based Activities</td>
<td>Collage activities, posters, etc.… (see Appendix 3).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot Seating</td>
<td>Includes perspective taking or the ability to see positions or an issue from several viewpoints including those of diverse groupings (see Appendix 2 and Appendix 6).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document Analysis</td>
<td>Analysing documentation to assess fact accuracy and draw informed conclusions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generating Critical Questions</td>
<td>Students engaged in self-generation of critical questions. An important way for students to exercise agency in the assessment process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphic Organisers</td>
<td>Such as Argument mapping, Fishbone activities, Cause-Effect Charts, Etc.… (See Appendix 4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placemat Activities</td>
<td>Provides an opportunity for each student in a group to record individual responses and ideas regarding an issue, topic or question for consideration (See Appendix 5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A key value in many of these strategies is the opportunity for students to take the lead and become active partners in the assessment process. This aspect is explored in further detail in section 2.3.4 below.

**3.3.2 Using Rubrics**

When assessing competences bespoke rubrics have gained significance in recent years with attention focused on identifying relevant success criteria and assessing these based on the displayed level of acquired competency. For example in Table 4 below, a rubric is presented which can be used to assess students’ ability to distinguish evidence-based facts from unsubstantiated opinion:
Learning to Disagree: Teachers’ Guides

### Table 4: Example of a rubric assessing the ability to distinguish evidence-based facts from unsubstantiated opinion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task type</th>
<th>Yet to meet expectations</th>
<th>In line with expectations</th>
<th>Above expectations</th>
<th>Exceptional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distinguish evidence-based facts from unsubstantiated opinion.</td>
<td>Student is not yet able to distinguish evidence-based fact from opinions.</td>
<td>Student is able to recognise and distinguish some but not all incidences.</td>
<td>Student is able to recognise and distinguish most incidences.</td>
<td>Student is able to recognise and distinguish all incidences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A second rubric in Table 5 below reverses the approach and begins with the “Exceptional” criteria. This sample rubric can be used to assess when self or peer assessing students’ discussion skills (see section 2.3.4 for a more detailed treatment of student self and peer assessment). See also Lander, 2002, on scoring group discussions.

### Table 5: Example of a rubric assessing students’ discussion skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self or Peer assessment of discussion skills</th>
<th>Exceptional</th>
<th>Above Expectations</th>
<th>In Line with Expectations</th>
<th>Yet to meet Expectations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is a proactive participant showing balance between listening, initiating, and focusing discussion Displays a proactive use of a whole range of discussion skills to keep it going and to involve everyone in the group Understands the purpose of the discussion and keeps it focused on the topic Applies skills with confidence, showing leadership and sensitivity</td>
<td>Is an active participant showing balance between listening, initiating, and focusing discussion Is aggressive rather than assertive in keeping the discussion going Understands the purpose of the discussion but is more focused on the topic rather than the people Applies skills with confidence, but lacks leadership and sensitivity</td>
<td>Is an active participant showing balance between listening, initiating, and focusing discussion Demonstrates elements of discussion skills but uses them less often than others Keeps the discussion going but more as a supporter than a leader Demonstrates a positive approach but is more focused on getting things done than on having a positive discussion</td>
<td>Is an active listener but defers to others easily Participates but does not use skills such as summarising and clarifying Lacks balance between discussion and analytical skills Lacks participation resulting in little evidence of with which to assess</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.3 Assessment Items

As stated, assessment of social and civic competency requires evaluation of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. Research (Rychen and Salganik 2003, European Commission 2007, Hoskins and Deakin Crick 2010) highlights that appropriate approaches to assessing social and civic competences are those that:

- Recognise the value of using multiple approaches and strategies
- Prioritise active learning environments
- Are formative – process and outcome based rather than solely outcome driven
- Document students’ progression and achievement.
- Involve students in processes of peer and self-evaluation

KeyCoNet (Pepper, 2013) support this combination of approaches and suggest the following might well be drawn upon when assessing these competences:

- Standardised tests
- Attitudinal questionnaires
- Likert scale and multiple-choice questions
- Performance-based assessment
- Peer and self-assessment.

Learning Portfolios (for example, e-Portfolios) may also be relevant here. They provide a form of concrete documentation and can be a resource for identifying and specifying examples of competences and serve as motivators in themselves.

In any assessment task, it is essential that learning objectives be clearly communicated to the students. The teacher needs to not only ensure that their students understand these objectives, but also are clear on the assessment criteria which will be used to assess their work. Teachers need to:

- Decide and communicate clearly what is going to be learnt in that lesson;
- Design varied ways to check and assess students’ understanding of the learning goals (success criteria);
- Explain to students the success criteria which will be used to assess their work;
• Decide and communicate how feedback will be provided
• Consider if and how the students might take an active part in the assessment process

3.3.4 Student Self and Peer Assessment

Hattie and Timperley (2007) and Sadler (2010) note the importance of student involvement in the assessment process and for them to become assessment capable learners. Simply sharing assessment knowledge with students in supportive classrooms will not, in itself, promote student assessment capability. Students need to be provided with sustained and supported experiences to improve their work.

There are clear benefits for students when they are provided with opportunities to self-assess and peer assess their work and the work of others. They:

• Become responsible for their own learning
• Are able to recognise next steps in their learning
• Become actively in the learning process (partner)
• Become more independent and motivated.

There are also clear benefits for teachers with an important shift in responsibility from the teacher to the student with students actively engaged as partners in the assessment process. Student goal setting is however required to ensure academic improvement. The document below provides an example of a self-assessment approach. Students are tasked to assess their work individually at first and only when they have done so does the teacher actively engage. For these strategies to be effective, it is important that the teacher provide students with constructive feedback.

Example: Essay Self-Assessment Proforma

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Self-assessment</th>
<th>Teacher Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did you relate each of your arguments to the essay question?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you give arguments both for, and against: the proposition in the essay question and major points or conclusions you reached?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you give enough evidence, examples and illustrations for each of your arguments?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you prioritise the arguments for and against and evaluate them?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Petty (2009) Evidence-Based teaching. 2nd Edition.

What is set out above can and should be adapted depending on the particular task at hand.

3.3.5 Using oral assessment

Oral assessments are often referred to as performance-based assessment. Murchan and Shiel (2017) describe performance-based assessment as the assessment of a learner’s ability to apply knowledge, skills and understanding, usually in authentic real-life settings. From this project oral assessment may offer a valid and reliable way to assess learners’ ability to present cogent arguments on a variety of viewpoints around controversial issues. Murchan and Shiel recommend the use of an appropriate scoring tool (see Appendix 2) to ensure that “relevant aspects of the performance are assessed (validity) and that the assessment is marked in a consistent manner (reliability)” (2017, p. 116).

3.3.6 Bringing the learning together – Assessing teaching strategies that are appropriate for developing dialogue, discussion and/or debate in the classroom

In Section 2.2 (above) there is a summary table of twelve teaching strategies. Based on the content set out in this section, the table is reproduced here with some suggested methods through which to assess these. Please note, the suggested assessment methods are not exhaustive and are provided to indicate some diverse assessment strategies. Other strategies set out across this Guide such as summative testing are not listed but may equally play an important role here.

Table 6: Assessing teaching strategies that are appropriate for developing dialogue, discussion and/or debate in the classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching strategy</th>
<th>Assessment suggestions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dinner party table</td>
<td>Graphic organisers such as Venn diagrams or Fishbone (see Appendix 4). Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria. Students are asked to write a reflective log focused on their learning from the activity (assessed through pre-defined success criteria). Ask students to create five challenging questions to ask those with differing viewpoints to theirs (see “question stems” in Section 2.3.3.) Hot/Cold: Assessing Persuasive Impact (see Appendix 6).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon debate</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intentions / criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Placemat activity (see Appendix 5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a Mind map to capture the diversity of viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a one-page summary of the debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed-dating</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Placemat activity (see Appendix 5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a Mind map or poster to capture the diversity of viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a one-page summary of the debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing match</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Placemat activity (see Appendix 5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a Mind map to capture the diversity of viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a one-page summary of the debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becoming a picture</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assessing Presentations (see Appendix 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graphjc organisers such as Venn diagrams (see Appendix 4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students are asked to write a Reflective log focused on learning from the activity (assessed through pre-defined success criteria).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ask students to create five challenges questions to ask those with differing viewpoints to theirs (see &quot;question stems&quot; in Section 2.3.3.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishbowl</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graphjc organisers such as Fish Bowl (see Appendix 4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a Mind map to capture the diversity of viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a one-page summary of the debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four corners</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Placemat activity (see Appendix 5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students are asked to write a reflective log focused on learning from the activity (assessed through pre-defined success criteria).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ask students to create five challenges questions to ask those with differing viewpoints to theirs (see &quot;question stems&quot; in Section 2.3.3.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silent placemat conversation</td>
<td>Rubric focused on pre-defined learning intention/criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Placemat activity (see Appendix 5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students are asked to create five challenges questions to ask those with differing viewpoints to theirs (see &quot;question stems&quot; in Section 2.3.3.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create a Mind map or poster to capture the diversity of viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graphic organisers such as Venn diagrams (see Appendix 4).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Concluding Comments on Assessment

Social and civic competences are:

1. Best evaluated using a diverse range of assessment methodologies such as:
   - Rich Tasks and Extended Projects
   - Portfolios
   - Performance Based Assessment
   - Image Based Activities
   - Document Analysis
   - Generating Critical Questions
   - Graphic Organisers
   - Placemat Activities
   - Reflective essay

2. Best supported through embedding a strength-based approach that seeks to identify and build on existing capacities rather than a deficit-based approach (e.g. highlighting points of weakness).

3. Best exercised through an enquiry-based approach.

4. Best cultivated through active learning environments.

5. Best assessed through formative based assessment, which compliments, where relevant, summative assessment

It is important for all teachers to exercise judgement to ensure that classroom-based assessments do not become a self-inflicted chore or burden. The key task is to close the loop and work with students in the assessment of these competences. Let them know what you, as their teacher have learned from their feedback and how you are using that information to improve their learning.

Appendix 1: Argument Mapping (From Dwyer, 2017)

When it comes to analysing the basis for a person’s belief, we can construct the structure of their argument or debate for analysis (from our variety of viewpoints) by looking for arguments that support or refute the belief, by looking for arguments that support this first level of argument and so on, filling in a map like below. What we get as a result is a hierarchical structure, in which we can analyse each independent proposition by identifying what types of arguments others are using when trying to persuade us to share their point of view (see also Hess, 2009).

Being able to analyse the structure of an argument and the sources of propositions used within it allows us to being to evaluate the argument/debate by examining:

- The credibility of the propositions
- The relevance of the propositions
- The logical strength of the argument/debate
- Potential omissions, biases and imbalance in the argument/debate

In this way an argument or debate is both a teaching and an assessment tool. The argument map and questions on it are the evidence of learning that can be assessed.

Step 1: Teacher decides on the question [argument, debate] to ask, for example: Migration is good for everyone. The class are arranged into groups working with one argument map.

Step 2: Students read the numbered Variety of Viewpoints and start to construct an argument map. This can be done on paper or using mini white boards. The teacher can walk among the groups and help if there are any words to be explained.

Step 3: Based on your identification. And structure of the argument, look for any potential imbalances, omissions or bias in the argument. Make a list of your observations. The teacher could then ask the groups to look for information on this missing material/argument for homework. Alternatively, this could form the basis of a class discussion (Dwyer, 2017).

Possible questions to use:
- Do the authors sufficiently support their claims in the VoV?
- Are there alternative views not represented?
- What is your opinion on the argument that migration is good for everyone?
The teacher can use the argument map to ascertain if the students can understand the main arguments being made in the VoVs and can mark the questions to assess this understanding. Depending on the learning outcomes and the success criteria, you could use a marking rubric or a marking scheme for this.

**Appendix 2: Assessing Presentations**

Step 1: Either students or teacher can decide on the topic for the presentation. Agree the criteria for success with the class for example agree the following about the presentation style and agree kind of knowledge, values, skills and attitudes they need to show in their presentation. You can focus on just one or two aspects in any one presentation. Presentation skills need to be taught. Sometimes it is good to ask them to list what makes a good presentation and to rank their list. This will help them to discuss and to understand the success criteria. Decide if they will use a PowerPoint for their presentation.

- Use of notes
- Eye contact with the audience
- Ability to make speech interesting or amusing
- Good use of formal English, no slang
- Clear delivery of well supported arguments
- Organisation of ideas
- Ability to persuade audience

Step 2: Students either alone or in groups prepare for the presentation.

- Jot down list of ideas – as many as possible
- Sort the ideas and put them in logical order
- Add details for each point – examples, statistics, stories
- Write your speech into a logical and fluent form
- Practice with cue cards

Step 3: Students give their presentations. You can adapt the marking scheme below to mark the presentations. The simpler marking scheme can be used if you want self and peer assessment.
Example: Marking scheme for group presentations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class:</th>
<th>Day/Time:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group being marked:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Marking Scheme for group presentations
mark for detail, then award overall mark for each section

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mark for detail, then award overall mark for each section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1=poor  2=good  3=very good  4=excellent  5=best</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1) Content

Introduction and: Identifies objectives, purpose, engages audience from the start

Structure: Gains audience’s attention logical, clear, comprehensive

Key points and Body: displays a good grasp of the subject an accurate account; addresses core issues is appropriate for audience

Well Researched: Has consulted a number of sources

Accuracy: All information is accurate

Close: Provides conclusion, integration and control

1) Content Mark Overall - comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Media used

Minimum length requirement met

Learning Outcomes met

Media is clear, easily understood, language accessible

Use of colour, imagery etc.

Media ties in with presentation well

Other (use of extras etc.)

2) Media Mark Overall - comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PowerPoint Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3) Process/Professionalism:

Clear speech: audible, nervousness controlled

Personal energy: has enthusiasm, show confidence/control; avoids reading from notes; addresses whole audience, projects personality,

Audience engaged: attention captured and sustained

Good use of eye contact and gestures

3) Process Mark Overall - comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4) Overview - Effectiveness and Reflections:

Your overview of effectiveness: Objectives have been met

Message was communicated and understood. The experience was a pleasurable one!

4) Overview Mark

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overview Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4) Overall Reflection and comments

Overall Mark

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Grade on Project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: Peer assessment of an oral presentation

Formative Peer assessment of an Oral Presentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure of presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideas &amp; logic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Originality &amp; entertainment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delivery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Body language/eye contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice – pace, volume, clarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language appropriate to purpose and audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct grammar, pronunciation, word selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of visual aids</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Over all comment:** Two things that went well one thing that could be improved
Appendix 3: Assessing posters

Posters are a very good assessment technique as they combine collaborative learning and creativity skills with knowledge and critical thinking.

Why use posters?

- Catch attention and interest – students can share their learning with other people in their community
- Convey information concisely and quickly – can be set as an assessment task at the start of the learning process and students can work on content as they learn the material
- Make reasoning visible – students can use a variety of sources, visuals and materials to convey meaning
- Motivation – students like making posters
- Skills development – they develop skills during the process.

Example: Rubric for assessing a poster presentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main idea</td>
<td>Poster has a clear title and gives specific information about the main idea of the poster</td>
<td>Poster has a title and gives some information about the main idea of the poster</td>
<td>Poster title is vague and is missing the main idea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness of the poster</td>
<td>Poster gives others a thorough understanding of the topic learned with specific examples or illustrations</td>
<td>Poster gives a solid understanding of the topic learned</td>
<td>Poster gives others a general understanding of the topic learned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of the poster</td>
<td>Includes illustrations and labels. Content of poster is edited for spelling and punctuation and has no errors</td>
<td>Includes illustrations and labels. Content of poster is edited for spelling and punctuation and has some errors</td>
<td>Includes illustrations and labels. Content of poster is not edited for spelling and punctuation and has many errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>Is clear, main points are communicated in a precise and coherent way</td>
<td>Is clear, most points are communicated in a concise and coherent way</td>
<td>Is not clear; many points are left out</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formative feedback</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 4: Assessing through Graphic Organisers

In section 1.3 of these Guidelines, we stated:

History is not the past. It is an academic discipline that seeks to understand the past. History is always contested, with discussion and debate at its heart. Historical knowledge is not fixed, the historical discourse is always lively and changing, with fresh perspectives on what remains of the past and, sometimes, new sources from the past being brought to light.

Graphic organisers provide visual ways of assessing diverse viewpoints and multiple perspectives. They are a visible means for students to articulate, organise and summarise their learning and to make explicit their thinking on what are often controversial and complex topics. There are many differing kinds of graphic organisers that can be drawn upon when assessing social and civic competences including sequence charts, ranking ladders, plot flow maps, multiple causes and multiple effects maps. Presented here are Venn Diagrams, Fishbone and Placemat activities. These are especially useful ways in which to assess diversity of viewpoints in discussion, debate and dialogue.

Example A: Venn Diagram

Sometimes History, as taught in schools, can appear to be a fixed body of knowledge. Classrooms where there is discussion, debate and dialogue are those where students are more easily able to understand that historical knowledge is not fixed and stable. In these classrooms, students learn that there are many evidence-based opinions and that their voice counts. Venn Diagrams are a useful assessment tool for students to present diverse viewpoints. They provide a means to highlight aspects in the discussion or debate where there is agreement despite differences or alternatively where disagreement continues and where that we cannot yet agree.

Venn Diagrams can be used as a form of hot seating where students are invited to adopt a position of a historical character. For example in the Northern Ireland lesson one student might adopt the position of a nationalist and another might adopt the position of a unionist. Another version might see one student adopt the position of someone like Dr Ian Paisley (who was a Unionist and who opposed the Good Friday Agreement). A second student might adopt the position of someone like David Trimble (who was also a Unionist but who supported the Good Friday Agreement). In the example below, we see their distinctive positions set out. The space where the circles converge indicates those areas where the two personalities were in agreement. Please note: the viewpoints are for illustrative purposes and are by no means exhaustive.
Appendix 5: Assessing through Placemat Activity

Students need to learn that there is no one right view of the past and instead, there are many evidence-based interpretations of past events and histories. In classrooms where there is discussion, debate and dialogue there may often be agreement about certain established facts; but there may not always be consensus on the meaning of these.

Placemat activities are a useful assessment tool for students to present their diverse viewpoints. Students begin by working on their own, noting their perspectives and viewpoints on particular topics. Once completed they are invited to share their thoughts with others in the group. Following discussion, debate and dialogue the complete the centre circle, i.e. noting things they all agreed on and things they could not agree on but still felt important.

Example B: Fishbone Activity

Fishbone activities are a useful way for students and teachers to assess learning and understanding. They provide a way to summarise and organise whole topics in one coherent space and show possible causes of a specific historic event and how these interrelate.
Appendix 6: Hot / Cold: Assessing Persuasive Impact

Following a discussion or debate students are asked to colour in a thermometer to indicate the impact or influence a person or team’s arguments were on their thinking. The higher the reading, the more impact/influence that team/person’s arguments had on their thinking. The lower the reading, the lower the impact. Students are always asked to briefly justify their rating.

Appendix 7: Exit Tickets

Exit Tickets are a useful way for encouraging students to reflect on their in-class experience. They also provide teachers with useful feedback for planning the next lesson. Below is a one such example, taken from Connie Hamilton’s Hacking Questions. It can be adapted for use in your particular context.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exit Tickets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Check for Understanding</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-2-1: 3 - things you learned 2 - ways you supported your own learning 1 - question you still have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What did you learn as a result of today’s lesson?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Word Summary: In exactly six words, sum up the big idea of today's learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask a broken record question. (See Hack 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Hacking Questions, by Connie Hamilton, copyright Times 10 Publications, all rights reserved.
References for Part 2: Teaching Guide

Further reading about ‘Values and Principles’

Council of Europe (2016). Competencies for Democratic Culture: Living together as equals in culturally diverse democratic societies. Strasbourg, CoE.
Helsingor Declaration (2015). The Hague, EUROCLIO.

Further reading about ‘Importance’


Further reading about ‘Definitions’


Further reading about ‘Conditions’

An example of classroom agreed ground rules from the USA: https://www.cmu.edu/teaching/solveproblem/strat-dontparticipate/groundrules.pdf

Further reading about ‘planning learning’

More guidance on how to evaluate sources: https://libguides.ioe.ac.uk/evaluating/craap
Some further guidance on classroom questioning can be found here: http://citl.illinois.edu/citl-101/teaching-learning/resources/teaching-strategies/questioning-strategies

The UK Historical Association is a membership organisation. Via its website you can then get access to many articles relevant to debate and discussion in the history classroom, including the work on Keely Richards on dinner tables. https://www.history.org.uk

Useful resources

AFT Human Rights Resources: http://www.teachhumanrights.com/
Association for citizenship teaching: https://www.teachingcitizenship.org.uk/about-citizenship/citizenship-curriculum/secondary-curriculum
Council of Europe History: https://www.coe.int/en/web/history-teaching/publications
Debating Matters: http://www.debatingmatters.com/
English Speaking Union: https://www.esu.org/our-work/esuresources
Evidence based discussion exemplar: https://www.history.org.uk/student/categories/495/module/5252/hitlers-rise-to-power-gcse-class-discussion/5253/gcse-discussion-on-hitlers-rise-to-power - film of students in UK discussing Hitler’s rise to power having studied the historians and thus their discussion is evidence based.
Facing History and Ourselves reading and resources: https://www.facinghistory.org/
Human Rights Library publications, activities, lessons and methods: http://hrlibrary.umn.edu/edumat/activities.shtm
Lacontemporaine.fr - 20thC France
Personal Social Health Education Association: https://www.pshe-association.org.uk/
Philosophy for Children: https://p4c.com/
Teaching Tolerance: https://www.tolerance.org/about
https://www.youngcitizens.org/controversial-issues-guidance-for-schools

Material to support viewpoints:

Country Profiles to inform discussion: http://www.bpb.de/gesellschaft/migration/ladenerprofile/58217/english-version-country-profiles
Historiana at www.historiana.eu
On migration: http://www.bpb.de/gesellschaft/migration/ladenerprofile/58217/english-version-country-profiles

References for Part 3: Assessment Guide

In J. Gardner (Ed.), Assessment and Learning (pp. 103-118). London: Sage.


