Teaching and learning about child rights:
A study of implementation in 26 countries

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This baseline research undertaken by the Centre for Children’s Rights in Queens’ University Belfast contributes to the global debate on child rights education. The statements expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the policies or the views of UNICEF. They are published in order to stimulate further dialogue on issues affecting children.

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INTRODUCTION

In 2014 UNICEF’s Private Fundraising and Partnerships Division (PFP) published the Child Rights Education Toolkit which outlines a rights-based approach to developing child rights education (CRE) with a focus on formal education in early childhood education settings, primary and secondary schools. The Toolkit defines CRE as “teaching and learning about the provisions and principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the ‘child rights approach’ in order to empower both adults and children to take action to advocate for and apply these at the family, school, community, national and global levels” (UNICEF, 2014: 20).

It further defines the ‘child rights approach’ as being one that:

- Furthers the realization of child rights as laid down in the CRC and other international human rights instruments;
- Uses child rights standards and principles from the CRC and other international human rights instruments to guide behaviour, actions, policies and programmes;
- Builds the capacity of children as rights-holders to claim their rights and the capacity of duty-bearers to fulfil their obligations to children (UNICEF, 2014: 21).

The Toolkit objectives are:

1. To strengthen the capacities of project managers in UNICEF National Committees and country offices, as well as other stakeholders, to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate programmes that promote child rights in schools and early childhood settings;
2. To provide an overview and guidance on how to implement and integrate CRE strategically in school curricula, teaching practice and learning environments;
3. To provide examples of CRE initiatives, information and models for strategic planning, monitoring and evaluating programmes and projects;
4. To promote a global approach to CRE within UNICEF.

UNICEF PFP also commissioned the Centre for Children’s Rights in Queen’s University Belfast to undertake a baseline survey of CRE across countries with National Committee presence. The research was designed around the following questions:

1. To what extent are countries with a National Committee presence implementing CRE?
2. Where CRE implementation is advanced, what factors have supported this process?
3. Where CRE implementation is not advanced, what factors are hindering implementation?

The research consisted of two strands of activity, first an on-line survey and secondly a series of case studies. The on-line survey was designed to collect data in relation to these three research questions and the survey questions were constructed around a series of themes identified in an initial literature review. The survey was distributed to national experts (identified by UNICEF National Committees) and provides an overview of the extent to which CRE is embedded in formal education settings and teacher education in 26 countries. These responses were enhanced with additional desk research to provide an overview of CRE in each country. The case studies were constructed to explore specific aspects of work in seven countries with a National Committee presence.
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The literature review identifies the following issues:

- There is a challenge in getting policy alignment to support CRE from government down to schools. Many states do not have adequate legislation or policy frameworks in place to enact child rights education.
- Work with teachers needs to address their knowledge and attitudes and acknowledge their agency in creating change.
- CRE can be changed by being combined with other educational agendas and vice versa. Therefore teachers and policy makers need to be conscious of how children’s rights are embedded in other subjects and/or projects.
- Relationships and networks are important in establishing CRE.
- CRE takes on different emphases in different contexts, and this reflects a process of interpretation and implementation which has an ideological dimension.

Curriculum

1. In the majority of the 26 countries participating in this research, there is no entitlement in the official curriculum for all children to learn about children’s rights.
   - There is a curriculum entitlement to learn about children’s rights in 11 countries.
   - In a further seven countries children’s rights may be included in the curriculum in only some parts of the country.
   - In the 15 countries where there is no national curriculum entitlement for all children to learn about children’s rights, we found no evidence that governments use additional legislation to ensure that schools teach about children’s rights.

2. It is common for rights in the curriculum to be linked to responsibilities, and not always to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC).
   - This raises the possibility that even where children learn about rights they may not learn about the CRC, nor about what it means to be a rights-holder or duty-bearer (both key components of the child rights approach). In the absence of such clarity children may learn that rights are directly dependent on individuals fulfilling specific responsibilities, rather than being universal on the basis of simply being a child.

3. Recent curriculum reforms demonstrate a varied approach to embedding CRE: whilst some countries have secured a substantial commitment to CRE as an entitlement for all, others have failed to ensure progress or have regressed.
   - As an example of progress, Iceland’s curriculum now specifies Human Rights and Democracy as one of six foundational principles and includes familiarity with the CRC as a specified learning outcome in primary schools; similarly the new primary curriculum in France includes reference to children’s rights.
   - As an example of the failure to build CRE into reforms, Australia is in the process of moving towards a national curricular framework but has omitted CRE, despite earlier indications to the contrary; in Scotland curriculum guidance clearly promotes CRE but this is not specified as a requirement.
   - As an example of regression, in the Republic of Ireland the secondary school subject through which rights issues are taught (Civic, Social and Political Education) has been reduced in status from a compulsory to an optional course (reforms published in 2012); and in Spain the 2006 law securing Education for Citizenship and Human Rights in secondary schools was repealed in 2013.

4. In some countries with federal government structures and the associated principles of educational devolution/freedom, central government has very few powers to create a national curriculum entitlement at all. Here, progress remains patchy and appears not to be coordinated.
   - For example, respondents in Canada, Belgium, Switzerland and the USA note the lack of coordination as a problem. This clearly works against top-down implementation planning and raises a significant challenge for States Parties considering how to implement Article 42 of the CRC within the school system.

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1 Governments sometimes use mechanisms other than the curriculum to mandate schools to undertake certain actions, for example in England the Secretary of State issues funding agreements to Academy Schools which sometimes specify the teaching of issues beyond the national curriculum, such as sex and relationships education. In our research we found no such mechanisms, outside of the curriculum structures, that would mandate schools to teach children’s rights.

2 Article 42: States Parties undertake to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike.
Teacher education

5. Respondents identified teacher training as the most important area for action.

This was the most frequently mentioned priority for action and several UNICEF National Committees are undertaking work in this area. However, the principles of educational devolution/federal governance (e.g. Switzerland), academic freedom (e.g. Belgium) and the de-regulation of higher education (e.g. Poland) mean that this is also a difficult area in which to achieve coherence.

6. None of the states ensures that all teachers are trained in children's rights and are familiar with the CRC.

• In the UK education is entirely devolved to England, Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales and for the purposes of our study UNICEF UK only provided information on Scotland. Here the statutory framework for qualifying to teach requires that all new teachers must be familiar with the CRC. This is the only example where we identified children's rights as an explicit aspect of initial teacher education, but it means the UK government as a whole falls short of guaranteeing this across the UK.

• In most states respondents felt that regulatory frameworks for teacher training and qualification/registration were ‘implicitly’ aligned with the CRC. This might indicate that relatively minor amendments in language and more explicit connections to the CRC could bring such frameworks into alignment with state duties to promote CRE.

Monitoring and quality assurance

7. CRE is explicitly and consistently monitored in very few countries.

• Respondents in only three countries (Austria, Israel and Poland) said CRE was monitored and the most developed approach to this was in Israel where an Inspector for Student Rights is based in the Ministry of Education. In Israel, whilst the curriculum entitlement is mixed due to the variety of school types, a Students’ Rights Law provides a strong mandate for the inspector’s work, which includes dealing with complaints from students and parents.

• Elsewhere general school inspections may examine aspects of children’s rights, but there was no evidence that CRE or the CRC formed part of such general inspection regimes.

• Again, educational devolution and federal governance plays a part in this inconsistency and there are variations within countries, for example in the state of Hessen in Germany, children’s rights feature in the quality framework which inspectors implement, but this is not common across the country.

Participation

8. Whilst opportunities for children’s participation in decision-making in school are widespread, it falls short of an entitlement in most countries.

• Respondents in only four countries (Hungary, Norway, Poland and Sweden) judged school councils to be fully or almost fully implemented across the country.

• In most other countries implementation was judged to be mixed, both with regard to the number of schools where school councils operated and the type of participation they facilitated.
LITERATURE REVIEW

“Education is much more than an entry to the job market. It has the power to shape a sustainable future and better world. Education policies should promote peace, mutual respect and environmental care.”
United Nations Secretary-General, Ban Ki-moon (www.globaleducationfirst.org)

“There continue to be challenges in national implementation... [such as the] absence of explicit policies and detailed implementation strategies for human rights education and the lack of systematic approaches to the production of materials, the training of teachers and the promotion of a learning environment which fosters human rights values.”
World Programme for Human Rights Education, Phase 1 Evaluation (UN, 2010: 20)

Introduction

The two quotations which start this chapter illustrate one of the central themes running through the literature – the distance between the vision and the implementation of human rights education in general and child rights education in particular. Our starting position is that CRE is a requirement of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) and as such it is an obligation assumed by states that have ratified the Convention. We address this in our initial comments on the nature of CRE and in theme 1, which considers the gap between ratification and implementation in schools. This is reflected in our survey of national experts in CRE, which establishes what steps are being taken to translate the state’s broad obligations into specific education policy and practice. Subsequent themes explore specific dimensions to this process of policy development and implementation, from the role of teachers to the nature of the curriculum and the wider networks which promote CRE and a culture of children’s rights. These themes informed the survey design, and so are reflected again in the discussion of findings in the following chapter.

This review incorporates material from academic books and journals that were identified by searching educational databases for the terms: ‘human rights education’ or ‘child/ren’s rights education’ and ‘evaluation’ or ‘impact’ or ‘implementation.’ As has been noted previously, there is a dearth of research examining the implementation of the CRC (Lundy, 2012) and in particular with reference to education (Ang, 2009), which our search confirmed. A wider search for material in UN and NGO websites and archives also revealed that it is easier to access material advising practitioners about how to conduct meaningful evaluations of practice, than it is to locate public reports of such evaluations, although we were able to identify some programme and project evaluations to draw on for this review. In the discussion below, many of the sources refer to human rights education (HRE), and we have drawn on this literature as it represents the framework within which CRE is developed and conceptualised.

What is child rights education?

Some form of human rights education (HRE) is clearly required by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (UN 1948), in which Article 26 (2) demands that education, amongst other goals, shall be directed to:

“the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the UN for the maintenance of peace.”

This was further developed in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) (UN, 1966), in which Article 13 (1) outlines that States Parties agree that:

“education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and the sense of dignity, and shall strengthen the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms...”

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) developed this further by clarifying the right of access to education (Article 28) and, in Article 29, by building on these earlier statements about the purpose of education:

“1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

(a) The development of the child’s personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
(b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
(c) The development of respect for the child’s parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;

(d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;

(e) The development of respect for the natural environment.”

Taken together with Article 42, which commits States Parties to make the principles and provisions of the CRC widely known to children and adults, these articles are taken to provide the warrant for some form of HRE. This has been further clarified in the Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training (UNDHRET) (UN, 2011) which has indicated that that such education should be about, through and for human rights (Article 2).

Krappman (2006) expresses concern that HRE can give children the “impression that human rights are rights of adults and are mainly violated in faraway regions of the world”. He argues specifically that “human rights are valid for children as well, that they have a right to be educated about these rights and to claim these children’s human rights” (Krappman, 2006: 60). This sentiment reflects a wider movement among advocates and scholars to root HRE for children more firmly within the CRC and to engage children directly with their own rights, as well as the rights of others. CRE advocates have consistently argued for the claim these children’s human rights” (Krappman, 2006: 60).

This has led the Committee on the Rights of the Child, in its first General Comment on the CRC (UN, 2001), to clarify that Article 29:

“Insists upon the need for education to be child-centred, child-friendly and empowering, and it highlights the need for educational processes to be based upon the very principles it enunciates.”

CRE enacts the CRC in two ways (Lundy, 2012), firstly there are specific articles which define children’s educational entitlement to some form of CRE (Articles 28, 29 and 42), and secondly, there are broader principles that should inform education provision, such as non-discrimination, the best interests of the child and the right of the child to have their views given due weight in decisions that affect them.

In Potvin and Benny’s terms this means:

“A rights-based approach, and specifically human rights education, requires a holistic understanding of the meaning and scope of human rights, as well as of the systemic implications of applying human rights at all levels of the educational system, including legal framework, institutional policies, educational projects, codes of conduct in schools, curriculum, class management, pedagogical activities, student government, and community life” (Potvin & Benny, 2013: 4).

Education can be seen as both a substantive right in itself and also an enabling right, through which children develop the understanding and capacity to enable them to access other rights, such as the right to free speech (CHRCE, 2012). As Tomasevski observed, the right to education “functions as a multiplier, enhancing all rights and freedoms when it is guaranteed while jeopardizing them all when it is violated” (Tomasevski, 2006: 7).

It therefore falls to adults to ensure that CRE addresses the fact that children simultaneously have rights in education and a right to capacity building to enable them to progressively realise their rights (Lundy & McEvoy, 2012). The importance of children’s developing capacity for agency is reflected in the first General Comment on the CRC (see above), which emphasises that HRE should be ‘empowering’. Gerber (2008) argues that over recent years, the idea of children as active agents for human rights has emerged more clearly through UN statements on HRE. During the UN Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004), the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR, 1997) prepared guidance for governments, which included a definition of HRE as:

“training, dissemination and information efforts aimed at the building of a universal culture of human rights through the imparting of knowledge and skills and the moulding of attitudes”.

Whilst the definition of HRE provided in that guidance largely reiterated Article 29 (1) it also strengthened the notion of young people’s agency, advocating that HRE should include “encouragement to take action to defend human rights and prevent human rights abuses” (Gerber, 2008: 85). Similarly, the UN Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training (UNDHRET) (UN, 2011) underscores the central role of developing children’s agency, both by reinforcing the general commitment to educate children about, through and for their rights and through the clear commitment to provide children and young people with “knowledge, skills and understanding and developing their attitudes and behaviours, to empower
them to contribute to the building and promotion of a universal culture of human rights” (Article 2). This focus on developing agency is clear in UNICEF’s definition in the CRE Toolkit, which understands CRE as meaning:

“Teaching and learning about the provisions and principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the ‘child rights approach’ in order to empower both adults and children to take action to advocate for and apply these at the family, school, community, national and global levels” (UNICEF, 2014: 20).

The clear intention here is to align the content, process and purpose to ensure coherence between the means and ends of CRE, with both focussing on children’s capacity to act as rights-bearers and the defenders of others’ rights.

**What do we know about the impact of CRE?**

The main arguments for CRE are moral and legal, which is reflected in the broader literature, where there appears to be more material justifying CRE and advising teachers about how to implement it than material reporting on impact. Although there is a relative paucity of evidence of the impact of CRE, there is a sense within the literature that agencies, NGOs and programme staff are under considerable pressure to conduct evaluations, and this has led to some concerns that impact assessments and audits have moved from being a “tool to a paradigm” promoting a technocratic approach within organisations (ICHRP, 2012: 3). Whilst the discussion below draws on some of these evaluations, it is also important to note that sometimes such evaluations tend to focus on easier to measure process evaluations rather than on educational impact (see for example Morgan & Kitching, 2006). At other times, such as with the evaluation of the UN World Programme for HRE (2005-9), questionnaires are poorly completed by national respondents who are unable or unwilling to respond in any detailed way (OHCHR, undated). Iturralde and Rodino (2005) argue that some organisations, such as the Inter-American Institute of Human Rights, have been pre-occupied with studies of legal implementation or with the documentation of rights violations, and are only belatedly exploring new ways of assessing more general progress towards the full implementation of specific rights, such as CRE (IIHR, 2005).

Some positive impacts are reported in UNICEF country reports, for example, the report on Nicaragua (Spier et al., 2009) indicates that most children in the areas surveyed knew about their rights and that teachers were more likely to use child-centred teaching approaches than previously. However, the selection of participating areas and schools in Spier’s survey is not clear and therefore the sample makes generalizations problematic. Many publications rely on Covell and Howe’s work to provide some evidence about impact (Covell, 2010; Covell and Howe, 2011; Covell, Howe and Polegato, 2011, Howe and Covell, 2005 and 2010). Their work has examined a variety of rights-based education practice, but in recent years has focused on one local education authority in the south of England, Hampshire, where many schools have adopted a rights-based approach to education, focusing on ‘rights, respect and responsibility’. They have been able to collect a range of information from children, teachers and outcomes data over 5 years across 16 primary schools and their evaluations of these schools conclude that the initiative has had the following benefits:

- It has promoted children’s engagement in school, which in turn has led to an increase in children’s sense of academic and social efficacy.
- It has resulted in a more positive school climate with better peer and student-teacher relationships and reductions in bullying and reductions in teacher burnout.
- It has led to enhanced citizenship values and behaviours.
- Where teachers have focused primarily on rights, rather than responsibilities, children have developed a clearer sense of mutual obligation and ethical behaviour.
- Teacher motivation and job-satisfaction also improve.

The kinds of findings discussed by Covell and Howe were also echoed by Tibbits (2005b), whose summary of research in this area led her to conclude that children who learn about their rights and the CRC “tend to be more respectful and grow in psychosocial competencies” (p.6). A UNICEF survey of children’s subjective well-being in Spain concluded that those children who had learned about their rights also reported higher levels of well-being than those who had not. The Spanish survey also indicated that, whilst overall levels of participation (in local area and family decisions) were low, those children who did report high levels of participation experienced higher levels of well-being (UNICEF Spain, 2012: 18). Tibbits warns that whilst such outcomes may result in increased empathy, it does not necessarily follow that children will develop a greater commitment to take action (Equitas, 2007: 6). However, Tibbits’ evaluation work in Romania indicates that even interventions as basic as revising text books had an impact on learners’ knowledge of and attitudes towards civic participation (Tibbits, 1999).

Sebba and Robinson (2010) also conducted an evaluation of a whole school CRE programme, run by UNICEF UK. They visited 12 schools from five local authorities over the course of three years, and made an additional single visit to 19 other schools across ten local authorities. They conclude that the Rights Respecting Schools Award programme had the following outcomes:

- It enabled children and adults to develop a shared language for understanding rights in relation to their everyday interactions.
• Relationships and behaviour improved.
• Pupils felt empowered to respect the rights of others, for example through campaigns.
• Pupils demonstrated positive attitudes towards inclusion and diversity.
• Pupils were more likely to be aware of, and to become involved in, decision-making systems in the school.

They also noted, as did Covell and Howe, that adopting a rights-respecting approach can have a positive effect on teachers, encouraging them to re-connect to some of the broader aims and ethical purposes of education.

Bajaj (2012, 2011, and 2010) conducted a large scale evaluation of rights education in India where she focused on an NGO which promotes HRE in a network of 4000 schools. She collected data from over 100 teachers, 625 students and 80 HRE trainers or policy makers, and concludes that the benefits (especially for marginalized students) include:

• Enhanced sense of efficacy.
• Heightened human rights consciousness.
• Collective action.
• Ability to situate their personal experience in a broader framework of rights.

This addresses Tibbits’ concern that students may not be moved to agency and action. Bajaj argues this is also the case, albeit in different ways, for relatively privileged children, for whom the impact is more on developing them as ‘coalitional agents’, including:

• Solidarity with victims of rights abuses.
• Advocacy.
• Charity.

Whilst Bajaj’s study is a welcome addition to the evidence base, there are some methodological limitations. Although she spoke to hundreds of participants, these were largely an opportunistic sample approached through collaboration with the NGO delivering the education programme she was evaluating and she employed a post hoc qualitative approach, meeting participants after projects to discuss their perceptions of the impact, through focus groups, interviews, observations and questionnaires. Nevertheless, the number of children she spoke to and the variety of backgrounds strengthens her claim that there are a number of perceived benefits of such programmes to participants.

There are also limitations to Covell and Howe’s work, for example, they make an assertion about the age at which young people should learn about rights (Howe and Covell, 2005) referring to Wade (1994) to support the view that children younger than 11 find it difficult to conceptualise rights, and adolescents find it easier to conceptually understand and empathise with others. They therefore argue that formal teaching about rights could wait until high school/secondary school. However, this is not an entirely accurate account of Wade’s article, which makes the point that children learned different things from their study of rights, reflecting their prior conceptions. Wade’s conclusion that “our greatest error was neglecting to confront the misinformation that many students possessed...and teach for assimilation and accommodation rather than content coverage” (Wade, 1994: 91) implies the fault was with her teaching rather than reflecting any intrinsic problem with teaching rights to young children. More broadly, Trivers and Starkey (2012) have also argued that the programmes evaluated by Covell and Howe may only embody a rather limited interpretation of CRE, which focuses more explicitly on behaviour control and modification, rather than exploring the fuller implications of learning about the political nature of rights and realising children’s participation rights in school. In addition, Covell and Howe rely on teacher reports to ascertain the level of school implementation of a rights-based education, an approach which tends to produce more positive results than children’s own accounts (Cleaver et al., 2005; Hart et al. 2001).

This section has summarized some of the main educational benefits claimed for CRE/HRE in the literature. The following sections explore four themes which emerge from evaluations and discussions of implementation, and which will help to focus our consideration of possible enabling factors and obstacles.

What do we know about the implementation of CRE?

The journey between ratification and implementation is a long and complex one. In a pessimistic review of ten international studies examining the impact of ratification of a variety of human rights treaties Gerber concluded “there was no link between ratification of a human rights treaty and improved human rights practices” (Gerber, 2008: 323). In her own research, comparing a state in Australia and another in the USA, she interviewed a number of teachers and policy actors and concluded that “the fact that Australia has committed to Article 29 (1) of the [CRC] and the United States has not, is largely irrelevant to these Governments’ domestic practices concerning HRE, and has no discernible impact on the nature and extent of HRE being provided” (Gerber, 2008: 323).

Clearly there is no particular reason why ratification would lead to changes, unless the State Party also undertook subsequent action around implementation. In this regard Lundy et al’s (2012) review of the implementation of the CRC in law in 12 countries noted that, although few states had fully incorporated the CRC into domestic legislation, such incorporation was “in and of itself significant” (Lundy et al. 2012: 4). Where incorporation occurred
it raised awareness of the CRC in government and civil society. They also found that whilst few countries in their survey had fully implemented the CRC in law, it was more common to include specific principles, such as “the best interests of the child” (Article 3) or the right of the child to have their views taken into account (Article 12) in legislation. Jorgensen et al. (2011) argue, in the context of Denmark, that such a ‘stepwise implementation’ has resulted in the Convention remaining “weak and relatively invisible” 20 years after ratification.

Lundy et al. and Gerber agree that a particular problem is posed by implementation in federated or devolved states, where “the duty on the State Party to ensure implementation was diluted in the transfer of responsibility to the regions” (Lundy et al., 2012: 5). This led to inconsistencies in approach and a lack of clear lines of accountability. They also note that the implementation of specific principles in sectoral legislation could also have a fragmentary effect and divorce requirements from an explicit children’s rights framework (Lundy et al. 2012: 19; Williams, 2012). This was echoed in the UNHCHR evaluation of the first phase of the World Programme for HRE which noted, “the decentralization of political structures and/or education provision in a number of countries further complicates the implementation of a centralized model” (UNHCHR, 2010: 20). This continued problem led the authors of a recent survey of HRE in Australia to conclude that one of the most significant steps towards progress would be the establishment of some central curriculum authority to map curriculum coverage across the various education jurisdictions as a first step towards focused curriculum developments in HRE (Burridge et al., 2103).

This general point resonates with Fullan’s argument for tri-level education reform to secure deep educational change (Fullan et al., 2004). His analysis of a number of educational reform programmes leads him to conclude that change is more likely to be effective when (i) the state, district and school level agree on an agenda for change; (ii) when the district creates and sustains capacity to both challenge and support schools; and (iii) when the state creates additional capacity for challenging and supporting the district. Lundy et al’s discussion of the importance of up-to-date national plans for children accompanied by action plans and targets (Lundy et al., 2012: 7) makes the same fundamental point as Fullan, that success is more likely if there is a clear plan with actions, responsibilities, deadlines, and resources. The recommendations in Sebba and Robinson’s (2010) evaluation of the UNICEF UK Rights Respecting School Award (RRSA) programme also reflect Fullan’s concerns, when they argue that local authorities (the District level) should be more proactively involved to ensure schools are supported and that school-to-school support can be coordinated to sustain and deepen the programme.

Gerber’s study focused on the implementation of Article 29 and she illustrated the path to implementation with a simple model demonstrating the traditional top-down view of implementation (see figure 1).

However, Gerber also acknowledged the possibility that CRE could develop from the bottom up as well, through the initiative of teachers working alongside NGOs to develop classroom and school level CRE work. Potvin and Benny’s (2013) account of CRE in Quebec notes a reliance on NGOs to offer opportunities for CRE, as do Waldron et al. (2011) in relation to Ireland. The UNICEF UK RRSA programme is a well-known example of this kind of initiative, but many UNICEF National Committees are involved with programmes that focus on developing a direct relationship with teachers and children. Gerber identifies the possibility for such programmes to start a bottom-up process in CRE development – a process which was evident in UNICEF UK’s attempts to build on school level work and move into university based initial teacher education programmes (Jerome, 2012) and into local authority level work, as noted above.

Alignment is often implicit in models of implementation, for example the Inter-American Institute of Human Rights argues that incorporating HRE into formal education involves various procedures, “some of the most essential of which are: (i) the incorporation of human rights standards into national legislation... (ii) the development of relevant content and methodologies in curriculum policy documents, plans and study programs; the inclusion of similar content and methodologies in school text books; and (iv) continuous training for school teachers” (IIHR, 2005: 8). Quennerstedt’s (2011) review of research publications on CRE reflected this in identifying the problem of educational change as a major theme in the literature. Several of the articles Quennerstedt discusses suggest that the lack of alignment is partly due to the nature of education as a site of conflicting desires, where competing agendas (most notably within and between government and parents) are often not mutually compatible, as well as not always being compatible with a children’s rights perspective. This in turn reflects Lansdown’s earlier argument that there are obvious tensions between
children’s own interests, the state interests in education (e.g. to develop the workforce and create social cohesion), and parents’ interests (e.g. to equip children with skills for a successful life and pass on their values, culture and language) (Lansdown, 1999: 192).

Relying on the bottom-up approach may have the advantage of getting CRE implemented in practice for some children, but this is clearly an inadequate strategy for making CRE an entitlement for all children. This problem is unwittingly illustrated by the Council of Europe et al.’s (2009) compendium of good practice, in which many of the examples are optional courses or frameworks and are therefore not part of universal state implementation. Whilst such projects can fill the gaps left in state responses, they may have to do so against the grain of policy. Curriculum contexts may be conducive to CRE, in that they provide a space for CRE to develop (Waldron et al., 2011), but they may also limit CRE through creating an otherwise ‘crowded curriculum’, which leaves little space for innovation (Gerber, 2008).

Gaynor (2007) takes a different view of this problem in her case study of CRE in Kosovo. Although she found that teacher education had a direct impact on practice, and on pupils’ experience, she also notes a problem with the lack of alignment between such initiatives and government policy. In this case she recommended the establishment of an NGO as the solution to sustainability in the absence of government action. This view was also adopted in an evaluation for the Canadian International Development Agency, which concluded that plans for sustainability should focus more at the grassroots level to build the community’s capacity to make demands of those in power, rather than solely focus on those in power (Capra International, undated: 11). Whilst such non-governmental bodies may seem attractive ways to by-pass the problem of non-alignment between levels of government, Bajaj notes that in reality such NGOs are themselves often concerned with marginalized groups, which can bring other problems. Whilst they bring a greater focus on critical activism, their often confrontational relationship with government may lead them to struggle to adopt an appropriately balanced approach when working in schools (Bajaj, 2012: 19).

Despite the inherent problems associated with working within non-conducive policy contexts and developing practice from the bottom up, Gerber recognises that it may also be possible for state policy to be influenced by well-established good practice. In the conclusion to her case studies in America and Australia she notes that the “bottom-up” push for HRE has led to changes in HRE policies and practices at the state government level, demonstrating that the journey from convention to classroom is... a process that operates in two directions” (Gerber, 2008: 328). In other words, whilst policy alignment is a requirement for a coherent CRE plan, bottom-up provision and lobbying may help to bring this about in the absence of a central government lead. It is important to recognise that such bottom-up developments cannot replace state action entirely, and that therefore such actions may be seen as enacting a form of lobbying and advocacy as well as addressing practical aspects of provision. Ultimately the state retains responsibility for implementing children’s rights.

What do we know about the role of educators?

One of the provisos Fullan discusses when considering the importance of tri-level educational reform concerns the role of teachers. He argues that it is also important to create systems which respect teacher autonomy rather than attempting to exercise too tight a control over teaching practice. The overly centralised control of pedagogy may be effective in the short term because it can help the weakest teachers to improve their practice, but this is unlikely to secure long term sustainable improvements because it does not address the capacity of the profession as a whole to understand and secure on-going improvement (Stobart and Stoll, 2005). A second theme to emerge from the literature review therefore focuses on the role of teachers in promoting CRE. Teachers are variously seen as obstacles to CRE through their role as gate-keepers with an interest in retaining traditional forms of authority, or as active agents for CRE with the potential for collaboration, legitimation and transformation. Tibbits summary of the evidence in relation to civic education programmes argues that they work well where sessions are frequent, methods are participatory and teachers are knowledgeable and enthusiastic (Tibbits, 2005b).

UNICEF’s A Human Rights-Based Approach to Education for All (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007) provides a comprehensive account of how human rights standards should be applied in relation to education. Alongside legislative frameworks and general policy commitments to inclusion, the document emphasises the need to provide training for teachers to build the capacity of schools to adopt a rights-based approach. It also asserts that it is necessary to respect teachers’ rights in order to build the conditions in which they can respect children’s rights. By contrast, some on the political right have equated teacher rights with professional protectionism which can lead to the marginalization of children’s interests and therefore argue that unions must be weakened in order to emphasise children’s rights (Moe, 2007). Whilst clearly a questionable assertion, and one which unjustifiably asserts children’s rights over employment rights, this position illustrates the contested ideological nature of many aspects of rights interpretation and implementation.

Bajaj’s discussion of HRE in India describes teachers as gatekeepers (see also Sim, 2008), and points out that at the very least NGOs wishing to develop CRE programmes must have a strategy for winning over teachers, to give them access to children and schools. Once they are open to the idea of CRE they can be seen as collaborative agents – willing and able to work with NGO specialists to establish programmes. Bajaj notes a
third role developing in practice, through which teachers can also act as ‘legitimating agents’ through:

- Modelling human rights values through their own changed behaviour;
- Convincing parents and other community members of the value of HRE;
- Assisting children in their learning and subsequent action (Bajaj, 2012: 13).

A similar point is made in an evaluation of a Colombian CRE project which described teachers as “points of social cohesion” (Capra International, undated: 3).

Some of the literature focuses on teachers’ awareness and confidence in relation to CRE. In a survey of teachers in Ireland, whilst attitudes to HRE were generally positive, teachers had low levels of knowledge of human rights. This meant that teachers’ ideas for teaching were not always related to human rights language or principles and that there was a tendency to focus on a social cohesion agenda rather than empowerment, critique and inequality. Teachers thus tended to adopt a conservative model rather than transformative one, with half the reported HRE events being linked to charity campaigns with a more global focus than local (Waldron at al., 2011). A similar report in Scotland also showed that HRE there is sporadic and that teachers undertake it through their own interest or through engagement with NGOs (e.g. UNICEF’s RRSA). The majority of teachers in the Scottish survey said they had not been trained and lacked adequate knowledge of HRE (BEMIS, 2013).

Covell and Howe discuss evidence that teacher compliance with the curriculum more generally is influenced by the extent to which it resonates with their own beliefs and values, and the extent to which they judge it to require additional work (Covell and Howe, 2005). Schweisfurth (2006) reiterates that teachers’ strategic decisions about how to spend their time reflect their own motivation in relation to the topic, which in turn influences the extent to which non-statutory agendas are adopted. This resonates with other research that argues that teacher beliefs have a significant impact on how they interpret the curriculum, especially topics seen as political (Leenders et al., 2008; Myers, 2009). In dealing with teacher beliefs about CRE, David (2002) points out that the CRC may present a challenge to traditional beliefs because it represents a shift from education as welfare provision to education as a right, and implies a second shift in adult roles from protection to facilitating emancipation and autonomy. Empirical case studies continue to reiterate the importance of these issues, for example a case study of HRE in Hong Kong concluded that two major obstacles remained: the teachers’ fear for the loss of their authority and the limiting impact of their lack of subject knowledge (Leung et al., 2011). By contrast, Al-Nakib’s (2012) case study of curriculum reform in Kuwait indicates that, where teachers are willing to embrace a CRE approach, they can also use their agency to interpret even relatively un-promising and conservative curricula frameworks. In her case study school Al-Nakib noted that a long-standing relationship with UNESCO had led to the development of a more student-centred, critical pedagogy, which enabled the school to inject a more ‘radical’ dimension in to their Human Rights and Citizenship course than had been envisaged by policy-makers and textbook writers.

Unsurprisingly then, teacher education emerges as significant factor in promoting CRE (Lansdown, 1999: 200). Gerber concludes that the lack of teacher training remains one of the most significant obstacles to the effective implementation of HRE (Gerber, 2008: 328). The UNHCHR evaluation of the first phase of the World Programme for HRE noted that “the overall approach to teacher training seems ad hoc” (UNHCHR, 2010: 10) and bemoaned “the lack of systematic approaches to...the training of teachers” (UNHCHR, 2010: 20). This is replicated at project level, for example in an Action Aid project aiming to increase awareness and understanding of children’s rights and in education in Ghana, Uganda, The Gambia, Liberia, Malawi and Zambia; Figue (2013) reports that many still saw children’s rights as a threat to adult authority. A key conclusion included the need to provide more sustained training and support for teachers to enable them to adopt more inclusive approaches, to involve children in decision-making and to stop using physical punishment in school. Similarly, Morgan and Kitching’s (2006) evaluation of an HRE initiative across the North and South of Ireland identified teacher training as one of the main priorities for action; as did recent surveys of HRE in Australia (Burridge et al., 2013), Finland (HRC, 2014) and Denmark (DIHR, 2013).

There is some indication that such training, when well-designed, can have a positive impact. Andreopoulos observes that such professional courses often tend to adopt experiential or participatory learning approaches, with the intention that they engage learners with the moral consequences of their decisions, rather than adopt a ‘sermonizing’ approach (Andreopoulos, 2002: 243). Keng (2008) reported that Malaysian teachers’ attitudes towards children’s rights were changed through a combination of clear information (replacing some myths about rights equalling granting children what they want) and participatory workshops modelling learner-centred pedagogy. Gaynor’s (2007) case study of CRE in Kosovo demonstrates that teacher education can have a direct impact on practice, and on students’ experience. Lyle (2014), reflecting on recent experiences in Wales, argues that supporting teachers to adopt Philosophy for Children (P4C) as a rights-respecting pedagogy helps teachers to move beyond their traditional view of children in terms of ‘innocence’ or ‘deficits’ and to think about them in terms of their developing agency. Research in South and Latin America found a general rise in the number of countries where there were explicit references to human rights in teacher education regulations, and even more references to principles of human rights, such as equity and inclusion. However, it also reported a time delay in teacher education institutions adjusting their taught programmes to reflect this policy shift (IIHR, 2005).
Where does CRE fit?

An issue for UNICEF and for others in the field is the proliferation of education traditions which have a bearing on CRE, and which may to a large extent develop many of the same objectives, for example anti-racist and anti-sexist education, citizenship, civics, cooperative education, global education, inclusive education, intercultural education, peace education, education for sustainability etc. These may form part of CRE, or CRE may nestle within these traditions, where they are better established. Potvin and Benny argue that, “despite their sometimes divergent premises and goals, these approaches aim... to develop the knowledge, behaviour and know-how (or skills) about human rights and active citizenship of educators and students, as well as strategies for changing structures and practices in schools to make rights effective and encourage an inclusive school culture.” (Potvin & Benny, 2013: 4). However, these terms are not synonymous, nor can they simply be viewed as constituent elements of CRE. The problem is evident in Potvin and Benny’s (2013) literature review, which re- defines CRE as having four constituent elements (intercultural, transformative, democratic and inclusive) and then considers the literatures relevant to each of these, but it is important to recognise that these four ‘elements’ are open to other interpretations, and are not necessarily centrally about rights. In the absence of a long-established tradition of CRE it may be necessary to refer to this wider literature but one must be aware of the differences in emphasis and the nature of the connections between these alternative educational traditions (such as citizenship, intercultural education etc.) and CRE. 

Bajaj adopts the term ‘decoupling’ (from Meyer & Rowan, 1978) in this regard, which refers to situations where HRE is formally adopted, but subsequently only selectively implemented or significantly adapted (Bajaj, 2012: 4). She notes that there is also a process of conflation at work, in which HRE is simply absorbed into other agendas. In her study she describes three ways in which this occurred (Bajaj, 2012: 13):

- Religious morality was used as a lens through which to interpret human rights and therefore rights language was used to legitimate the religious stance;
- Rural public health and hygiene projects tried to take over HRE and use HRE to promote public health;
- Some officials and teachers used HRE to promote their own left-wing political agendas.

In addition she notes the ‘different languages and logics of human rights’ (Baxi, 2006) which vary across the groups who incorporate human rights in different discourses from corporate social and moral responsibility specialists to grassroots marginalized activists (Bajaj, 2012: 4). Where prevailing cultural values and educational traditions are seen to be incompatible with aspects of the CRC, this leads to strategies of subterfuge or selectivity, which compromise the holistic conception of CRE.

For example, Seung-Mi Lee argues that HRE advocates in the Republic of Korea refuse to use the terminology of rights at all in order to avoid the local sensitivities that might be aroused (Lee, 2007), whilst in Japan Akuzawa (2007) and Takeda (2012) argue that HRE tends to be mediated through a dominant approach to moral and values education, leading to some principles such as participation being downplayed. In this context Akuzawa cites anecdotal evidence that, when asked about human rights, teachers often talk about values such as kindness, sympathy and being good to friends rather than concrete rights or conventions. Similar distortions occur where rights are mediated through education for national identity or patriotism (Akuzawa, 2007; Leung, 2007).

Audigier (2006) notes a shift towards an Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) paradigm, with human rights as one knowledge component within that. Whilst this may be a reasonably pragmatic way to proceed, CRE advocates must also be alert to the specific points of tension, for example in relation to the notion of ‘responsibilities’, where EDC can slip into a discourse of individual responsibilities for participation and towards others (Audigier, 2000), or even towards emphasising a direct correlation between individuals meeting their responsibilities in order to claim their rights. Whilst this ‘responsibilization’ agenda has some currency within contemporary debates about citizenship there is a risk that it may blur definitions of rights as unconditional, and of the state as the primary duty-bearer (Jerome, 2012). If children are to be informed about their rights through CRE they must be clear that they are rights-holders, and this is not dependent on them fulfilling specific responsibilities. At the extreme end of this debate, Hung (2012) has argued that the different histories and philosophical characteristics of human rights (universal and inalienable) and citizenship (conditional and exclusive) means the two educational agendas should be separated.

The issue of decoupling clearly links to the previous theme about teachers’ own political world views and Waldron et al. (2011) illustrate this in relation to HRE being re-interpreted through a competing paradigm in schools. Commenting on teachers’ propensity for charity work, they argue that, “it is doubtful... that respondents’ association between HRE and global poverty recognises the inherent contradiction between a rights-based approach and a charity approach to education” (Waldron et al., 2011: 50). Whilst this dismissal may oversimplify the problem, there is clearly a need to ensure such work is developed so that a rights perspective is evident. Charitable giving without understanding is problematic from a CRE perspective, but understanding without helping may also be problematic. This reflects Tibbits’ earlier concern that CRE may lead to understanding and empathy but not action. However, Bajaj’s work also gives us reason not to be too dismissive of the role of charity, as she characterises it as the act of ‘coalitional agents’. 
The general point here is that one cannot assume these related issues are automatically aligned around children's rights. Rather one must be aware of the processes which can distort, re-define and sideline the children’s rights element of a topic or subject. Charity, citizenship, and religion may provide opportunities to develop CRE but this has to be consciously developed.

Who promotes CRE?

Networks are emerging as a significant theme in the analysis of educational policy change (Ball, 2007; Ball and Junemann, 2012). On one level, network policy theory provides a lens through which to analyse individuals and their relationships to one another and to the policy process. On another level it captures something of the process through which governance is increasingly disparate and devolved in many jurisdictions, a process which aims to draw multiple stakeholders in to the decision-making processes rather than perceiving government as a single, hierarchical decision-maker (Ball and Junemann, 2012: 4). Whilst policy has always been open to influence through networks, the extent to which this second dimension has been formally adopted as a system of governance will depend on the extent of public service reform in different countries. However, the first element is likely to be useful in thinking about the development of CRE policy, for example, in a recent study of the development of citizenship education in England, Kisby (2012) identifies networks of policy advocates as a key explanatory factor in the development of curriculum policy.

A report on the implementation of children’s rights in law in twelve countries concluded that a strong NGO sector was important because it provided a consistent lobbying capacity, which both acted directly on government in relation to implementation and also worked indirectly by contributing to one’s children’s rights culture (Lundy et al., 2012). The report also noted the significance of children’s rights champions, who are able to use their positions of influence to secure advances in implementation. Gerber’s study of HRE in Boston makes the point that one local politician’s interest in rights education appeared to be sufficient to secure some form of rights education there, despite the US not having ratified the CRC (Gerber, 2008).

At a more local level, Bajaj observed NGOs adopting a strategy of ‘persuasive pragmatism’ (Bajaj, 2012: 11) which incorporates three elements of relationship building:

- A relational and contextual approach which endorses the legitimacy of the bearer of human rights information (establishing the personal credibility and status of NGO staff);
- Address the reasons why stakeholders might be interested in advancing HRE (establishing personal motivation for all stakeholders);
- Creation of an extensive network of supporters for HRE to enhance the status of participants and provide incentives.

This requires the Institute of Human Rights Education (IHRE), the main NGO in Bajaj’s study, to engage seriously with power and social location and to plan for a networking phase to precede any programme implementation.

Tibbits’ evaluation of Amnesty’s Rights Education Action Programme (REAP) noted how the project incorporated building a network of supporters as a key dimension for sustainability. REAP outcomes included more trainers trained, Amnesty membership trebled and the number of local groups doubled, enhanced partnerships with NGOs and government, and increased lobbying of government (although this had a limited impact on formal education policies). The programme involved training ‘multipliers’ who had access to organisations such as schools and community groups to pass on HRE. Teacher-multipliers reported the highest impact in terms of reach (Tibbits, 2010: xii). More traditional Amnesty campaign methods, such as letter writing, have also been successful in education and, alongside sustained advocacy to secure legislative change, such methods have helped to reduce the segregation of Romani children in Slovakian schools (Amnesty International, 2011).

Ideology, context and meanings

As is evident from the foregoing discussion, there are many layers of complexity in the interpretation and implementation of CRE. The definitions of CRE and HRE from the UN have implications for what is taught and how it is taught, and yet much of what is required has been left deliberately vague and open to interpretation. In part this lack of precision was what made the CRC acceptable to signatory states with widely varied cultural contexts and educational systems. Implementation is further complicated by the highly devolved and fragmented nature of education systems within many states, which makes it difficult to secure system-wide developments. Further complexity arises when one considers how CRE is introduced into the school and curriculum, and the ways in which CRE influences and is influenced by other agendas. We have also considered how teachers play an important role in resisting, promoting or shaping CRE within schools, depending on their own preconceptions about childhood, children’s rights and the nature of education.

All of the above draws attention to the various points within the implementation chain where active interpretive work takes place. At each point people make decisions, which are informed by their wider ideological beliefs. In relation to this it seems significant that much of what has been written about CRE positions it as inherently challenging and aligns it with relatively radical approaches to education. For example in General Comment Number 1 (UN, 2001) the Committee asserts:
“The participation of children in school life, the creation of school communities and student councils, peer education and peer counselling, and the involvement of children in school disciplinary proceedings should be promoted as part of the process of learning and experiencing the realization of rights.”

“It should be emphasized that the type of teaching that is focused primarily on accumulation of knowledge, prompting competition and leading to an excessive burden of work on children, may seriously hamper the harmonious development of the child to the fullest potential of his or her abilities and talents.”

This is open to interpretation, which in turns links CRE to the ideological position adopted by the interpreter. In her examination of 35 research publications on children’s rights in education (1997-2008) Quennerstedt (2011) argues that the work is generally under-theorised, and where theory is used, there is no consensus about which theories are useful. This point, which Quennerstedt makes more generally about children’s rights in education, may also be seen to apply more specifically in relation to CRE, which is assumed by some to resonate with progressive or radical traditions in education. For example, UNICEF Canada (2012) explicitly embed their CRE pedagogy within a Deweyan framework, whilst Modrowski insists that “the revolutionary message in Freire’s educational philosophy must infuse projects in human rights education” (PDHRE: 2006: 66); Roche appeals to Freire’s “highly participative pedagogy” (Roche, 1999: 488) and Butler notes the desirability of providing children with work that can be seen to be a “means of liberation from oppression” (Butler, 2012: 21). Tibbitts (2005a) also draws connections between Freire and HRE’s transformative potential.

Whilst the more radical dimension to CRE sits easily within the tradition of critical pedagogy, this is likely to represent a problem for many teachers and policy-makers where such liberationist and revolutionary interpretations will sit uneasily alongside prevailing educational paradigms and priorities. As Krapmann notes, many schools “have a tendency to view children as dependent, inexperienced, and undisciplined [and therefore] in need of clear order and authoritative guidance. When teachers ask students to state their view, students often regard this as a mere educational trick rather than a genuine interest in the students’ perspective” (Krapmann, 2006: 65). In a similar vein, Yamasaki’s reflections on his school data led him to warn that schools are open to the charge of hypocrisy where they cannot implement the human rights values they claim to be teaching (Yamasaki, 2002: 46). The Council of Europe’s Compass Manual for HRE demonstrates another source of hypocrisy as its authors claim that values clarification is one of their pedagogical tenets (Brander et al., 2012: 32) and thus fail to recognise that the manual explicitly promotes the principle that all young people should value human rights – thus aligning itself more clearly with a model of values transmission. However, there are deeper reasons in the education system that may make such radical interpretations of CRE difficult for teachers. Other competing priorities may include the need to secure a rise in international league table rankings, an increase in youth employment or greater cost effectiveness (see for example OECD, 2013). Indeed, as Mejias and Starkey (2012) have argued, these competing priorities are not simply alternative policy prescriptions vying with CRE/HRE for attention, but they often function as overarching paradigms, which may be inherently antithetical to CRE. In a study of a school implementing an Amnesty HRE programme, Mejias and Starkey argued there were tensions between a dominant neo-liberal paradigm promoting individualised, competitive, consumer models of education, and the humanistic, collaborative, developmental education espoused within the HRE model. Such concerns are also reflected in the 2014 report of the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education, which discusses the implications of the growth of marketization in education as a threat to the principles of universal education for social justice (UN, 2014).

This might provide part of the explanation for why, despite the variety of sources of advice and guidance on HRE and the CRC, the Committee on the Rights of the Child has consistently advised EU states that they are not doing enough to address the children’s rights agenda in education. Almost all (25 out of 27) of the European countries considered in a recent analysis of state reports to the Committee elicited specific advice relating to education in the Committee’s response. Summarizing this advice, Lundy (2012) points out that the Committee advised these states to ensure their education provided “adequate and systematic training on the CRC for staff and students including child-friendly material and initiatives to reach marginalised groups; inclusion of CRC in curricula and principles of the CRC integrated into the structure and practice of schools; [and] engagement of children in projects where human rights standards are implemented in practice” (401). This is a fairly comprehensive list of the major elements of CRE, which would indicate that there is much progress to be made in the implementation of CRE in this selection of countries, many of which will be the target population for this research project, i.e. countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence.

Whilst children’s rights standards have an important part to play in encouraging governments to review and improve their education provision to more fully meet children’s rights, the ideological tensions noted above clearly play an important part in shaping this agenda in practice. If CRE advocates align CRE with critical pedagogy, and position it outside of dominant educational discourses, this may risk marginalising the contribution of CRE. On the other hand, to accommodate CRE within such dominant discourses runs the risk that CRE is reduced to window dressing or lip-service (Alderson, 1999). Whilst human rights standards are fundamental commitments, and HRE/CRE is an agreed goal, these tensions may help to explain why there are a number of different models emerging from practice and the literature, reflecting the circumstances in which CRE is developing.
Tibbits (2002) differentiates between three main forms of HRE/CRE:

- General values and awareness models;
- Accountability models for professionals working with human rights abuse victims;
- Transformational models including students and community members.

This clearly identifies the transformational potential of CRE (Tibbits, 2005a) but also leaves open interpretations that could lead to relatively minimal impacts on existing provision. It is not apparent that the first two models would, for example, tackle the need to promote and develop children and young people’s capacity to be agents, both in relation to enacting their own rights, and in promoting those of others.

By contrast, Potvin and Benny (2013) argue there are four main theoretical and pedagogical approaches. These have been identified through an analysis of the descriptions of a number of education projects available on NGO websites:

- Intercultural or multicultural approach;
- Transformative, anti-oppression, post-colonial, anti-racist perspectives and their variants (Critical Race Theory, critical pedagogy, afro-centric perspective);
- Democratic citizenship education and its variants (global or planetary education, peace education, human rights education);
- Inclusive approach, centred on equity and distinct pedagogy.

These all relate more to Tibbits’ notion of transformational CRE, and this reflects Potvin and Benny’s focus on what NGOs are actually doing on the ground, rather than official government conceptions of HRE/CRE.

Bajaj developed her model in relation to fieldwork she was conducting in India, although she intends it to be more widely applicable than in this context (Bajaj, 2012). She includes three ideological orientations of HRE, recognising that different communities, schools and organisations will adopt different ideological positions. She does not think these are exclusive, merely that they reflect different priorities, and she recognizes that individual programmes may blend aspects of each:

- HRE for Global Citizenship: the ideological position is that human rights inform a new global political order; outcomes include awareness of interdependence and feeling like a member of an international community;
- HRE for Coexistence: the ideological position is that HRE can lead to healing and reconciliation; outcomes include intergroup contact, mutual understanding and social cohesion;
- HRE for Transformative Action: the ideological position is to see HRE as a radical politics of inclusion and social justice; outcomes include activism, participation and social change.

Given her focus on evaluating NGO HRE practices in India, it is not surprising perhaps, that via a different method, her model is fairly similar to Potvin and Benny’s. Democratic Citizenship and Global Citizenship clearly relate to one another in the two frameworks, as do both categories relating to transformation. It is also be possible to see Bajaj’s coexistence as relating to Potvin and Benny’s intercultural and inclusive approaches.

This recognition of the importance of the ideological stance adopted by the interpreter of CRE is also reflected in Tibbits’ later work (Tibbits, 2008). Rather than thinking about ideology at the level of NGO actors or education leaders, she draws attention to the overall national context and the likely ways this may shape HRE:

- HRE in post-conflict contexts may tend to focus on the rule of law and the legitimacy of authorities;
- HRE in repressive regimes might become a focus point for resistance and empowerment;
- HRE in democratic but poor countries might focus on issues related to sustainable development;
- HRE in wealthy democracies might understandably be focused on issues related to discrimination.

This adds another significant dimension to CRE, and recognises that whilst there are clearly important principles underpinning it, in reality these might lead to radically different processes and outcomes.

CRE in practice will be influenced by:

(i) the ideological position of the actors and organisations developing CRE programmes;
(ii) the prevailing national situation in which CRE is being developed; and
(iii) the prevailing ideas which are shaping international education policy at any time. Ball has argued organisations such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) facilitate policy borrowing between governments which leads to a form of “global policyspeak” (Ball, 2008: 1). He also argues that this agenda is largely organised around a dominant neo-liberal agenda (typically focusing on parental choice, marketization reforms and accountability) and so we have to consider how CRE is likely to be shaped by the ways in which this global discourse develops and is mediated within each education system.
CRE is likely to have a role in challenging these global policy trends in some contexts and for some policy actors, for example, market reforms may be opposed on the grounds that such a system may exacerbate inequality (Article 2). In other places CRE may inform the ways in which such policies are implemented and monitored, for example, through ensuring school choice mechanisms respond to children’s views as well as their parents’ (Article 12).

The data collected through the UNICEF survey in countries with a National Committee presence will provide a clearer picture of what is happening in each state and how CRE is being interpreted. The case studies will provide an insight into how CRE is being articulated in specific contexts, and how UNICEF National Committees engage with the complexities of implementation processes.

Summary

In summary, the literature review alerts us to the following issues:

1. There is a challenge in getting policy alignment to support CRE from government down to schools.
2. Work with teachers needs to address their knowledge and attitudes and acknowledge their agency in creating change.
3. CRE can be changed by being combined with other educational agendas and vice versa.
4. Relationships and networks are important in establishing CRE.
5. CRE takes on different emphases in different contexts.
FINDINGS FROM THE SURVEY

Introduction

The survey was completed by 88 in-country experts, across 26 countries, who were nominated by UNICEF National Committee staff as being knowledgeable about CRE (Table 1 provides an overview of the respondents). The country profiles were compiled using the survey data as the main source of baseline information, supplemented by additional desk-based research. Whilst most of the survey was concerned with establishing a factual description of policy and provision, some of our questions also related to respondents’ opinions about the extent to which CRE was being implemented. There were no statistically significant differences (p>.05) in the nature of responses for each of these categories, for example when assessing the extent to which teachers were trained in CRE there were no differences between teacher educators, NGO workers or government employees.

Table 1
Profile of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central government</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local/regional government</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO (other than UNICEF)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private sector company</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University/teacher education institute</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ombudsman/national human or child rights office</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other⁴</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>88</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this chapter we present the survey findings in three forms. First, Table 2 provides an overview of some of the key elements of CRE, providing an at-a-glance comparison across the 26 countries. Then some of the data is summarised across the whole group of respondents to provide an overview of some of the implementation issues. Finally we provide a summary of CRE in each of the 26 countries.

Overview

One of the fundamental prerequisites for CRE is that governments require schools to address children’s rights in some way. In Table 2 we present the data for whether there is a requirement to teach about children’s rights in the official curriculum. This presents a mixed picture with fewer than half the states ensuring this is an entitlement for all children (11 of 26) and a further five with variations within the country. Eight countries either do not have a national curriculum that specifies content (e.g. the Netherlands), or fail to include children’s rights in their core curriculum (e.g. Australia) or include it as an option (e.g. Ireland). Whilst the curriculum is the most common mechanism for achieving such an entitlement we also asked whether there was some form of alternative legislative requirement for schools to teach children’s rights. This showed none of the countries without CRE in the curriculum have an alternative mechanism for ensuring this happens in schools.

This summary also makes it clear that few states have taken seriously the challenge of monitoring the quality of CRE provision, and similarly few have mainstreamed children’s rights into teacher education or the system governing teacher qualification. The picture in relation to opportunities for children’s participation through school councils is better, but it is also evident that whilst school councils are widespread, they fall short of being universally implemented. In most countries there is no national requirement for schools to run school councils for all age groups, despite respondents feeling that school practice generally exceeds government requirements.

⁴ Including a judge and members of research organisations and school inspection services.
Table 2
CRE in 26 countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Is there a requirement in the curriculum for all children to learn about child rights?</th>
<th>Does the government, or a public agency, monitor/inspect the quality of CRE?</th>
<th>Are all teachers trained in children’s rights and the CRC as part of their initial training?</th>
<th>Do the regulations concerning who is qualified to teach refer to child rights?</th>
<th>To what extent are schools required to run student councils?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
<td>✏</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Korea</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the USA questions were amended to refer to international human rights

| USA                            | ✏                                                                                    | O                                                                           | O                                                                                             | O                                                                 | ✗                                                                   |

Key:

- **Yes**
- ✏ Yes, in some places/to some extent
- O No
- – Disagreement among respondents
Survey themes

Respondents were asked to state the key challenges facing their countries in relation to implementing CRE and to identify some factors that would help. There was consistency between these two questions as people offered suggestions that were, by and large, formulated to address the challenges they had identified. Whilst both sets of responses covered a wide variety of issues, there were some consistent issues that emerged more frequently.

In relation to the challenges, the most frequently cited problems were identified as:

1. Teacher’s lack of knowledge and lack of training (54%)
2. Lack of policy commitments (38%)
3. Need for participation and for CRE to go beyond learning about rights (36%)
4. Inadequate curriculum (26%)
5. Lack of political leadership (19%)

A range of other factors were mentioned, including the importance of culture change within the education system and deeper contextual challenges such as inequality and social problems; teachers’ perceptions of CRE as a threat; complexity within the education system; teachers’ workload; and the lack of effective monitoring and quality assurance systems for CRE.

In relation to factors that would help to improve the implementation of CRE, the most frequently cited factors were identified as:

1. Teacher education (59%)
2. Clear policy commitments (29%)
3. A general shift in the culture of schools and the education system to recognise children’s rights (26%)
4. Resources (20%)
5. A place in the curriculum (19%)
6. Political leadership (18%)

Other factors included monitoring and accountability measures; and the need for more organised collaboration over collecting and disseminating evidence of what works.

In the following sections we discuss these issues under two broad headings. Firstly, we discuss the findings from the survey in relation to what has to be taught and how it is taught; secondly, we turn to the issue of teacher education; and finally, we consider some of the other issues arising from the data.

Theme 1: Learning about, through and for rights

The data on children’s rights in the official curriculum indicates that the curriculum is not being consistently used as a vehicle for ensuring all children are informed of their rights. In 15 of the 25 countries respondents indicated that children’s rights were not explicitly included in the curriculum, or that they were only included in some regions within the country (Table 3). Whilst it may be possible to mandate schools to teach about the CRC in their practice outside of the confines of the curriculum, even more countries reported that there was no such legal requirement for schools to undertake such a duty. This is important because a lack of a clear entitlement for children to learn about their rights is likely to lead to variation in practice between schools, regions and states.

Table 3

Is there a requirement in the curriculum for all children to learn about child rights?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, across the whole country</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, in some parts of the country</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88

The issue of inclusion of CRE in the official curriculum is an evolving one. Some countries have recently incorporated learning about the CRC in their curricula, for example in Iceland (already established) and Finland (in curriculum reforms for 2016). However, in other countries, opportunities are being missed. For example, Australia is currently moving towards a national curriculum framework but has omitted to incorporate children’s rights explicitly, despite pressure from Australian human rights organisations and support from the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child. Similarly, whilst Scotland has incorporated the CRC in teacher regulations, the Curriculum for Excellence framework is not clear with regard to teaching about the CRC. In other countries CRE has recently lost ground, for example in Spain the subject Education for Citizenship and Human Rights was introduced in 2006 but repealed in 2014, and in Ireland Civic, Social and Political Education has been relegated from an entitlement for all students to an optional course (reforms taking effect in 2014). These examples illustrate the problem of establishing and maintaining policy alignment, as gains seem to be easily lost in subsequent educational reforms.
A 2007 report by the French-Belgian network Coordination des ONG pour les Droits de l’Enfant (CODE) examining rights education in French-speaking communities in Belgium argued that there are clear stages in CRE:

- To know that the CRC exists;
- To understand the philosophy of the CRC;
- To understand what the contents of the CRC mean;
- To put into practice what they have learned.

These initial findings about the curriculum indicate that this first step – for children to know that the CRC exists – is unlikely to be achieved for all children in the majority of countries in the survey, where CRE is either missing from the official curriculum or where it is inconsistently applied within the country. Therefore it is unlikely that the higher stages of knowledge and understanding envisaged in CODE’s report will be achieved. In relation to this deeper understanding, respondents in only four countries unanimously reported that children’s rights were taught in the curriculum as a stand-alone topic. Children’s rights are frequently taught through other subjects, typically social studies or civics, and sometimes through history or health-related subjects (Table 4).

Table 4
Do child rights feature in curriculum requirements for other subjects?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, across the whole country</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, in some parts of the country</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n=88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most commonly mentioned subjects were:

- Citizenship/Civics (72%)
- Social Studies/Social Science (65%)
- History (42%)
- Human Rights Education (36%)
- Geography (23%)

Others included Religion, Philosophy, Life Skills and Languages.

The literature review identified the possible distortions that can occur when CRE is interpreted through other subject lenses and on closer inspection many of the curricula refer to children’s rights and responsibilities in general and thus fail to specify the relationship between the CRC, children’s rights, and the responsibilities of duty-bearers. It is unlikely therefore that such requirements would promote CODE’s further steps of understanding what the CRC means, nor meet UNICEF’s standard for a child rights approach to education. Whilst this study was not designed to look at classroom practices, we did ask our respondents for their view of implementation in their countries. For example, we asked about the extent to which children learned about duty-bearers’ responsibilities to uphold children’s rights (Table 5) and 57% thought this happened to a limited extent or not at all.

Table 5
To what extent do you think children are taught about the DUTY-BEARERS who have responsibility for protecting and promoting child rights?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a limited extent</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a significant extent</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n=88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having examined many of the official curriculum documents it would be safe to conclude that children are not learning about specific issues such as the relationship between rights-holders and duty-bearers because this level of detail is generally not specified in curriculum documents. However, including an adequate account of CRE in the official curriculum is only the first step towards ensuring all children have an entitlement to learn about their rights. There is always an implementation gap with regards to the curriculum, as teachers have to make their own (collective and individual) interpretations of the official curriculum in order to develop the taught curriculum. Indeed, our data illustrate a significant challenge in implementing the policy fully. Whilst 52% of respondents said there was a requirement in law for children to learn about their rights, in at least some areas of their country, only 30% believed this was happening to a significant extent or fully (Tables 6 and 7). Whilst 67% said there was policy support for CRE, short of making it statutory, only 21% thought this had resulted in implementation to a significant extent or fully (Tables 8 and 9).

Similarly, teachers’ agency means teachers may choose to teach areas they feel strongly about, even where the official curriculum does not mandate it. With regard to this possibility, respondents were also asked for their opinions about the extent to which they thought CRE was happening regardless of the policy or curriculum framework (Table 10). 40% felt teaching children about their rights was being implemented only to a limited extent or not all, whilst only 16% felt it was being implemented to a significant extent or fully.
Table 6
Is there a REQUIREMENT in law for all children to learn about child rights in school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, across the whole country</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, in some parts of the country</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88

Table 7
If yes, to what extent do you think this is being fully implemented?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a limited extent</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a significant extent</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=49

Table 8
Are schools encouraged to teach children about their rights through NON-STATUTORY guidance (e.g. through government policy or advice, which promotes but does not require it)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, across the whole country</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, in some parts of the country</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88

Table 9
If yes, to what extent do you think this is being fully implemented?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a limited extent</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a significant extent</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=57

Table 10
Regardless of the statutory/obligatory nature of the curriculum, to what extent do you think children are taught ABOUT child rights in school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a limited extent</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a significant extent</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88

The ambitions of CRE go much deeper than knowledge and understanding about children’s rights and include education through rights-respecting processes to secure a commitment to act for the realisation of rights. The general problem of moving beyond learning about and towards a process of learning through rights was offered as the second most frequently mentioned challenge by our survey respondents. We asked two questions that related to this broader dimension of CRE. In Table 11, we can see that 46% of respondents felt children’s rights were generally respected in schools to a significant extent or fully, whilst Table 12 shows only 15% felt schools prepared children to act to promote rights.

Table 11
Regardless of the statutory/obligatory nature of the curriculum, to what extent do you think SCHOOLS RESPECT child rights?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a limited extent</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a significant extent</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88

Table 12
Regardless of the statutory/obligatory nature of the curriculum, to what extent do you think schools PREPARE CHILDREN TO ACT to promote child rights?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a limited extent</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a significant extent</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88
Many of our respondents argued that even if there was a curriculum entitlement, the wider implications of children’s rights for the school as a whole and for the teachers’ relationships with children had yet to be realised in their countries. For several respondents this was linked to a general conservative climate within the education system where traditional methods continued to dominate. For others, the focus was more sharply on teachers rather than the education system as a whole. For example, some expressed the concern that teachers remained nervous about giving up their own individual authority in the classroom. This was also a feature of some of the case studies where teacher resistance emerged as an obstacle. For example, in Israel teacher unions had attempted to repeal a law promoting students’ rights in school.

Whilst it is not possible in a survey of this nature to establish any baseline information about classroom practices across these countries, we did ask about the extent to which schools were required to run student councils, to provide some measure of the extent to which participation was mainstreamed into decision-making in schools. Respondents in only four countries (Hungary, Norway, Poland and Sweden) said that this was a requirement in all schools, although in all but one country this was promoted for various age groups or in various regions. 56% of our respondents felt that schools ran student councils to a significant extent or fully, but only 17% agreed to a significant extent or fully that these councils actively encouraged and supported children to have a genuine impact on important school decisions. This is reflected in the literature on student councils (Whitty and Wisby, 2007) and in interviews conducted for case studies where some head teachers were surprised by the suggestion that children could be involved in decisions about the curriculum.

**Theme 2: Teacher education**

In relation to teacher education the survey results indicate that states generally do not ensure that teachers are trained in relation to human rights in general or children’s rights in particular. In fact, if one acknowledges that Scotland is only one jurisdiction within the UK as a whole, not one of our 26 states guarantees this across their entire national training system.

The following tables summarise the data from our respondents and several issues can be identified. Firstly, although we identified no states where we could say with any certainty that children’s rights was a compulsory dimension in all initial teacher education, there were 11 of 88 respondents who thought it was (see Table 13). In most cases this is explained by the fact that respondents were only describing one area of the country with which they were most familiar, but in some cases, for example in Poland, there was simply a divided opinion. In this case we think such divided opinion may reflect the highly fragmented nature of higher education in Poland, which experienced a rapid growth in higher education providers during a period of market-led reform, and where gaining a reliable national picture is difficult. Secondly, it can be noted that respondents felt it was more likely that human rights generally, rather than child rights specifically, would be included in the initial teacher education curriculum. And thirdly, when we looked at the regulations governing who is qualified to teach (Table 14), it was considerably more likely that respondents would judge these regulations only to implicitly reflect children’s rights rather than explicitly refer to them. As noted above, Scotland is the exception here and the regulations make the connection to the CRC explicitly. In the Scottish document the reference is as follows:

“The professional values and personal commitment core to being a teacher [include] respecting the rights of all learners as outlined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and their entitlement to be included in decisions regarding their learning experiences and have all aspects of their well-being developed and supported” (GTCS, 2012).

This explicit connection between teacher education and the CRC is further bolstered by a requirement that teachers know, understand and can apply through their practice— the principles of the Getting It Right for Every Child (GIRFEC) policy framework— which also explicitly references the CRC on the government’s website. These requirements are part of the mandatory national standards required to register as a teacher with the General Teaching Council for Scotland. As each training provider in Scotland has to assess student teachers against these Standards for Teaching, this is a relatively straightforward policy tool to implement change.

### Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, across the whole country</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, in some parts of the country</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88
Table 14
Do the regulations concerning who is qualified to teach refer to child rights?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, explicitly and across the whole country</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, implicitly and across the whole country</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, explicitly and in some parts of the country</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, implicitly in some parts of the country</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the absence of comparable policies, in several other countries there are individual training providers which have chosen to incorporate children’s rights into their training programmes. This means that all teachers being trained in those institutions are required to be familiar with the CRC and CRE but it also means there is no consistency across institutions within those states. Whilst the literature in this area suggests that such policy can be grown from the bottom up, where government fails to implement a top-down framework, our case study work also indicates that the fragmented nature of such initiatives may also lead to very different forms of CRE being implemented. For example, in some teacher education institutions in Belgium CRE is aligned with critical geography and global issues, in others it is more explicitly linked to learning about the CRC principles in relation to professional standards.

In addition it was commonly reported (70%) that non-governmental organisations also provide teacher education, both by supporting and enhancing initial teacher education in training institutions and through directly offering continuing professional development. However, whilst at least one person in each country reported being aware of such training, there was a mixed picture between respondents, indicating that this provision is not widely known. Given that our respondents were selected because they were regarded by UNICEF colleagues as having some expertise in CRE, this varied level of awareness indicates that this provision may have a somewhat limited reach.

The training that was available was varied. Some respondents reported that they were aware of training that was primarily focused on providing information on human rights and children’s rights. Some focused on helping teachers to adapt and use handbooks, such as the Council of Europe’s Comsasto handbook. Others were more focused on broader pedagogical approaches, such as the training observed in Finland, which had a strong focus on participative pedagogies.

There is a recurrent issue here relating to the need to make connections to children’s rights explicitly. Many of our respondents felt that aspects of teacher education were perfectly compatible with children’s rights and yet there was rarely an explicit connection made between the training, regulatory frameworks and the CRC. This leaves open the possibility that teachers and others within the education system undertake actions which are never related to the concept of children being rights-holders and them being duty-bearers. Specific CRC rights such as the best interests of the child, access to education, participation, and child protection may be perceived as aspects of ‘good practice’ without reference to a rights framework. This is likely to diminish the extent to which these potentially supportive aspects of provision are linked to a broader and more sustainable programme of child rights education. All of these aspects of professional practice may be seen as matters of politics, policy or professional good practice, and therefore may be open to change, whereas positioning them within a rights-based discourse indicates why these factors should be prioritised in deliberations about practice. As McCowan (2012) has pointed out, if participation is mainstreamed because teachers become convinced of its effectiveness as a pedagogic strategy, this may appear to be a positive step forward for CRE, but it would leave participation open to the vagaries of changing fashion or shifting evidence. Ultimately the argument for participation is that children have a right to participate in decisions that affect them, not that their participation is conditional on some other objective being met as a result (Lundy, 2007).

Theme 3: Networks and influencers

Respondents mentioned a wide variety of partners and collaborators working to promote CRE in their countries. The most frequently mentioned networks were national coalitions or umbrella groups working on children’s rights, or human rights more generally. In addition, respondents named specific academics, politicians, children’s commissioners/ombudsmen and even royal family members as being influential in promoting children’s rights and CRE in their countries. Some religious organisations were also mentioned in this regard, and this was sometimes linked to their overseas work, providing a link between development work, charity and CRE.

When asked about international factors that made an impact in their countries, several commented on the impact of specific recommendations made by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child in its Concluding Observations. For example, in Denmark the website www.boerneraadet.dk was established in response to the Committee’s criticisms that the government was not making information on the CRC available to children in an accessible form. In some countries the Council of Europe was seen as influential, especially for the handbooks, resources and programmes linking Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education, which could be readily adapted to incorporate CRE perspectives. In addition several respondents mentioned the importance of the UN Decade for HRE in promoting awareness. The work of NGOs was commonly cited as significant in relation to providing support for schools as well as resources and programmes for teachers to encourage their participation in CRE.
Theme 4: Access to resources

Resources were not mentioned as a key challenge. Nevertheless, 20% of our respondents suggested this as an area that would help to improve CRE in their countries. Table 15 indicates that there was still a variation in the extent to which teachers have access to high quality resources, and this was despite the fact that over half our respondents were aware that their government produced or financially supported others to produce resources to support CRE (Tables 16 and 17). In fact these responses were mixed within most countries, indicating that this is likely to be a problem of dissemination and awareness as much as one of availability.

Where the government provided resources, these took a variety of forms, most commonly:

1. Websites and multi-media resources (71%)
2. Other classroom resources (worksheets, posters etc.) (65%)
3. Textbooks (58%)
4. Other funded projects for schools (29%)

Table 15
To what extent do you think teachers are able to access high quality teaching resources for teaching child rights?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a limited extent</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To a significant extent</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88

Table 16
Does the government produce teaching resources for teachers to use when teaching about child rights?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, the national government produces resources</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for use across the whole country</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, local or regional government produce resources</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for use in some parts of the country</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=88

When asked about the nature of the resources available, most respondents who were aware of such resources were positive about the quality and variety with almost all agreeing they were at least satisfactory (99%) and 73% agreeing they were generally good or very good. All but five of our respondents were aware of civil society organisations producing resources for schools to teach children about their rights and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. We also asked about the kinds of topics with which children’s rights were associated in these resources:

1. International aid and development (58%)
2. Poverty and social class (49%)
3. Race and ethnicity (47%)
4. Disability (42%)
5. Sex education (33%)
6. Gender (33%)
7. Drugs education (28%)
8. Religious education (22%)

Overall it therefore seems there is a good variety of resources available in most countries, and that children’s rights are linked to a range of contemporary issues. Such resources are generally rated as satisfactory or better although there seems to be some further work to do to ensure that information about these resources is widely disseminated.

8 These percentages are calculated in relation to the 48 positive responses in Table 16.

9 The following percentages are expressed in relation to the 88 respondents. Each person could have chosen more than one topic.
Country summaries

Having outlined some of the general issues emerging across the data, we turn now to provide brief summaries of each of the countries participating in this research.

Australia

Do children learn about children’s rights?
There is currently no requirement for all young people to learn about their rights or the CRC, nor any specific guidance from government that schools should provide this. In some parts of the country, learning about rights is included in some subjects, such as civics.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There is no requirement that teachers are trained in the CRC or human rights more generally, although it appears that the system of teacher accreditation implicitly endorses the principles in the CRC.

Key achievements
There is a move towards a common curriculum, which is currently being implemented (ACARA, undated). This creates a national policy mechanism for promoting CRE.

Key issues
The move towards a national curriculum opened up the opportunity to embed HRE and CRE more fully into the education system, as pointed out by the Australian Human Rights Commission’s submission to the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child in 2011 (AHRC, 2011). However, the new curriculum does not implement their recommendation and therefore CRE is unlikely to be promoted through this major education policy. The subject of Civics and Citizenship makes possible connections to children’s rights under the general language of rights, rules and responsibilities. In the History curriculum there is also a space for students to learn about rights and one of the (non-statutory) examples mentions the CRC.
Austria

Do children learn about children’s rights?
There is variation throughout the Austrian education system due to the diverse nature of secondary schools and curriculum guidance associated with each. In the primary schools, there is a requirement to teach about children’s rights. Schools must devise their own curriculum in the light of such requirements and these are monitored by the relevant authorities. CRE does not appear as a topic in its own right, but is integrated into other curriculum areas such as social studies and civics.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Teachers are not trained in the CRC or HRE but the government does fund organisations to develop resources to support teaching about CRE.

Key achievements
In 2007 Austria became the first member of the EU to adopt a voting age of 16. One of our respondents felt this was partly on the grounds of the experiences gained through school-based participation projects.

Key issues
Respondents identified teacher education and enhancing the status of CRE in the curriculum as the main priorities for action.

Belgium

Do children learn about children’s rights?
The education system in Belgium is devolved to regions, and these are divided between the Dutch, French, and German-speaking communities. There was some variation in the extent to which CRE is developing in these areas. Respondents from the Dutch-speaking areas identified a clear commitment within the curriculum to teach about children’s rights. Respondents in the French-speaking areas also reported coherent efforts to promote student councils in and beyond schools. Monitoring, such as it is, takes place within the general school inspection framework, but CRE is not reported on separately.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Due to the devolved nature of the system there is no simple answer to this question. No-one reported that CRE was an element of teacher training, whilst some reported that some providers of training incorporate human rights in their training. There was agreement that this was not widespread nor particularly effective. The government does fund organisations to provide resources for teachers.

Key achievements
Children’s rights are included in some curriculum guidance and resources and projects are widely available to teachers.

Key issues
A 2007 study of CRE in the French-speaking community noted that too many children were ignorant of the CRC and that schools should do more to ensure children were informed of the CRC, taught about what it means, and encouraged to adopt the principles and values underpinning it (CODE, 2007). The respondents in this survey echoed the sentiment that whilst the curriculum and student representation systems went some way to implementing CRE, that it remained a low priority and had a low status within the education system.
Canada

Do children learn about children’s rights?
In Canada there is no federal department of education and education is entirely devolved to provinces. Our respondents reflected this in their diverse judgements about the extent to which children learned about their rights or were involved in participative activities which reflected their rights. Children are taught about the CRE in some provinces (e.g. Nova Scotia), but not in others. There is no monitoring system for CRE. This has led the Committee on the Rights of the Child to recommend that Canada develops a stronger plan for implementing the CRC and to ensure that young people are informed of their rights (UNICEF Canada & OPACYO, 2013).

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
The diverse education system is also reflected in the variations evident in teacher training. One respondent in our survey reported that teachers are trained in human rights or children’s rights (in Nova Scotia), but this is not the case across the whole country. The Committee on the Rights of the Child also recommended that teachers should receive training that would equip them with an understanding of the CRC.

Key achievements
Most of the positive comments relating to CRE in Canada related to the quality of programmes and resources from NGOs which are available to teachers who show an interest in CRE, or who are in an area where this is taken seriously.

Key issues
The key challenge is to implement some form of entitlement to CRE and to ensure teachers are adequately trained.

Denmark

Do children learn about children’s rights?
There is a minimal entitlement for students to learn about human rights in the social studies curriculum in secondary school. One of our respondents also felt that a new subject, Health, Sexuality and Family, would provide a further opportunity for children to learn about their rights, but, although the curriculum guidance links to relevant issues such as health, housing and inequality, it does not explicitly engage with these within a rights framework. Forms of participation, such as school councils are widely implemented.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Teachers are not all trained in relation to children’s rights or human rights but the government does fund the production of some relevant education resources.

Key achievements
Respondents felt that the education system generally operates in ways which are compatible with children’s rights. This general approach to the welfare of children is reflected in the website boerneportalen.dk which informs children about their rights, but again not always explicitly in the context of the CRC. On the main ‘rights’ page a variety of legal rights are presented in relation to children’s age, such as the right to ride your bike on the road, or the age at which you can watch certain films, a separate link leads to the full unexplained text of the CRC.

Key issues
The key challenge is to be more explicit about the nature of children’s rights and to implement some form of entitlement to CRE and to ensure teachers are adequately trained.
Finland

Do children learn about children’s rights?
Children’s rights feature in several areas of the curriculum, including history, where children learn about a variety of international human rights instruments and the nature of human rights. Opportunities for participation, for example through school councils, are widespread, although this tends to be related more commonly to social activities rather than full participation in decisions concerning everyday life in the schools. Good participatory practices do exist but these are not yet mainstreamed.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Teacher training institutions can determine their own curricula, therefore the extent to which teachers are trained in children’s rights or human rights more generally depends on the institution where they study. The government does fund resources for teachers.

Key achievements
A new curriculum in 2016 will strengthen the role of children’s rights as an underpinning value and also clarify that children should learn about their rights.

Key issues
One respondent felt that although participatory teaching methods were becoming mainstreamed, this was often done in the name of effective pedagogy rather than through a commitment to children’s rights. In part this was felt to be due to adults’ lack of knowledge about the CRC. Additionally respondents felt that CRE should be taught more widely than the history curriculum and that teachers should be trained to better understand the nature of children’s rights and the roles of duty-bearers.

France

Do children learn about children’s rights?
A recent curriculum reform has introduced children’s rights for 11 year olds, starting in 2015. Whilst school councils are common, respondents did not say they were required across all schools.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Whilst it seems that teachers are trained in human rights, there was little sense that teachers are trained specifically in relation to children’s rights, nor are children’s rights referenced in regulations relating to qualifying to teach.

Key achievements
A key achievement has been to introduce a specific reference to children’s rights in the new curriculum, to build on broader teaching around human rights, citizenship and democracy.

Key issues
Respondents felt it was a priority to address teachers’ lack of knowledge and confidence in relation to children’s rights.
Germany

Do children learn about children’s rights?
In Germany, education is organised through sixteen states (Länder) and there are several distinct types of secondary school, following different curricula. Therefore whilst children’s rights feature in some curricula, this is not a general entitlement for all children. Respondents said that history and citizenship/civics were the likeliest subjects to include CRE. Whilst approximately half of the Länder include CRE in their education system in some way, this is sometimes achieved through quality frameworks in which schools operate, rather than through curriculum requirements. In addition, participative programmes, such as student councils, are widespread but not universal.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There is no requirement for teachers to be trained in relation to CRE or HRE and the regulations for teachers’ qualifications do not explicitly refer to children’s rights. Government money is made available to support the production of CRE materials for teachers to use.

Key achievements
Having ratified the CRC the German federal government declared it would not apply it directly, to avoid ‘over-interpretation’, however, in 2010 this was withdrawn. The 2010 German report to the Committee stated that most Länder refer to children’s rights in their own constitutions. Whilst one respondent pointed out that in 2006 a meeting of Education Ministers from across Germany affirmed their support for the CRC, this has not been fully implemented through CRE in every state.

Key issues
Our respondents identified coordination between the Länder as a key priority to ensure a coherent response to CRE across the country. They also emphasised the importance of teacher education to ensure all teachers understood the CRC and were clearer about the implications for their practice.

Hong Kong

Do children learn about children’s rights?
There is no national requirement for CRE or HRE to take place, although Liberal Studies includes a requirement for students to learn about their rights and responsibilities. Schools make their own decisions about how to pursue this.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There is no requirement for teachers to be trained in children’s rights or human rights. National regulations relating to qualifying to teach do not make explicit links to children’s rights. Government has funded some education materials for teachers.

Key achievements
Children’s rights is beginning to be discussed more seriously by policy-makers.

Key issues
It was felt there was a relatively weak culture of children’s rights in education and that whilst teacher education would be an important development, it was also important for policy to promote stronger support for teachers to promote CRE.
Hungary

**Do children learn about children’s rights?**
The national curriculum asserts that core values should be derived from the Constitution and other laws, including international conventions concerning children’s rights. It includes reference to learning about human rights and the importance of recognising equal rights, in relation to developing one’s capacity as an active citizen. However, children’s rights are not an explicit compulsory part of the curriculum and where taught are likely to be one section in the broader topic of human rights.

**Are teachers trained in children’s rights?**
Despite the curriculum commitments to human rights and children’s rights, teachers are not trained explicitly in these areas. National regulations related to qualifying to teach do not make explicit references children’s rights. The government has provided funding for some educational materials although our respondents felt access to material may still be an issue for teachers.

**Key achievements**
The key achievement is the commitment in the curriculum to embed children’s rights in the context of human rights and democracy.

**Key issues**
Teacher education, the development of training materials and the implementation of children’s rights in the curriculum were identified as key areas for further action.

Iceland

**Do children learn about children’s rights?**
One of six foundational principles of the national curriculum is ‘human rights and democracy’ and the curriculum makes clear reference to domestic legislation and international agreements relating to human rights and children’s rights. Familiarity with the CRC is defined as an outcome for grade 4 (10-year-old) students. The curriculum specifies that such teaching should address knowledge, critical understanding and attitudes. The curriculum framework also addresses children’s right to safety and security in school and relates this to teachers’ responsibilities to create an appropriate school atmosphere.

**Are teachers trained in children’s rights?**
Whilst the new curriculum makes it more likely that student teachers will be introduced to this curriculum theme, our respondents stated that there was currently no requirement for all teachers to be trained in human rights or children’s rights. The regulations concerning qualifying to teach do not make explicit connections to children’s rights.

**Key achievements**
The curriculum has created a clear entitlement to a form of HRE and CRE.

**Key issues**
Respondents felt that there was still an implementation gap between the introduction of the new curriculum and fully developed CRE. They felt that teacher education was a priority for action.
Ireland

Do children learn about children’s rights?

In the primary curriculum ‘Social, Personal and Health Education’ sets out to “foster in the child the realisation that rights have associated responsibilities.” Whilst creating a space to consider rights it does so within a context that is unlikely to lead to clarity about the nature of rights. In the Junior Cycle, the subject ‘Civic, Social and Political Education’ (CSPE) continues the theme of rights and responsibilities (this is identified as a core concept) but also makes a more explicit connection to human rights. Teacher guidance on how to interpret this subject recommends that teachers address the CRC explicitly. However, in 2014 a reformed curriculum relegated CSPE to an optional status in the curriculum, and it therefore cannot be considered a CRE entitlement for all students.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?

There are no national requirements to train all teachers in human rights or children’s rights, however, several institutions have incorporated this as a compulsory element of their provision. Government funding has supported projects and resources for teachers to promote aspects of CRE.

Key achievements

Whilst a constitutional amendment in 2012 strengthened the legal status of children's rights to some extent, the subsequent curriculum reform has weakened CRE.

Key issues

Whilst there are some strong examples of policies promoting children’s participation, a tradition of learning about children’s rights through CSPE, and some good examples of HRE and CRE being developed in teacher education programmes, a key issue seems to be that these activities are all optional rather than an entitlement for all children.

Israel

Do children learn about children’s rights?

Whilst there is a national core curriculum, the implementation of some subjects of relevance to children’s rights (e.g. history and religious education) varies to reflect the types of school (State, State-religious, Arab, Ultra-orthodox) (Wolf and Breit, 2012). There is a strong legislative framework recognising children’s rights in school and civics in the curriculum includes reference to human rights. However, our respondents had divided opinions about the extent to which the curriculum provided an entitlement for all children to learn about their rights and this seems to be reflected in the fact that the civics curriculum is only compulsory for older students in high school but detailed advice and guidance is offered to schools lower down the age range (Ichilov et al. 2005).

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?

Children’s rights and human rights are not compulsory elements of teacher education, nor do the regulations relating to those qualifying to teach refer specifically to children’s rights. However, the government does support projects relating to CRE for teachers and there is a clear legal framework relating to children’s rights in school, which includes guidance on teachers’ responsibilities.

Key achievements

The Inspectorate for Implementing Students’ Rights is based in the Ministry of Education and is active in providing professional development for teachers and inspecting schools in relation to children’s rights (Israel Ministry of Education, 2013). The Israeli Student and Youth Council was involved in the creation of the Israeli Students’ Rights Law (2000) which guarantees students right to dignity in school.

Key issues

Respondents felt that although there was a clear legal basis for children’s rights in education, there was more to do in relation to teacher education and ensuring CRE was mainstreamed in schools.
Italy

Do children learn about children’s rights?
Children learn about human rights through the subject ‘Citizenship and the Constitution’, which became compulsory in 2010. Guidance on this area promotes participatory learning and projects. It is not clear that children’s rights are addressed explicitly and this area suffers from the low status of having previously been integrated through other subjects.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Children’s rights and human rights are not compulsory elements of teacher education, nor do the regulations relating to those qualifying to teach refer specifically to children’s rights. However, the government does support projects relating to CRE for teachers.

Key achievements
Curriculum change strengthens the basis for learning about rights.

Key issues
Respondents felt teacher education and further curriculum development were key priorities.

New Zealand

Do children learn about children’s rights?
The national curriculum sets out expectations for outcomes and broad areas of study but is not particularly prescriptive, which leaves schools considerable freedom to interpret these requirements and establish their own curricula. There is no requirement for all children to learn about the CRC although the curriculum does include general requirements for children to learn about ‘rights’ and there is non-statutory guidance encouraging aspects of CRE.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Children’s rights and human rights are not compulsory elements of teacher education, nor do the regulations relating to those qualifying to teach refer specifically to children’s rights. However, the government does support projects relating to CRE for teachers and some teacher education institutions are incorporating CRE into their own programmes.

Key achievements
The 2007 curriculum introduced human rights both as a value and a topic of study, although not children’s rights specifically.

Key issues
Respondents felt that teacher education was a priority for action and that the curriculum could make more explicit references to children’s rights.
Norway

Do children learn about children’s rights?
The curriculum includes an entitlement for all children learn about children’s rights and the CRC in ‘Religion, Philosophies of Life and Ethics’. Respondents also argued that the education system had generally high levels of participation through school councils and individual meetings with teachers.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There is not a national requirement for all teachers to be trained in relation to human rights or children’s rights, although some institutions build this into their own programmes. The government also supports the development of HRE and CRE through the production of teaching resources.

Key achievements
There is a strong culture of rights, including a further constitutional amendment relating to the CRC, which supports a culture of young people’s participation in school and their learning about rights. A clear curriculum framework refers to learning about rights.

Key issues
Respondents noted that the CRC should inform more areas of the curriculum and identified teacher education as a key priority. These issues reflect the Committee’s concluding observations on Norway’s most recent country report.

Poland

Do children learn about children’s rights?
Rights are taught through the subjects of civics and history. The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement conducted a 31-country comparative assessment of the level of civic knowledge in 2000 and concluded that Polish young people had the highest levels of knowledge and understanding (although this has since declined). Statutory policy asserts that “every child has the right to know their rights.” Policy also directs schools to conduct democratic elections for school councils.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There was some division of opinion among our respondents in relation to teacher education. Some thought that teachers were trained in children’s rights and that the CRC was referenced in the regulatory framework for qualifying to teach, others disagreed rather than saying they didn’t know. The European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education website indicates that the national Education Development Centre offers courses for teachers in relation to human rights instead of this being a compulsory element of training. In recent years the higher education system rapidly expanded through a market-led approach and it is possible that the diversity created by this phase of development accounts for the diversity of experience and opinion found in our survey.

Key achievements
Relatively high levels of student knowledge about rights in the context of a national civics programme. During the period of democratic transition children’s rights were emphasised.

Key issues
Respondents felt that teacher education should be a priority and that the implementation of CRE should be monitored more closely.
Republic of Korea

Do children learn about children’s rights?
The curriculum includes several references to human rights in ‘moral education’ and in ‘social sciences’ and human rights education features one of several cross-curricular themes. There is less explicit focus on children’s rights specifically. Some local authorities give rights a higher priority.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
It does not appear to be the case that all teachers are trained in human rights or children’s rights but respondents noted NGOs and other agencies that provide such training. In addition the government supports the production of materials for teachers.

Key achievements
Higher profile for rights in the 2007 curriculum reforms.

Key issues
Respondents felt there was still general work to do in creating a better understanding of rights in general, and children’s rights in particular, in their cultural context. It was felt this required advocacy and leadership from politicians and policy-makers.

Scotland

Do children learn about children’s rights?
The ‘Curriculum for Excellence’ provides the framework within which schools develop their curricula. Whilst the framework provides a context in which CRE could be developed, it is not an explicit requirement. In ‘Social Studies’ students are introduced to ‘rights’ in general, which are often paired with ‘responsibilities’ but not considered explicitly in relation to human or children’s rights frameworks. ‘Health and well-being’ outcomes refer to children being aware of their rights in specific areas such as ‘my rights to sexual health’. In addition there are a number of themes which run across schooling, including citizenship. In this context a resource for teachers ‘Recognising and Realizing Children’s Rights’ explains how children’s rights could be developed by teachers, but this is not a requirement.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There is a common core of skills, knowledge and values for the children’s workforce, including teachers, which is explicitly referenced to the CRC. In addition, the General Teaching Council for Scotland establishes the standards which must be achieved in order to qualify to teach in Scotland. These standards include the following requirement for teachers to: “Respect the rights of all learners as outlined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and their entitlement to be included in decisions regarding their learning experiences and have all aspects of their well-being developed and supported” (GTCS, 2012). This means that all teacher education providers must ensure that their courses address the CRC and assess teachers’ knowledge.

Key achievements
The regulatory framework for teachers, as members of the wider children’s workforce, is very clearly linked to the CRC, as is the wider policy context, which is shaped by ‘Getting It Right For Every Child’, which also references the CRC.

Key issues
Whilst the curriculum sets out broad principles which are supportive of CRE and aligned with the CRC, there is not a sharp focus on learning about, and understanding, the CRC. Respondents felt that teacher education would continue to be one route through which to promote CRE, but that the curriculum entitlement should also be strengthened.
Slovakia

Do children learn about children’s rights?
The Education Act (2008) establishes the strengthening of respect for human rights as one of the overall aims of the school system. Whilst children’s rights appears in the curriculum, one respondent indicated this was often encountered as a cross-curricular theme rather than within a specific subject, and was therefore more varied in its implementation. Rights appears within the subject civics, although in a recent international survey, whilst young people’s levels of knowledge was broadly in line with the average, it was noted that civics was judged to have a very low priority in the curriculum (Schulz et al, 2010). Secondary schools are expected to run student councils and some municipalities also run youth councils.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There is no national requirement for teachers to be trained in human rights or children’s rights and this does not form part of the regulations relating to qualifying to teach. Some teacher education providers incorporate children’s rights into their programmes and the government funds some resources for teachers.

Key achievements
There is some evidence of policy alignment with human rights featuring as an aim of education, children’s rights featuring in the curriculum, and schools being encouraged to establish a system for children’s participation through school councils.

Key issues
Participants felt that this is not yet having significant impacts in developing CRE because the curriculum entitlement is not sufficiently high profile and because the education system is still dominated by ‘traditional’ values, which minimises the extent to which adults acknowledge children’s rights in day-to-day interactions. They identified teacher education as a key priority.

Slovenia

Do children learn about children’s rights?
Children’s rights feature in the curriculum and are linked specifically to the CRC.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Whilst there were some differences of opinion about the extent to which teachers were all trained in human rights and children’s rights, a respondent from the Ombudsman’s office said that this was a common feature in teacher education programmes. In addition the government funds teaching resources.

Key achievements
Children’s rights have established a firm footing in the curriculum and a number of NGOs offer projects for schools to participate in.

Key issues
Respondents believed further work is required to ensure children’s rights do not remain in a very specific ‘subject’ in the curriculum and that teachers needed further support and training to help them realise children’s rights in the wider life of the school.
Spain

Do children learn about children’s rights?
CRE has been caught up to some extent in the controversy in Spain surrounding the subject ‘Education for Citizenship and Human Rights’. This was introduced into the curriculum in 2006 but proved controversial, which eventually led to its repeal in 2013. Whilst human rights still feature as a general aim of education, this vehicle for developing knowledge and understanding has been removed.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Teachers are not required to be trained in human rights or children’s rights, although this is included in some teacher education programmes. There is no national regulation linking teacher regulation to the CRC.

Key achievements
Respondents felt that the curriculum had led to some specific projects that were particularly good examples of educational practice, although the continuation of these must be called into question given the recent curriculum changes.

Key issues
Respondents felt that they would benefit from greater stability in policy to develop and embed CRE. They also felt that the varied levels of policy-making between national, regional and local government made policy alignment problematic.

Sweden

Do children learn about children’s rights?
Children’s rights are in the curriculum as part of social studies, and children’s rights are discussed specifically in the broader context of human rights. In addition student participation is widely encouraged through school councils.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
Teachers are not specifically trained in human rights or children’s rights, nor does the CRC feature in any national regulatory framework concerning who is qualified to teach. However, some training providers include rights in their programmes and government does fund the production of resources for teachers.

Key achievements
A recent law (2011) embeds CRE in education.

Key issues
There is a feeling that children’s rights need to be made more ‘real’ by linking them to real-life issues and concerns, for example the rising inequality in society.
Switzerland

Do children learn about children’s rights?
In Switzerland the main responsibility for education lies with the cantons (member states of the federal state of Switzerland). At the national level, the State Secretariat for Education, Innovation and Technology is the federal government’s specialised agency for national and international matters concerning education policy. Accordingly, Switzerland does not have a national curriculum as curricula are specified at canton level. Programmes of participation are also varied across the country.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
The federal system explains why there is no common training for teachers in human rights or children’s rights, although respondents reported that this does take place in some areas. Government funding (presumably at the canton level) also supports the production of resources for teachers.

Key achievements
Initiatives such as Education21 do bring together federal government and cantonal ministers of education around issues of relevance to CRE. In this example, Education21 focuses on sustainable development, and trains teachers and supports school-level programmes, although it is not evident to what extent this programme develops a children’s rights perspective.

Key issues
Respondents felt the key issue was to move from general support for children’s rights to specific action on CRE, including better training for teachers.

The Netherlands

Do children learn about children’s rights?
Schools in the Netherlands have considerable freedom in constructing their own curricula. There is a legal duty to promote citizenship and social integration but schools decide how to do this. The Institute for Curriculum Development offers examples for schools who wish to use them, and their model citizenship curriculum includes specific reference to rights and the CRC.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
There are no national requirements for teachers to be trained in HRE or CRE and no national standards for qualifying to teach which refer to the CRC. The government funds CRE materials and projects.

Key achievements
Some government funding and the creation of the Netherlands Human Rights Institute offers the potential for greater coordination.

Key issues
The principle of ‘freedom’ for schools seems to outweigh any commitment to implementing CRE so a major priority remains convincing politicians and the Ministry of Education that this is an area which should have a higher priority.
USA

The survey was adapted for the USA to ask about human rights (instead of children’s rights) and the extent to which international human rights agreements were taught (instead of the CRC).

Do children learn about children’s rights?
Given the diversity of the education system, which is largely a state responsibility, the survey provided mixed results. It was clear that there is no general entitlement for all children to learn about human rights, nor is there a universal commitment to ensure participation through school councils.

Are teachers trained in children’s rights?
As with the curriculum, the picture in the USA is very mixed in relation to teacher education. Respondents were able to cite some examples where individuals were promoting human rights through their training programmes but there is little sense that this is widespread.

Key achievements
Clearly there is a strong commitment to teaching about democracy and democratic/constitutional rights and some states are beginning to embed more explicit references to the development of international human rights instruments through Holocaust education programmes.

Key issues
Respondents were largely sceptical about the barriers to implementing human rights education, including lack of support for the CRC and a more general traditional of American ‘exceptionalism’.

‘Children have the right to equality’, Albert-Schweitzer-Schule, Germany
FINDINGS FROM CASE STUDIES

The case studies illustrate a diverse range of approaches being adopted by education staff in UNICEF National Committees. Whilst resources are generally limited in these organisations, there is a range of activities in each country, and each of the case studies illustrates just one aspect of this range of activities. Some of the case studies describe a particular programme or project whilst others reflect the process of organisations taking stock and reviewing aspects of their strategic planning. As such we intend these case studies to capture some of the complexity of individual National Committees as they attempt to find ways to promote good CRE in different contexts.

- In Belgium we spoke to colleagues from UNICEF and from the broader education community to explore initial teacher education for CRE. This case study aims to clarify the dilemmas and tensions being worked through in order to achieve clarity about the purpose of CRE initial teacher education.

- In Finland we spoke to UNICEF colleagues, representatives from NGOs, the curriculum authority and an academic partner involved in the development of teacher training. We also observed training workshops to explore some of the practical aspects of UNICEF’s teacher training programme.

- In France we spoke to UNICEF colleagues about the changing political landscape and the associated opportunities to promote CRE through curriculum and school reforms.

- In Germany, we spoke to colleagues from UNICEF and their partner civil society organisation (Makista), as well as several civil servants and teachers to explore the distinctive features of CRE in Hessen, one Länder which offers a positive prospect for CRE. This illustrates UNICEF Germany’s strategy of nurturing excellent practice in one area to use as an exemplar for others.

- In Hong Kong we spoke to UNICEF colleagues and a researcher undertaking a major piece of research into CRE. This enabled us to explore a focused research and advocacy programme devised for lobbying for CRE within a rather restrictive context.

- In Israel we spoke to UNICEF colleagues about the current challenges and developments there, exploring the challenge of trying to connect up grassroots development work with schools and the broader policy and regulatory framework. Here staff felt they had some top-down support and some exciting bottom-up developments, but that there was still work to do to promote a deeper culture of CRE across the system.

- In Scotland we attended meetings of stakeholder groups for the RRSA, interviewed UNICEF colleagues and visited schools to talk to experienced teachers who support the programme. This case study demonstrates UNICEF’s attempt to scale up a school programme with limited resources whilst maintaining the quality of their work.

Belgium case study:
planning a teacher education strategy

Purpose
One of the most frequently mentioned areas for development in our international survey related to teacher training. During this research project UNICEF Belgium was in a consultation phase to devise a strategy relating specifically to initial teacher education (ITE) and continuing professional development (CPD) for qualified teachers and so here we describe some of the issues which are emerging in that context and outline some of the decisions that need to be made. The case study sheds light on the complexity of the process of conceptualising and operationalising CRE.

Context
Belgium’s education system is divided between language communities (French, Flemish and a small German community) and between what respondents referred to as ‘ideological’ institutions, meaning religious, non-confessional or free schools\(^\text{10}\). There is growing concern about inequalities in pupil outcomes within the system but several of our respondents argued that this highly devolved system limits any coherent policy response. One UNICEF respondent reported that the Education Minister in the Flemish-speaking parliament said that tackling the achievement gap was not his responsibility because of the principle of pedagogic freedom, but she also reported that people throughout the system similarly feel they are not empowered to enact change. This led several respondents to describe a form of inertia, and led Bernard Devos, the Commissioner for Child Rights for the French community, to be deeply sceptical about the school system, which he described as “not the ideal place to develop CRE”. He argued that the education system is in need of a sustained reform programme but observed it was very difficult to envisage this happening in the current fragmented system of governance.

Given such diversity, it is unsurprising that the position of CRE is mixed. One Flemish school inspector observed that when a school is established it must commit to protect and promote children’s rights, which appears to embody a strong policy commitment, but she also noted that this is not specifically

\(^{10}\)Some schools are publicly funded but organised around religious networks and seek to promote specific religious beliefs; others are required to be neutral with regard to religious or ideological perspectives; and some are organised around specific education philosophies such as Steiner or Freinet.
inspected, and therefore this is a rather toothless policy in practice. Citizenship Education in the French community was seen as the likeliest area for CRE to be developed in the curriculum, and this had been strengthened in 2008 in response to the UN Committee’s Concluding Observations. However, one of the researchers we spoke to said that currently there was a tendency to link the learning about rights to poor countries, which limited the extent to which such CRE connected to learners’ lives and experiences.

Several respondents argued that the principle of educational freedom was leading the government to increasingly withdraw to a neutral role in which it does not explicitly champion one ‘educational interest group’ over another. These respondents felt there was risk here that UNICEF’s advocacy for children’s rights within and to education was being seen as just one among many education lobbying networks (competing with other agendas such as environmental education or development education) and therefore there is a real challenge to ensure that children’s rights are seen as an overarching principle.

Within this context UNICEF Belgium is pursuing a broad strategy for CRE, which includes producing educational resources for teachers, coordinating lobbying activities across the country and beginning to develop its work in teacher education. The advocacy and education team is 80% funded by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which means that its free classroom materials must maintain a significant focus on teaching about development issues in poorer countries, although these also increasingly make explicit connections to related issues in Belgium. These resources are well-received by teachers and this had led UNICEF Belgium to have over a thousand individual contacts, mostly teachers using resources. In the next development plan they are also launching two new advocacy platforms (one French and one Flemish) to coordinate lobbying activity for NGOs and others within and to education was being seen as just one among many education lobbying networks (competing with other agendas such as environmental education or development education) and therefore there is a real challenge to ensure that children’s rights are seen as an overarching principle.

Promoting child rights education

As noted above, UNICEF Belgium is currently in a consultation and research phase which will inform their final decisions about how to make progress on CRE in teacher education. The research meetings (individual interviews and focus groups) which informed this case study have also been part of this consultation phase and UNICEF Belgium invited policy makers, ombudsmen, researchers, NGOs, teacher educators and a teacher to participate. This has helped to identify some of the current good practices which already exists in this area:

- Members of staff from UNICEF Belgium already run some training workshops in teacher education institutions and offer individual support to some student teachers who choose final dissertation topics (sometimes linked to their internship in schools) which are relevant to CRE.
- Many ITE tutors already incorporate CRE in their existing courses, for example:
  - An optional unit in one institution linking children’s rights and commemoration;
  - A geography course which include children’s rights, and others which foreground issues of social justice and human rights;
  - History workshops which include the development of children’s rights and the UN;
  - Maths workshops which develop a children’s rights focus through exploring the nature of multicultural classrooms;
  - In some institutions all student teachers encounter children’s rights through General Education Science courses which variously include lectures and workshops focusing on intercultural competences, human rights education, the ‘3 Ps’ (Protection, Provision, Participation), and student voice;
  - In several institutions final year projects may be focused on CRE and in one course student teachers are required to develop, teach and evaluate a CRE project;
  - One institution schedules a programme of guest speakers in the final year of training, which includes CRE-promoting NGOs and the Child Rights Commissioner;
  - One primary course includes theory input on CRE, workshops with NGOs, a visit to the Peace House in Ghent and a ‘child rights walk’, followed by an in-depth project on the Millennium Development Goals;
Several institutions offer international teaching placements, some of which develop an understanding of children’s rights through structured thematic reflective activities. The de-brief activities guide the student teachers to think about their experiences and identify transferable learning from their time abroad.

Practitioners were also keen to stress that there was much good practice in relation to school councils and participation, although ITE tutors also recognised that it was difficult to ensure that such schools were exclusively used as partner schools for ITE, and so not all student teachers experience such placements as part of their training.

The Commissioner for Children’s Rights also pointed out that there were some traditions within the Belgian education system, such as Freinet Schools, which provide a strong foundation for developing CRE. However, he was also concerned that such schools had become rather niche, and catered for a “BoBo” (Bohemian Bourgeois) population, rather than providing realistic alternatives for children struggling in more challenging circumstances.

Plan and Vormen (NGOs) are developing a school support network to develop CRE practice. This programme is currently fairly small but is developing a model for working with schools which focuses explicitly on improving the quality of CRE. Each participating school receives whole staff training and an external coach is appointed to guide schools through the process of situation analysis, action planning and review. The programme always starts by identifying the positive achievements and seeks to work with staff to build on these or identify gaps in provision. The initial participants have worked with Plan and Vormen (or the organisation Geomoun in French-speaking Belgium) to identify success criteria, which could also be used in other training programmes being developed. There is also a list of competences for teachers, which focuses on skills and attitudes over knowledge and which was written in consultation with children. The programme seeks to develop three foundational elements, I – You – We, in which the ‘I’ refers to the emancipatory potential of rights, the ‘you’ refers to the need for empathy with other rights-holders, and the ‘we’ refers to the solidarity which emerges from a commitment to universal rights.

This brief summary of already established practice indicates that there is a rich community of practice already established, which could be drawn on to inform UNICEF Belgium’s developing plans. One obvious key issue is how to ensure such good practice moves from being a minority pursuit to being an entitlement for all.

In thinking about what such an entitlement and standards framework might look like, there were several themes which emerged across the interviews and focus groups. These are outlined below, with some questions which follow from each discussion.

**Issue 1 – Balancing knowledge, skills and attitudes**

Many of the participants recounted their own experience as trainers or as designers of training courses, and it was interesting how frequently the emphasis moved away from knowledge and towards attitudes. For example, one school inspector said it is important to start with a role play of rights being denied to engage participants’ emotional response in order to promote empathy. She also argued that such training needs to encourage teachers to reflect on their fundamental world-view in order to secure a shift from a language of ‘care’ towards one of ‘rights’. The way respondents talked about the Plan/Vormen project also emphasises CRE as a way of seeing education and de-emphasises knowledge. Their model is about securing attitude change and encouraging teachers to adopt a child rights perspective.

Knowledge was described as being drip-fed into training workshops, frequently in response to queries or questions from participants. Similarly, an ITE colleague outlined his working model of CRE which starts with student teachers’ attitudes towards children’s rights, then ensures they understand the importance of children’s rights and then focuses on action. Knowledge does not explicitly feature in such a model and this was reflected in a common refrain, heard from several participants, which promoted the idea that “the substance is in the method”, clearly an approach which favours a broad rights-informed pedagogy.

By contrast, some ITE tutors also engaged with the issue of knowledge. Several felt that knowledge about rights was important because it would help teachers and ITE tutors to make more explicit the implicit connections between children’s rights and other aspects of education, such as diversity, conflict or the environment. Such connections must avoid a superficial ‘mapping’ of CRE across the curriculum and thus it is important to think about the nature of these connections – what should students and teachers understand about children’s rights as a result of studying or experiencing these diverse topics? One respondent recognised that many teachers lack a specialist knowledge of children’s rights and therefore training which focuses on the knowledge dimension can risk alienating them and deterring them from engaging in an area where they lack expertise. This respondent felt that an appropriate response was to encourage student teachers to frame their teaching about children’s rights in a different way and to present projects to children as opportunities to learn together and to think through...
the issues together. This would seem to suggest a participatory approach in which the teacher adopts the role of co-enquirer alongside their pupils, and in which the teacher shrugs off the ‘mantle of the expert’. Whilst this is a perfectly viable teaching strategy, it is perhaps unlikely to reassure teachers who are nervous about approaching this topic, as it seems to make them doubly vulnerable – simultaneously ceding authority as subject knowledge experts and as instructors. Another ITE tutor said that at the heart of CRE there must be some knowledge acquisition about the legal concept of rights, the CRC and the responsibilities of states and that teacher training should explicitly address this.

**Emergent questions**

If a framework for CRE training is developed, what would be the appropriate level of knowledge which would be desirable for teachers? A study of CRE in the French-speaking community in Belgium described a hierarchy of knowledge which included:

- Knowing that the CRC exists;
- Knowing what rights it outlines;
- Understanding what it means;
- Being encouraged to adopt the principles and values underpinning it (CODE, 2007).

Does this kind of framework still make sense? If so, what would be important to include within any framework for teacher education?

**“It’s not a cabbage planted next to the school, it’s fundamental”** (school inspector).

### Issue 2 – Specific objectives or broad transformative aspirations?

Ultimately, the debate about the appropriate balance between knowledge, skills and attitudes reflects a more fundamental difference of opinion between participants concerning the very nature of CRE. Whilst many participants spoke of CRE as providing a very broad framework for all of education and as embodying essentially transformative aspirations, some also recognised that it was a specific aspect of a broad and balanced education. A school inspector argued that UNICEF needs to keep the breadth of the ‘child friendly schools’ framework and avoid CRE becoming too narrow, a sentiment that was reflected among some UNICEF staff and NGO trainers who felt it was important to keep a broad focus on a ‘quality education’ framework as part of their CRE work.

However, there is a potential problem here, as the Child Rights Commissioner pointed out, which is that adopting such a holistic perspective can lead one to be dismissive of much of current practice. This led him to conclude that working with schools to promote CRE was simply too difficult in the current context and to adopt alternative methods of reaching families and children with information about children’s rights. It is also important to note, as did one of the researchers, that there is a widespread level of scepticism about children’s rights among many teachers, characterised as “fear of the child king”. In recognition of this, one UNICEF advocacy worker pointed out that some of their recent work on inequality in the education system as a whole was not directly couched in terms of ‘rights’. There is clearly an additional risk that adopting an outsider perspective, and using CRE to critique common educational practices, may antagonise teachers already feeling defensive about children’s rights.

In relation to student teachers, ITE tutors acknowledged that they arrived in their training institutions with a focused personal agenda – simply to qualify to teach. Their priorities were understandably felt to be fairly narrowly connected to learning the requisite knowledge and skills to teach effectively in schools, whereas ITE tutors felt that this sometimes presented them with particular challenges in relation to approaching CRE. Some tutors felt that a key dimension of their role was to compel student teachers to reflect on their (often fairly narrow) experiences in order to confront their prejudices and broaden their world-view. This ties in with the commitment to secure attitudinal change, through affecting some form of personal transformation, and this was also echoed in the way Plan/Vromen staff spoke about their CPD work with teachers. There is an issue here about the extent to which this is what participants sign up for, and the extent to which such objectives are described in promotional materials for courses. Several ITE tutors certainly felt this was a challenging area to get the balance right, between giving students what they wanted, and introducing these broader agendas. Some ITE tutors felt that these issues were best resolved within codes of professional conduct or competence, which themselves were framed in fairly general language (i.e. not referenced explicitly to children’s rights), whilst others felt they were essentially pursuing their own form of critical pedagogy within their courses. For example, one ITE tutor encouraged her students to engage with a critical political analysis of global capitalism to provide a critical framework in which to think about democracy, social justice and human rights. This resonates with the discussion in the literature review about the extent to which CRE aligns itself with ‘mainstream’ educational perspectives and policies or fits into a more radical tradition, more closely aligned with progressive education or critical pedagogy (with the attendant risks of being seen as marginal).

The ITE tutors we spoke to also recognised that they were not typical of all ITE staff and so they felt there was also a broader challenge to engage ITE staff with this reflective process. Issues of staff capacity in ITE do not simply relate to their knowledge, but also to their world view about role of teacher and ITE tutor.
There was also a similar discussion among those working directly with teachers in schools, and here participants felt there was a need to address school and teacher priorities and to explore how CRE might help with those. One NGO trainer said that she sometimes found herself making the argument that classrooms may be easier to manage if teachers can establish a rights respecting framework, although she acknowledged that this was a grudging acceptance of the pragmatic need to find win-win ways to present CRE. This also reflects the concern voiced by McCowan (2013) that it can be counter-productive to promote CRE as a means to achieve other goals, rather than promoting CRE as a principled position in its own right. In this training programme (as we noted above) there was an emphasis on participants’ personal attitude, but it seems the crucial element here was the follow-up work by the coach assigned to the school, and this work on developing a broad commitment to children’s rights was always followed by a specific action planning phase which moved from a broad commitment to CRE to a set of specific targets and actions, which would move CRE forward in that specific context.

Indeed, several of the examples of successful training included opportunities for those being trained to undertake specific actions related to CRE as a follow up to the more traditional training input. The examples given at the top of this section also include specific actions such as a visit to a museum, which could be replicated with children, or an evaluation of a CRE teaching activity. Reflecting on this, one ITE tutor suggested that an element of teacher training could include taking common activities that would be encountered in most schools, such as fundraising activities, and devising strategies for introducing an explicit CRE focused learning dimension to these activities. This commitment to implement some specific CRE activities would also seem to address the concerns expressed by one of the researchers that, whilst teachers frequently express their personal commitment to broad agendas such as development education, they are also likely to assume that these things happen through the broader life of the school, falling into the trap that such broad issues are seen to be happening “everywhere” which can translate realistically into being assessed, led and accounted for “nowhere”.

There is also another tension evident here in relation to this process of translation from broad principle to specific action. For example, some respondents said they were happy for the CRC to be adopted as a broad framework to inform teachers’ professional judgements, but then also maintained that some common teacher actions (such as issuing detentions for poor behaviour) are generally unjustified within a rights framework. The tension is between the belief that children’s rights provides principles for teachers to develop a range of pedagogies and the narrower view that one can derive very specific pedagogic prescriptions for teachers to follow.

The discussion about the balance between broad agendas and specific objectives was also reflected in contributions related to the kinds of topics which should be taught. Many participants agreed that it was important to connect CRE to children’s lives in Belgium and UNICEF staff have begun to develop this more explicitly in recently written classroom materials. One researcher pointed out that it was still overwhelmingly the case that teachers in French schools taught about development issues in the global South and general world problems such as sustainability, or very local school issues, such as conflict resolution in school and individual self-respect, whilst avoiding more controversial issues like poverty and inequality within Belgium.

Emergent questions
If a key objective is to secure a personal and professional commitment to uphold the values and principles in the CRC, and thus to affect attitudinal change, how can this reasonably be embedded in professional training frameworks and assessment criteria? This was discussed at some length by ITE tutors and there was a strong sense that whilst the values and attitudes might be the essential objective of such training, this was very difficult to assess, and therefore greater attention should be paid to the kinds of practices one would expect to observe. This was especially important in ITE where student teachers are assessed on their teaching practice. A key question then concerns the kinds of CRE skills and pedagogic practices that should be detailed in any framework.

Related to this, there is a need to think about the difference between children’s rights as principles for professional dialogue / judgement and CRE as providing some form of pedagogic prescription, in the sense that one can draw up a list of pedagogic practices directly from the CRC. What would need to be specified (e.g. the unacceptability of corporal punishment) and what could be a matter of judgement (e.g. other forms of punishment)?

Given the importance of CRE to all levels of education, there may be some opportunity to disseminate the ‘CRE Tree’ or some similar model to differentiate the various elements of CRE and to provide people with a language for addressing the ways in which their own interests and agendas connect with the broader picture.

Issue 3 – Coherence and connections within and between institutions
As noted in the introduction to this case study, some UNICEF staff felt strongly that, although they are about to embark on a programme of teacher education, this work should ultimately be the responsibility of the state. There is an issue therefore about how to ensure that UNICEF’s work in this area connects with the government’s broader provision and the current reform process. Several participants pointed out that there was a window of
opportunity in the forthcoming months because there were some significant changes likely to affect teacher education. ITE courses are being lengthened to bring them into line with the ECTS framework12 (this was mentioned by an ITE lecturer in the French community) and some ITE institutions may be given greater responsibility for CPD provision. This is likely to mean there are opportunities for lobbying around teacher education frameworks.

A school inspector noted that when government commits to specific policies, for example as the Flemish government recently did in relation to language learning and environmental education, then inspectors are empowered to ask about this and schools feel they need to write a policy. As she said, a school policy does not guarantee that provision is good, but it does ensure that staff in schools take the time to reflect on this area of policy, and it opens the door to a professional dialogue with inspectors about the quality of provision and improvement planning. She felt that pressing for a government commitment to children’s rights within current reforms would therefore be an important point for lobbying and advocacy work.

The interviews and focus groups with ITE staff also created a strong impression that most ITE staff do not know what the whole course looks like nor are they required to coordinate their activities very closely with colleagues. Many regarded this relative level of autonomy as reflecting a commitment to academic freedom, but some also acknowledged that this presents a problem for anyone attempting to review the design of ITE courses overall, for example by trying to embed CRE principles across a programme. Whilst there were many examples of good practice in current ITE practice, it was also evident that there were problems in securing coordination and coherence within institutions, as well as the more common challenge of securing coherence between institutions.

**Emergent questions**

UNICEF Belgium has already planned two collaborative platforms with other organisations (one Dutch and one French-speaking platform) to advocate for the integration of CRE in teacher training. Within that structure, how can UNICEF work with its existing network of ITE tutors to affect change within institutions? What policy changes have already been adopted relating to the ITE and CPD changes and what mechanisms are there for affecting the implementation plans for these policies? What policy decisions have yet to be made and which networks could promote a CRE agenda with UNICEF?

**Key achievements**

Identifying the funds to conduct research in the preparatory phase seems like a significant initial step and, given the variety of issues which emerged in this case study, this is likely to be helpful in helping UNICEF to find a medium term focus for its activities.

There was an impressive level of good will among ITE tutors and inspectorate who attended the meetings at UNICEF. They are all able to identify aspects of good practice already developing and there was a clear enthusiasm to continue the dialogue and to work collaboratively on lobbying opportunities.

UNICEF also has a good reputation for producing learning resources and high levels of take-up in schools, which has generated an extensive network of teachers to involve in training.

**Next steps**

In contrast with our case study of Finland, where UNICEF is willing to provide teacher education on behalf of the government (at least until a permanent and suitable duty bearer in the teacher education sector is identified to take over the task). UNICEF Belgium is clear that it will be encouraging the state to ensure ITE and CPD provision is aligned with CRE. This will mean that UNICEF staff have to maintain a careful balance between grassroots development activity and high level advocacy work to ensure their involvement is developmental and temporary.

One of the researchers observed that although many schools ran participatory rights-related activities, there was still a tendency for the expertise on participation to reside in NGOs, not necessarily in schools themselves. Another respondent felt there was a need for NGOs to re-connect with teachers’ own agendas and build stronger relationships, rather than perceiving teachers primarily as gate-keepers to allow them to access children with their expertise. This reinforces UNICEF Belgium’s desire to undertake capacity building, and teacher education seems like a potentially powerful way to pursue this. In relation to strengthening these relationships and building capacity within the teaching profession it may also be useful to consider ways in which teachers themselves could become trained trainers to disseminate CRE good practice through the system. No-one in the interviews or focus groups described existing or planned projects which embraced this approach, although several participants noted that there was some very good practice in schools. This may provide a possible strategy for moving CRE to scale with limited resources whilst respecting teachers’ professionalism and may be worthy of consideration as part of UNICEF Belgium’s plans.

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12 The European Credit Transfer and accumulation System (ECTS) is part of a Europe-wide process to ensure degrees are comparable and understood across the EU.
Finland case study: building relationships to implement CRE

Purpose
As noted above, teacher training was one of the most frequently mentioned areas for development in the international survey conducted for this research study. UNICEF Finland has been involved in a number of initiatives to support qualified teachers through continuing professional development (CPD) to implement CRE. This case study focuses on a current government-funded training programme delivered by UNICEF Finland and demonstrates aspects of good practice in the implementation of CRE in relation to tailoring resources and training to suit local needs and developing effective relationships between NGOs and the education policy community.

Context
Curriculum reform in Finland has seen an increased emphasis on human rights in general and children’s rights in particular. A core aim of the new curriculum (to be implemented in 2016) is the development of the child as a human being and as a citizen, where knowledge of human rights and child rights are fostered. A key aspect of children’s rights expressed clearly within curriculum policy is the importance of pupil participation in planning their own studies and school work, learning environment and decision-making. Elements of CRE are seen as cutting across a wide range of school activities and subject areas (including amongst others, history, social studies, religion and ethics).

Promoting child rights education

The Finnish case study highlights three key issues in relation to the strengthening of CRE practice in schools. First, UNICEF Finland’s delivery of a training programme for qualified teachers in CRE has involved adapting the Council of Europe ‘Campasito’ materials to suit the Finnish context and in particular developing the training to include a focus on participatory pedagogies and general participatory practice in schools. Second, the Finnish case study points to the need for effective relationships between NGOs in the support of teachers. Thirdly, the case study demonstrates the ways through which UNICEF Finland has been instrumental in ensuring the inclusion of CRE in the Finnish curriculum and in adding to the evidence base in relation to effective CRE in schools.

Developing bespoke training

The main focus of this case study was to observe one of the teacher training events, delivered by UNICEF Finland, which aimed to support teachers in the implementation of CRE in their school contexts. This training was part of a ‘pilot’ initiative being delivered in two areas of Finland. It is funded by the National Board of Education, which has responsibility in Finland for in-service teacher training. One anticipated outcome of the ‘pilot’ is a contribution to the development of a model for CRE in Finnish schools.

Approximately thirty-five teachers were at this event, from both primary and post-primary schools. While the Council of Europe resource, ‘Campasito’, was the core material used for this training what was evident was the way in which it had been tailored to meet the particular needs of the context in which it was being delivered. A number of aspects of good practice were evident in this training, which warrant further delineation. Notably, during the training:

- Teachers were encouraged to map the Campasito themes to their own local context, identifying specific issues in their school or local community that they wished to pursue in their own classroom context.
- Similarly, when introduced to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, teachers were asked to identify situations in their school and community that highlighted where these rights were not being fully realised for children.
- In both of these sessions, and throughout the training, attention was drawn to how these issues related to broader national priorities for children and young people, in particular well-being and bullying.

Moreover, what was notable about the training was the emphasis on participatory pedagogies and participatory practices in school in general:

- Drawing on the expertise of a drama educator, the facilitators introduced teachers to a wide range of drama techniques to assist young people in exploring issues aligned to the CRC, an approach that appeared to help ground the Convention in ‘lived experiences’.
- Sessions were also devoted to exploring the implications of the child’s participatory rights for pedagogy and schools’ participatory cultures; these sessions appeared to encourage considerable reflection on behalf of the teachers.

Further, the training was clearly aligned to an overall process of engagement with teachers which, in addition to the training day, included pre-training activities for the teachers to complete, a baseline audit of their school’s practices in relation to the Campasito themes, the identification of a whole school issue they wished to take forward as part of their involvement in the training and a requirement to cascade the training in their school context.

Finally, in terms of quality assurance, the training programme is being evaluated by UNICEF Finland with academic partners. It is anticipated that this evaluation, along with findings from the evaluation of the ‘Child Rights in Action’ programme (a previous two year initiative funded by the Ministry of Education), will assist in developing a model for CRE in Finnish schools.
Developing relationships with NGOs

An important theme which emerged from this case study was the need for strong relationships between the range of NGOs working, broadly, in the area of human rights education and/or child rights education. What was evident from the training programme and subsequent interviews, was that a wide range of NGOs had been involved in tailoring the current training initiative, but also that these relationships had been well established through previous initiatives and other current initiatives. In practical terms this involves sharing resources and in some instances joint training. Thus, it was apparent that schools were supported in developing a ‘joined-up approach’ to the implementation of CRE, alongside other educational initiatives associated with human rights education, global education and development education.

Developing relationships with the education policy community

It was clear from this case study that there was alignment between the goals of educational policy (in particular curriculum policy) in Finland and the aim of UNICEF Finland to raise awareness of the CRC in Finnish society. Thus there was a clear policy context to support the implementation of CRE. An analysis of the evolution of this conducive context indicates a number of important issues, potentially transferable to other contexts.

First, it was apparent that UNICEF Finland had been instrumental in advocating government for a greater emphasis on the CRC and CRE in educational policy. Strategies employed to enhance the visibility of child rights and CRE included lobbying the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child to refer to CRE in its Concluding Observations on Finland in addition to ongoing development of relationships with the Ministry of Education and National Board of Education. This combination of using international child rights standards (and associated jurisprudence) alongside relationship building with the education policy community has placed UNICEF Finland in an influential position in relation to securing fairly substantial policies for the implementation of CRE in Finnish schools.

Second, UNICEF Finland’s strong reputation in relation to CRE has secured government funding to implement a number of educational initiatives (the current ‘pilot’ initiative funded by the National Board of Education and ‘Child Rights in Action’ funded by the Ministry for Education). The expertise brought by UNICEF Finland’s staff in relation to both child rights and pedagogical practice has been a key element in ensuring high quality delivery of these programmes. Whilst it is accepted that responsibility for implementation of CRE lies with government (a point clearly made by representatives of UNICEF Finland), the relationship between the education policy community and UNICEF appears very strong and there is a clear sense that this relationship is framed as one to which UNICEF Finland brings ‘added value’ by virtue of its expertise.

Third, UNICEF Finland has been successful in articulating the goals of CRE and connecting these directly to core government priorities for children and young people and priorities for schools. For example, clear links have been made in relation to how CRE can enhance participatory practice and pedagogies in schools, thus creating a whole school environment conducive to learning. Further, given the concern in Finnish society in relation to children’s well-being (and in particular tackling bullying in schools), CRE is presented as a vehicle through which these issues can be framed and addressed. As such, it could be suggested that CRE has been presented to government as a ‘policy solution’ to the issues facing Finnish schools.

In sum, it appears that a combination of the use of international child rights standards (and the monitoring mechanisms associated with these), the development of strong relationships between UNICEF Finland (and other NGOs), and the presentation of CRE as a contribution to addressing some societal concerns has ensured a policy environment conducive to the effective implementation of CRE in schools.

Next steps

Evaluation of the current ‘pilot’ in-service training programme (alongside the evaluation of ‘Child Rights in Action’) should enable UNICEF Finland to develop a model for CRE in Finnish schools. The dissemination of this practice to the educational system as a whole will be the next challenge.

An issue identified as a challenge for the education community is maintaining a balance between the ‘legal language’ used in relation to child rights and the practical implications of the CRC for child-rights compliant practice in schools. In one sense, the emphasis, in the current approach, on the child’s right to participate appears to straddle these two issues successfully. However, there is a arguably a need to build the capacity of educators to engage more broadly with the Convention and the legal discourse associated with it, in order to ensure that they feel fully equipped to deal confidently with all aspects of child rights as they relate to school contexts.

Finally, as noted above (and also in the Belgium case study), while organisations like UNICEF Finland are well placed to deliver CRE training to teachers, responsibility for implementation of CRE lies with government and challenges remain in relation to the mainstreaming of CRE training.
France case study: making the most of new opportunities

Context
Recent changes in the French government have led to policy change, which offers some opportunities for CRE in France. This political shift has led to educational reform, with a new commitment to the improvement of the lives and well-being of children in France, and in particular, a commitment to improving the education system as a means to achieve this.

Promoting child rights education: successes

The French case study highlights strong in-country expertise around children’s rights, from advocacy, academic, and professional perspectives. Across each of these areas, there were numerous examples offered which demonstrate the promotion of children’s rights in France, via both their rights education and their enjoyment of rights in general.

Lobbying for rights
With regard to advocacy, some key successes reported were a result of the advocacy work of UNICEF France. Contextually, it was recognized that there is not a strong understanding, awareness, or culture of children’s rights in France. As one UNICEF staff member highlighted, it is ‘not in (the) French culture to speak directly about children’s rights’. Nonetheless, by employing a rights philosophy, UNICEF France’s advocacy work has led to numerous successes within the field of education. For example, their lobbying to promote a holistic approach to the child at school, their advocacy work on bullying and their research on child well-being. Although not always framed within a rights discourse, this lobbying has since led to awareness raising and policy changes, each of which are benefitting a children’s rights agenda.

Child rights education in the formal education system
The aforementioned educational reform offers further opportunity for the French education system to embody, as well as directly teach, children’s rights. This is a welcome advocacy opportunity for UNICEF France. It was acknowledged (by UNICEF staff) that although many children and young people in France are likely to have heard of the CRC, and/or may know about its contents etc., few would be empowered by this knowledge or understand exactly what children’s rights and the Convention means for them. For example, as the head teacher interviewed commented ‘very few of our young people know… the notions of children’s rights’, highlighting that in the French education system ‘this is not a priority’.

Understandably, the opportunities offered by the education reform are therefore seen as significant by UNICEF colleagues. Traditionally, child rights (often placed alongside responsibilities) have not been a strong element of the French curriculum. However, the new curriculum, via ‘moral and civic’ studies, will offer a vehicle for promoting rights and participation. However, the new curriculum is not without limitations. For example, although it is built upon the notions of child well-being (in line with the cultural context), it does not directly employ a rights discourse. The limitations of the curriculum reform were recognised by UNICEF staff. Although it is progress to see children’s rights in the curriculum, two challenges emerged from this case study. Firstly, it is possible to interpret the curriculum without an explicit focus on what it means for children to be seen as rights-holders. Secondly, the prevailing culture in schools may limit the interpretation of the curriculum to knowledge and understanding rather than seeking to connect this knowledge to children’s real lives.

Beyond the curriculum, and in addition to their advocacy work around encouraging CRE in the curriculum, UNICEF France is extremely active in enabling rights education in French schools via a range of schemes and activities. For example, they run a primary school-based programme entitled ‘Droits dans l’ecole’. This is aimed at enabling children to learn about their rights and what it means to them, through debate, role play and other activities related to the curriculum, as well as through a project-based teaching approach. UNICEF is supported in their range of initiatives and programs in schools by approximately 600 volunteers. In addition to this direct work, UNICEF, on their website, also offer a wide range of resources aimed at both primary and secondary school teachers, to help them teach about rights. Whilst such programmes involve significant numbers of teachers, this is still largely an optional component of schooling and so an on-going challenge for UNICEF will be to roll out these models of good practice to more schools as part of the implementation of the new curriculum.

Finally, with regard to the formal education system, France benefits from the expertise of child rights specialists working in the field of teacher training. Teacher training around children’s rights was recognised by several contributors to this case study as a key priority. A child rights expert working in this field commented that teacher training in this area is more often requested and welcomed by those working in the early years. Although secondary school teachers were less likely to avail of this training, it was also acknowledged that there was a growing interest in this work amongst secondary schools. Furthermore, UNICEF France advocates for a better integration of children’s rights education into teacher training. As each teacher training school is free to decide the content of their training, the level of CRE knowledge of every student qualifying for teaching is very unequal amongst the French schools.

Child rights education in informal settings
Beyond the formal education system, there is evidence of rich informal means of delivering CRE and of harnessing a child rights ethos. For example, UNICEF run a range of youth engagement programmes for a variety of issues. In total there are over 70 clubs in France (they take place in school), involving over
1000 young people. Another example is the Youth Ambassador programme. This is an engagement programme for adolescents aged between 15 and 18 years which aims to raise awareness on issues core to UNICEF’s mission. Additionally, ‘UNICEF Campus’ offers an opportunity for over 18s to get involved in rights-based campaigns and advocacy work, which includes the delivery of awareness raising activities on child rights in schools. Finally, ‘Voices of Youth’ (UNICEF’s online global community) was also highlighted as an opportunity for children in France to engage with other people from around the world, an opportunity for them to learn about their rights and share their views on a range of issues relevant to young people, such as education, health and poverty.

Promoting child rights education: challenges

As already highlighted, the overall culture in France and the lack of children’s awareness around rights are key challenges for the realization of CRE in France. With regard to French culture, it is also pertinent to highlight the lack of value placed on child participation in France. The French culture was described as one of protecting children, as opposed to appreciating them as agents or participants in society. It was acknowledged that children are rarely consulted on matters affecting them, as one participant stated - ‘we don’t trust children to take action or have a positive impact on society’ (French academic). By not valuing the agency of children, this aspect of French culture could potentially limit the sense of empowerment achievable via CRE.

Another key challenge to promoting CRE in France is evident in the school culture and climate. Much academic work is conducted in France around the idea of school climate, insights from which were offered by a French academic working in this field. This case study participant highlighted that approximately 10% of French schools would be categorized as having a negative climate. Often the problems in school include violence, drop-out, bullying, and strong inequality, especially in terms of those pupils living in disadvantaged circumstances.

There were several factors highlighted which are impacting upon the school climate. Several respondents noted the distinctive role of school and teachers as an obstacle; as one respondent expressed it, the school aims to “teach to read, write, count” (head teacher). In this view, teachers are there to teach and it is not their responsibility to work with the pupils in terms of behavioural or social problems (there are non-teaching school staff members who manage personal, social, emotional elements of the child’s schooling). It was recognized by several case study participants that there is a tendency for French professionals not to recognize the ‘whole child’; rather they are viewed by teachers as the subject of their teaching profession, where additional issues are not their concern. However, it must also be noted that teachers are not trained to manage psycho-social issues, and so are unprepared to resolve such issues that they may be faced with in the classroom. This is particularly evident in terms of teachers working in disadvantaged areas, which often differ from the areas in which they themselves grew up (many of the teachers come from more middle class backgrounds), and so neither personal nor professional experience prepares them for a socio-emotional support role. The disconnect evident between the whole child and the school is further exacerbated by the lack of connections between the school and the communities they serve. One academic participating in this research argued that clear boundaries exist between the two, in order to enable the ‘school to be a sanctuary’ for the children. It appears that these challenges may be a key factor explaining the issue of teacher and school reluctance to teach about rights, as was acknowledged by several case study participants, as this does not fit with the perceived academic purposes of school and teachers.

Another structural problem which is potentially having a negative impact on school climate is the nature of inequality in the education system. The strong inequality faced by those from more disadvantaged areas was highlighted. It was recognised (by a French academic working in this field) that those children from disadvantaged areas do not perform as well as more affluent children, and face more negative school climates. The school climate in those schools serving disadvantaged areas is potentially exacerbated by the nature of teacher selection in France. Teachers in France are placed in schools based on a points system (points are determined by factors such as marital status, number of dependents and home address) managed by the local education authority. The case study participant (academic) expressed the view that there is no motivation amongst French teachers to work in schools in disadvantaged areas, other than gaining more points to ultimately move on to another school. Often teachers are placed in these schools immediately after qualifying, however, once they have gained some experience (and points) they move on, resulting in high turnover in these schools which are often being staffed by a continuous supply of freshly trained and largely inexperienced teaching professionals.

These challenges around school climate and inequality demonstrate the value of UNICEF’s advocacy work around issues such as child well-being and bullying, and indicate that their efforts must be focused on quality education in general as well as narrower aspects of CRE.

Next steps

This case study reflects the current opportunities faced by child rights advocates in France to pursue meaningful engagement with a children’s rights discourse. The current political context offers an opportunity for educationalists (and child rights advocates) to shift the current strategy of pursuing an ethic of care for children to a more direct rights focus. Issues around inequality and negative school climate could potentially be challenged with the introduction of stronger rights discourse and greater rights education within such schools. For example,
by encouraging child participation and by empowering children, particularly in these disadvantaged areas, by offering them the opportunity to exercise those rights, beginning in the classroom.

In order to take these next steps, a head teacher argued it would be useful for school leaders to receive support from agencies, such as UNICEF and UNESCO. The challenge facing UNICEF France in relation to such requests for support will be how to manage the political nature of such an approach to rights education. Training young people to demand their rights to a quality education is perfectly in line with the principles of CRE, but potentially controversial in a school system which often faces a clear divide between school and community and in which the educational culture marginalizes a children's rights discourse. Policy reform, including national policies seeking to create better cooperation between school and community and curricular changes as previously mentioned, offers an opportunity to challenge current cultural contexts and overcome any potential controversy, therefore highlighting the potential for CRE in France in the future.

Germany case study: nurturing quality CRE in one area

Purpose

Germany’s internal governance (16 Länder) and Länder-level education policies presents a challenge to UNICEF Germany for conducting work at a national level. Some of their work is therefore focused on the state of Hessen as one of the most propitious contexts for developing programmes and policies for CRE. To achieve this, UNICEF Germany staff work closely with the local NGO Makista (Macht Kinder stark für Demokratie e.V.), to collaborate on advocacy and programme work. Whilst some National Committees perceive the need to work across the whole country, this case study illustrates an alternative approach – to complement national work with more focused efforts to support excellent local practice, with the intention that this can be used as an exemplar for other Länder. As such it represents a pragmatic response to the challenge of devolved or federal governance and education policy within nation states.

Context

Hessen has a population of just over 6 million people and there are approximately 800,000 students in state-funded schools. Whilst Hessen is one of only two Länder not to have included child rights explicitly in their constitution (Lundy et al., 2012: 44), Section 2.II of the Education Act of the state of Hessen refers to the duty on schools to promote "the ability of pupils to safeguard their own rights and accept civic duty, as well as the capability of contributing to the democratic formation of the state and to a just and free society". Whilst the direct connection between rights and duties poses some challenges to promoting messages about children as unconditional rights-holders, this commitment to democratic values in relation to schools has been significant. The Ministry of Culture presents this clearly in relation to lessons in school (learning about rights) and by concrete participation rights in school (learning through rights).

In relation to participation rights, the Education Act specifies the rights and competencies of pupil representation bodies. Pupil councils should be involved in the 'co-determination' of key decisions in the school, for example relating to the subjects and activity programmes on offer and decisions about organising classes. Such decisions are made by ‘school conferences’, which involve staff, parents and children. There is also a network of pupil parliaments in the 32 school authorities in Hessen, which in turn elect representatives to a central pupil parliament. Obviously representatives leave as they get older and so in order to address this capacity problem, the Ministry funds six 'connection teachers’ to work in a consultancy role for the youth parliament to provide political education and support. There is also a system whereby pupils in each school elect a teacher to deal with their complaints and problems.

Several areas of the curriculum refer to rights:

- Under the curriculum heading ‘social competence’: The learner takes joint responsibility within democratic society, she/he respects and shares basic democratic rights and exercises her/his right to a say and the right to make co-decisions.
- In politics and economy: Democracy requires a politically mature citizen who knows her/his rights, claims them, represents and defends them and implements them responsibly.
- In history: You see yourself as responsible for the organisation of your own life; in doing so you see your rights, interests, limits and needs and understand the diversity and complexity of society.

On the basis of your own values and evaluative judgements you engage in social participation and make decisions (competence to act).

Most significantly perhaps, in 2011 children’s rights were incorporated into the Hessian framework for school quality (HRS) that is also the basis for school inspections. The HRS is structured in seven quality blocks and the quality block describing school culture includes the criteria:

“Rights of the child are observed and are considered a central theme.”

A measurable effect of the goal is described as:

“The pupils know their rights as a child and exercise them.”
Promoting child rights education

The relationship between Makista and UNICEF Germany goes back a decade and, whilst each organisation maintains a distinct set of programmes and services, they also collaborate closely. This close relationship means that each can benefit from the efforts of the other and that duplication is avoided. It is evident though that this close working relationship between the organisations is a product of the close working relationship established between the staff, which enables a strong trust to have built up.

Model school network for the rights of the child Rhein-Main

The pilot project ‘Model school network for the rights of the child Rhein-Main’ was initiated in 2010 by Makista with significant support by the Ann-Kathrin-Linsenhoff-UNICEF Foundation, the Frankfurt/Main Airport Foundation and by UNICEF Germany. The project established a network of schools in the state of Hessen, which aims to ensure that all pupils know about child rights through the integration of rights in the everyday life of the school. This is an example of what the UNICEF CRE Toolkit refers to as a whole school approach to CRE.

At the outset schools were invited to express interest in joining a network and Makista offered initial training in children’s rights. They also worked with schools to ensure they received positive publicity for their efforts. Once the initial network was running, schools started to connect up with others to provide support and to train each other. Hence a network of schools now hosts a varied training programme, with each day featuring a combination of school staff and outside experts. This builds a strong sense of collaboration between the schools and, importantly, ensures that the expertise and training capacity is dispersed throughout the network.

One school reported that after 10 years of working with ‘democracy’ as an organising principle, the children’s rights theme really helped them to bring this home to young children and to focus on how such principles can inform everyday activities. The head teacher reported that democracy had always been important to the school but had felt somewhat vague. Children’s rights helped to make the school ethos more immediately relevant to everyone. This head teacher also has a clear sense of how to make continued progress whilst bringing staff and parents with her. The school now spends an hour a week convening class councils, and she is allowing this to become embedded in practice whilst she develops plans for another hour per week when children will choose their own activities. In another school, with a more deprived and diverse in-take, there is a much stronger focus on health and healthy eating, helping children resolve conflict, and engaging children in the discussion of topical issues based on regular viewing of a children’s news programme. This fits into the Makista model, which encourages schools to start by reflecting on what they do now, and to develop individualised plans for what they would like to develop in the future.

General training continues beyond the network as a way for Makista to make contact with schools and to start to build relationships with teachers. In the school year 2012-13 thirteen events took place in the series of training called ‘learn and live the rights of the child’ with participants from 88 schools and 55 external experts and parents. In addition Makista is developing specific training for school leaders and early career teachers in Hessen.

The School Quality Framework

According to the Ministry of Culture, a slip in PISA tables (in 2003) led to some shifts in curriculum thinking, with a move from a prescribed curriculum to a greater emphasis on competences. In such a model individual schools and teachers have greater freedom to interpret the curriculum. This clearly opens up spaces for CRE-friendly curriculum developments but may make it more difficult to mandate specific elements of teaching. This is monitored through two separate processes, on the one hand there is a state-wide inspection system and on a more local level, there are school authority visits.

The state-wide inspectorate works to a School Quality Framework (the HRS) which was mentioned above. This was partly the result of lobbying by UNICEF Germany and Makista, although the Director of the inspectorate indicated that this was somewhat of an open door, presenting this as a natural extension of the strong Hessen tradition of promoting democracy through schooling. He saw the incorporation of children’s rights in the framework as the next step to ensure that school leaders had to move beyond “beautiful words” about children’s rights and towards embedding this into their cyclical quality development processes.

In a similar vein, representatives of the Ministry expressed the opinion that the inclusion of children’s rights in the framework meant that all schools were inspected in relation to this criteria, that all reports mentioned this, and that overall reports would be presented to parliament. The lead inspector implementing this framework was slightly more circumspect, however, and noted that because this was seen as an extension of existing work on democracy and democratic values, no additional training had been required to introduce these changes. Whilst the Ministry mentioned regular reports to parliament, the inspector alluded to children’s rights in the context of “other thematic areas” and confirmed that there had been no overall evaluation yet in relation to the requirement to inspect schools in relation to children’s rights. It is therefore difficult to gauge at this stage to what extent this is having an impact on inspections and subsequently on school development plans. In relation to this final point, the inspector also pointed out that the school inspection system can only advise schools rather that issue binding targets, reflecting principles of school autonomy and local accountability via school authorities.

One of the primary schools in the Makista networks had used this provision in the framework to ask inspectors for feedback...
on the extent to which their ethos and curriculum promoted children’s rights, and the head teacher used this in the school’s self-evaluation and improvement planning process. However, this focus had to be requested rather than emerging as part of the regular inspection process, which may indicate that there is further work to do to ensure this measure has the impact assumed by the senior staff who oversaw the development.

Political support
As part of the research Makista contacted the education spokesmen for the main political parties in Hessen, asking for a statement about child rights education. The Christian Democratic Union (CDU) and Greens are in coalition and their coalition agreement states, “we want to strengthen children’s rights and… we will work to ensure that all institutions are asked to strengthen children’s rights.” They are committed to the production of a Hessen Children’s Charter, and the Green spokesman added that, “we need independent schools where democracy and participation are actively lived and in which students work together with the teachers as well as parents in school development.” The Social Democratic Party (SPD), Free Democratic Party (FDP) and the smaller Die Linke (The Left) all made broadly positive comments in relation to promoting CRE, indicating that Hessen is likely to remain a state in which CRE could flourish, as there is a broad political consensus. There was a strong emphasis on the need to encourage children’s participation and a sense of themselves as agents who could act to promote rights. There was also some support for teaching children about their rights, although this is largely seen as a cross-curricular/multi-disciplinary issue. Whilst children’s rights are undoubtedly relevant to many other subjects, this does raise the perennial issue of whether CRE content may be lost in this dispersed curriculum model.

The inspection framework creates the mechanism for collecting feedback on the success of this model, and so it may be possible to evaluate this in the future.

Key achievements
The staff at Makista and UNICEF Germany felt very strongly that their close collaborative relationship meant that networking and programme delivery can be developed more easily through collaboration and pooling resources. For example, UNICEF staff members contribute expertise to Makista training, and Makista staff members collaborate with UNICEF staff in coordinating a national CRE network encouraging greater cooperation across the 16 Länder.

The school network appears to be a very strong model, incorporating as it does a blend of external and in-school expertise. This harnesses the experience of teachers who are spearheading CRE and provides a mutually supportive (and democratic) network which was very well-received by the school leaders we met during the course of this research visit. Whilst Makista is lobbying for public funds to support the programme, it does appear that embracing a model in which expertise is dispersed within and between schools is a step towards creating a sustainable network.

The curriculum and inspection framework provide a potentially powerful mechanism for ensuring CRE is taken seriously across all schools. This will need to be monitored to ensure CRE emerges as a strong theme, rather than a footnote to these frameworks.

Next steps
Ministry representatives were keen to draw explicit links between children’s rights and their agenda about assimilating religious minorities into a German democratic political culture. Whilst the promotion of democratic values is essential, this clearly raises the need for organisations such as UNICEF Germany to monitor how these connections are made. Is it possible for example, that within this context, children’s rights are seen as part of a process of de-radicalisation and anti-extremism, and what would be the implications for CRE if this connection was to emerge?

This is a period of considerable policy change in Hessen. There is a move towards greater inclusion of students with special educational needs and with languages other than German into mainstream classes; there is a shift from half-day to whole-day schooling in the first years of primary school, and there are on-going concerns over PISA rankings. Several members of local authority and school staff felt it was important that UNICEF and Makista were able to promote CRE as part of those agendas not an additional agenda to impose on schools.

Hong Kong case study: the role of research in evidence-informed advocacy

Purpose
This case study illustrates how UNICEF Hong Kong have sought to commission and use research into child rights education to further their advocacy work. Whilst their lobbying of the Hong Kong Executive Government has consistently focused on a lack of consistency and coherence around the promotion and dissemination of the CRC, a recently completed research project provides further specific evidence to enable UNICEF to continue to refine its message for their advocacy work with the Executive Government. As such, one might describe this as a case study of evidence-informed policy advocacy.

Context
Hong Kong’s unique situation leaves it with a substantially westernised education system, which sits uneasily with some currents in Chinese education approaches. Respondents felt that education was one policy area where the ‘one country, two systems’ approach was being tested. The curriculum in Hong Kong has been undergoing some changes, partly in response to
internal pressure to change and partly due to external pressures. On the one hand, internal pressures have led to measures to broaden out the traditional focus on knowledge acquisition and tests; whilst on the other hand, a proposal for National and Moral Education was seen as controversially representing Chinese influence. Whilst the former changes have been welcomed by some advocates of CRE, the latter proposals sparked student unrest, and were subsequently withdrawn.

In addition there is a division between international schools, which tend to follow international programmes such as the International Baccalaureate, and local schools, which tend to more closely follow the Hong Kong curriculum. International schools tend to offer more CRE.

Reforms aimed at broadening out the educational experience of all students have included the introduction of Personal, Social and Humanities Education (in primary and lower secondary schools since 2002) and Liberal Studies (in senior secondary since 2008) as well as Civic and Moral Education (for all ages). A Liberal Studies textbook includes a chapter on rights and responsibilities, but does not refer to children’s rights or the CRC. In this subject there is a focus on the rule of law, governance and human rights in general, with a stronger emphasis on political and civil rights than social and economic.

In this context UNICEF Hong Kong’s educational work has tended to focus on knowledge and awareness raising through school visitor programmes, although some signature projects like Voices of Youth, Young Envoys and UNICEF Club combine learning about, through and for children’s rights.

Promoting child rights education

Against this general backdrop, UNICEF Hong Kong has consistently advocated for the Executive Government to develop a more coherent and strategic approach to promoting the CRC. In particular, they have focused on Article 42, which clearly sets an example for the government and society generally, and promotes a sense of gratitude for what children enjoy in Hong Kong, rather than developing an awareness of shared rights, and of all children’s rights.

The research took longer than expected largely because recruiting schools to participate proved more time-consuming than had been anticipated, a fact which the lead researcher felt reflected the low priority accorded to the subject in schools. The recruitment exercise also took longer than expected due to the major curriculum changes that were slated for 2012. The first was a change in the secondary education curriculum for Year 10 and 11 students (15-16 year-olds), transitioning from the Hong Kong Certificate for Education Examination (HKCEE) to the Diploma of Secondary Education (DSE), which was successfully implemented. The second of these proposed changes was the push to introduce National and Moral Education, which was eventually shelved as a result of mass student and teacher protests.

Key findings

The research found that whilst children and teachers reported high levels of general awareness of the fact that children had rights, the picture was much more mixed (among children and teachers) regarding their understanding of the substance of those rights. In addition, the majority of teachers in all school types felt that children must fulfil their responsibilities before enjoying their rights. Taken together the research concludes that there are relatively poor levels of understanding about the rights that children have and what it means for children to be rights-holders.

Given that the subject of Liberal Studies only includes general references to rights and fails to specify children’s rights, it is probably unsurprising that children reported that learning about rights took a lower priority in the classroom than learning about the environment, diversity or government.

Teachers commonly said they lacked expertise and this was reflected in the low levels of training which they reported having attended. The research also indicates that there are limited options for such training, both through on-going professional development courses and in initial teacher education, where HRE exists at best as an option in some training institutions and at worst is not available at all.

The interviewees for this case study argued that ‘rights’ tend to be implicit in most teaching in Hong Kong, and that it is more common for teachers to couch their lessons in the language of care and respect. This means that lessons which focus on rights (and rights violations) in Hong Kong and abroad often tend towards promoting a sense of gratitude for what children enjoy in Hong Kong, rather than developing an awareness of shared rights, and of all children’s rights.
as rights-holders. The lead researcher linked this tendency to de-emphasise ‘rights language’ to specific cultural values, arguing that a Confucian ideology emphasises children’s needs over rights. This was linked to a sense that teachers were fearful that children’s rights could undermine their authority in the classroom.

Opportunities
The lead researcher felt that the research underlined how important it was to find a way to present children’s rights to teachers with a clear focus on the advantages that could accrue to them, as well as to the children. Teachers would need to be approached with a clear message that order can emerge from a rational application of rights to the classroom. Here the research report discussed the Rights Respecting School Award from UNICEF UK as evidence that could reassure teachers.

The research also indicated that Liberal Studies has opened up a space in the curriculum for CRE to be developed by some teachers. However, not all those who teach more than is required do so through a sense of commitment to HRE and CRE. The research identified some local schools which exceeded the narrow requirement of the curriculum simply because teachers have misinterpreted the minimal requirements. Others do more because they use pre-prepared resources which add a stronger human rights interpretation to the curriculum. In this latter case, the use of pre-prepared resources is a result of teachers feeling under pressure from excessive workloads, and therefore the researchers highlight this as a potentially useful window of opportunity to influence classroom practice.

The lead researcher also felt that the process of being interviewed acted as a stimulus for school review in some cases. She felt that it could be useful for non-specialist teachers to understand how human rights specialists look at the education system and how they articulate human rights education and child rights education. Reflecting on some of the interviews she had undertaken, she felt it likely that participation in the research had helped to create an enhanced expectation for some teachers.

Key achievements
The baseline research provides UNICEF Hong Kong with an evidence base for their continued advocacy work. The local data clearly demonstrates the lack of knowledge and understanding within the Hong Kong education system about children’s rights. The comparative dimension of the work places the challenge within an international context, which demonstrates that there are some policy solutions available. It seems a strength that the focus on Article 42 is being used to promote a higher level of engagement with the CRC as a whole. There are clearly other issues that need to be tackled within the education system, for example the exclusion of non-Chinese speaking pupils, the excessive pressure experienced by many children from the competitive school culture, and a reticence among pupils to report bullying (mentioned by interviewees and in the Committee’s Concluding Observations), but it was felt that raising awareness of children’s rights in general would help to create a culture within schools and the education system where these issues could be more readily dealt with.

Next steps
This research clearly fits into UNICEF Hong Kong’s broader advocacy strategy. One likely outcome will be the establishment of an advisory group to monitor CRE.

In addition, the lead researcher recommends that initial teacher education should be explored as a potential area for CRE developments. Given that there are only a handful of teacher education establishments in Hong Kong, she felt this may be a relatively straightforward way to develop CRE practice and involve a group of potentially influential practitioners. She also felt that the curriculum reforms opened up the possibility of offering ready-made resources which provide maximal interpretations of the curriculum spaces which have been created in Liberal Studies; Personal, Social and Humanities Education; and Civic and Moral Education. Whilst appeals to principle may win over some teachers to exploit this curriculum opportunity, the teachers’ willingness to accept ready-made resources from external organisations opens up more pragmatic opportunities to develop CRE.

Israel case study: connecting top-down and bottom-up developments

Purpose
This case study explores UNICEF Israel’s attempts to connect top-down and bottom-up initiatives to promote children’s rights.

Context
Israel passed a Student Rights Law in 2000 and also established the role of Inspector for Student Rights within the Ministry of Education. UNICEF staff felt that this role provides an element of continuity within the Ministry when politicians change. However, they also noted it seemed more difficult for the Inspector to affect change when political appointments were less supportive of children’s rights. Because this is seen as a professional rather than political role, it opens up the possibility that aspects of CRE can be seen as administrative or implementation issues which staff felt favours an incremental approach. However, this office also seems to focus more on the relationships between students and staff in schools and is therefore perceived to have a stronger impact at an institutional level than at a system wide level, and a limited impact on the curriculum.

Promoting child rights education

Advocacy and lobbying
UNICEF Israel staff have prioritised the development of strong relationships with staff in the Ministry of Education. However, because key political roles in the Ministry are prone to change, they recognise that this cannot be a sustainable route to influence policy. For example, when we spoke in October 2014, there was a strong sense that the new Minister was decidedly less enthusiastic about including children’s rights in the curriculum than their predecessor,
which means extensive lobbying on this issue is unlikely to lead to change. Therefore, UNICEF staff have also worked on developing strong relationships with the Knesset (Parliament), especially the Committee for Children’s Rights. UNICEF Israel have worked with the Knesset Committee to plan a series of discussions involving several Ministries, and UNICEF staff provided research evidence which the Committee used to hold Ministries to account.

In addition to the internal work supporting the Knesset Committee and direct relationship building with politicians in the Ministry, UNICEF Israel coordinated the Third Sector report to the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, and ensured that children were directly involved in the writing and consultation process. Children contributed their own chapter to the report on participation and presented this to members of the Knesset.

One of the primary objectives of this advocacy work has been the introduction of a Children’s Ombudsman. Early in 2014 the Head of the Knesset Committee introduced legislation to create such a post, which was endorsed by the government. Whilst this brings the objective closer to realisation, UNICEF Israel are now working with the Ministry of Justice to help shape the office so it aligns with their aspirations.

Teacher education
UNICEF Israel, in conjunction with the Ministry of Education, has devised a teacher training programme which runs several times a year. The collaboration with the Ministry ensures that the course is seen as having status and is considered within the regular framework for professional development, which includes payments to teachers for completing the course. The course aims to enhance teachers’ knowledge of children’s rights and provide them with practical strategies for teaching about children’s rights in their schools. There is also a strand of this training programme directly aimed at head teachers, which addresses whole school issues.

Surveys indicated that children’s knowledge of their rights was limited, but plans for the dissemination of information through schools have been opposed by the teachers’ union. Thus UNICEF Israel staff are now beginning to identify this as a key area for future development. The union tried, unsuccessfully, to get the Student Law repealed, and staff reported meeting teachers with little knowledge of the CRC and a concern that students’ rights could only be recognised at the expense of teachers’ authority.

Work with children
Alongside teacher training, UNICEF Israel also works directly with children to inform them about their rights and train them to undertake projects, which are aimed at enhancing the implementation of children’s rights in their communities.

A network of 15 schools has been recruited to work closely with UNICEF to train teachers and work directly with children in their local communities. UNICEF works directly with the schools for a year, including taking classes on children’s rights and a group of children work with teachers on a weekly basis to undertake projects. Each project must be explicitly linked to an article of the CRC and involve the children in direct action to improve the implementation of the right or educate identified groups about their rights.

These experienced children are then recognised as ambassadors for UNICEF and a national group of trained and experienced child rights activists/advocates is recruited from this group of schools and these children then work with Israel UNICEF staff on broader advocacy programmes. 500 students from these schools are involved in plans to celebrate the 25th anniversary of the CRC and share experiences of effective CRE with UNICEF and the Ministry.

The project runs with Ministry of Education funding but the network size is currently limited by the availability of resources and it is five times over-subscribed.

Key achievements
- The legislative process of creating an office for a Children’s Ombudsman is underway.
- An Inspector for Student Rights within the Ministry ensures there are resources for promoting children’s rights in school, and that there is a mechanism for students and their parents to seek redress if they feel schools are not effectively implementing the Students’ Rights Law.
- The Knesset Committee on Children’s Rights also provides an on-going mechanism to hold government to account for children’s rights.
- The school networking project is building a group of teachers and children who act as strong advocates for CRE.

Next steps
The focus on students’ rights is largely concerned with the lived reality of children’s rights within school, their participation and respect. UNICEF Israel is undertaking research to construct a baseline for children’s awareness of their CRC rights. The diversity of schools (English-speaking, Hebrew and Arabic) means that the curriculum is likely to be interpreted rather differently across schools and therefore the baseline survey will indicate if the curriculum should be a further focus of advocacy activity.

The school network was initially envisaged as a pilot that may be able to be rolled out more widely. There is a plan to expand the project to reach 1000 children and young people, if the Ministry is able to provide additional funds, but staff now feel that it may be too resource and time intensive to become a generalizable model. They are currently exploring whether child-friendly cities may provide an infrastructure in which the school programme could be incorporated with broader financial and administrative support from municipalities.
Scotland case study: bottom-up CRE through the Rights Respecting Schools Award (RRSA)

Purpose
This case study illustrates how UNICEF UK is developing policy alignment in the Scottish education system through promoting coherent connections between central government, local government and schools. Whilst school level programmes are often developed with NGOs at the grassroots level, it is often more difficult to connect top-down and bottom-up initiatives. In Scotland UNICEF UK has combined an effective school support model to develop the RRSA and, at an appropriate policy opportunity, sought to build stronger connections with the school governance system to promote the model more widely. It is currently aiming to ensure that fifty percent of schools in Scotland achieve the RRSA. At the time of the case study, approximately 40% of schools were involved.

Context
In the UK, education policy is devolved to four separate national jurisdictions: England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. As a consequence, there is no single educational policy or accountability mechanism across the UK and the UK reports to the Committee on the Rights of the Child deal with all areas of the UK, sometimes providing overviews of issues and sometimes reporting issues in each jurisdiction separately.13

Whilst UK-wide organisations, such as UNICEF UK, work across these separate systems they have to refine their programmes and activities to take account of local variations. Although programmes such as the RRSA are promoted throughout the UK, there is an on-going process of adaptation as programmes, funding systems and guidance are developed to accommodate local variations and evolving policy priorities.

In Scotland there are a range of relevant local contextual factors to which the RRSA programme is responding:

• **The Children and Young People (Scotland) Act (2014)** introduces a duty on Scottish Government Ministers to “keep under consideration whether there are any steps which they could take which would or might secure better or further effect in Scotland of the UNCRC requirements”, and to submit a report to the Scottish Parliament every three years outlining progress and plans for implementing the CRC.

• **The Curriculum for Excellence** establishes the curriculum for Scottish schools and although children’s rights is not a stand-alone subject, there are references to children’s rights and their understanding of their rights integrated into several subjects.

• **Getting it Right for Every Child (GIRFEC)** is an overarching policy framework which informs all children’s services in Scotland. It aims to promote a common set of streamlined procedures and a core set of values at the heart of policy in a range of contexts including education and the government is clear that this framework is built on a commitment to the CRC (Scottish Government, 2013).

• **The General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS)** defines the professional standards for teachers and their recent review states that the core values for teachers includes “respecting the rights of all learners as outlined in the UNCRC and their entitlement to be included in decisions regarding their learning experiences and have all aspects of their well-being developed and supported” (GTCS, 2012).

Promoting child rights education

The RRSA
UNICEF UK has been running the RRSA programme since 2006.14 The programme requires schools to demonstrate they have achieved a range of criteria established by UNICEF UK, based on educating children about, through and for their rights. Schools must prepare a report indicating how they have met UNICEF UK’s criteria, and this is verified by an external assessor who reviews the documentation and visits the school to talk to staff and children. There is a fee for registering with the RRSA programme and for each assessment. This is normally paid by the school, but is sometimes funded (or part-funded) by a local authority.

A qualitative evaluation of the programme, published in 2010, indicated that the programme was associated with children having a good knowledge of the CRC, being motivated to take action for others rights, and being involved in decision making in their schools (Sebba and Robinson, 2010).

Chronology
Until 2011 UNICEF UK employed an Education Officer in Scotland to administer the programme. Schools opted into the programme on an individual basis and the Education Officer conducted the assessment to ensure the required standards had been achieved. Although this was successful in rolling the programme out to 400 schools, UNICEF UK recognised that this model was limited in several respects:

• It relied on one member of staff, and thus concentrated institutional knowledge in one person;

• One person would be limited in their ability to develop close networks of practitioners across the whole country;

13Despite this reporting mechanism operating at UK level, in 2009 the Scottish Government published its own progress report Do the Right Thing, commenting on its implementation of the CRC and responding to the Concluding Observations of the Committee on the Rights of the Child. An update was published in 2012 (Scottish Government, 2012).

14More information about the RRSA is available on UNICEF UK’s website: www.unicef.org.uk/rrsa and in the UNICEF CRE Toolkit (UNICEF, 2014)
• The model limited the capacity for further growth, as one member of staff was becoming increasingly thinly spread, trying to cover the whole country;
• The network of schools was growing from the bottom up, but there was little strategic work with government or local authorities to promote RRSA.

The decision was made after 2011 to pursue alternative strategies, which would overcome these limitations.

Whilst there were some local variations in how these issues were addressed, the new models sought to:

• Build capacity through working with established networks of local teachers and educationalists within local authorities, thus tapping into local knowledge;
• Disperse the support and assessment workload through these networks;
• Develop stronger relationships with local authorities and government to support the work being developed at school level;
• Revise UNICEF UK’s role to focus more on support and quality assurance than direct contact with individual schools.

At the same time UNICEF UK were developing a new strategy across the RRSA programme in all parts of the UK to establish a more sustainable funding model for the programme and to develop the assessment processes to minimise local variations and ensure assessment of the Award standards was robust.

In 2014 UNICEF UK had secured funding from the Scottish government to enable them to implement this strategy and to secure two part-time secondments to take on the new role of Professional Advisor. Their role was to promote the programme more widely, especially in local authorities with less take-up, and their target was to ensure that 50% of Scottish schools were registered on the RRSA programme.

Local capacity building

In Scotland several local authorities had emerged as lead authorities, where greater numbers of schools had joined the programme. For example, in Aberdeen City and Aberdeenshire, a group of local schools had gained their Level 2 Award15 (and were thus eligible to assess other schools), and a local authority Education Officer had identified part of a related budget to enable schools to be registered for the programme. In this context teachers were beginning to identify the contribution of RRSA to other initiatives, so one primary head teacher acknowledged it was useful for “pulling together a range of issues such as eco-schools, Fairtrade, school ethos etc.” and a local authority employee identified connections to global citizenship, enterprise and student voice initiatives.

These local networks were formally recognised when UNICEF UK created the role of Strategic Lead and invited experienced Quality Improvement Officers, Development Officers, Child Rights Officers or teachers to assume these roles in their local area. These Strategic Leads now undertake to coordinate a network of local authority officers, teachers and head teachers from schools with Level 2 Awards to coordinate the RRSA programme locally, support schools and conduct assessments. UNICEF UK asks people who take on this role to request their employer allows them some time to undertake these duties.

In Aberdeen, once their role had been formalised, the Strategic Lead estimated the number of schools likely to apply for an assessment in the forthcoming year and recruited a group of teachers that would be sufficient to meet the demand. As one head teacher put it, “early on you need to understand that taking a strategic and slightly longer term view is important” in order to create the capacity for the medium term.

In Aberdeenshire, the Strategic Lead and the colleagues who work with her have permission from their employers to take some time from their full time jobs to attend meetings and visit schools to undertake assessment visits. They all reported that their employers agreed to this because they perceived it as a professional development opportunity for the staff involved, and because they recognised the members of staff were able to use these opportunities for visits and networking to collect examples of effective practice which could inform their own school development efforts. Local teachers at one such networking meeting all reported having seen good ideas during the support and assessment visits which they had adapted in their own schools.

This network of experienced practitioners operates as a clearing house for information. In one meeting the Strategic Lead and their local team of volunteers worked through a list of local schools and reviewed their status (registered but not making progress, ready for Level 1, ready for Level 2 etc.). The teachers were able to draw on local knowledge about who was in charge of the programme, who had moved schools etc. and to prioritise schools for further action. At the end of the meeting the Strategic Lead had a list of schools for UNICEF UK to formally contact (where they seemed to be making no progress and thus should be removed from the programme), a list of schools where colleagues were going to re-establish informal contact to check what support might be helpful, and a series of schools where assessment visits needed to be scheduled.

15Schools are first assessed at Level 1 and then Level 2 awards reflect further progress and a deepening expertise, therefore such schools are deemed to be eligible to quality assure the work of others in the scheme.
Funding
In Aberdeenshire the local authority had paid for all schools to be registered with the RRSA programme but not all of these schools subsequently applied for an Award. In retrospect the budget holder questioned whether this had been the right approach as “money wasn’t always a way to clear a barrier.” He felt that central funding (from government or the local authority) might work if this was accompanied by a formal expectation that schools should pursue the RRSA, for example by making it part of the development plan. In the absence of this level of compulsion he recognised that asking schools to pay a registration fee helped to “secure their commitment.”

The issue of funding is one that UNICEF UK has spent some time considering and it is proposing to split the costs between schools and local authorities to provide a manageable solution. In the proposed new model, being discussed with local authorities in 2014, the authority would pay between £2500 and £8500 to participate in the programme (depending on size and level of support required) and schools would pay for their registration. In exchange UNICEF UK provides support and training to nominated individuals in the local authority, manages a database of local schools and monitors their progress, undertakes quality assurance and provides resources for schools. However, the assessment and networking are undertaken at a local level, by local teachers and local authority staff.

The local authority role is more than merely financial or organisational though. One local head teacher, who also had experience of working in a local authority role argued, “I wouldn’t want any schools to be forced to do it, but I think some schools would be more likely to do it when they know it would be endorsed and supported and it’s in the local authority improvement plan.” This has also formed part of the discussions between UNICEF UK and the Scottish government, with the recognition that public funding (even relatively small amounts) represents a strong endorsement that UNICEF UK can communicate to schools.

In 2014 a small grant was secured from the Scottish Government to fund two part-time secondments. This enabled two experienced Strategic Leads to take on a wider role beyond their own local authority and to try to establish a system of Strategic Leads with local voluntary groups of teachers in other areas where the programme is not so well-developed.

Quality assurance
As the programme grows there is a need to ensure that the standards are maintained. This is even more urgent a consideration given that the assessment is being deliberately disseminated through an expanding network of teacher-assessors. In one view the programme’s different levels (registered, Level 1 and Level 2) acknowledge that schools will be on a journey to full implementation. This was reflected in one teacher-assessor’s statement that, “we need to be understanding and forgiving of schools where it is not fully embedded, it might be a bit untidy and a bit lumpy in places but it’s a journey they’re going on and it might not be until Level 2 accreditation that you’re actually seeing a more holistic approach to it.” The local assessor are in a good position to understand the individual journeys of schools. However, as a UNICEF UK manager put it, this individualised approach also needs to be framed within a shared understanding of the standards, because “if you want something to make a difference you can’t accept things that aren’t good enough.”

The new system therefore builds in quality assurance at a number of levels. For an initial Recognition of Commitment, the school has to complete their submission to UNICEF UK, and this paperwork is scrutinised by a local assessor, who may help the school to develop their response. For Level 1 and 2 accreditation, an assessor visits the school and writes a report, which is then locally moderated. Many assessors have been involved in the assessment process in their own school and UNICEF UK also provides additional training for the role. A national (UK-wide) Accreditation and Standards Committee is also convened by UNICEF UK three times a year to scrutinise the Level 2 awards.

Key achievements
- A self-sustaining model of school support and school assessment which builds on teachers’ own experience and which acknowledges expertise within the local teaching workforce.
- Focused government funding to enable UNICEF UK to add capacity to areas where more support is needed.
- In the forthcoming year the majority of schools in Scotland will have achieved a Rights Respecting Schools Award.

Next steps
- UNICEF UK is currently focusing on working with senior local authority managers and head teachers to ensure the RRSA is perceived as a tool for school improvement, not as a stand-alone project.
CONCLUSIONS

Curriculum

In the majority of the 26 countries participating in this research, there is no entitlement in the official curriculum for all children to learn about children’s rights. There is a curriculum entitlement to learn about children’s rights in 11 countries and in a further seven countries children’s rights may be included in the curriculum in only some parts of the country. There was no additional legislative requirement for schools to teach about children’s rights, which would indicate that in the 15 countries which had no curriculum entitlement for all children, there was no other method to guarantee an entitlement to learn about children’s rights in schools.

When there is a curriculum entitlement, it is common for rights in the curriculum to be linked to responsibilities, and not always to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). This raises the possibility that even where children learn about rights they may not learn about the CRC, nor about what it means to be a rights-holder or duty-bearer (both key components of the child rights approach).

Recent curriculum reforms demonstrate a varied approach to embedding CRE: whilst some countries have secured a substantial commitment to CRE as an entitlement for all, others have failed to ensure progress or have regressed. As an example of progress, Iceland’s curriculum now specifies Human Rights and Democracy as one of six foundational principles and includes familiarity with the CRC as a specified learning outcome in primary schools; similarly the new primary curriculum in France includes reference to children’s rights. As an example of the failure to build CRE into reforms, Australia is in the process of moving towards a national curricular framework but has omitted CRE, despite earlier indications to the contrary; in Scotland curriculum guidance clearly promotes CRE but this is not specified as a requirement. As an example of regression, in the Republic of Ireland the secondary subject in which rights education is specified (Civic, Social and Political Education) has been reduced in status from a compulsory to an optional course; and in Spain the 2006 law securing Education for Citizenship and Human Rights in secondary schools has been repealed.

In some countries with federal government structures and the associated principles of educational devolution/freedom, central government has very few powers to create a national curriculum entitlement at all. Here, progress remains patchy and appears not to be coordinated. For example, respondents in Canada, Belgium, Switzerland and the USA note the lack of coordination as a problem. This clearly works against top-down implementation planning and raises a significant challenge for States Parties considering how to implement Article 42 of the CRC within the school system.

This series of challenges means that each UNICEF National Committee must identify priorities for action which reflect the specific nature of each country context. This was illustrated in the case study of France where UNICEF colleagues are engaging with the problem of how to implement the new curriculum in a meaningful way, so that CRE is not marginalised. In Hong Kong there are some very positive aspects of the curriculum, but UNICEF colleagues are concerned to keep up pressure to ensure this curriculum actually leads to improvements in children’s awareness of the CRC. In France and Hong Kong we might say that the focus is on teaching about children’s rights as an initial step towards securing CRE, whilst in Scotland and Hessen, UNICEF colleagues are promoting a model of whole school CRE where there is an emphasis on schools promoting learning about, through and for rights.

In relation to learning through and for rights, whilst opportunities for children’s participation are widespread, it generally falls short of an entitlement in most countries. For example, respondents in only four countries judged school councils to be fully or almost fully implemented across the country. In most countries implementation was judged to be mixed, both with regard to the number of schools where school councils operated and the type of participation they facilitated. In our case studies this was illustrated in Hessen, where there is a highly developed infrastructure for student participation, in theory running from the classroom to state level. The case study schools feature class council sessions (where children could discuss everyday issues arising in their classes as well as whole school issues) and whole school councils. Children also elected a teacher to act as their main liaison adult for dealing with problems. The region also has local and Länder level representative bodies, however, the head teachers we spoke to confirmed that this level of implementation was not universal across Hessen.

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16 We use this phrase to indicate that governments sometimes use mechanisms other than the curriculum to mandate schools to undertake certain actions, for example in England the Secretary of State issues funding agreements to Academy Schools which sometimes specify issues beyond the national curriculum, such as sex and relationships education.
Teacher education

Our respondents identified teacher training as the most important area for action. However, the principles of educational devolution/federal governance (e.g. Switzerland), academic freedom (e.g. Belgium) and the de-regulation of higher education (e.g. Poland) means that this is also a difficult area in which to achieve coherence. Consequently none of the states ensures that all teachers are trained in children’s rights and are familiar with the CRC, although Scotland does provide an interesting example of how this might be done. Here the statutory framework for qualifying to teach requires that all new teachers must be familiar with the CRC. This is the only example where we identified children’s rights as an explicit aspect of initial teacher education, but the UK government as a whole falls short of guaranteeing this across the UK.

In most states respondents felt that regulatory frameworks for teacher training and qualification/registration were ‘implicitly’ aligned with the CRC. This might indicate that relatively minor amendments in language and more explicit connections to the CRC could bring such frameworks into alignment with state duties to promote CRE. Indeed the standards for qualifying to teach in Scotland provide an exemplar of how such a requirement can be integrated into existing professional frameworks.

The Belgian case study captures some of the discussions currently going on within UNICEF and between UNICEF colleagues and various partners as they develop a plan to focus on teacher education as a mechanism for securing change. Whilst UNICEF Belgium is adamant that success would mean the government assuming responsibility for developing a policy framework for ITE which incorporates CRE, UNICEF Finland offers an alternative model in which they are willing to provide the training as long as government provides the funding (with the intention that an alternative suitable duty bearer in the teacher education sector is identified to take over the task). Israel demonstrates a slightly different model in which UNICEF colleagues are working alongside the Inspector for Students’ Rights, so the responsibility is shared between government and UNICEF. And in Hessen, UNICEF Germany is promoting a model of training within school networks, which is more dispersed and democratic. Thus the problem of teacher education appears to lend itself to several alternative forms of solution, depending on the context, the possibilities of working with government, and the established approaches to training.

Monitoring and quality assurance

CRE is explicitly and consistently monitored in very few countries. Respondents in only three countries said CRE was monitored and our data suggests there are several models of interest. Firstly, in Israel there is an Inspector for Students’ Rights who works closely with UNICEF on training and providing guidance to schools and who deals with complaints raised by students and parents about problems in school. This model combines a capacity building and reactive, problem-solving approach to CRE in schools. Secondly, Hessen in Germany has introduced an explicit requirement for school inspectors to investigate the extent to which schools are promoting children’s rights. Whilst this recent model has yet to demonstrate an impact, UNICEF is lobbying to ensure that this element of the framework has an impact on practice. It has the potential to be more comprehensive in its reach than Israel in the sense that this affects all school inspections, and is not dependent on complaints being raised. Thirdly, UNICEF UK’s own internal structures for their RRSA demonstrate the importance of developing moderation procedures to ensure that quality is not compromised as programmes scale-up. In Scotland UNICEF itself offers a quality assurance framework to schools, rather than looking to other inspection agencies to undertake such work.

Networks and partnerships

A final theme emerging from the data relates to the importance of networks and all of our case studies demonstrate the importance of UNICEF National Committees’ partnerships and collaborations. For example, in Hessen in Germany, programmes are delivered in collaboration with a local civil society organisation; in Scotland, UNICEF’s programme is supported by networks of schools and local authority officers providing time and resources to support the Rights Respecting School Award; and in Belgium a key element of the ITE strategy is the construction of two advocacy networks to create a unified effort to push for reform.

A final comment

This research was conceived, in part, to provide a baseline assessment of the extent to which CRE has been incorporated into the education systems of these 26 countries with a National Committee presence. Whilst the summary demonstrates there is room for further progress there are some grounds for optimism in that UNICEF National Committees have been involved in successfully addressing all aspects of CRE at least somewhere. In relation to the curriculum, there are several strong models of curriculum reform, which demonstrate how to embed children’s rights in the statutory curriculum so that CRE is reflected in the underpinning values of the curriculum, specific knowledge and skills are addressed and outcomes are specified. In relation to teacher education, Scotland provides an easy to replicate model of policy reform which places CRE at the heart of official definitions of professional practice. In relation to ensuring CRE permeates the whole school culture, the school network we documented in Hessen provides an inspirational model of school improvement rooted in local clusters of schools, each of which hosts teacher training events for local colleagues. And in relation to monitoring CRE, in Germany and Israel there are models embedding CRE in definitions of quality education so
that children’s rights form part of routine inspection and quality enhancement processes.

Our literature review indicated that each of these aspects of CRE is likely to yield positive outcomes, in terms of enhancing teachers’ confidence to engage with children’s rights, and in relation to children’s own levels of understanding of their rights and their ability to see themselves as active agents contributing to a culture of rights. These case studies illustrate both the substantial challenges facing CRE but also, and perhaps more importantly, provide some concrete examples of what success looks like. It is increasingly clear that UNICEF is developing both a strong model for CRE in their Toolkit (UNICEF, 2014) and is successfully promoting aspects of CRE in policy and practice across these countries. A key challenge is to ensure that these examples of good practice are aligned throughout the education system, so that policy, curriculum, teacher training and quality assurance are in place and are mutually enforcing.
APPENDIX 1: BENCHMARKING STATEMENTS FOR CRE

Benchmarking is generally understood as the process by which organisations evaluate their own performance through comparing aspects of their performance against others in the same sector. Benchmarking relies on identifying aspects of best practice and using these as a mechanism for self-review and improvement planning. Based on the literature review and research collected across 26 countries we have devised a set of benchmarking statements which reflect some of the best practice in CRE and which may be used by UNICEF National Committees and others promoting CRE to help review the current situation in a country and think about areas for development. These benchmarking statements build on human rights standards and are referenced to the UNDHRET, CRC and other key documents. They have also been written following a review of other evaluation frameworks and include relevant insights from those listed below. The UNICEF CRE Toolkit (UNICEF, 2014) provides additional evaluation and planning tools, and promotes the child rights approach, emphasising the active involvement of children in all aspects of CRE development and delivery.

Existing evaluation frameworks relevant to CRE

1. Official Curriculum

Benchmark: Children’s rights are a clear requirement within the statutory curriculum¹⁷

Such a curriculum includes:

- a) References to teaching children about their rights in the CRC and other human rights treaties.
- b) References to understanding the CRC and the broader principles of human rights (e.g. universality, indivisibility, interdependence and inalienability).
- c) References to children’s rights in local and global contexts.
- d) Articulation of the relationship between rights-holders and duty-bearers.
- e) Statement of intended learning outcomes as well as indicative content.

Link to relevant standards

- CRC Article 29(1) (b) States Parties agree that education shall be directed to the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations.
- CRC Article 42 States Parties undertake to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike.
- ICESCR Article 13(1) States Parties agree that education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity, and shall strengthen the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms.
- UNDHRRET Article 8 States should develop, or promote the development of, at the appropriate level, strategies and policies and, where appropriate, action plans and programmes to implement human rights education and training, such as through its integration into school and training curricula.
- The UN (2010) evaluation of the first phase of WPHRE recommended governments should review national curricula to clarify how and to what extent human rights education is dealt with, including through integration of human rights in other subjects which are assumed to address them.

Questions to review your situation¹⁸

- What does the curriculum specify as a requirement and what is suggested as an option?
- Where do children’s rights appear and how does this influence the focus of the teaching?
  E.g. if in history, will students make the connection to their own lives? If in development education will they relate it to charity?
- Does the curriculum specify what should be learned and understood or is it vague and open to interpretation?
  E.g. some curricula suggest ‘children should learn about their rights and responsibilities’ but fail to specify what should be learned.
- What kind of relationship is implied between rights and responsibilities?
  Sometimes the pairing of rights with responsibilities implies that one is directly conditional on the other, and thus may mask the fact that rights are not conditional.

Examples of good practice in countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence

- Iceland: human rights and democracy is one of six themes underpinning the whole curriculum and knowledge of the CRC is defined as an outcome for 10-year-olds.
- Sweden: children’s rights are taught in the context of human rights within the Social Studies curriculum.

¹⁷ Article 29 of the CRC also identifies additional aspects of the right to education which might have implications for the curriculum (such as the requirement that education shall be directed to the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality... and the development of respect for the natural environment, which often lead to specific curriculum subjects such as citizenship education, peace education, ethics etc.). Here we focus on the core knowledge required for an understanding of rights.

¹⁸ The UNICEF CRE Toolkit (UNICEF, 2014) includes more guidance and mapping exercises for CRE in the curriculum.
2. Teacher education

Benchmark: Teachers are familiar with the CRC and understand the implications of children’s rights for their professional practice

a) All teachers are trained in children’s rights as part of their initial training.
b) Teachers have access to on-going professional development opportunities in CRE.
c) National frameworks regulating the profession incorporate children’s rights.

Link to relevant standards

- CRC Article 42 States Parties undertake to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike.
- UNDHRET Article 3 Human rights education and training concerns all parts of society, at all levels, including vocational training, particularly the training of teachers.
- UNDHRET Article 7 States, and where applicable relevant governmental authorities, should ensure adequate training in human rights for teachers, trainers and other educators and private personnel acting on behalf of the State.
- The UN (2010) evaluation of the first phase of WPHRE recommended governments should implement policies on teacher training which make human rights education part of mandatory teacher qualification requirement.

Questions to review your situation

- Do initial teacher education regulations and/or curriculum frameworks include human rights and children’s rights?
  Consider the extent to which this is a requirement rather than an optional component of training for some student teachers, or in some institutions.
- Does the government (or delegated public agency) provide on-going training for teachers in CRE?
- Is there a variety of additional teacher training programmes available from civil society organisations?
  i.e. where teachers are offered some form of incentive for attending recognised professional development courses (e.g. payments/accreditation), are CRE courses treated comparably?
- What system of professional standards is in place to govern/regulate the teacher workforce, and does this incorporate explicit reference to children’s rights?
  Such links are often left implicit, for example principles such as the ‘best interests of the child’ or ‘equality’ or ‘student voice’ may not refer to the CRC.

Examples of good practice in countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence

Scotland: The Standards for Qualifying to Teach, which all new entrants to the profession must achieve, incorporate the CRC as part of the professional values that should be understood and promoted by all teachers.

Finland: The government is sponsoring a programme of continuing professional training for teachers.

Israel: On-going teacher training opportunities in CRE are included in the standard incentive system for professional development, which provides payments for teachers to attend.
3. Resources

**Benchmark: All teachers have access to high quality educational resources to support CRE**

a) Government ensures teachers have access to CRE resources.
b) A range of organisations produce additional resources for CRE.
c) CRE resources explore connections between children’s lives and local, national and international contexts.
d) CRE resources explore the nature of the CRC and children’s rights as well as specific social issues where rights can be applied. Some achieve this through a collaborative production process in which children are consulted and involved in the creation of resources.

**Link to relevant standards**

- UNDHRET Article 6 (1) Human rights education and training should capitalize on and make use of new information technologies to promote human rights and fundamental freedoms; (2) The arts should be encouraged as a means of training and raising awareness in the field of human rights.
- CRC General Comment No.1 (Para.18) The effective promotion of article 29 (1) requires the fundamental reworking of curricula to include the various aims of education and the systematic revision of textbooks and other teaching materials and technologies, as well as school policies.
- The UN (2010) evaluation of the first phase of WPHRE recommended governments should make greater use of the human rights education materials and tools developed by national, regional and international institutions and organizations within or beyond the WPHRE, as a way of addressing resource issues at the national level such as the lack of education and learning materials.

**Questions to review your situation**

- Do teachers have access to a variety of CRE resources which meet the needs of the children with whom they are working? For example, are resources available in community languages used in school? Do resources reflect the diversity of the communities within your country? Are teachers able to use these resources in the classroom, i.e. are there enough text books / is there access to websites?
- To what extent do resources address knowledge about children’s’ rights?
- To what extent do resources reflect children as active agents for children’s rights?
- To what extent do resources enable students to apply children’s rights to understanding aspects of their own lives, the lives of other children in their country and overseas?
- Where resources address specific social issues do they develop students’ understanding of the rights in question and the challenges of implementation? i.e. are rights used to develop children’s awareness of the need for political action?
- Are resources developed with children, through consultation and their active participation in the production process?

**Examples of good practice in countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence**

Belgium: Government-funded resources produced by UNICEF to promote international development awareness also routinely make explicit connections between the lives of children in Belgium and overseas to encourage the use of the CRC as an overarching framework for understanding childhood.

Scotland: a resource on poverty provides children with the opportunity to reflect on the nature of poverty on their doorstep and features children talking about their own experiences of living in poverty.
4. Pedagogy

**Benchmark: Children’s rights are respected in the everyday practices of teachers**

a) Teachers do not use corporal punishment or compromise children’s rights and dignity in areas of discipline and elsewhere.
b) Teachers respect the views of children and give due weight to them in their classrooms.
c) Teaching promotes children’s developing sense of agency as actors who can promote the realisation of children’s rights.
d) Teaching promotes the development of skills and attitudes which support a culture of human rights, such as cooperation, equality, and respect for diversity.

**Link to relevant standards**

- CRC Article 12 States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.
- CRC Article 28 (2) School discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child’s human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.
- CRC Article 29 (1)(a) The education of the child shall be directed to the development of the child’s personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential; (b) respect for human rights; (c) cultural identity; and (d) tolerance.
- UNDHRET Article 2 (2) HRE encompasses education through human rights... empowering persons to enjoy and exercise their rights and to respect and uphold the rights of others.
- UNDHRET Article 5 (1) HRE should be based on the principles of equality, human dignity, inclusion and non-discrimination.
- CRC General Comment No.1 (Para. 12) the type of teaching that is focused primarily on accumulation of knowledge, prompting competition and leading to an excessive burden of work on children, may seriously hamper the harmonious development of the child to the fullest potential of his or her abilities and talents.

**Questions to review your situation**

- To what extent does school discipline respect children’s rights? 
  *i.e. is corporal punishment completely banned? Are other forms of punishment compatible with children’s rights? Are punishments and sanctions monitored in relation to equality issues? Are children involved in peer support programmes and in disciplinary procedures?*
- To what extent does the government promote aspects of pedagogic practice? Does this embrace an approach aligned with CRE, e.g. does it promote children’s agency, collaboration between children in the classroom, and help build independence? 
  *Are there policies, award schemes, definitions of effective teaching practice which promote particular pedagogic approaches, and to what extent do these promote CRE approaches and the child rights approach in particular?*
- Do teachers routinely teach about issues related to children’s lives and communities in relation to their rights? 
- Do children experience a variety of approaches to school work and assessment, including experiential learning, group work, and independent learning as well as more traditional direct instruction and examination?

**Examples of good practice in countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence**

Germany: In Hessen class teachers are encouraged to run class councils as a means of collecting regular feedback from children about their experience of school and issues they would like to discuss. Children also elect liaison teachers to deal with complaints and issues arising.

Belgium: Public funding supports a network of Freinet schools, which maintain a strong child-centred pedagogy.19

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19 Freinet schools are based on pedagogic principles established by Celestin Freinet, which include democracy, cooperation and enquiry based learning. This reflects the principles established in the Committee on the Rights of the Child’s General Comment No.1.
5. Policy alignment across the education system

Benchmark: There is a clear expectation that all levels of the education system should promote children’s rights

a) There is a coherent policy framework for CRE, which implements the State’s responsibilities under the CRC.

b) School policy frameworks incorporate CRE.20

c) School ethos promotes children’s rights, the child rights approach and the values and skills that underpin CRE.

Link to relevant standards

- CRC Article 4 States Parties shall undertake all appropriate legislative, administrative, and other measures for the implementation of the rights recognized in the present Convention.
- CRC Article 29 (1) States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to the development of the child’s personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential...
- UNDHRET Article 8 States should develop, or promote the development of, at the appropriate level, strategies and policies and, where appropriate, action plans and programmes to implement human rights education and training.
- The UN (2010) evaluation of the first phase of WPHRE concludes that among the commonly identified gaps are the absence of explicit policies and detailed implementation strategies for human rights education… The decentralization of political structures and/or education provision in a number of countries further complicates the implementation of a centralized model.
- CRC General Comment No.1 (Para. 8) Children do not lose their human rights by virtue of passing through the school gates. Thus, for example, education must be provided in a way that respects the inherent dignity of the child and enables the child to express his or her views freely in accordance with article 12 (1) and to participate in school life.
- CRC General Comment No.1 (Para. 12) Schools should foster a humane atmosphere and allow children to develop according to their evolving capacities.

Questions to review your situation

- Is there a clear implementation strategy which connects the State’s commitment to the CRC to school policy, including all levels of education policy-making?
  
  This is about ensuring policy connects from the top down to ensure coherence in expectations. If not, where are the blockages or obstacles? Are they administrative or political?
- Is there guidance/policy relating to how schools promote values which underpin democracy and a culture of rights?
  
  Are such expectations formalised? How is this monitored?

Examples of good practice in countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence

Scotland: The Scottish government has outlined its strategy for implementing the CRC through its devolved powers within the UK. This overarching framework (Getting It Right For Every Child) is complemented by education policies which require every teacher to understand the CRC, and by school guidance which promotes student participation and funding to support UNICEF UK’s Rights Respecting Schools Award programme.

Germany: In Hessen, the Länder (devolved regional) government requires schools to teach children about their rights and to establish systems for pupil participation through class, school and regional councils. Inspection frameworks provide a mechanism for checking the extent to which this happens.

20 The wording here focuses on CRE as this is the main focus of this report, however, policy alignment also requires that States have a wider HRE policy in place, of which CRE forms a part. Article 42 of the CRC requires states to make the CRC widely known to adults and children (which is a key purpose of CRE), however, Article 29 requires states to ensure that education promotes respect for human rights and the principles enshrined in the Charter of the UN (which is the broader purpose of HRE).
6. Participation as a right

**Benchmark: Children’s participation in the education system is perceived as a right**

a) School equips children with the knowledge, skills and understanding to participate effectively in decisions which affect them (individually, as a member of a group or the school community).

b) Schools provide opportunities for children to participate in forums where they can express their opinions about school and participate in decision-making on all matters affecting them.

c) Children are represented in the local authority and beyond in forums where they can participate in decision-making on all matters affecting them.

d) Children’s views are taken into account at national level when education policy is being developed.

e) Opportunities for participation are open to all children and adults assume responsibility for ensuring safe access for all.

**Link to relevant standards**

• CRC Article 12 States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.

• CRC Article 13 (1) The child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds.

• CRC Article 2 (1) States Parties shall ensure the rights without discrimination of any kind.

• UNDHRET Article 2 (c) Education for human rights includes empowering pupils to enjoy and exercise their rights and to respect and uphold the rights of others.

• CRC General Comment No.1 (Para. 8) education must be provided in a way that respects the inherent dignity of the child and enables the child to express his or her views freely in accordance with Article 12 (1) and to participate in school life… The participation of children in school life, the creation of school communities and student councils, peer education and peer counselling, and the involvement of children in school disciplinary proceedings should be promoted as part of the process of learning and experiencing the realization of rights.

**Questions to review your situation**

• To what extent are children prepared for their roles, either through direct participation or through acting as representatives? *Is there training and support to enable children to make the most of the opportunities which exist? Are children supported to weigh up alternatives and come to decisions?*

• What opportunities are there for all children to participate in decision-making? *When are children actively involved in making decisions, when are they consulted, and what feedback do they receive about such decisions?*

• Who is involved in participation opportunities? *Are children from marginalized and/or minority groups included and supported?*

• Are children’s views sought on all educational issues? *For example, are children consulted on curriculum and teaching decisions in schools or on peripheral issues not related to teaching and learning?*

**Examples of good practice in countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence**

Germany: In Hessen there is an expectation that all schools will elect representatives to participate in a school council, and that students will nominate staff to act as a liaison. This is complemented by the widespread practice of class councils where all children have opportunities to discuss aspects of school life. In addition children elected as representatives in the Hessen youth parliament are supported by teachers whose task is to facilitate their effective participation.
7. Monitoring and accountability

**Benchmark:** There is a clear system for monitoring the quality of CRE and holding staff to account for improvement planning

a) The school inspection system includes the monitoring of CRE.

b) School improvement planning incorporates CRE.

c) CRE implementation is monitored and this is used to inform implementation planning (at school, local government and state level).

**Link to relevant standards**

- **CRC Article 44** Reports made by States Parties to the Committee shall indicate factors and difficulties, if any, affecting the degree of fulfilment of the obligations under the present Convention. Reports shall also contain sufficient information to provide the Committee with a comprehensive understanding of the implementation of the Convention in the country concerned.

- **UN DHRET Article 8 (2)** The conception, implementation and evaluation of and follow-up to HRE strategies, action plans, policies and programmes should involve all relevant stakeholders.

- **CRC General Comment No.1 (Para. 23)** The Committee calls upon States parties to develop a comprehensive national plan of action to promote and monitor realization of the objectives listed in Article 29 (1).

- The UN (2010) evaluation of the first phase of WPHRE notes that a number of countries make reference to ongoing evaluation and monitoring systems, assessments and school inspections but it is not clear how far these encompass human rights education...

**Questions to review your situation**

- Does the school inspection system incorporate CRE?

- Are schools required to respond to such school inspections in their own improvement planning?

- Does government routinely collect information that enables it to evaluate the quality of CRE?

  *If so, does such monitoring and improvement planning coincide only with the national reports to the Committee or does it take place more frequently?*

- Do civil society organisations also undertake independent research to monitor CRE and hold government to account?

  *And do such organisations also monitor their own educational programmes?*

**Examples of good practice in countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence**

- **Israel:** An Inspector for Student Rights works in the Ministry of Education and provides a mechanism for dealing with student complaints as well as monitoring the implementation of the Student Rights Law.

- **Germany:** In Hessen the school inspection framework includes explicit reference to children’s rights and schools are expected to respond to inspections in their improvement planning.

- **Hong Kong:** UNICEF Hong Kong has commissioned research on the implementation of CRE, in particular in relation to Article 42, as part of an on-going evidence-informed advocacy programme.

- **Scotland:** UNICEF UK has developed robust moderation procedures including UNICEF staff, local authorities and schools to ensure standards are maintained in their RRSA programme.
APPENDIX 2: SURVEY QUESTIONS

Introductory text

This survey is about Children’s Rights Education in formal settings, i.e. nurseries and schools. It is about all children from birth to 18 years of age.

The survey is generally concerned with children’s rights in particular, not human rights in general. Whilst most of the questions are very specific about what is taught, some questions ask about Children’s Rights Education (CRE) in general, by which we mean:

- educating children about their rights (i.e. teaching them about the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child);
- educating children through their rights (i.e. respecting their rights in the processes of schooling);
- educating children for rights (i.e. empowering them to take action for rights).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Respondent Information</strong></td>
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<td>(i) Country</td>
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| (ii) Type of organisation | 1. Central government  
2. Local / regional government  
3. NGO employee (other than UNICEF)  
4. UNICEF employee  
5. Private sector company  
6. School teacher  
7. University academic / researcher  
8. Ombudsman / national human or children’s rights office  
9. Other (please specify) |
| **State (1) Policy and Legislative Framework** | |
| Q1. Is there a requirement in law for all children to learn about children’s rights in school? | 1. Yes, across the whole country  
2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify…  
3. No  
4. Don’t know  
If 1 or 2, to what extent do you think this is being implemented:  
1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know |
| Q2. Are schools encouraged to teach children about children’s rights through *non-statutory* guidance (e.g. through government policy or advice)? | 1. Yes, across the whole country  
2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify…  
3. No  
4. Don’t know  
If 1 or 2, to what extent do you think this is being implemented:  
1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know |
| Q3. If schools are required or encouraged to teach about children’s rights, is this linked explicitly to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child? | 1. Yes, across the whole country  
2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify…  
3. No  
4. Don’t know  
If 1 or 2, to what extent do you think this is being implemented:  
1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know |
Q4. Does the government, or a public agency, monitor / inspect the quality of education children receive about children’s rights?

| 1. Yes, across the whole country |
| 2. Yes, in some parts of the country please specify... |
| 3. No |
| 4. Don’t know |

If 1 or 2, please explain how and, if you can, how effective this is.

Q5. What do you think are the most significant achievements to date in your country in relation to implementing children’s rights education (i.e. education about, through and for rights)?

*Please tell us about up to three achievements.*

Free text

Q6. What do you think are the biggest outstanding challenges in your country in relation to implementing children’s rights education (education about, through and for rights)?

*Please tell us about up to three challenges.*

Free text

Q7. What do you think are the most critical factors that would help to strengthen children’s rights education in your country (education about, through and for rights)?

*Please tell us about up to three factors that would help.*

Free text

| State (2) Curriculum |

| Q8. Is there a statutory / obligatory curriculum entitlement for all children to learn about children’s rights? |
| 1. Yes, across the whole country |
| 2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify... |
| 3. No |
| 4. Don’t know |

If 1 or 2 for what age group?

<p>| Q9. If you answered 1 or 2 to question 8, do children’s rights appear in the statutory / obligatory curriculum as a stand-alone topic? |
| 1. Yes, across the whole country |
| 2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify... |
| 3. No |
| 4. Don’t know |</p>
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<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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| Q10. Do children’s rights feature in statutory / obligatory curricula for other subjects? | Yes, across the whole country  
2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify…  
3. No  
4. Don’t know  
If 1 or 2 please identify the most common subjects where children’s rights feature:  
1. Citizenship / Civics  
2. Human Rights Education  
3. Social Studies / Social Science  
4. History  
5. Geography  
6. Home language(s)  
7. Foreign languages  
8. Others, please specify |
| Q11. Regardless of the statutory / obligatory nature of the curriculum, to what extent do you think children are taught about children’s rights in school? | 1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know |
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know |
| Q13. Regardless of the statutory / obligatory nature of the curriculum, to what extent do you think schools prepare children to act to promote children’s rights? | 1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know |
| Q14. To what extent do you think children are taught about the duty-bearers who have responsibility for protecting and promoting children’s rights? | 1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know |
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| Q15. Does the government produce teaching resources for teachers to use when teaching about children’s rights? | 1. Yes, the national government produces resources for use across the whole country  
2. Yes, local government in some parts of the country. Please specify.  
3. No  
4. Don’t know |
| Q16. If the government produces teaching resources about children’s rights, what kinds of resources are produced? | 1. Text books  
2. Guidance for text book authors  
3. Other classroom resources (e.g. worksheets, posters etc.)  
4. Websites and other multi-media resources  
5. Other funded projects for schools (please give examples)  
6. Don’t know |
| Q17. If the government produces teaching resources about children’s rights, how would you generally rate their quality? | 1. Very good  
2. Good  
3. Satisfactory  
4. Poor  
5. Very poor  
6. Don’t know |
| Q18. Does the government fund other organisations to produce teaching resources about children’s rights? | 1. Yes, across the whole country  
2. Yes, in some parts of the country  
3. No  
4. Don’t know  
If 1 or 2 please give examples of any resources you think are particularly good. |
| Q19. If the government funds other organisations to produce teaching resources about children’s rights, how would you generally rate their quality? | 1. Very good  
2. Good  
3. Satisfactory  
4. Poor  
5. Very poor  
6. Don’t know |
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<th><strong>State (3) Schools and Teachers</strong></th>
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| Q20. Are all teachers required to be trained in human rights as part of their initial training? | 1. Yes, across the whole country  
2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify…  
3. No  
4. Don’t know  

To what extent do you think this is being achieved?  
1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know  

How would you rate the quality of this training?  
1. Excellent  
2. Good  
3. Satisfactory  
4. Poor  
5. Very poor  
6. Don’t know  |
| Q21. Are all teachers required to be trained specifically in children’s rights and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child as part of their initial training? | 1. Yes, across the whole country  
2. Yes, in some parts of the country, please specify…  
3. No  
4. Don’t know  

To what extent do you think this is being achieved?  
1. Fully  
2. To a significant extent  
3. To some extent  
4. To a limited extent  
5. Not at all  
6. Don’t know  

How would you rate the quality of this training?  
1. Excellent  
2. Good  
3. Satisfactory  
4. Poor  
5. Very poor  
6. Don’t know |
Q22. Do the regulations concerning who is qualified to teach include reference to children’s rights? (i.e. in statements of competences or essential characteristics of teachers)

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<th>1. Yes, explicitly* and across the whole country</th>
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<td>3. Yes, explicitly* in some parts of the country</td>
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<td>4. Yes, implicitly** in some parts of the country</td>
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<td>5. No</td>
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*Explicit means children’s rights are specifically mentioned

**Implicit means principles such as ‘the best interests of the child’ or ‘student voice’ are mentioned, but not linked to ‘rights’

Q23. To what extent do you think teachers are able to access high quality teaching resources for teaching children’s rights?

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Q24. To what extent do you think policy encourages teachers to teach through active child-centred methods?

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Q25. To what extent are schools required to run student councils?

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<td>6. Don’t know</td>
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Q26. To what extent do schools run student councils?

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<td>3. To some extent</td>
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<td>4. To a limited extent</td>
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<td>5. Not at all</td>
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Q27. Do you consider student councils to be effective routes for children’s participation in your country?

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<td>6. Don’t know</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Civil Society (1) Practice

Civil society organisations refers to NGOs (domestic and international), churches, charities, citizens groups, academic organisations, professional associations etc.

| Q28. Do civil society organisations produce resources for schools to teach children about their rights and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child? | 1. Yes  
2. No  
3. Don’t know  
If yes, please provide references or links to any resources you think are particularly good. |
|---|---|
| Q29. Are you aware of civil society organisations’ teaching resources which link children’s rights to these topics? | 1. Sex Education  
2. Religious Education  
3. Drugs education  
4. Careers education  
5. Poverty and social class  
6. International Aid and Development  
7. Gender  
8. Disability  
9. Race and ethnicity  
10. Other, please specify… |
| Q30. Do civil society organisations provide training for teachers in children’s rights? | 1. Yes  
2. No  
3. Don’t know  
If 1, please give examples of organisations / types of training |

### Civil Society (2) Advocacy

| Q31. Which, if any, public agencies or public officials have been influential in developing children’s rights education? | Free text |
| Q32. Please comment on any influential individuals who have helped to promote children’s rights education in your country. | Free text |
| Q33. Please comment on any influential networks or organisations which have helped to promote children’s rights education in your country. | Free text |
| Q34. Please comment on any international factors (e.g. campaigns, media, UN Committee responses) which have influenced children’s rights education in your country. | Free text |

### Final question

| Q.35 Please use this space to tell us anything else you think is important in relation to children’s rights education in your country. | Free text |
REFERENCES

ACARA (undated) The Australian Curriculum, Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, available on-line at: www.australiancurriculum.edu.au [accessed 19/12/14].


Capra International (undated) End of Project Summative Evaluation of the Right to Education and Participation for Children and Youth in Nariño, for Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Ontario: Capra International Inc.


Schools, Intercultural Education, 22 (2), 145-162.


This research contributes to the global debate on child rights education (CRE). It explores implementation of CRE in early childhood education, primary and secondary schools in 26 countries with a UNICEF National Committee presence. It includes a literature review, results from an on-line survey completed by national experts, seven country case studies and a series of benchmarking statements for CRE implementation. The research was commissioned by the Advocacy and Child Rights Education Unit in the UNICEF Private Fundraising and Partnerships Division, Geneva and undertaken by the Centre for Children’s Rights in Queen’s University Belfast.