

Scoring Rubrics for Instruction Standards

General Rules for Scoring

The six standards for instruction are considered equally important. Each standard is scored on five-point numeric scale with 1 being low and 5 high. The descriptions which follow for scores on each standard constitute the minimal criteria for that score. Scoring should follow these general rules:

If in doubt between two scores, make the decision by asking whether the minimal conditions of the higher score have been met. If not, use the lower score.

In determining scores for each standard, consider only the evidence in the videotape recording of the lesson.

- "Many" students refers to at least one-third of the students in a class; "most" refers to more than half; "almost all" should be interpreted as all but a few.
- Scores should take into account what students can reasonably be expected to do at the grade level.

Scores across standards should not be summed or averaged. Rather, each standard should be considered individually.

Scoring Rubrics

Standard 1. Higher Order Thinking

Instruction involves students in manipulating information and ideas by synthesizing, generalizing, explaining, hypothesizing, or arriving at conclusions that produce new meaning and understandings for them.

Higher order thinking requires students to manipulate information and ideas in ways that transform their meaning and implications. This occurs when students combine facts and ideas in order to synthesize, generalize, explain, hypothesize, or arrive at some conclusion or interpretation. Manipulating information and ideas through these processes allows students to solve problems and discover new (for them) meanings and understandings. When students engage in higher order thinking, an element of uncertainty is introduced into the instructional process

which makes instructional outcomes not always predictable, i.e., the teacher is not certain what students will say. In helping students become constructors of knowledge, the teacher's main instructional task is to create activities or environments that allow them opportunities to engage in higher order thinking.

Lower order thinking occurs when students are asked to receive or recite factual information, or to employ rules or procedures through repetitive routines. As information receivers, students are given pre-specified knowledge ranging from simple facts and information to more complex concepts. Students are not required to do much intellectual work, since the purpose of instruction is simply to transmit knowledge or to practice procedural routines. Students are in a similar role when they are reciting previously acquired knowledge; i.e., responding to test-type questions that require recall of pre-specified knowledge. Even more complex activities may involve lower order thinking if students only need to follow pre-specified steps and routines in rote fashion.

5 = Almost all students, almost all of the time, are performing higher order thinking.

4 = Students are engaged in at least one major activity during the lesson in which they perform higher order thinking operations. This activity occupies a substantial portion of the lesson and many students are performing higher order thinking.

3 = Students are primarily engaged in routine lower order thinking operations during a good share of the lesson. There is at least one significant question or activity in which some students perform some higher order thinking operations.

2 = Students are primarily engaged in lower order thinking, but at some point they perform higher order thinking as a minor diversion within the lesson.

1 = Students are engaged only in lower order thinking operations, i.e. they either receive or recite, or participate in routine practice,

and in no activities during the lesson do students go beyond lower order thinking.

Standard 2. Deep Knowledge

Instruction addresses central ideas of a social studies discipline or topic with enough thoroughness to explore connections and relationships and to produce relatively complex understandings.

Knowledge is deep when central ideas of a topic or discipline are explored in considerable detail that shows interconnections and relationships. Knowledge is deep when, instead of being able to recite only fragmented pieces of information, students express relatively systematic, integrated, or holistic understandings of central concepts. Mastery is demonstrated by students discussing relationships, solving problems, constructing explanations, and drawing conclusions.

Knowledge is superficial or thin when it does not deal with significant concepts or central ideas of a topic or discipline. Knowledge is also shallow when important central ideas have been trivialized or when knowledge is presented as non-problematic. Knowledge is thin when important ideas are covered in a way that gives students only a surface acquaintance with their meaning. This superficiality can occur when teachers cover large quantities of fragmented ideas and bits of information that are unconnected to other knowledge. Evidence of shallow knowledge exists when students do not, or cannot, use knowledge to make clear distinctions or arguments, to solve problems, or to develop more complex understandings of other related phenomena.

Depth of knowledge and understanding can be indicated by the substantive character of the ideas that the teacher presents in the lesson, and by the level of understanding that students demonstrate as they consider these ideas. It is possible to have a lesson which contains substantively important, deep knowledge, but where students do not become engaged or where they fail to show understanding of the complexity or the significance of the ideas. The criteria below ask observers to consider both the depth of knowledge presented by the teacher and the depth of understanding that students develop of that content.

5 = Knowledge is very deep because during the lesson almost all students do at least one of the following: sustain a focus on a significant topic; or demonstrate their understanding of the problematic nature of information and/or ideas; or demonstrate complex understanding by arriving at a reasoned, supported

conclusion; or explain how they solved a complex problem. In general, students' reasoning, explanations, and arguments demonstrate fullness and complexity of understanding.

4 = Knowledge is relatively deep because either the teacher or the students provide information, arguments, or reasoning that demonstrate the complexity of an important idea. During the lesson many students do at least one of the following: sustain a focus on a significant topic for a period of time; or demonstrate their understanding by arriving at a reasoned, supported conclusion; or explain how they solved a relatively complex problem.

3 = Knowledge is treated unevenly during instruction; i.e., deep understanding of something is countered by shallow understanding of other ideas. At least one significant idea is presented in depth and its significance grasped, but in general the focus is not sustained.

2 = Knowledge remains superficial and fragmented; while some key concepts and ideas are mentioned or covered, only a superficial acquaintance or understanding of these complex ideas is evident.

1 = Knowledge is very thin because it does not deal with significant topics or ideas; the teacher and students are involved in the coverage of simple information which they are to remember.

Standard 3. Substantive Conversation

Students engage in extended conversational exchanges with the teacher and/or their peers about subject matter in a way that builds an improved and shared understanding of ideas or topics.

In lessons characterized by high levels of substantive conversation, there is sustained teacher-student and/or sustained student-student interaction about a topic; the interaction is reciprocal, and it promotes coherent shared understanding. Substantive conversation has three features:

1) The talk is about subject matter in the discipline and includes higher order thinking, such as making distinc-

tions, applying ideas, forming generalizations, or raising questions; not just the reporting of experiences, facts, definitions, or procedures.

- 2) The conversation involves sharing of ideas and is not completely scripted or controlled by one party (as in teacher-led recitation). Sharing is best illustrated when participants explain themselves or ask questions in complete sentences, and when they respond directly to comments of previous speakers.
- 3) The dialogue builds coherently on participants' ideas to promote improved collective understanding of a theme or topic (which does not necessarily require an explicit summary statement).

In short, substantive conversation resembles the kind of sustained exploration of content that is characteristic of a good seminar, where student contributions lead to shared understandings.

During lessons with little or no substantive conversation, teacher-student interaction typically consists of a lecture with recitation, where the teacher deviates very little from delivering a preplanned body of information and set of questions. Students give very short answers. Because the teacher's questions are motivated principally by a pre-planned checklist of questions, facts, and concepts, the discourse is frequently choppy, rather than coherent; there is often little or no follow-up of students' responses. Such discourse is the oral equivalent of fill-in-the-blank or short-answer study questions. Student-to-student interaction can also reflect these qualities.

To recognize substantive conversation, we first define an interchange as a statement by one person and a response by another. Interchanges can occur between teacher and student or student and student. Sustained conversation is defined as at least three consecutive interchanges. Three consecutive interchanges would require at least four statements. A single statement could serve as both a response to a previous statement (completing one interchange) and as a stimulus to a subsequent statement (beginning a second interchange). The interchanges need not be between the same two people, but they must be linked substantively as consecutive responses.

To score 2 or above, conversation must focus on subject matter as defined in feature 1.

- 5 = All three features of substantive conversation occur, with at least one example of sustained conversation, and almost all students participate.

- 4 = All three features of substantive conversation occur, with at least one example of sustained conversation, and many students participate.

- 3 = Features 2 (sharing) and/or 3 (coherent promotion of collective understanding) occur and involve at least one example of sustained conversation (i.e., at least 3 consecutive interchanges).

- 2 = Features 2 and/or 3 occur briefly and involve at least one example of two consecutive interchanges.

- 1 = Virtually no features of substantive conversation occur during the lesson.

Standard 4. Connections to the World Beyond the Classroom

Students make connections between substantive knowledge and personal experience, social problems, or public policy.

A lesson gains in power and authenticity the more there is a connection to the larger social context in which students live. There are at least three ways in which student activity in classrooms can reflect some connections to life beyond school. First, lessons might focus on understanding a real world public problem of some contemporary significance; for example, applying statistical analysis in preparing a report on a traffic problem to the city council. Second, lessons can build upon students' personal experiences to teach important ideas in the disciplines; for example, by comparing approaches to conflict resolution between people and nations. Finally, if students attempt to communicate their knowledge to others beyond the classroom, or to influence or assist others, school knowledge is more likely to have value beyond simply achieving success in school. High scores depend upon the extent to which the lesson demonstrates these qualities.

- 5 = Students study or work on a topic, problem, or issue that the teacher and students see as connected to their personal experiences or actual contemporary public situations. Students recognize the connections between classroom knowledge and situations outside the classroom. They explore these connections in ways that create personal meaning and significance for the knowledge. This meaning and significance is strong enough to lead students to become involved in an effort to influence a larger audience beyond their classroom in one of the following ways:

by communicating knowledge to others (including within the school), advocating solutions to social problems, providing assistance to people, or creating performances or products with utilitarian or aesthetic value.

- 4 = Students study or work on a topic, problem, or issue that the teacher and students see as connected to their personal experiences or actual contemporary public situations. Students recognize the connections between classroom knowledge and situations outside the classroom. They explore these connections in ways that create personal meaning and significance for the knowledge. However, there is no effort to use the knowledge in ways that go beyond the classroom to actually influence a larger audience.
- 3 = Students study a topic, problem, or issue that the teacher succeeds in connecting to students' actual experiences or to a contemporary public situation. Students recognize some connections between classroom knowledge and situations outside the classroom, but they do not explore the implications of these connections, which remain abstract or hypothetical. There is no effort to actually influence a larger audience.
- 2 = Students encounter a topic, problem, or issue that the teacher tries to connect to students' experiences or to contemporary public situations; i.e., the teacher informs students that there is potential value in the knowledge being studied because it relates to the world beyond the classroom. For example, if students in a world history unit are told that understanding Middle East history is important for contemporary politicians trying to bring peace to the region, but the connection is unspecified, and there is no evidence that students make the connection, this is the appropriate score.
- 1 = The lesson topic and activities have no clear connection to anything beyond themselves; the teacher offers no justification beyond the need to perform well in school.

Standard 5. Ethical Valuing

Students consider core democratic values when making decisions on matters of public concern or when judging personal conduct.

A lesson that entails ethical valuing becomes more powerful and authentic because it involves students in considering what is right or wrong, fair or unfair, just or unjust. Over time, this kind of reflection enables students to develop a reasoned commitment to the core values of a democratic society. Students might be asked to evaluate policy alternatives or to judge the behavior of an individual or a group. As a result, they become more aware of the complexities involved in contemplating justice or moral virtue, and they become more articulate about expressing and supporting their decisions.

Value-based decision making about people from the past or from other cultures should take into account the context of time and place that shaped those peoples' decisions and actions. Teachers may need to help their students understand the perspectives of the people under study, so as to avoid the fallacies of presentism and ethnocentrism. Presentism involves judging people from the past using contemporary knowledge and with the advantage of hindsight, instead of recreating the information available to the people and the perspectives that they held when they addressed the issues under study. Ethnocentrism involves judging people from other cultures using only the standards of one's own culture, without taking into account alternative standards to which people in other cultures may be responding. Judgments of people from the past or from other cultures will not be well informed unless students understand people "from within," and judge their perspectives accordingly.

Understanding of other perspectives does not imply agreeing with them, however. Students should be taught to evaluate decisions or actions based on the degree to which they support core democratic values, and thus to avoid relativism (as expressed in the notions that whatever people believe is right for them, or that no particular value judgment is better or worse than any other). Within a democratic framework, ethical values are not relative but universal in that they reflect enduring core values, especially a belief in the equal dignity of all people regardless of time or place. Judgments about civic matters are justified in a democratic society by reference to objective core values and not merely to subjective opinions or feelings. The values at the core of American constitutional democracy include fundamental beliefs such as life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness, the common good, justice, equality, truth, diversity, popular sovereignty, and patriotism, as well as constitutional principles such as the rule of law, separation of powers, representative government, checks and balances, individual rights, freedom of religion, federalism, and civilian control of the military.

Although core democratic values are basic and enduring, they may be given different interpretations. The meaning of equality, for example, has evolved over the course of American history. When we look back from the perspective of the 20th century to judge people who lived in the 18th century, we should take into account what they were capable of knowing and believing. Core values also may be given different priorities. Good social studies education will enable students to learn to confront the complexities involved when core values appear to conflict, as when policies advocated on the basis that they support one value (e.g., free press) might seem to contradict another value (e.g., fair trial).

When guiding students in deliberation, the teacher does not promulgate his or her personal, sectarian, or political views, but rather enables students to identify the ethical values involved in an issue or problem, consider the costs and benefits to various groups embedded in potential courses of action, and develop well-reasoned positions consistent with basic democratic values. When this is done most effectively, students may remain unsure about the teacher's personal views on an issue, at least until after it has been thoroughly deliberated.

The teacher helps students clarify the meanings of core democratic values and discern connections between them and the issue at hand. The teacher also guides students in constructing reasoned arguments and avoiding the fallacies of presentism, ethnocentrism, and relativism. When appropriate, students are challenged to reflect upon the accuracy of claims, the logic and clarity of arguments, and the ethical adequacy of value judgments. They are guided in recognizing possible conflicts between core democratic values and in attempting to resolve such conflicts.

5 = A value-based issue of public policy or personal conduct is stated and most students make an effort to construct a position on it. At least one democratic value implied by the issue is identified and its meaning is clarified (e.g., religious freedom, the right to property, truth, or equality under law). At least one position on the issue is presented and reasons justifying the position are considered. At least one opposing position on the issue is considered. Many students participate in discussion by expressing, clarifying, supporting, or challenging statements pertinent to the issue.

4 = A value-based issue is stated and many students make an effort to construct a position

on it. At least one democratic value implied by the issue is identified and its meaning is clarified. At least one position on the issue is presented and reasons justifying the position are considered. Many students participate in discussion by expressing, clarifying, supporting or challenging statements pertinent to the issue.

3 = A value-based issue is stated and many students make an effort to construct a position on it. At least one democratic value implied by the issue is identified. At least one position on the issue is presented and reasons justifying the position are considered.

2 = A value-based issue is stated and at least two students discuss the issue in an effort to construct a position on it. At least one position on the issue is presented and reasons justifying the position are considered.

1 = No value-based issue is discussed, or one is discussed but no position on the issue is stated, or a position is stated but not justified with reasons.

Standard 6. Integration

Instruction broadens the scope of learning by spanning social studies disciplines, linking social studies to other subject areas, bridging time or place, or blending knowledge with skills.

Making social studies teaching integrative is not an end in itself and is not always worthwhile. Integration might even undermine the coherence of social studies if included for its own sake, unrelated to the goals of the curriculum. As a means to these goals, however, integration has the potential to enhance the power and authenticity of social studies teaching.

The PASS program recognizes various types of integration with this potential. Social studies disciplines (geography, history, government, economics, and the behavioral sciences) can be integrated to help students understand how more than a single discipline can deepen insight. Lessons can be even more powerful and authentic when they complement social studies learning with ideas drawn from other subject areas of the curriculum, e.g., arts, sciences, mathematics, and humanities. Students prompted to connect the present to the past and to look ahead to the future, or to make connections between one place and another, are experiencing teaching with even greater

power and authenticity. Powerful and authentic social studies instruction can also integrate knowledge and skills rather than teaching each in fragmentary, artificial isolation. Skills are included when they are necessary for applying content in natural ways. They are taught directly when opportunities for practice are embedded in application activities. When instruction is powerful and authentic, content flow is not interrupted for practice of unrelated skills. These four types of integration can be summarized as follows:

Interdisciplinary. Two or more social studies disciplines are integrated. Main ideas from each are stated by the teacher or students and these ideas are connected to the topic of the lesson.

Subject Area. The main social studies topic of the lesson is connected to an idea from another subject area of the curriculum. The relationship between the social studies topic and the idea from another subject area is explained or explored.

Time or Place. Understanding of the topic of the lesson is deepened by connecting the present to the past or the future, or by connecting one place to another by means of a social studies idea.

Knowledge and Skills. The practice of relevant skills is consciously and deliberately embedded in the learning of new content. The skills are made explicit.

- 5 = The lesson incorporates three types of integration. Both the social understanding and civic efficacy of students are enhanced by the integration, and each type of integration contributes to at least one of these goals.
- 4 = The lesson incorporates two types of integration with one type enhancing the social understanding of students and the other type enhancing their civic efficacy.
- 3 = The lesson incorporates two types of integration, each of which enhances either the social understanding or civic efficacy of students.
- 2 = The lesson incorporates one type of integration that enhances either the social understanding or civic efficacy of students.
- 1 = The lesson incorporates no integration that enhances the social understanding or civic efficacy of students.

