

Human Rights Education in Asian Schools

Volume Three

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Foreword

In many Asian countries, more and more people recognize the importance of human rights education in the school curriculum. It is a trend well suited to current discussions on how to cope with anticipated societal changes in the 21st century.

The many inter-governmental workshops and conferences attest to governments' formal acknowledgement of the need for human rights education. But the appreciation of the value of human rights education in schools should go beyond formal declarations in regional workshops and conferences. It should become reality: human rights education should be included in school curriculums, teacher training courses, textbooks and other learning material, government education policies and programs, and school rules and regulations.

If human rights education in schools is to be institutionalized, it is equally important to examine the entire education system as it is to develop lesson plans.

Here we present our experiences as well as general formal education issues. We hope that those who advocate the institutionalization of human rights education in schools will find the collection helpful.

DONG-HOON KIM

Director

HURIGHTS OSAKA

Introduction

Human rights education in schools receives a substantial amount of support as a result of the series of regional and subregional activities held in Asia in 1999 and early 2000. The support comes in the form of articulation of the importance and need for human rights education in schools, and in the training of people involved in school education.

Training Activities

HURIGHTS OSAKA, the National Human Rights Commission of Indonesia, and the Center for Human Rights Studies (Universitas Surabaya) jointly organized the Southeast Asia Pilot Teachers' Training Workshop focusing on human rights education in schools. The workshop was held on 26-29 April 1999 in Bali, Indonesia.

The training program focused on ASEAN, emphasized networking among human rights educators as well as relevant institutions in Southeast Asia, and employed a participant-centered methodology.

The 18 participants from Cambodia, Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam were ministry of education officials, including one high school principal, two education researchers, two nongovernmental organization (NGO) workers, one university teacher, and one teacher trainer. The facilitating team was composed of representatives from Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand.

The training program consisted of (i) discussions on human rights, human rights education, and human rights educators; (ii) preparation of human rights lesson plans; and (iii) a teaching demonstration. (See page 113.)

The first Northeast Asian training workshop on human rights education was organized jointly by the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) and the Korean Ministry of Education on 1-4 De-

cember 1999 in Seoul. The workshop was assisted by the Korean National Commission for UNESCO and HURIGHTS OSAKA.

The workshop focused on the following:

- developing a common understanding of human rights education in schools;
- discussing strategies, based on lessons learned from other countries, to incorporate human rights education in the school system;
- identifying key components and subregional and national priorities for human rights education programs in schools;
- facilitating subregional cooperation in the area of human rights education among relevant partners (governments, national institutions, educational institutes, and NGOs); and
- developing national and subregional plans for human rights education in schools.

Thirty-one education ministry, school and university, and NGO representatives from China, South Korea, Japan, and Mongolia attended the workshop.

The workshop adopted the Seoul Declaration, which stresses the importance of developing programs on socioculturally appropriate human rights education in schools in Northeast Asia. It urges governments to provide the required financial, infrastructural, policy, and personnel support for human rights education in schools. (See Appendices for the full text of the Seoul Declaration.)

Conferences

UNESCO held its regional conference on human rights education for the Asia-Pacific region on 3-6 February 1999 in Pune, Maharashtra, India. The Education for Human Rights in Asia and the Pacific Conference was held as part of the 50th anniversary commemoration of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in accord with the Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (UNDHRE, 1995-2004). The conference generally concentrated on three areas: (i) human rights education in the nonformal education system; (ii) human rights education in the formal education system; and (iii) human rights education in other sectors such as the media. It also took up the tasks and obligations of governments and national human rights institutions. More than 150 people from the Asia-Pacific region and Europe attended.

Conference participants drew up The Pune Declaration on Education for Human Rights in Asia and the Pacific. (See Appendixes for full text of the declaration.) UNESCO, which has the mandate to promote education in general, uses the phrase “education for human rights” to indicate its objective of making education promote human rights.

The declaration urges the promotion of human rights education through the following:

- government-created education cells for human rights that will promote human rights education at all levels and in all sectors of society;
- active involvement in human rights education of UNESCO chairs, associated schools, clubs, and associations in the region; and
- creation of a regional network with a focal point that will ensure the development and exchange of curriculums, training methodology, technical support materials, student-faculty exchange programs, field visits, and so on.

The declaration suggests developing human rights education programs based not only on the Plan of Action of the UNDHRE but also on the UNESCO World Plan of Action on Education for Human Rights and Democracy (Montreal, 1993) and the Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy (Paris, 1995).

On 12-13 November 1999 in Nepal, the Asian Forum on Human Rights and Development (FORUM ASIA) and the Asian Regional Resource Center for Human Rights Education (ARRC) organized a regional human rights education conference on Development and Implementation of the Regional Response to the UNDHRE and the Participation of Civil Society. The conference supported the development of national plans of action for UNDHRE in the region. Participants presented their experiences in developing national plans of action to encourage other governments and members of civil society to develop and implement their own plans. They also reviewed ongoing human rights education programs in Asia.

UN Support

Through OHCHR, the UN holds the annual Asia-Pacific Workshop on Regional Cooperation for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights. Eight have been held so far. At the last one, held in Beijing on 1-3 March 2000, UN High Commissioner for Human Rights Mary Robinson expressed the need for more support for human rights:

In 1998, in Tehran, a consensus was reached on the principles and a step-by-step, building blocks approach, towards the establishment of regional arrangements for the promotion and protection of human rights. Adopted by consensus, the Tehran Framework for Technical Cooperation identifies States' commitment to four regional priori-

ties, namely: 1) national plans of action for the promotion and protection of human rights and the strengthening of national capacities; 2) human rights education; 3) national institutions for the promotion and protection of human rights; and 4) strategies for the realization of the right to development and economic, social and cultural rights.

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Through a long process of consultations, in the form of annual and inter-sessional workshops, agreement has been reached on principles. Time has come now to move ahead and further the process of cooperation towards the further realization and implementation of those principles. The objectives of this workshop are to review progress made in each one of the four areas identified in Tehran; to identify next steps to be taken by government of the region in order to facilitate the process of regional cooperation for the promotion and protection of human rights and action at the regional, sub-regional and national level, including through national institutions and representatives of civil society; and to discuss issues relating to the regional preparatory meeting for the world conference on racism. It is my hope that, following your deliberations, the workshop will be able to consider and agree on the launching of a new regional framework for cooperation in the Asian and Pacific region identifying next steps for regional, sub-regional and national action.

Previous workshops have recognized the crucial role of civil society in developing effective national human rights and human rights education action plans, in establishing national human rights institutions and in guaranteeing a successful and sustainable development. The importance of ensuring a pluralistic and participatory approach in all activities aimed at strengthening national capacities for the promotion and protection of human rights has also been strongly emphasized. It is really encouraging to have repre-

sentatives of national institutions and non-governmental organizations participating together in this workshop—I offer to you my warm appreciation for your attendance. It is my sincere hope that national institutions and the civil society will be increasingly involved in future activities under the framework of regional cooperation and eventually become full participating parties with government.

I should like to emphasize at the outset that my Office is committed to strengthen its capacity to support national government and institutions in their efforts to promote and protect human rights and that I will continue to pay particular attention to ensuring that this region benefits from all the activities under the programme of technical cooperation and advisory services in the field of human rights. My Office will spare no effort to assist in the process of translating your conclusions here into measures that will further promote and protect human rights in the Asian and Pacific region.

The so-called Tehran Framework¹ contains specific regional activities that will get financial and technical support from OHCHR. On human rights education, the Tehran Framework states that

Objective:

National capacities will be strengthened to develop, implement and evaluate national plans of action and other activities for human rights education.

Activity (a): Preparation of a Compendium of existing national plans of action and specific programmes or activities for human rights education;

Activity (b): Provision by OHCHR of technical cooperation and assistance at the request of Member States for the development of national capacities for human rights education, including the holding, as appropriate, of workshops to consider such activities;

Activity (c): Holding a regional intergovernmental workshop with the participation of representatives of national institutions and NGOs active in this area, to share best practices concerning such national action plans and related activities.

The annex of the conclusions document of the Beijing workshop contains a list of suggested human-rights-related activities, including the following:

Regional level

- Survey of human rights education materials, organizations, and programs in the region, including collection of sample activities undertaken in the first half of the UNDHRE, and on funding agencies and resources for human rights education in the region.
- Research on popular and nonformal human rights education methodologies used in the region, paying particular attention to those directed to the vulnerable, disadvantaged, and marginalized.

Subregional level

- Workshops for governments, national institutions, and civil society to develop (i) subregion-specific human rights training programs for those involved in the administration of justice; (ii) subregion-specific strategies to direct human rights education to the vulnerable, disadvantaged, and marginalized; and (iii) subregion-specific strategies for promotion of human rights education within the school system.
- Technical training workshop on human rights for the judiciary with special emphasis on economic, social, and cultural rights, combating racism, and the realization of women and children's rights.

Prior to the Beijing workshop, OHCHR organized an inter-sessional regional workshop on human rights education in Tokyo on 17-19 January 2000. The main objectives of the workshop were to (i) present the UN guidelines in developing national plans of action for human rights education, (ii) understand regional experiences in making such plans, and (iii) discuss issues that affect action planning. Representatives of more than 25 Asia-Pacific countries attended the workshop. The workshop statement (Tokyo Declaration) recognizes some efforts of governments to promote human rights education but also urges them to develop national plans of action to better support the programs. UN guidelines state that governments should have provisions on human rights education in schools.

The UN human rights program in the region has significantly helped make the discussions on human rights among governments more positive. It emphasizes the importance of human rights education. It concentrates on building national capacities for human rights protection and promotion through regional cooperation through activities such as the workshop on human rights education held in Seoul.

The UN program has raised discussions among governments to the level of concrete activities that help increase support for human rights from all sectors (government, NGOs, and UN agencies). Thus, the hope of Mary Robinson that “national institutions and the civil society will be increasingly involved in future activities under the framework of regional cooperation and eventually become full participating parties with government” is timely and appropriate.

Wider Issue

Support for human rights education in schools cannot be limited to human rights education policies and programs of governments, or activities of NGOs and UN agencies. It extends

to any formal education-related mechanism and structure. The arena for building the structure of support for human rights education is thus a wide one. Support from general education policies will help institutionalize human rights education in schools. Failure to find such support will isolate initiatives on human rights education in schools, which may ultimately lead to their premature end.

It is therefore important to know how education ministries in the region perceive education in the new century. The conference of education ministers organized by the UNESCO Asia-Pacific office on 20 January 2000 provides an important basis for the promotion of human rights education in schools. (See Appendices for the full text of the conference document.)

Last Note

The regional activities held from 1999 until early 2000 present several forms of support for human rights education in schools:

- national action plan on human rights education;

- training programs for teachers, education officials, and NGO workers on how to develop curriculums and materials on human rights and adopt appropriate pedagogies;
- cooperation between government agencies and NGOs;
- networking among institutions and individuals in different countries toward a regional support system; and
- technical assistance from the UN.

The implementation of the plans would constitute significant support for the development of human rights education in schools programs in more countries in the region.

Notes

1. Annex II, Further Promotion and Encouragement of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, including the Question of the Programme and Methods of Works of the Commission (E/CN.4/1998/50-12 March 1998).

Country Experiences

Sri Lanka: Lawyers for Human Rights and Development

LAKMALI CABRAL

Lawyers for Human Rights and Development (LHRD) is a nonprofit, nongovernmental organization dedicated to the promotion and protection of human rights in Sri Lanka. It was set up in June 1986 to provide free legal aid to victims of human rights violations. It conducts legal and human rights awareness programs. It also conducts research on laws, procedures, and practices with a view to influencing legislation.

Sri Lanka has witnessed the worst forms of human rights violations for more than two decades. Thousands of lives were lost during two violent youth uprisings in the south in 1971 and 1987-1991. The youths who took part in the uprisings committed unbelievable atrocities against innocent civilians. They brutally massacred entire families. The state suppressed the uprisings using equally brutal methods. Over 60,000 youths were extrajudicially killed. Thousands of young men and women were held in illegal custody for years without trial. Most were tortured. Political prisoners were detained and tried under draconian laws. Meanwhile, a war has been going on in the north since 1983. In the 50 years of independence from the British, Sri Lanka has been subjected to 20 years of emergency laws, which restrict democratic rights and freedoms.

The main tasks of LHRD are the following:

- prevent human rights violations;
- protect human rights;
- assist victims of human rights violations to seek justice through the judicial process;
- generate public awareness of legal and human rights; and
- strengthen the capacity of organizations and their activists to protect human rights.

LHRD has conducted 50 legal-literacy seminars all over the country with over 100 participants each; 75 legal-awareness workshops to educate women in the free trade zones on their legal and labor rights; and 48 five-day residential paralegal training programs to train NGO activists and community-based organizations. It has provided free legal advice and legal aid to over 10,000 people whose legal and human rights were violated.

Children's Desk

Children have always been an important target group of our activities, both directly and indirectly. LHRD has appeared on their behalf in courts, held seminars and workshops on improving their legal protection, and trained NGO child-rights activists as paralegals. In 1993 and 1994, LHRD held an essay and poster competition on human rights for schoolchildren in the hope that it would awaken in them an interest in human rights. A large number of children from all parts of the country participated, many of them displaying a high level of awareness of human rights.

Yet LHRD did not conduct special educational programs for schoolchildren until 1997,

when it set up its Children's Desk to streamline its children-related activities, which became necessary as child abuse had become a serious problem. Moreover, there were signs that a reign of terror—similar to that which engulfed the country in 1988-1991, where children were either perpetrators or victims of abuse—was on the rise. LHRD believed it was important to educate children on human and child rights and to enlist their support in promoting and protecting human rights and in combating child abuse. Through its Children's Desk, LHRD embarked on a three-pronged program of

- educating schoolchildren on human and child rights,
- creating community awareness on the need to protect and promote child rights, and
- protecting human and child rights by enforcing the law.

Objectives of the Program

As citizens of tomorrow, children may either be future violators of human rights or victims of human rights violations. Especially in view of the violent youth uprisings of the last two decades, respect for human rights should be inculcated in the minds of children at a young age. Children should study the International Convention on the Rights of the Child and know their rights and duties as children and future citizens. Children who know their rights will better appreciate their value when, as adults, they acquire positions of authority. Such knowledge can also give them self-confidence, direction in life, as well as ability to play a role in a democratic society.

Target Group

We began our human and child rights program for schoolchildren in 1997. It includes the teaching of ethical values. Our target group is schoolchildren in the Ordinary Level and Post Ordinary Level grades (15 years old and above)

since they are reasonably mature and aware of basic rights or their denial in some form (irrespective of whether they perceive it as such) and have encountered some aspects of rights in social studies. As lawyers who strive to encourage people not only to know their rights but also to exercise them, we designed our program not as an academic exercise but as a practical guide. We project the law as an agent of societal change and people as having the power to effect changes.

Since we cannot educate all the students in a school, we educate student leaders or school prefects, who then impart their knowledge to other students. We choose students by inviting 10 schools in an educational zone to send 10 student leaders and 2 teachers each. Each program thus has a minimum of 100 students and 20 teachers.

Implementation

Initially, we envisaged a 3-4 hour program for about 75 schoolchildren and 25 teachers. We also intended to conduct these programs on a district basis. Sri Lanka is divided into 9 provinces and 26 administrative districts. We have no programs in the war-torn north and east, where of the eight administrative districts seven are affected by the war and one remains a high-risk area.

The children were not sensitized to rights but were keen to learn. However, it became clear that the 3-4 hour program was too short as it was the children's first exposure to a program that invited, and challenged, them to think. The education system is heavily teacher-centered and encourages passivity. Although the children had encountered the concept of human rights in social studies, the curriculum treats the topic as something to be crammed and regurgitated for examinations. It also presents human rights like a list from a fairy tale and not as something won through hard work or as threatened and needing protection. It is also highly unlikely that the topic of human

rights is subjected to critical evaluation or related to actual circumstances that children can identify within the school. Consequently, children lack the seriousness and attention that discussions on human rights deserve. Thus our program is an entirely new experience to children and we now allocate a whole day for it.

The program is organized for us by the Department of Education. Before long, the directors of education in several districts were informing us that more children wished to participate. Now we accommodate a minimum of 100 children and 25 teachers per program. Once held only at the district level, the programs are now held at the zone level. A district has several zones. We felt that educating 100 students in a vast area such as a district would not create much impact. Since the program's second year, we have therefore conducted the program at the zone level.

Sri Lanka has a provincial system of governance, with the provinces responsible for education or sharing responsibility with the central government. Most schools are governed by a Provincial Council, which can decide to allow the program at any level in the Provincial Council System, be it provincial, district, or zone. If LHRD is able to convince the provincial educational authorities that the program should be held, it naturally gains access to a large number of schools in the whole province. Administrative structures are politicized from top to bottom, yet we have not met opposition to the program. Some directors of education are so convinced of the program's importance that they take a personal interest in organizing it, finding venues for it, or even scheduling it in the future. Overall, the government authorities have been very supportive.

School authorities have also been supportive. Some even inquire about the possibility of conducting the program in their schools. While a few teachers have raised questions on the propriety of teaching children their rights, their concerns stem mainly from the fear that the program will cause a breakdown of discipline

at home, in school, and in society in general. However, we are happy to note that even teachers commend our program.

In 1997, we conducted the program 10 times; in 1998, 16; and in 1999, 15; 3,765 students and 837 teachers representing 433 schools in 37 educational zones in 10 districts participated in the program. Next year we intend to continue to conduct a few direct training programs for schoolchildren. We also hope to train teachers as master trainers to enable them to carry out programs under our direction and/or supervision. This, we believe, is a more sustainable way of conducting the program.

Program Content

The program primarily focuses on child rights as an integral part of human rights. It critically assesses (i) international human rights instruments and their relevance and importance to the realization of human rights, (ii) the role we can play in promoting and protecting human rights, and (iii) our duty to society.

Topics are (i) human rights law, (ii) the Convention on the Rights of the Child and its importance, (iii) child rights protected in law, and (iv) health as a right of children.

Under the topic of human rights law, we discuss (i) the definition of human rights, (ii) the struggle for human rights, and (iii) the development and significance of international instruments such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. We also discuss the growth and expansion of the concept of human rights as evidenced in (i) the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, (ii) the fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution of Sri Lanka, and (iii) the difference between human rights and fundamental rights. The program stresses the use of examples that will help children identify the prac-

tical aspects of rights. This topic is led by an LHRD resource person.

In discussing the International Convention on the Rights of the Child and its importance, educators touch on (i) the origin of the convention, (ii) obligations arising from ratification, (iii) the nature of the obligations, (iv) how the UN monitors compliance with the convention, (v) steps Sri Lanka has taken to fulfill its obligations, and (vi) the content of the convention, with special emphasis on the rights to identity, education, nutrition, and parental care, and the right to be heard. A resource person from Save the Children (UK) or LHRD leads the discussion.

During the session on child rights protected in law, discussions focus on (i) laws that protect children and (ii) their enforcement and enforcement mechanisms. Students also learn how to access the various institutions and how to seek remedial measures. A resource person from LHRD or the Attorney General's Department discusses these topics.

The program's ethical-values component discusses (i) fundamental rights and duties, and (ii) ethical and moral values supported by religious teaching and traditions. The discussion is led by a retired director of education.

In the first two years of the program, the children discuss topics in the first session and do group work in the second session. In the third year, they discuss the right to health in place of group work in order to save time, as the children must be home before dark. Another reason is that group work is not feasible when there are more than 100 participants in a one-day program.

During discussions on the right to health, the children explore (i) what health means, (ii) existing norms of health, (iii) health myths, (iv) discriminatory health practices, and (v) reproductive health. Health is presented not as mere physical health, but also as mental and spiritual health. An expert from the Health Education Bureau of the Department of Public Health discusses these topics.

Methodology

To deal with the high number of participants, we usually adopt an interactive discussion with the use of audio-visuals—a method that encourages children to actively participate in the sessions. Children are also given an opportunity to pose questions or present their views and observations at the end of the discussion. Perhaps fearing censure from adults (teachers being present), the children also write down their queries, which are then discussed in an open forum. The children's queries are not necessarily limited to the matters discussed. They mirror the children's awareness of social issues, their eagerness to learn, and their willingness to contribute to the betterment of children.

Random samples of questions show the nature and range of children's interests:

- Why is child abuse on the rise in spite of all the conventions and laws in place?
- What can a child do when punishment is extreme or disproportionate to the offense? Examples of such punishment are the withholding admission cards to sit for an exam or suspension from school for having a romantic relationship with a fellow student, proof of which is usually love letters discovered by school authorities.
- If the right to life is a human right, why is the death sentence to be reintroduced?
- Does the granting of a presidential pardon to a person sentenced to death undermine the judiciary's independence?
- Is it fair for the President to be granted immunity from suit?
- Why does labor misuse its right to organize by engaging in frequent strikes?
- Does having all the rights listed in the International Convention on the Rights of the Child encourage children to grow to their fullest potential? Should children be allowed so many rights?
- When officials tasked with the protection of adults and children abuse their authority, what recourse is available? What steps

can be taken in the face of official inaction or partiality in respect of a complaint?

- Does the legal system in Sri Lanka deliver justice?
- When children engage in prostitution of their own free will, how can society be protected from it?
- The children also ask questions on forced marriage of girls, sexuality, sexual orientation, the need to stipulate the age of marriage, the lack of social justice, and unequal opportunities for education.

In almost all the programs, children express their willingness to help the disadvantaged or those in difficult situations and wanted practical information on how it could be done.

In the group work, participants are divided into seven groups. (Teachers meet as a separate group.) Separate files on different topics are given to group members for discussion. Discussion ensues after a group member presents observations and viewpoints on a given topic. A group file generally contains a number of press clippings relating to specific incidences that can be classified under a particular topic. It also contains a questionnaire. Some of the topics discussed by students are physical punishment as a disciplinary measure, teenage suicides (Sri Lanka has the highest suicide rate in the world), child labor, sexual abuse, adults infringing on the rights of children, children infringing on the rights of other children, etc. For example, in the file on the last topic we include press clippings relating to “ragging.” (Initially started as a form of welcome to newcomers to institutes of higher education, it has now become an oppressive system of untold harassment, and has even resulted in deaths. Ragging has now spread to schools.) We also include clippings on children who have been disabled as a result of physical violence that erupted over trivial matters, and so on.

The children’s response to the questionnaire shows the many nonphysical ways children can deprive other children of their rights. Not re-

turning or defacing a library book is an example. In the file on adults violating the rights of children, we include press clippings about acts of cruelty (both physical and emotional), sexual abuse, and employment of minors under slavery-like conditions by persons who are generally expected to protect children: parents and other close relatives, teachers, education authorities, religious leaders, and social activists, etc. Apart from wanting to elicit responses from the children, we also want to make them aware that abuses are more than likely to be committed by individuals in whom they naturally trust.

The duplicate files given to the group of teachers contain appropriate press clippings reporting teachers’ involvement in the promotion or violation of rights. The teacher group is not expected to report to the participants, but to reflect on and discuss the promotion of child rights.

During group work, children’s responses are naturally channeled through the topics. Once their responses are made known in the open forum, children and teachers discuss and debate them.

All the lecture-discussions are directed at achieving practical results, enlisting the participants’ support for imparting their knowledge to more students and teachers, and protecting human and child rights by bringing violations to the attention of the authorities.

Assessment of the Program

At the end of the program, two students—a girl and a boy—and a teacher are asked to express their opinions on the program. They almost always highly praise the program. Although poor transportation makes it difficult to attend the program and although they must walk long distances, sometimes in bad weather or in darkness, the participants all remain until the program ends at around 3:30 or 4 p.m.

We are concerned that this is not the most satisfactory system of evaluating the program’s

impact. But considering the volume of work handled by LHRD and the high number of participants in the program annually, it is not possible to actively pursue a follow-up. In the first year, we gave all participants a questionnaire for purposes of evaluation, but time constraints demand that we come up with an alternative.

Several students (and even parents and teachers) have brought incidents of child abuse to our attention and sought our intervention. Sometimes they write to us to discuss issues affecting them or to seek legal assistance, for themselves or someone else. Most of the letters focus on legal rights they have been denied or seek clarification on rights. Sometimes children seek our direct intervention in some matter directly affecting them, be it at home, school, or some other place. These to us are indicators of the impact the program has had on children.

Other indicators are the participants' suggestions to improve the quality of the program. Upon their request, we now include in their files a synopsis of the day's program and a simplified version of the International Convention on the Rights of the Child. Allocating almost an entire day for the program was also their idea, as was including more practical aspects of the topics discussed. We never intended to formalize the program by awarding certificates, but the children and even teachers repeatedly asked for them. That to us was an indicator that they valued the training. They also repeatedly ask for adult education. Although we do have many educational programs for adults on the same themes (with different emphasis), they are not held in the same areas as the children's program since we do not want to geographically limit our areas of activity.

We are now at the stage where we can move away from conducting direct programs. In

2000, we hope to bring down the number of direct programs to six and to conduct five training-of-trainers programs in order to allow a more sustainable program to evolve. The trainers will be supported and guided for a limited period, and thereafter they will be responsible for continuing activities that promote human and child rights. The direct programs will use the 1998 program as a model, while the training of trainers will be conducted at a two-day workshop.

Annex

Contents of the Program

- Definition of human rights.
- The historical struggle for human rights.
- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights; the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and their relevance to the protection and promotion of human rights.
- Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women and the growth and expansion of the concept of human rights.
- Right to life.
- Fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution.
- International Convention on the Rights of the Child.
- Laws protecting child rights, and their enforcement.
- Role of the community in preventing child abuse and protecting child rights.
- Fundamental rights and fundamental duties.
- Ethical and moral values supported by religious teachings and traditions.

Korea: Improving Human Rights Education in Schools

MYUNG-JOON LEE

The human rights struggle in Korea has had rough sailing since 1945, especially in the wake of the Korean War and the economic and political turmoil that followed. Yet Korea has not abandoned its efforts, begun even before 1945, to improve the human rights situation.¹ For one thing, it is trying to improve human rights education in the school system.

I show how and in what schools human rights are taught, and discuss human rights education curriculums and textbooks. I also propose changes in the law and in the school curriculum to enhance human rights education. I focus on moral education and social studies—the subjects most related to human rights education. Finally, I make a few suggestions on how to effectively implement human rights education in schools.

Laws Regulating Human Rights Education in Schools

As in most modern states, in Korea laws and government permission are necessary to conduct human rights education or to teach any other subject in schools. In Korea, the Education Law provides that all the basic rights of learners should be respected and protected during their school years and life-long education (Article 12 [1]), and that curriculums, methods, materials, and facilities should develop the learner's character and individuality (Article 12 [2]). Article 4 states that people should not be discriminated against on account of their sex, religion, belief, social and economic status, or physical condition, among other characteristics. Article 28 provides for flexible curriculums for the disabled.

The law, however, is silent on human rights education in schools. Thus, the government has proposed the Human Rights Law, which will include human rights education in schools in 2000 and provide for the creation of the National Human Rights Commission, which will protect human rights and educate the public about them. The proposed law also mandates that the Ministry of Education (MOE) shall include human rights education in the national curriculum and teach it in primary and secondary schools.

In response, MOE, together with the Korea National Commission for UNESCO (KNCU), plans to conduct a teachers' training program on human rights in order to implement human rights education in schools in 2000. MOE and KNCU will also have separate teachers' training programs for human rights education after 2000. The programs will be part of International Understanding Education in both institutions. The Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE) also has a project to systematize the teaching of human rights education in schools in 2000.

Analysis of Primary-school Curriculums and Textbooks

Primary education in Korea has been free and compulsory since 1953. Current elementary enrollment rate is 99.9%, meaning that practically every child is enrolled and gets an elementary education.²

An accelerated grade advancement system was recently introduced to allow bright children to skip a grade. To expand and activate foreign language education, English has been taught two hours a week beginning in the third grade since 1997.

The incorporation of human rights education in the primary-level curriculum is still not satisfactory. But with MOE, KNCU, KICE, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)

passionately promoting it, improvements are expected in the future.

In order to have an idea of the status of human rights education, let us examine the national curriculum on moral education. Pupils in Grades 1 and 2 do not take up the subject, but do study a subject called righteous life. The sixth national curriculum (1992-1999) and the seventh revised national curriculum (to be implemented after 2000) in moral education from Grades 3 to 6 include human-rights-related topics such as respect for life, respect for parents and elders, fairness, democracy, peace, caring, responsibility, and so on. However, as Table 1 shows, moral education at the primary level does not emphasize natural rights, freedom, or ownership.

<i>Curriculum, subject, and grade</i>	<i>Main values and virtues</i>	
	<i>Sixth national curriculum (since 1992)</i>	<i>Seventh national curriculum (after 2000)</i>
Personal ethics Grades 3-6	Respect for life Self-reliance Sincerity Thriftiness Will to practice*	Respect for life Self-reliance Sincerity Thriftiness Honesty*
Ethics in family, among neighbors, school Grades 3-6	Manner in the family* Manner at school* Love for country Tolerance Respect	Love for school and country Tolerance Respect Cooperation* Respect for parents*
Social ethics Grades 3-6	Public order* Cooperation* Public interest* Fairness* Democratic procedure*	Respect for the law* Caring* Environment* Justice* Community spirit*
Ethics in nation and state Grades 3-6	Love for the state Love for the nation Unification* International fellowship* Love for humanity	Love for the state Love for the nation Peace and unification* National security* Love for humanity

Source: MOE, *The National Curriculum of Primary and Secondary Schools*, 1997, pp. 119-41.

*Difference between the sixth and seventh revised curriculums.

The social studies curriculum includes three main subjects: (i) autonomy in decentralized government; (ii) self-reliant citizenship; and (iii) life in a democratic state. However, Grades 1 and 2 do not study “social studies,” but rather “enlightened living.” The sixth national social studies curriculum for Grades 3-6 includes legislation, democratic constitutions, democratic procedures, and other topics related to the role, responsibility, and duty of an individual and of society as a whole. The seventh revised national social studies curriculum for Grades 3-6 includes the right to vote, protection of the environment (or right to an ecologically balanced environment), autonomy of local government, democracy, freedom to participate in public affairs, the importance of human rights, the political system and its function, duties of a citizen, and so on (Table 2).

Even though the Constitution stresses human rights education, the school curriculum does not directly reflect it. For example, moral

education does not directly teach the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, the International Bill of Human Rights, and so on. Social studies has the same problem. Still, Korea has been trying to incorporate the spirit of these documents in its national curriculum since 1954, although with limited success.

Textbooks on moral education and social studies, where human rights education is mostly incorporated, include human rights concepts. Textbooks on moral education have chapters such as “Laws to Observe,” with topics such as “Why should I observe traffic laws?” and “Why should I observe public order?” (*Morals*, a textbook for Grade 3, 1998, pp. 46-55). “The Importance of Life,” for example, discusses why life is more important than anything else. It is the story of a yacht team that participated in the 1988 Summer Olympic Games in Seoul, which gave up the race to save

TABLE 2. Main Values and Concepts in the Sixth and Seventh Revised National Curriculum on Social Studies, Grades 3-6

Curriculum, subject, and grade	Main values and concepts	
	Sixth national curriculum (since 1992)	Seventh national curriculum (after 2000)
Autonomy of local government: Grade 4	Citizen's duties Social responsibility Improving private and public life	Voting for representatives Protection of the environment Preservation of cultural heritage Autonomous solution of local problems Autonomy of local government
Self-reliant citizenship	Laws relating to social order and freedom Rational and autonomous decision making Voting for representatives Citizen's rights and duties	Not applicable
Life in a democratic state: Grade 6	Life under a democracy Democratic constitution Check and balance in the political system Free-market economy Democratic procedure	Democracy in Korea Freedom to participate in political life Importance of human rights Political system and its function Citizen's duties

Source: MOE, *Introduction to Primary School National Curriculum*, 1994, pp. 190-205; MOE, *The Curriculum for Social Studies*, 1997, pp. 31-49.

other team members from drowning (*Morals*, a textbook for Grade 5, 1998, pp. 4-13).

Social studies textbooks have chapters such as “Local Government,” which discusses what local residents want, how to build a consensus on local issues through autonomous village meetings, and what local governments do for citizens (*Social Studies*, a textbook for Grade 4, 1997, pp. 90-128). “What is Self-reliance?” discusses autonomous living, how to elect a representative, why people should follow rules, who makes the law, what policemen do, and what freedom is. “Democracy and Politics in Korea” discusses how to lobby for laws to preserve nature and how to achieve autonomy in local government. “The Individual and the State” discusses the function of law in democracy and how to achieve autonomy in local government (*Social Studies*, a textbook for Grade 5, 1997, pp. 95-143).

Primary-school textbooks are currently being written under the seventh revised national curriculum, which will be implemented after 2000. But the revised curriculum, as in the past, does not seem to have any comprehensive plan or intention to systematically implement human rights education in schools. Nevertheless, KICE and KNCU plan to conduct joint research on how to systematize and organize human rights education in the school curriculum in 2000. The research team will analyze human rights education in Korean schools and compare it with that of other countries. Then it will propose how to organize and implement human rights education in schools. It is hoped that it will help improve human rights education. It will collect some basic materials on human rights such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, the International Bill of Human Rights, and so on for use by teachers in the classroom.

Analysis of Secondary-school Curriculum and Textbooks

Secondary education (Grades 7-9) is also free and compulsory.³ To maintain high-quality secondary education, the Elementary and Secondary Education Law provides that schools shall administer the curriculum. MOE is in charge of developing the national curriculum, which is supposed to be the standard for the school curriculum. However, the national curriculum allows individual schools to be flexible in applying it in pursuit of educational aims.⁴

Human rights education has been briefly mentioned in the secondary-school national curriculum since 1954 in moral education and social studies subjects. However, human rights education has not been systematically incorporated into textbooks.

The sixth and seventh national curriculums on moral education for Grades 7-10 take up the following human-rights-related topics: respect for individuality; right to happiness; personality development; respect for parents; love for family and siblings; social responsibility; fairness; equality; democracy; individualism; liberalism; volunteerism; community spirit; social duty; and so on. As at the primary level, however, moral education at the secondary level does not systematically develop human rights concepts such as human dignity, ownership, and so on. Moral education as a whole does not directly teach the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the International Bill of Human Rights. Still, it does try to incorporate the spirit of these documents in the national curriculum.

Social studies in secondary-school curriculum includes some human rights concepts such as natural rights, right to life, civil and political rights (equality before the law, freedom to participate in public affairs, etc.), economic and social rights, cultural rights, and right to a clean environment. However, it does not deal with

them in terms of human rights education. The concepts are unsystematically discussed in social studies textbooks for Grades 7-10. As in primary school, the subject of human rights is not dealt with separately from other subjects.

Human rights concepts in moral education textbooks include such chapters as “Democratic Society and Respect for People,” “What is a Welfare Society?” and “What are Economic Ethics?” (*Morals*, a textbook for Grade 9, pp. 142-215).

Social Studies textbooks (1997) for Grades 8 and 9 briefly mention the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Amnesty International, the French Revolution of 1789, and so on, but not in detail and not systematically. For example, the fact that promotion of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is a function of the United Nations is discussed in four sentences. Three sentences are allotted to explaining that Amnesty International is an NGO that promotes human rights. Other concepts are enumerated without explanation, such as democracy, inalienable rights, right to happiness, respect for human rights, right to social security, justice, right to property, freedom of expression, liberty, and security of person.

Textbooks for secondary schools are also being written under the seventh revised national curriculum, which, however, like the sixth national curriculum, does not have any comprehensive system or intention to implement human rights education.

Conclusion

People all over the world recognize human rights as paramount. Human rights are at the center of people’s daily life. To secure human rights is to secure happiness. In other words, respect for human rights is the minimum condition for people’s happiness. Human rights are universal. They may differ in application from culture to culture and from place to place, but the principle behind them is the same. Hu-

man rights education should show students how to secure their own rights, how to respond to duties and responsibilities, how to harmonize conflicting rights, and so on.

To improve human rights education in schools, the following are suggested:

- Human rights education must be taught as an independent subject, whether elective or not.
- It is necessary to develop as soon as possible many human rights education programs and materials for discretionary and extracurricular activities, especially since discretionary activities are introduced into the seventh national curriculum.
- Teachers must be prepared to teach human rights education. MOE and local governments should provide them with learning opportunities.

Notes

1. Beer (1991: 266) describes the history of human rights in Korea as follows. In the late 1800s, human rights ideas began to emerge as the country came under foreign control. Japan passed a series of laws in its effort to absorb Korea politically. These laws formed part of the development of a modern legal system in Korea. Militant human rights movements such as the Equalization Society of the 1920s were not easily accepted by nationalists, who had different visions of achieving independence.

After Liberation in 1945, concerns for human rights and democracy, which were part of the politics of the March First Movement of 1919 and other pre-Liberation groups, intensified internal conflict, leading to division, poverty, war, and repression. Savage civil conflict in 1945-1953 widened the division between South and North and heightened the tension in the South, weakening the foundations of democracy and liberty. No constitution in independent South Korea lasted longer than the ruler behind its inception. Widespread clamor for democracy was met with torture and repression by successive governments. The uncompromising stand and rigidity of some elements in the opposition invited this kind of state reaction.

2. *Elementary School Statistics in Korea (1999).*

Classification	Schools			Classes and departments	Students	Teachers
	Total	(national and public)	Private			
Elementary schools	5,544 (17)	5,468 (17)	76	111,184	3,935,469	137,576

MOE, *Education in Korea, 1998-1999*, p. 11.

3. *Secondary School Statistics in Korea (1999).*

Classification	Schools			Classes and departments	Students	Teachers
	Total	(national and public)	Private			
Elementary schools	3,119 (27)	2,051 (27)	1,644	49,259	4,177,547	199,273

MOE, *Education in Korea, 1998-1999*, p. 11.

4. “The new [seventh] revised national curriculum was developed in 1997. It will gradually come into effect for the first and second grades of elementary school in 2000 and for high school seniors in 2004. The seventh revised curriculum introduces a basic common curriculum that covers the ten years from the first year of primary school to the first year of high school (Grades 1 to 10), and elective curriculum for the final two years of high school.” MOE, *Korean Education for the New Millennium, 1999-2000*, p. 6.

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Mongolia: Human Rights Education in Schools

NARANGEREL RINCHIN

Mongolia has a legacy of respecting human rights, freedom, justice, and national unity. As a member of the United Nations, it has ratified over 20 international instruments, including the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (both in 1974); the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1969); and the International Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990). Mongolian laws incorporating the principles of human rights and freedom are now awaiting implementation.

The chapter on human rights and freedom in the 1992 Constitution states that everyone is an equal legal subject, and any discrimination based on racial origin, nationality, language, age, gender, social origin, status, economic condition, official position, religion, opinion, or educational attainment is not allowed. It declares the basic political, social, economic, cultural, ecological, and other rights of citizens: the rights to personal security; to live in a healthy and safe environment; to acquire, possess, own, or inherit property; to freely choose education; to protect one's own health; to receive medical care; to participate in government directly or through a representative organization; to either worship or not; to freely express one's own opinion; and to organize peaceful demonstrations. It also respects freedom of the press.

The possibilities for realizing the universal principles of human rights and freedom, especially those of children and the youth, are therefore wide ranging. The formal and informal education systems have been developing in support of this goal.

In 1996, the Mongolian Parliament enacted the Law on Child Rights, which implements

the provisions of the International Convention on the Rights of the Child. The recently revised Law on Education of Mongolia (1998) spells out much more clearly the rights and duties of students and teachers at all levels of education. The Constitution guarantees the inclusion of international principles and norms in public legal education programs.

Human Rights Education in Primary and Secondary Schools

Primary and secondary education is divided into the primary level (4 years), fundamental level (8 years), and secondary level (10 years).¹

Human and child rights are studied both directly and indirectly in kindergarten and at the primary and secondary levels, as provided by the 1998-1999 curriculum for primary and secondary levels. Preschool education consists of systematically organized activities to help children obtain skills that meet their needs and interests from the time of birth until they enroll in school. It gives children the basic knowledge of human rights while teaching them correct self-expression, how to understand and speak to others, and good habits, and helps

them understand culture, customs, and etiquette. At the primary level, children learn skills in reading, writing, and speech by freely expressing their own thoughts, through counting, and by gaining elementary knowledge about nature, social life, health, ethics, labor, citizenship, and human rights. The children also learn about national customs, their cultural legacy, justice, hygiene, the value of labor, and teamwork. Knowledge, skills, direction, and critical thinking acquired at the secondary level form the foundation for human rights education and are needed not only for higher education but also for molding good citizens.

In accordance with the education law, the standard curriculums for primary and secondary levels are determined by the Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Culture (MESTC) while the National Center on Metrology and Standardization certifies the standard. At the primary level, human rights education is integrated with other subjects such as social studies and humanities.

Moral Education at the Primary Level (Grades 1-4)

Human rights are studied at the primary level as part of moral education, Mongolian language, and literature. Moral education teaches national customs, respect for parents and teachers, and basic human rights.

Ethics at the Secondary Level (Grades 4-8)

In Grade 5, the elementary ethics subject introduces children to concepts such as humanism, patriotism, friendship, justice, and ethical conduct.

Legal Education at the Secondary Level

Citizen's rights, freedoms, and their basic principles as provided in the Constitution are studied in Grades 6-8. Legal education, studied as an independent subject in Grades 6-8, includes the constitutional concepts of civil rights and duties, and freedom. It also poses the following questions: "What is national in-

Curriculum for Social Studies in Primary and Secondary Schools, 1998-1999

Subject	Total hours per year (by grade)												
	1	2	3	4	Total	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Moral Education	52	68	68	68	256								
Total	52	68	68	68	256								
History and national culture						68							
History of world civilization; ethics							70						
History of world civilization; legal education								87					
Mongolian history; legal education									87				
Mongolian history										88			
Social Science											36	72	
Total						68	70	87	87	88	36	72	508

dependence?” “What is a democratic political system?” “What is an election? How do people participate in it?” “How do we manage human rights?” “How can people enjoy their rights?” “What are civil duties?” It also introduces the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the International Bill of Human Rights.

Social Science in the Upper Secondary Level (Grades 9-10)

Social science covers four main topics: politics; economics; the legislative process; and philosophy. Human rights are studied in these fields in detail. Social science includes general knowledge of freedom, equality, principles of democracy, the Constitution, the Constitutional Court, crime, punishment, investigation, the judiciary, the economic system, and so on.

There is still no separate subject on human rights at the primary and secondary levels. MESTC, in cooperation with the Mongolian Open Society Institute, will be implementing a special program on human rights at the basic school levels (Grades 1-10) beginning in school year 2000.

For this fundamental change in the human rights education program, innovations in subject content and in the curriculum were made, and textbooks for teachers and students published.

The following are examples of human rights education programs:

Human Rights I

Level: Primary school (children 7-12 years old)

Objectives: Enable children to do the following:

- Define their rights and duties in everyday life through simple examples.

- Respect the rights of others.
- Understand freedom.
- learn how to exercise their rights and perform their duties.

Content:

- The rights of children and adults—their differences.
- What rights and duties does a child have?
- Any action should be made in accordance with law.

Human Rights II

Level: Secondary school

Objectives:

- Enrich previously acquired knowledge on human rights, freedom, legal protection of human rights, the role of law in individual and social life, and legal relations.
- Enhance the capability of children and youth to use the law to protect their rights.

Content:

- Basic rights (political, social, economic, cultural) and duties.

Human Rights III

Level: High school, technical and vocational schools

Objectives:

- Give students more knowledge about specific laws.
- Enable students to enter into special legal relations and behave properly within the legal framework.

Content:

- Laws on social welfare, business, government, taxation, and ecology; and against corruption.

Extracurricular programs

Extracurricular programs have been developed mainly by the Informal Education Center and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). The center works with other education centers in all provinces in managing citizens' education programs. It has produced a number of textbooks on human rights and developed programs on human rights education.

MESTC is implementing a special study program called Human Rights Education in secondary schools in 2000.

The field office of the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights initiated a special tertiary-level course that over 70,000 students in state and non-state universities began to take up in school year 1999-2000.

In cooperation with UNESCO, the government has been implementing a Distance Learning program for adults, reaching out to 36,000 families. Courses on human rights and democracy play a significant role in the program. A textbook on human rights and local government was published and used in a nationwide radio training.

MESTC and NGOs hold joint retraining activities focusing on human rights education for teachers. The field office of the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights organizes annual 7-10-day training sessions on human rights education for teachers at various levels (kindergarten, primary, secondary, and tertiary) and for officers of NGOs and governmental organizations.

The Mongolian Open Society Institute has also produced a textbook on human rights and organizes training for all basic-education teachers. Other institutions (the Informal Education Center, Academy of Political Education, Center for Children's Rights Protection, and other NGOs) organize similar training activities.

The Center for Citizenship Education (CCE) is a nonpartisan, nonprofit, independent NGO founded in 1992. It implements

short- and long-term projects that help promote civil society in Mongolia, inform the public of the importance of civics, contribute to reforming Mongolia's education system, and support the nonprofit sector.

CCE's mission is to contribute to the development of civil society by educating citizens through the Civic and Human Rights Education Program and the NGO Support Unit Program. Teachers and NGO leaders play different community leadership roles. By bringing the two groups together CCE also helps them learn from each other.

CCE has developed rapidly along with the NGO sector in its first year and a half. It has conducted most of the management training with occasional volunteer guest presenters and mobilized a core of 28 volunteer trainers to conduct most of the Civic and Human Rights Education courses.

CCE Support Unit

The NGO Support Unit did the following, among other activities:

- Conducted a 17-day training-the-trainer seminar, with 33 participants, on NGO management and civic education for the volunteer training corps
- Developed a modest library.
- Published two issues of the experimental *NGO News*, which were distributed at workshops and meetings.

Civic and Human Rights Education Program

The program did the following:

- Implemented its programs jointly with the Ministry of Education of Mongolia.
- Translated, adapted, and published the textbook *Democracy for All*.
- Implemented We the People—Project Citizen, and translated, adapted, and published *Project Citizen*, with support from the US-based Center for Civic Education.

- Conceptualized and conducted training workshops for teachers of civic and human rights education and for NGO leaders.
- Conducted 75 days of civic and human rights education training of 1,639 teachers and school administrators.

NGOs also provide legal consultation services and help protect the rights of children and women against violence in the family and other human rights violations.

Survey on Human Rights Consciousness

A survey of 152 people was conducted to find out the extent of understanding of human rights among various social groups, especially teachers and students at the basic and tertiary levels.²

In response to the question “What knowledge and training on human rights do students receive in basic schools?” respondents mentioned that classes in history and sociology provide an elementary understanding of human rights as defined by the Constitution. 77.5% said that human rights are discussed only very briefly and in a limited way.

To the question “Are there any proven human rights violations in basic schools?” 98.6% listed the following violations: humiliation of students by teachers inside the classroom; superficial participation of students in school head councils; teachers’ stereotyped view of students; breaches of relations between students and teachers; excessive subject load that limits deeper learning; widespread pressure on students; and reprisals against students by teachers. There is evidence that students are physically punished for not doing their homework, and that teachers sometimes teach while drunk. 46.1% of the respondents favor the development of new subjects on human rights; 32.6% want special rules on human rights to be enforced in secondary schools; 30.7% want human rights to be integrated in history and humanities subjects; 19.2% want special pedagogical

activities in learning human rights; and 15.3% want human rights to be integrated in history and sociology subjects.

These findings clearly indicate that human rights education is a valuable component of general education. The respondents’ input is important to developing human rights education programs that will make human rights less theoretical and promote self-reliance of students through individual activities.

The general human rights situation in the country should also be considered in developing a human rights education program. Children’s rights are often violated. In 1998, for example, 4,000 children lived in poverty, 40,000 dropped out of school (including 1,200 in Ulaan Baatar—the capital city), and over 5,000 live on the street (including more than 1,000 in Ulaan Baatar). Such children are prone to get involved in robbery, prostitution, and hooliganism; to become immoral; and to lose their spirituality and other good qualities.

Objectives of Human Rights Education

Human rights education should have the following objectives:

- Assess training content, facilities, and teaching staff ability using international human rights education standards, principles, and norms.
- Define an assessment method for human rights education, its objectives, content, form, and results. This method will then become the national system and constitute the legal support for human rights education in schools.
- Develop human rights education programs for all levels of education, which integrate human rights in general as well as specific professional courses.
- Develop curriculums, teaching methodologies, and other technical aspects of human rights education, and prepare textbooks, and manuals for teachers and students.

- Train human rights teachers, and promote retraining of teachers of basic secondary schools through short- or long-term training courses and workshops.
 - Create conditions through human rights education activities favorable to ensuring collaboration in promoting equality, justice, and human rights within the family and society.
 - Guarantee and secure the rights and duties of children and youth, especially their right to education, through pertinent amendments to education laws in accordance with international human rights norms.
 - Implement the right to education in the informal and formal education systems by raising the level of education of the whole population.
 - Broadcast Olympiads, competitions, and radio and television programs taking up human-rights-related topics to all students and teachers.
 - Organize lectures, seminars, and consultations about the rights, duties, and responsibilities of students; principles of discipline and ways of relating to students and parents; student organizations (leadership and membership); and groups in society.
- Pay attention to the right of children and women to self-development through access to books, news, experiments, and research, and through development of personal talent, knowledge, and skills in any field of interest.
 - Consider human rights education as a value in democratic development and adapt it to the nomadic lifestyle and civilization of the people of Mongolia with full regard for its relationship to human rights and freedom.

Notes

1. In 1998-1999, there were 447,121 students and 18,125 teachers in a total of 627 schools. The student/teacher ratio was 24.6:1. Of the total number of teachers, 28% are in the capital city and 72% in the rural areas. The enrollment rate is 98% at the primary level and about 90% at the secondary level (Statistical Information MESTC 1999).

2. Surveyed were officials of 23 *aimag* (provinces) and the Academy of Education in Ulaan Baatar, basic-education teachers, the Grade-8 students of school #33 in Ulaan Baatar, and first-year students of Tushee College (a non-state school).

Japan: Human Rights Education in Schools

YOSHIRO NABESHIMA, MARIKO AKUZAWA,
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The preamble of the 1946 Constitution of Japan states: “We, the Japanese people, desire peace for all time and are deeply conscious of the high ideals controlling human relationships,” and “We, the Japanese people, pledge our national honor to accomplish these high ideals and purposes with all our resources.” Respect for human rights is thus a major principle of Japanese society.

National Policies on Human Rights Education

Laws and Policies Regulating Education in Schools

In 1947, the Fundamental Law of Education was enacted because “the realization of this ideal [in the Constitution] depend[s] fundamentally on the power of education.” It states that people should acquire “the political knowledge necessary for intelligent citizenship” through all kinds of education. It also adopts the principles of equal educational opportunity and co-education.

In accordance with this law, the Ministry of Education (MOE) issued in 1947 the Course of Study for primary and secondary education. The Course of Study was initially a sample curriculum for schools. It became the national standard school curriculum in 1958 and was revised once during its first 10 years. The latest revision, announced in school year 1998-1999, will be implemented in 2002.

Human rights issues are integrated into social studies at several year levels. But systematic human rights education programs are not designated either as a subject or course or extracurricular subject. Issues such as independence, equality, human dignity, tolerance, and world peace are covered in moral education, but not human rights and freedom.

However, MOE funds and supervises local boards of education in promoting human rights education as “Dowa education” since the Law on Special Measures for Dowa Projects of 1969 was enacted. The major concern of Dowa education according to this law is to eliminate discrimination against *Burakumin* children.

The implementation of human rights education programs is left to local governments, schools, or teachers. But their limited power and resources have resulted in few human rights education programs. Most of the few high-quality human rights education programs are implemented only in schools where *Burakumin* children are enrolled.

In 1997, the government announced its National Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education. It requires all primary and secondary schools to incorporate comprehensive human rights education programs into their curriculums. But the plan is silent on when and how they should do so, what support the government will provide, or what resources are available.

The National Plan of Action lists the topics that should be tackled in human rights education, including problems of the *Burakumin*, women, children, the elderly, the disabled, Ainu (indigenous people), foreigners, people with HIV, and former prisoners. Human rights edu-

cation is minority oriented, emphasizing empathy toward discriminated-against minority groups more than universal concepts of human rights. It is also notable that a number of local governments have also adopted their own action plans, most of which simply follow the National Plan of Action.

Established in 1997, the National Council for Human Rights Policy announced in 1999 its first policy recommendation, which was expected to address the minority orientation of the National Plan of Action. However, it did not, and it is criticized by many people for pointing out the importance of human rights education without providing for supporting legislation or structures. It is also criticized for defining human rights education as “a mean[s] to promote mutual understanding among the Japanese nationals,” neglecting to mention the relationship between the government and the citizens, and regarding human rights education only as a means of making people sensitive to other people’s feelings.

Human Rights Education in School Curriculums, Materials, and Textbooks

The school system provides for six years of free and compulsory primary education (ages 6-11) and three years of free and compulsory junior high school education (ages 12-14), and three years of optional senior high school education (ages 15-17). The enrollment rate at senior high schools is approximately 95%.

MOE formulates primary and secondary school curriculums and screens textbooks. But municipal boards of education may choose textbooks for primary and junior high schools. Senior high schools choose textbooks themselves.

The local boards of education and the schools may, on their own initiative, provide free additional and extracurricular materials, including those for human rights education. Human rights education policies adopted by the prefectural boards of education are listed in the Table.

In addition to the Constitution, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, a few provisions of the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the International Bill of Human Rights, the following instruments are used in several social studies textbooks and human rights readers and materials at the primary and secondary school levels:

- Charter of the United Nations;
- International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination;
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women;
- (National) Law on Equal Employment Opportunity for Men and Women;
- Declaration of the Seitousha (the women’s liberation organization established in 1911);
- Declaration of the Suiheisha (the Burakumin liberation organization established in 1922);
- Universal Suffrage Law of 1925 (which gave the poor the right to vote);
- The Election Law of 1945 (which gave women the right to vote); and
- The Report of the National Council for Dowa Special Measures of 1965 (commonly known as the Do-Taishin-Toshin).

Extracurricular Human Rights Education Programs

Some local boards of education provide the following:

- poster/motto/essay competitions, speech contests on human rights; and
- supplementary education program for minority children (including Burakumin).

Some schools provide the following:

- community activities such as visiting handicapped people or discriminated-against communities;
- lectures on human rights by activists, lawyers, and community workers;
- domestic and international exchanges among schools;

	Existence of the UN Decade Action Plan for following body																				
	HRE policies of the local BOEs								Designation of following issues as BOE concern												
Prefectures	1. Survey response	2. HRE incorporation policy	3. HRE manual for teacher	4. HRE sample module books	5. Publication on HRE for children	6. HRE section in BOE office	7. HRE institute	8. HRE teacher training program	9. Education for handicapped	10. Gender free education	11. Dowa Education	12. Education for foreigners	13. Education for Aihu children	14. Convention on the rights of the children	15. Bully prevention	16. Education for international understanding	17. Peace education	18. Environment education	19. HIV education	20. Local government	21. Local BOE
Fukuoka	a			1	1	1	1	1			1	1			1					1	
Saga	a							1			1									1	
Nagasaki	a		1		1						1									1	
Kumamoto	a		1		1			1			1									1	
Oita	a					1					1									1	
Miyazaki	a		1		1	1					1										
Kagoshima	n.a.																				
Okinawa	n.a.																				
Total	30	8	11	13	7	8	5	17	4	3	26	6	1	3	10	3	0	6	3	21	2
Total no. of answers (%)	103	26.7	36.7	43.3	23.3	26.7	16.7	56.7	13.3	10.0	86.7	20.0	3.3	10.0	33.3	10.0	0.0	20.0	10.0	70.0	6.7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21

Notes

1. This table is based on a survey conducted by the Osaka City University and HURIGHTS OSAKA in October 1999.

2. BOE stands for Board of Education.

3. Ordinance-designated cities are not included in the list.

4. Prefectures which sent back filled-up survey forms are indicated with letter a, and those which have not sent back the forms are indicated with letters n.a.

- class discussions and school gatherings on human rights issues;
- plays, songs, and presentations on human rights issues performed by children at school and community festivals;
- movies and plays on human rights issues;
- study tours for senior high school students;
- human rights festivals open to the community;
- club activities concerning human rights issues; and
- programs to raise ethnic consciousness for Korean children. (Some schools hire specialists for their programs.)

Training of Teachers and Other Education Personnel

There is no national program or legislation for human rights education teacher training. The Teacher's License Law prescribes preservice training but does not require universities or colleges to have a human rights education teacher training program. Some universities and colleges, however, have their own Dowa education or human rights education program in the teacher education course in response to the petitions of the Buraku liberation movement and other human-rights-related social movements.

The local boards of education are responsible for the training of primary and secondary

public school teachers under the Local Government Employees Law and the Special Law for Local Teachers. The special law gives the local education boards the responsibility for planning and providing training, and gives teachers the right to receive training during their working hours. The content of the training programs is left to the local board's discretion.

Many local education boards require teachers to attend human rights training classes periodically. The classes are required for newly hired teachers, and then every five years. Classes, which are normally 2-4 hours long, are mostly lectures by researchers or board of education officers.

Many classes use participatory methods. Some local education boards fund voluntary teacher study groups (such as the Dowa Educators Association) for human rights education development. So far no specific teacher training programs or courses on human rights education have been developed.

Seminars and workshops are also organized by many local education boards. These activities provide information and teaching materials on human rights.

Opportunities and Obstacles

Since the government announced its National Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education, many local governments have been drawing up their own action plans to accelerate the incorporation of human rights education in schools (Table). In many cases, policies for both local governments and boards of education are prescribed in the local government action plan. Few local boards of education have their own action plans. The depth of commitment by each local government varies from place to place depending on the influence of social movements, especially the Buraku liberation movement.

The national course of study to be implemented in 2002 includes a new educational field called synthetic learning (*sogo-gakushu*). Synthetic learning aims to develop children's ability to engage in independent task finding, learning, thinking, decision-making and problem solving through activities the children themselves find interesting. Classroom teachers are fully responsible for designing curriculum and developing materials for synthetic learning. MOE allotted approximately 10% of total school hours to exploring this new area, which will benefit human rights education and decongest the curriculum.

The key obstacle to human rights education in the school system is the emphasis on school entrance examinations. Schools that incorporate human rights education into their curriculums usually face a strong reaction from parents who claim that the subject distracts students from their other academic work.

Another obstacle is teachers' low motivation to promote human rights education, as the curriculum is overloaded, teaching efforts are not evaluated, and payment is based on seniority. Teachers become bureaucratic and hesitate to take on additional tasks such as human rights education, which is not even fully authorized.

Backlash against human rights education is becoming a major obstacle. Several politicians, scholars, and journalists have recently claimed that moral education is more important than human rights education, as too much knowledge of human rights makes children forget their duties to society and their identity as Japanese. Beneath this argument lies a misunderstanding of human rights and individualism, and a culture of collectivism and ethnocentric nationalism.

Key Partners in Human Rights Education

Governmental departments

The Management and Coordination Agency (MCA) supports the development of human

rights education and enlightenment activities of the public sector.

Local branches of the Ministry of Justice (MOJ) conduct counseling on human rights violations. They also develop and conduct human rights consciousness-raising programs for their officials.

National human rights centers

MOE, MCA, and MOJ established the Center for Human Rights in 1997 in Tokyo. The center publishes books and other materials, publicizes information through the internet, and develops and conducts programs for national and local officials.

Academic institutions

Universities and colleges

Osaka University is the only university in Japan offering a graduate course in human rights education. Several universities in Osaka and Kyoto have research institutes for human rights or human rights education. They do surveys and researches, and usually publish the results in their journals. The School of International Human Rights (an independent graduate school) will soon be established in Osaka.

Local-government-supported institutes

Some local governments run institutes for human rights policy and education development. By October 1999, the Osaka, Nara, Tottori, Kochi, and Fukuoka prefectural governments were running such institutes (Table).

Others

The Buraku Liberation and Human Rights Research Institute, founded in 1972 in Osaka, promotes research on Buraku and human rights issues. Many books have been published based on its research results. The Asia-Pacific Human Rights Information Center, founded in 1994 in Osaka, collects and publicizes information on human rights. Many other local in-

stitutes do research on Buraku and human rights issues.

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and other groups

Dowa Educators' Associations exist in every city, town, and prefecture. Teachers at primary and junior high schools, senior high schools, and public and private schools have their own associations. The National Federation of Dowa Educators' Associations (Zenkoku) holds a yearly national assembly.

The National Residential Korean/Foreigners Education Study Conference (Zenchokyo) plays a similar role to Zenkoku in the area of ethnic minority education.

Other groups—the Buraku Liberation League and National Association of Disabled People, for example—play a role similar to that of the above organizations in relation to other minority education issues.

Many NGOs concerned with international affairs, official development assistance for developing countries, and related issues have been active in out-of-school human rights education. They can potentially raise the quality of human rights education through their influence on school education and their collaboration with school teachers.

The National Federation of Dowa Educator's Associations

Discrimination against people from Dowa districts is one of the most serious human rights violations in Japan. The Dowa education movement plays a leading role in establishing human rights education in schools by protecting the rights of children from Dowa districts, as well as by upholding human rights ideals. This chapter discusses the role of Dowa education by reviewing the history and policy changes of the National Federation of Dowa Educator's Associations.

Founded in 1953, the federation leads the Dowa education movement. For the past 20 years since its ninth assembly, it has held an annual assembly, with 20,000-30,000 teachers and other education personnel participating each time. It is one of the largest assemblies of teachers in Japan, with 34 affiliates.

The federation plays an important role in developing and spreading human rights education, including Dowa education. It holds regular, intensive discussions of its own policies and of Dowa education in order to respond to and influence educational policies.

The history of the Dowa education movement may be divided into three periods: (i) 1945-1965, (ii) 1966-1985, and (iii) 1986 to the present.

Development of Postwar Dowa Education (1945-1965)

Pre-federation

Shortly after World War II, many teachers who sought to make education more democratic were deeply impressed by the Buraku liberation movement. They started to conduct human-rights-centered education in schools. In history classes, they discussed the origin of discrimination against the Buraku and the civil rights provision of the Constitution. But they soon noticed that teaching was not enough, as Buraku children had low academic achievement, poor attendance, and high dropout rates. In one prefecture in the mid-1950s, one third of third-grade junior high school Buraku students had very poor attendance, compared to only 5% of other students. Few *Buraku* students proceeded to higher education. After graduating from junior high school, 90% started working, compared to 50% of other students.

The beginnings of Dowa education

The federation held its fourth to sixth national assemblies in 1955. Dowa education

methods developed remarkably that year. Teachers adopted the following measures: (i) fieldwork and interviews with people in Dowa districts besides statistical surveys; (ii) study of history and culture of each Dowa district; and (iii) having students write about their lives.

Fieldwork and interviews helped teachers grasp the reality of Buraku discrimination and the hopes of the people in Dowa districts. It was a challenge to learn Japanese history from the viewpoint of the oppressed. Writing their life history helped students take pride in their parents and determine what action to take to improve their lives.

The Fifth National Assembly resolved that all students should study Dowa issues. Teachers were encouraged to discuss Dowa issues in order to protect not only their students' human rights but their own as well. The assembly also called for an end to teachers' authoritarianism.

The federation's role in formulating national educational policies

To improve students' level of academic achievement, MOE began to strengthen its control over local educational policies. In 1956, it changed the method of choosing the members of the boards of education, from election by citizens to appointment by the chairpersons of the respective boards. Chairpersons could not and still cannot be chosen without approval of the education minister. MOE also started to conduct national academic achievement tests and compelled the principals to conduct merit evaluation of teachers. These policies were contained in the Economic Council Report "Tasks and Measures to Develop Human Power for Economic Development," which recommended the introduction of the meritocracy system.

MOE also started to control the ideological content of education. It strengthened textbook censorship in 1958, and requested authors to discuss the significance of the Emperor and his family.

The federation was critical of these policies. The 11th to 13th assemblies discussed them intensively and declared that “Dowa education is the means to realize the educational dreams of the oppressed students and parents. This movement must protect the human rights of the people.”

Lessons from discrimination

At the 16th assembly, Dowa education methods were further clarified:

- Dowa education should be accompanied by better educational conditions and government policies.
- Education should be undertaken jointly by children, teachers, parents, and the community.
- Teachers should learn and teach the history, culture, and life of the community.
- Teachers should continue to develop their educational philosophy.

In the 1960s, educational problems worsened. In 1963, the suicide rate among teenagers was seven a day. Juvenile delinquency increased, and 28.1% of all crimes were committed by juveniles. Soon it became clear that the federation’s ideas and methods were the answer to these problems.

The Dowa Policy (1965-1985)

Impact of the Report of the National Council on the Dowa Policy

Since the report was submitted in 1965, the number of schools designated for Dowa education has doubled. Local governments support them financially. MOE founded a scholarship for Buraku senior high-school students in 1966 and began to subsidize half of local governments’ Dowa education budgets. The 10-year plan under The Law on Special Measures for Dowa Projects of 1969 increased the subsidy to two thirds. The government started

designating areas for promoting Dowa education, and allowed local governments to increase the number of teachers in schools where Dowa education was implemented. The number of teachers increased by 624 in 1969-1973, by 384 in 1979, and by 1,260 in 1980-1991.

Prohibition of ekkyo

Local governments also started to prohibit *ekkyo* (going beyond the designated school districts) in 1965 as students who did not want to go to schools attended by Buraku children were moving to other school districts. The prohibition against *ekkyo* was a result of protests from the Dowa Educators’ Associations and the Buraku liberation movement.

For equality in employment opportunity

The federation’s campaigns to eradicate discrimination in job recruitment and employment were effective. In 1971, teachers and employers in several Kansai prefectures agreed to use the Standard Application Form made by the Dowa Educator’s Associations. MOE officially advised all local governments to respect the form. The following items were excluded from the form:

- map of the applicant’s neighborhood;
- applicant’s house size, ownership;
- applicant’s religious and political beliefs; and
- occupation and income of parents.

For better education for minority children

The Dowa Educators’ Associations conducted various projects to help Buraku and other poor and minority children to improve their educational achievement. It played a major role in developing in-school and out-of-school supplementary instructions for these children. The gap in the senior high-school entrance rate between Burakumin and other students declined from 36.8% in 1964 to 12.2% in 1972,

and to 6.3% in 1987. The gap in the university entrance rate declined from 23.3% in 1980 to 18.8% in 1985, and to 11.4% in 1986.

For effective antidiscrimination education

Supplementary Dowa readers (human rights education readers, in fact) were disseminated beginning in 1970. Today, half of all prefectures disseminate them. The textbook editors come from boards of education or nonprofit organizations, but the content of the textbooks is developed in cooperation with local Dowa Educators' Associations.

MOE also developed the *Resource Guide for Dowa Education* in 1976. It is revised every year and disseminated to all prefectures and national schools.

The Future of Dowa Education

In 1997, the Law on Specific Governmental Budgetary Measures Concerning Projects Designated for (Dowa) Area Improvement expired. As discrimination against the Burakumin weakened, the federation and its affiliates started to broaden their agenda from Dowa education to human rights education. But since discrimination against the Burakumin has not been completely eliminated, the challenges of Dowa education will continue.

The Experience of Resident Koreans

The government ratified the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1979). It is also party to 10 international human rights instruments such as the International Convention on the Rights of the Child (1994) and the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1995). MOE, however, has yet to take legal measures reflecting the substance of Article 27 of ICCPR and Article 30 of the International

Convention on the Rights of the Child, which support education for ethnic minorities.

Ethnic minorities, especially resident Koreans, have long been fighting for their right to their own culture and identity, and for opportunities for their children to learn about them. The arrival of more and more foreigners is causing social and cultural conflicts in schools and communities, and foreign children are facing difficulties in schools. So far, Japanese society and schools do not respect cultural differences or social diversity.

Foreigners in Japan

By the end of 1998, the number of registered foreigners in Japan was 1.51 million, the highest ever, accounting for 1.2% of the total population. For years after World War II, foreigners in Japan almost always meant Koreans, who arrived during the Japanese colonial occupation of their country. With the arrival of other nationalities, they made up 40% of the total foreign population by the end of 1998, but were still the most numerous. Of 640,000 Koreans, 520,000 are from the former colony, including their siblings and a considerable number of third- and fourth-generation Koreans.¹

Other foreign residents include the Chinese war orphans,² Indo-Chinese refugees, and women from other Asian countries married to Japanese. Especially during the economic boom in the 1980s, migrant workers were employed to meet the serious domestic labor shortage. However, Japan still maintains a closed-door policy toward foreign labor, granting work permits only for technical and professional jobs.³ Overstaying migrant workers number about 300,000 and work under wretched conditions.

Policy on Education of Foreigners

No department in MOE is formally responsible for the education of foreign residents. A

division of the Local Education Support Bureau oversees students returning from foreign countries. It is also responsible for Japanese language education of foreign children, but is not concerned with their cultural and identity problems.

The government has no educational programs to preserve the ethnic identity of minority children or to understand cultural diversity. However, extracurricular ethnic activities were allowed by the Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau after the Japan-Korean Foreign Ministerial Memorandum of 1991.

The Movement for Ethnic Education

Education to preserve the ethnic identity of minority children is largely a voluntary effort of some teachers and of minorities themselves in response to the movement calling for such education for resident Korean children. The movement helped develop the substance and practice of human rights education and persuaded some Boards of Education to draw up educational guidelines for resident Korean children (Table.) The earliest guidelines by the Osaka City Board of Education came out in 1970. Later, the guidelines were expanded to cover other foreign children. Like human rights education, education for foreign children is basically provided through local efforts.

Government Response to the Movement for Ethnic Education

After World War II, Koreans confronted the fact that Japan's assimilation policy had robbed them of their language and culture. They were now faced with the problem of educating their children. More than 500 voluntary schools were opened to teach Korean children. However, the government, following a General Headquarters directive, closed down the schools and suppressed Korean protesters.⁴ As a result, most Korean children had to transfer to Japanese schools, which did not offer ethnic education.

In 1965, Japan and Korea normalized ties and signed the Agreement on the Legal Status and Treatment of Korean Nationals. MOE issued an official notice to all schools to treat resident Korean children like Japanese children, in effect merely affirming the assimilation policy.

Voluntary Efforts of Concerned Teachers

Since the 1970s, the antidiscrimination activities of teachers encouraged resident Korean children to assert their identity. They used their Korean names in public instead of their Japanese-style names. They protested against discrimination in entrance examinations for higher education and in employment, and became involved in many activities to combat prejudice against Korea and Koreans. This movement was largely stimulated by Dowa education.

Many municipalities in Osaka prefecture, which has a large Dowa population and the largest population of resident Koreans, drew up guidelines on education for resident Korean children, starting in Osaka city in 1970.

Teachers established associations for the promotion of resident Korean education. In 1983, the National Resident Korean Education Study Conference⁵ (Zenchokyo) was established, with local affiliates.

Increasing Diversity in Classrooms

Since the 1980s, classrooms have become more multicultural owing to a sharp increase in the number of foreigners. In 1991, the number of non-Japanese-speaking children was approximately 5,000. In 1997, it increased to 22,000.

The government officially declared Japan a multi-ethnic society. It was what resident Koreans had waited for for so long.

Local municipalities supported by MOE now provide Japanese language education programs for children who speak other languages.

However, classes on ethnic culture and identity are not yet on the government agenda. But many teachers are taking steps to promote an understanding of cultural diversity.

Education for International Understanding

Education for international understanding and development education, which were introduced from other countries, have played an important role in disseminating the idea of human rights in Japan. Reflecting on Japan's invasion of other Asian countries and the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the Japanese people embraced UNESCO's ideal of building a peaceful world. They accepted UNESCO's Education for International Understanding in 1952. Many schools participated in the UNESCO Associated School Project, but few became involved in human rights education.

With the rapid economic growth of the 1960s, education for international understanding gradually shifted from the UNESCO's human-rights-centered approach to one designed "to train Japanese to adapt to international society," especially the business world. Many schools offered English language courses and cultural exchange programs with other countries.

In the 1980s, new educational movements such as development education, global education, education for global citizenship, among others, appeared. They made up for the Japanese-centered perspective of education for international understanding by introducing such concepts as globalization, interdependence, and human rights.

Education for International Understanding

UNESCO's Associated Schools Project

Of UNESCO's education projects, the Associated Schools Project is the best known. Many schools in various countries participated

in the project, which promoted three major topics on human rights education: the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, women's rights, and understanding of other countries. The topics were later changed to human rights, understanding of other countries, and the United Nations.

Education for international understanding in Japan started in 1953. Six junior and senior high schools initially participated in the UNESCO project; more subsequently joined in. For the first decade, human rights were the most popular subject. An outstanding school was Tajima Junior High School in Kawasaki city. Focusing on discrimination against resident Koreans, it tried to foster tolerance among students. As the number of schools participating in the project increased, MOE issued a guideline in 1958 to require the teaching of education for international understanding in primary schools, and another guideline in 1960 to require its teaching in secondary schools.

Policy change in education for international understanding

During the period of rapid economic growth in the 1960s, however, MOE shifted to a policy that emphasized "[training the] Japanese to cope with international economic affairs." Schools were required to train students to be proficient in the English language and to give them the confidence to work in international society.

In 1966, the Central Committee of Education officially announced its reform policy for secondary education, which emphasized, among other things, "training Japanese nationals for international society." In 1974, the committee reaffirmed its desire to train "Japanese to be trusted and well respected in international society." Most curriculums began to stress foreign language education (mainly English) and cultural exchange activities.

Through the 1970s and 1980s, education for international understanding became a

means for fostering economic growth, in stark contrast with UNESCO's Recommendation on International Education in 1974, which focused on social problems and called for unity in solving them.

Educational problems of children returned from abroad

Japanese economic expansion had another consequence. In the late 1960s, many public schools took in an increasing number of children who returned from abroad, where their parents were working. There were few full-time Japanese schools abroad at that time, and most of these children went to local or international schools.

Upon their return to Japan, they faced difficulties due to the different culture and way of thinking in Japanese schools. In 1965, Oizumi Junior High School, attached to Tokyo Gakugei University, opened the first special class for these children. In 1967, MOE conducted surveys of children who returned from abroad.

The number of "newcomers" increased sharply in the 1980s. At first, most of the programs aimed to acclimatize and assimilate the children. The children's foreign cultural background was not something to be respected or maintained. Although education for international understanding aimed to develop persons "who can cope abroad," for the longest time it did not accept "internationalization from within" or values that promote respect for cultural diversity.

Reforms in education for international understanding

The Ad Hoc Council on Education, set up in 1984, heralded education reform. Its final report in 1987 raised several issues: (i) the principle of valuing an individual's personality; (ii) the transition toward lifelong education; and

(iii) response to social change (in particular, contributions to international society and responses to the "information society").

The Curriculum Council Report similarly called for the "development of persons for the 21st century." It placed importance on international understanding and respect for Japanese culture and tradition, which was reflected in the revised Course of Study (national standard curriculum) in 1989.

Many municipalities in Japan then adopted the objectives of education for international understanding and exchange. Since then, MOE has designated "research/study associate schools or research organizations" that stress experience-based learning and communication skills based on new learning theories. Synthetic learning, developed in 1996 by the Central Council for Education, and which will be implemented in schools in 2002, includes "international understanding" among its most important topics.

Introduction of new educational areas

The 1980s saw the introduction of new educational areas such as development, global citizenship, environment, and gender education, which are directed toward solving world problems. There are various interpretations of "global education," "global citizenship education," and "education for international understanding." "Global education" is the umbrella concept, but MOE uses the terms "international understanding" or "education for international understanding."

Development Education

What is development education?

Development education is a movement initiated mainly by young Americans and Europeans who lived and worked in Third World countries. It aims to encourage people to en-

gage in development-assistance activities and perceives developing nations to be dominated by developed countries.

After independence, former colonies continued to be underdeveloped due to long years of oppression and exploitation. UN organizations such as UNICEF and FAO, as well as European and American governments, churches, and NGOs, began to assist in the development of these countries. People involved in these activities informed their home countries of the situation in the Third World. Early development education tended to be emotional.

Development education in Japan

Development education was introduced in Japan in 1979. As their objective was to direct public attention to the disparity between North and South, and to encourage Japan and its citizens to become involved in eliminating this disparity, advocates of development education criticized education for international understanding as ethnocentric. Development education emphasized the importance of human rights in the global context, in the spirit of the UNESCO Recommendation of 1974.

Perceptions about development education vary, depending on who is promoting it. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) and its affiliate organs consider it as mainly a public-relations activity for governmental cooperation and a source of information on local conditions in developing countries. NGOs see it as a reform movement that will eliminate poverty and starvation in these countries. MFA's final report on the Conference on ODA Reform for the 21st Century calls for vigorous promotion of development education at all levels. The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) has just completed an Action Plan for the Promotion of Development Education based on the MFA report.

Japanese schools and development education

Although development education is promoted by MFA, it has no official place in school education. Teachers who once promoted education for international understanding now teach development education, but on a voluntary basis.

Some organizations support these teachers through various programs. Veterans of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) advocate development education. JICA conducts overseas training for teachers of junior and senior high schools. It also sends JOVC veterans to schools as lecturers as part of the "salmon program," a reference to salmon's instinct to return to the river of their birth. JICA Centers in Tokyo, Osaka, Tokai/Hokuriku, Kanto, Chugoku, Fukushima, and Komagane respond to and coordinate schools' requests for lecturers.

The Association for Promotion of International Cooperation (APIC), another MFA affiliate, develops teaching materials and has set up the International Cooperation Plaza to provide information on development education. Recently, more junior high schools have included APIC and UNICEF offices on their itinerary during trips to Tokyo.

A few local International Exchange Associations also send lecturers to schools,⁶ develop teaching materials,⁷ and conduct teacher training.⁸ Internationalization policies of local governments used to focus on developing friendly relations with their counterparts in other countries. Recently, however, many have become involved in or given support to international cooperation activities. International Exchange Associations, which are subsidized by local governments, thus also function as resource centers for local development education or education for international understanding.

The National Committee of UNICEF maintains a close relationship with schools through school funds, and provides information and materials for development education.

The role of NGOs

Many NGOs were established after the end of the Vietnam War in 1975 to provide relief to Indo-Chinese refugees. They reported on local conditions and played an important role in calling for development assistance.

Many organizations made the best of their limited resources to provide seminars and lecturers and to develop their own teaching materials. For example, the Japan Sotoshu Relief Committee set up a “global citizenship division,” with a full-time expert on development education, to provide lecturers and to develop teaching materials on participatory activities and cooperation with other organizations.

In 1982, organizations and individuals concerned with development cooperation established the Development Education Association, which holds study meetings and provides information to teachers.

Many other NGOs were recently set up to promote learning activities in various fields, including development, the environment, gender issues, and human rights. Along with the YMCA and YWCA, the Education for International Understanding Center and the Center for Global Education focus on implement-

ing the new Course of Study and on developing a comprehensive curriculum. This trend in development work is expected to strengthen relations and cooperation between NGOs and schools.

Notes

1. The current Japanese Nationality Act is based on blood relationship with a Japanese parent(s). Japanese nationality is not, therefore, automatically conferred on a child by virtue of his or her birth in Japan alone.

2. Children born of Japanese parents who were left behind in China during the World War II. These children subsequently assumed Chinese nationality.

3. After the amendment of Immigration Control Act in 1990, the number of Japanese-Brazilians and Japanese-Peruvians increased sharply.

4. Official notification by the Director of School Education Bureau, 24 January 1948.

5. Renamed National Residential Korean/Foreigners Education Study Conference in 1999.

6. For example, Fukuoka International Association has a program that sends out former JOCV members as lecturers.

7. For example, the Tami-chan series by the Kanagawa International Association.

8. For example, the Kansai International Association.

Japan: “Internationalization” of Education

YUKO OKUBO

With the increase in the number of people coming to Japan from abroad, the “internationalization” of education has become an important issue in Japan’s national policy. Two major trends are the so-called “education for international understanding,” which is associated with the UNESCO, and “human rights education,” which is influenced by the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education, which started in 1995. I trace the development of these trends, and determine whether they have actually helped transform some educational practices that were originally designed to “assimilate” children into Japanese society.

UNESCO-inspired Government Initiatives

The modern school system, which was founded in the late 19th century, was meant to promote the transition of society from one based on status to one based on class. Underlying Japan’s catching up with Western capitalist countries were its admiration for the West, its use of Emperor worship to unify the country, and its contempt for other Asian countries targeted for invasion and colonization (Yoon 1996). The educational system was based on the myth of Japan’s social homogeneity (Weiner 1997), which implies that authentic Japanese are only those whose ancestors were Japanese.

The term “internationalization” of education first appeared in 1947 in the course of studies for a proposed model curriculum that would promote a peaceful and democratic society. In the 1950s, Japan joined UNESCO, which encouraged Japan to promote “education for international understanding.” Until the 1970s, education stressed seeking understanding and cooperation with other nations, contributing to world peace, and respect for human rights, as stated in UNESCO’s recommendation for International Education in 1974

(Yoneda 1993: 335). Since 1975, with Japanese companies joining the international market, the education of children who accompanied their parents abroad has become an important issue (Sato 1999: 159). These “international,” or in many cases “Americanized” or “Westernized,” children were expected to contribute to the country’s internationalization as long as they also behaved “as Japanese.” They were not expected to be “internationally minded” persons per se. Despite “internationalization” of education, the essence of the modern education system has not changed since it began in the late 19th century.

In the 1980s, education went through a transition because of the influx of foreigners, mainly laborers, of various cultural backgrounds. In 1998, foreigners made up 1.2% of the total population, almost double that of 25 years ago. (In Osaka, they make up 2.36%; in Kyoto, 2.09%; and in Tokyo, 2.22%.) Although the proportion is smaller than in other countries, the demographic transition had a dramatic impact as many Japanese still believe their country to be “homogeneous” despite the presence of ethnic or cultural minority groups.

Since the 1980s, the government has been pushing for “education for international understanding,” with focus on “internal interna-

tionalization,” as education for ethnic Koreans in some public schools, which started in the mid-1970s, has become more widespread. Although Korean schools had existed before then, it was only in the 1970s that they started to teach students to stand up for their rights.

The government’s policy to introduce international education for the benefit of foreign residents was therefore a response to (i) the increase in number of foreigners and (ii) the development of Korean ethnic education at the grass-roots level. Although few Japanese teachers support international education, some prefectural and municipal teachers’ associations promote it, especially in Kansai, central Japan, where 46.6% of ethnic Koreans reside.

UN-inspired Grass-roots Human Rights Education

A second trend in educational internationalization began after the declaration of the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education in 1994. It has given rise to now-popular human-rights-oriented education for minority groups, such as Dowa education for the *Burakumin*, ethnic education for Koreans and other foreigners, education for the disabled, intercultural education, and so on. These educational programs are called “education for international understanding,” “multicultural education,” or “human rights education,” depending on the context. The national government and some prefectural and municipal governments plan to promote such programs. “Human rights” have become buzzwords. Human rights education has become as popular as education for international understanding. Both deal with ethnic minority groups and are sometimes summarized as “education for learning to live with others.” Especially in dealing with ethnic minority groups, the term *tabunka*, meaning “multicultural,” is often used.

Comparison of Human Rights Education and Education for International Understanding

Both are products of UN influence. Both are accepted in various circles but interpreted differently. Education for international understanding emphasizes understanding various cultures outside Japan and learning foreign languages, especially English (which will be introduced in elementary schools in 2002). It is promoted by the government through researchers and teachers engaged in the education of returnees and in language education. A 1994 survey showed that 120 high-school courses nationwide could be called “international.” If English courses were included, the number would rise to 149. These courses have promoted internationalization of education since the 1980s (Yoneda 1995). Human-rights-oriented education, however, puts more emphasis on education for ethnic minority and outcast groups.

The double trend in educational internationalization is especially visible in public high schools in Osaka. As compulsory education ends at junior high school, students take an entrance exam for senior high school. All high schools, both public and private, are ranked based on the students’ test scores in each district. The schools considered as “good” but not the “best” have courses on international culture (*kokusai kyoyo*) and international understanding, which were introduced in 1990 to attract students. Mainly based on UNESCO’s guidelines, these courses aim to promote (i) love for peace; (ii) awareness of human rights; (iii) appreciation of Japan and a sense of citizenship; (iv) understanding of other countries, peoples, and cultures; (v) awareness of international relations, world issues, and the importance of world unity; and (vi) attitudes and behavior that will foster international cooperation.

While some courses deal with Korean residents, foreign workers, and the Ainu in northern Japan, they do not relate these issues to the students’ daily life.

In 1996, a subject on industrial society was introduced in Osaka public high schools. It "is related [to] 'human rights education' and its goal is to nurture the ability of the students to decide their future and to assist them [in achieving] self-realization" (Osakafuritsu Kotogakko Dowa Kyoiku Kenkyukai 1999: i-iii). However, only nine of the relatively lowest-ranking schools offer it.

In other words, the academically good schools promote UNESCO's education for international understanding, while the academically poor promote the UN's human rights education. The latter also criticize the other schools for neglecting human rights, which were, in fact, an important factor in the original UNESCO guidelines.

Education in a Minority Community

Research was done at an elementary school located in an Osaka Burakumin community of 2,000 people. The school also has a population of about 200 Burakumin, 70 ethnic Koreans, 50 ethnic Koreans with Japanese citizenship (of Korean descent or with one parent of Korean descent), and 22 Korean nationals. Since the 1980s, the school has accommodated 18 Vietnamese (mostly Japanese-born) and 13 Chinese. The student body consists of 15% foreign and 48% Burakumin students.

Under pressure from the Buraku liberation movement in the mid-1960s and the ethnic movement of Korean residents in the mid-1970s, the school, with the assistance of the local community, developed an educational program for each group. The program for the Burakumin gave importance to the concept of "equality"; for the Koreans, to regaining ethnic pride. With the increase in Vietnamese and Chinese enrollment since the 1990s, the school started developing a program called "education for learning to live together" based on the concept of "human rights." In my research area, an elementary school in Osaka, the following are being undertaken: (i) human rights

education in the Buraku community; (ii) education for learning to live together in the Korean community with the buzzwords "international exchange"; (iii) teaching Japanese language and culture to the Vietnamese and Chinese so that they can adjust to Japanese society, while encouraging them to maintain their ethnic identity; and (iv) promoting "education for learning to live together" for other Japanese.

All this is part of the second trend in education, which is human-rights-oriented and which originally began at the grass-roots level. However, the entry of people of other cultural backgrounds (Vietnamese, Chinese, etc.) is transforming this trend. At the administrative level (i.e., the municipal office and the education board), the increase in number of foreigners is described as a good opportunity for "cultural exchange" and "international exchange." Some municipal education boards have guidelines for the education of foreign children, including ethnic Koreans. The guidelines refer to human rights education (in Osaka prefecture, Osaka city, etc.) and internationalization (in Ikoma city, Nara prefecture, and Kyoto city, Kyoto prefecture), which indicates that the issue of ethnic minority groups is being dealt with at the cultural level, with less or no emphasis on human rights.

The same is true for education for Korean residents, which assists them in regaining their ethnicity through the learning of culture, but without dealing with their status as a minority group. For example, the Osaka city government, city education board, and the city civic centers jointly organize an annual "festival for international exchange" featuring performances by Koreans, Vietnamese, and Chinese residents. In the 1998 and 1999 festivals, adults and children wore their colorful ethnic dresses, and danced, sang, and played their ethnic musical instruments such as Korean drums. The organizers, presenters, and most of the audience belonged to the same ethnic groups. The few Japanese present were mainly school teachers attending to the performing children.

The festivals were held at an isolated place in the city, seemingly cut off from the rest of the world. Those who were “observed” have always been the “observed.” They were not given a chance to play the other role of “observers” of Japanese performers at the festival. Such odd scenes, without Japanese presenters and without exchanges with Japanese, are rarely questioned. They may be described as the result of another version of “assimilation,” this time within the framework of “international exchange” or “internationalization.”

Conclusion

As schooling has functioned as a socializing device since the late 19th century, the current “internationalization” trend appears to be challenging the schools’ long tradition of nurturing the Japanese nation. Closer scrutiny of the internationalization curriculums, however, reveals that it is not so. It is clear that education for international understanding is more popularly accepted than human rights education, which may be reduced to dealing with the cultural aspects of foreigners. I argue that these two education programs are likely to strengthen the purpose of the original Japanese modern educational system, which is to “assimilate” foreign residents into Japanese society in the guise of “internationalization.” As long as no attempts are made to make the ethnic minority groups the “observers” and not always the “observed,” and to make the dominant group (the Japanese) learn to “respect” or protect the rights of the ethnic minority

groups, “internationalization” will be nothing more than a series of cultural displays.

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China: Legal Education

ZHANG LI, WANG JIA-QIN, AND WANG MIN

Human rights education in the People's Republic of China is carried out mainly in the form of legal education, on the premise that enhancing citizens' legal awareness is a prerequisite for the entire society to respect and safeguard human rights. Since 1986, the government has launched a nationwide legal education campaign aimed at turning law into a powerful instrument of the people. Through legal education, citizens are taught about their legitimate rights and the legal means to protect those rights, which, in turn, encourages respect for human rights in the whole society.

General Situation

Since the mid-1980s, China has implemented three five-year plans on legal education. During the first five-year period (1985-1990), 640 million out of 750 million target recipients received legal education. During the second five-year period (1991-1995), the education program taught the Constitution as the core subject while also emphasizing specific laws more closely linked to the day-to-day work and life of the learners. During the third five-year period (1996-2000), in light of the new situation of the "rule of law," the objective of the education program is to transform people's mindset and build up a concept of acting in accordance with law.

Through legal education, legal awareness among most citizens has been significantly enhanced. More and more people who used to be passive law abiders have now become active law users. Recent years have witnessed an increase in the administrative procedural cases in which citizens sue officials.

Through legal education, citizens' consciousness of democratic rights has been raised substantially. More and more people are now taking an active part in political affairs and

democratic voting. For instance, 760 million voters in over 50,000 villages and towns took part in the rural elections in 1997. The rights to vote and to be elected are among the most important of human rights.

Ten years of legal education have witnessed great changes in the working styles of both government leaders and government agencies. They have become more respectful of democratic and lawful procedures in policymaking and administration, knowing that their power is given to them by the people and that if they infringe upon the people's interests, they will probably be brought to court, as the people are now better equipped with legal knowledge.

Legal education is a comprehensive and long-term project being carried out by the government in an effort to guarantee the fundamental rights of the people. The significant contribution it makes to legal construction, democratic construction, and the protection of people's rights will be more evident as time goes on.

Human Rights Education in Schools

Human rights education mainly takes the form of legal education. It is not only part of social legal education, but also a major component

of moral education. It is an important means of teaching students about socialist democracy and the legal system, and of achieving the rule of law.

The government attaches great importance to the legal and human rights education of 320 million school students each year. Article 24 of the Constitution states that the state shall provide legal and human rights education. Article 6 of the Education Law stipulates that the state should provide legal education to students. Article 3 of the Law on the Protection of Minors, Articles 4, 6, and 9 of the Law on the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency, and other education laws lay down special regulations on legal and human rights education in school.

The three key links in the nationwide legal education program are (i) cadres at all levels, (ii) law-enforcement officials, and (iii) the youth. In December 1995, the State Education Commission (SEDC, predecessor of the Ministry of Education) and the Ministry of Justice jointly issued Views on Enhancing Legal Education in School. In May 1996, the eighth plenary session of the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress adopted The Decision on Continuing Legal Education, in which Article 5 provides that young people should acquire basic legal knowledge, and that universities, colleges, middle schools (including secondary technical schools), and primary schools should offer legal education courses. Grass-roots units should pay close attention to legal education for young people. In August 1996, SEDC issued The Third Five-year Plan on the Implementation of Legal Education in All Educational Sectors, which explicitly provides for legal education in the school system, with principals, teachers, and students at all levels as the target recipients.

Status of Human Rights Education in Schools

Since the early 1990s, schools have systematically implemented human rights education. At

present, educational materials for primary schools, middle schools, and undergraduate and postgraduate programs are taking shape.

According to the state plan, schools of all kinds at all levels should offer courses on legal education or incorporate legal education into relevant courses, and employ full-time or part-time teachers to handle them. Schools are also encouraged to employ after-class tutors. The education programs should be result-oriented by taking into account the age of the students and including basic legal knowledge relevant to their daily life.

At the same time, primary and middle schools should offer courses on moral education, which also teach human rights. The state formulates teaching plans, sets curriculum criteria, compiles textbooks, and assigns full-time teachers.

Primary School

In primary school (5-6 years), 200 hours of human rights education are required, including such major courses as moral education (Grades 1-6, one hour per week), social education (from Grade 3 on, one hour per week), and legal education, which aims to build up legal awareness among the students by teaching them about laws relevant to their daily life. Moral education and social education courses teach students to

- love the Motherland,
- respect their elders,
- live and work in harmony with others,
- love science, and
- have self-esteem.

Such education helps cultivate a basic sense of rights among the students. It also teaches them to follow codes of ethics and discipline and to have good manners. Social communication and democratic participation are also fostered among the students by encouraging them to take part in activities such as monitoring elections.

High School

Legal education and human rights education in middle schools (three years in junior high school, three years in senior high school) focus on democracy and law. They help students

- understand the authority of the Constitution,
- enjoy rights in accordance with the law,
- perform their obligations, and
- have a sense of social responsibility.

Moral education in junior high school includes human rights education. It teaches the students to do good, take care of and help people, take an active part in public welfare affairs, and discipline themselves. The textbook *Traditional Chinese Ethics* teaches classical Chinese virtues:

- respect for the elderly and care of the young;
- harmonious relations with others; and
- forgiveness.

These virtues are all related to human rights. From the second year of junior high school, students learn the following:

- Law is a special norm of behavior.
- The shared home of humankind (Earth) should be protected by law.
- The health of the youth should be guaranteed.
- Citizens' fundamental rights and obligations are stipulated by the Constitution.
- Citizens' rights are guaranteed by law.
- Citizens have marital and family rights and obligations.
- Citizens have the right and obligation to receive education.
- Citizens should exercise their rights properly, fulfill their obligations voluntarily, and learn to protect their rights and interests in accordance with law.

Human rights education helps students learn their rights and obligations in politics, the economy, marriage and family, education, their private life, and elsewhere, as stipulated by law. Special emphasis is given to the rights and freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution:

- right to equality;
- political rights and freedom;
- religious freedom;
- personal freedom;
- right to vote and stand for election;
- right to life and health;
- right to an identity;
- right to protect one's reputation;
- right to privacy;
- right to education;
- freedom of marriage;
- right to criticize and give suggestions to the government agencies and their functionaries;
- right to make a complaint and to file suit in court;
- right to get compensation from the state; and
- social, economic, and cultural rights, etc.

Specific measures to guarantee the rights and freedoms mentioned above are also explained to the students so that they know how to protect their rights through legal means. The Law on the Protection of Minors is also a key component of the course.

Textbooks for senior high schools concentrate on citizens' rights and obligations. They emphasize that citizens, regardless of ethnicity, race, gender, profession, family background, religion, education, property, and length of stay in a place, enjoy equal rights and have equal duties and obligations. No one enjoys privileges beyond those provided by the Constitution and other laws. In addition, a special chapter is devoted to the development of human rights theory and practice in the training materials for senior high school teachers.

College

College students are required to be familiar with the Constitution and other basic laws, and to fully understand the importance and arduousness of democratic and legal construction. They should also enhance their legal awareness and sense of social responsibility. Legal education courses are widely offered in universities and colleges, and are mainly conducted in the following ways:

- Legal education is integrated in courses on politics, socialist democracy, and the legal system as the major content and the Constitution as the core content.
- Core courses are taught on basic legal knowledge. Special lectures tackle other relevant topics.
- Core or optional courses are taught on specific laws.

The Ministry of Education compiles and revises the *Basic Law Program*, and publishes the compilation as a nationwide textbook. Courses on specific laws are also taught in some universities and colleges depending on their needs. For instance, courses on education law and teachers' law are offered in normal universities and colleges; courses on accounting law, auditing law, and tax law are offered in business schools.

Universities and colleges often incorporate human rights lectures into social science courses. Lectures tackle the history and basic theories of human rights and survey ideas on human rights, peace, and democracy in other countries. No less than six hours are spent on human rights in the international law course in law schools. Postgraduate programs also include a series of lectures on human rights.

In order to make legal education more interesting, universities and colleges make full use of after-class activities such as film showings, contests on legal knowledge, legal consultations, attending court trials, etc.

Teacher Training and Research

The state requires that teachers engaged in human rights education at all levels should study the Constitution and acquire a basic knowledge of the law so as to enhance their own legal awareness and set an example for their students. Legal education is a core course for the in-service training of teachers. In order to build a stronger team, schools adopt various approaches to provide systematic legal training for teachers, such as pre-service, in-service, and full-time training.

In order to advance human rights studies and expand international exchanges, human rights research institutions have been set up in schools such as Beijing University, Renmin University, Beijing Normal University, and Capital Normal University. In recent years, scholars in some universities have compiled a number of books on human rights such as *On Western Human Rights Theories, New Theory and Practice of Human Rights, Human Rights and Human Rights Diplomacy in the United States*, etc. *World Human Rights Laws and Conventions* has been translated into Chinese.

Universities and colleges also carry out human rights education and research by holding direct talks with their counterparts in other countries. Human rights education institutions in some universities in Beijing conduct wide-ranging exchanges with human rights institutions abroad. The participating teachers bring back useful information and incorporate them into their teaching materials, eventually improving the level of human rights education in universities.

Key Issues, Obstacles, and Resolutions

During the 20 years of economic reform and the open-door policy, China has made remarkable progress in education. However, it is a low-income developing country engaged in an enormous educational undertaking. It faces many problems such as the shortage of fund-

ing, a still-high illiteracy rate, and growing ranks of school dropouts. The effectiveness of human rights education to a large extent depends on the realization of the right to education, since only the educated can recognize the importance and necessity of human rights education. In order to raise the people's educational level, the government is attempting to reform the educational system and increase investment in education. Since 1996, the government has implemented the Compulsory Education Project in Poverty-stricken Areas to help spread legal knowledge in rural areas. More than 600,000 school dropouts have received financial assistance and returned to school. Some NGOs and international organizations, including Project Hope, have assisted millions of school dropouts. At the same time, China has achieved a great deal in providing education to disadvantaged groups such as the disabled, women, and girls. All these efforts

serve as a basis for the development of human rights education in China.

Since the implementation of economic reform and the open-door policy, human rights issues have become part and parcel of democratic and legal construction. The government has acceded to a series of international human rights conventions. Many views and theories on human rights have been developed. But over 2,000 years of feudal history remain an obstacle not only to the construction of the rule of law but also to the promotion of human rights education in the school system.

The quality of the teaching staff needs to be improved. For example, in primary and middle schools, over 1 million teachers are engaged in moral education and legal education, but only 60% of them have the academic credentials to teach. In universities, human rights teachers fall short of the demand in both quantity and quality.

Philippines: Human Rights Education in Nueva Ecija

ANITA MAGBITANG-CHAUHAN, MARITES DALANGIN,
LOLITA SANTOS, AND LASILA REYES

Human rights may be generally defined as those rights inherent in people and without which people cannot live as true human beings. The concept of human rights came before the creation of the United Nations (UN). However, it was through the UN that human rights gained formal and universal recognition.

The preamble of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that respect for human rights and dignity is the foundation of freedom, justice, and world peace. The UN General Assembly has proclaimed the declaration as “a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance both among the peoples of member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.”

Despite international campaigns by both government and nongovernmental institutions to promote human rights, it is taught in few schools.¹ Yet, education plays an important role in making children aware of world issues such as human rights, and in developing a proper attitude toward such issues early in life.² Education is recognized by the International Commission on Education for the 21st Century as a principal means to foster deeper and more harmonious human relations and, thereby, to reduce poverty, exclusion, ignorance, oppression, and war.³

There were early efforts to promote human rights through education in some Asian countries. In 1965, for example, Japan adopted the Dowa education policy to stress the importance of equality and to develop public consciousness against discrimination.⁴ However, promoting human rights education in Asian schools faces some problems:⁵

- lack of opportunities for teachers to study and apply new ideas in teaching human rights;
- difficulty in convincing government bureaucrats of the importance of human rights education; and
- resistance from teachers who fear that human rights education will be an additional burden to their heavy teaching load.

Still, human rights education continues to make progress, even if slowly, among Asian countries, including the Philippines.

This paper is divided into three parts. The first presents the efforts of the Philippine government to promote human rights education. The second part looks at how human rights education is implemented in selected schools in the central Luzon province of Nueva Ecija, 100 km north of Manila. The third part presents the human rights education efforts of a

nongovernmental organization in Nueva Ecija, the Pampamayanang Ahensya na Nagtataguyod sa Karapatan at Kaunlaran ng Tao (Pangkat) Foundation.

Government Efforts to Promote Human Rights Education

The 1987 Constitution upholds the dignity of every human person and guarantees full respect for human rights (Article II, Sec. 11). It also requires educational institutions to promote respect for human rights (Article XIV, Sec. 3[b]).

Prior to the ratification of the Constitution, then President Corazon C. Aquino issued Executive Order (EO) No. 27 (4 July 1986), ordering the then Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (MECS) to include human rights courses in the curriculums of all levels of education and training in all schools. It also ordered MECS to initiate and maintain regular programs and special projects, including informal education and other means, to promote information and discussion on, and respect for, human rights.

The same EO ordered the Civil Service Commission to include in the qualifying examinations for government service some basic knowledge of human rights.

Memorandum Order No. 20, issued along with EO No. 27, instructed the Ministry of National Defense, the New Armed Forces of the Philippines, the former Constabulary, and the Integrated National Police to make the study of human rights an integral and indispensable part of the education and training of all police, military, and other law-enforcement personnel, especially those in charge of detention and of prisoners. Completion of human rights courses is a prerequisite for such personnel's continuance in office. The then Presidential Committee on Human Rights was tasked to assist in developing appropriate study courses.

On 30 October 1987, President Aquino issued Proclamation No. 177 declaring 3-10 December of every year as National Human Rights Week. It mandated the Commission on Human Rights (CHR) to initiate activities that would highlight the observance of Human Rights Week. All government offices and agencies were urged to conduct commemorative and educational activities.

Pursuant to EO No. 27, the education secretary issued Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS) Order No. 61 (9 June 1987), ordering all schools at all levels, including nonformal, technical, and vocational, to include in their curriculums the study of human rights and "accompanying responsibilities." At the primary and secondary levels, human rights lessons may be integrated into civics, culture, geography and history, and social studies; and at the tertiary level, in political science or history. The schools were given the option to determine how to integrate human rights lessons into their courses.

CHR published *A Primer on Human Rights*, which was distributed to the regions to provide basic information on formulating and developing instructional materials.

The DECS bureaus, which supervise education at various levels, including technical, vocational, and nonformal, prepared a suggested list of target learning appropriate for each grade level and the corresponding prototype teaching-learning materials to serve as a basis for regional curriculum development and evaluation. The regional directors were tasked to lead in integrating human rights in values education programs, development of instructional materials, and teacher training. They are also tasked to lead in enhancing school-community relationship through contests and other activities.

In 1990, DECS published a batch of prototype teaching materials developed with support from the Asia Foundation. The materials, intended for higher education, were titled

Foundations 1 and 2, Social Philosophy 1 and 2, Methods of Teaching, Student Teaching and Health Education, and Livelihood Education.

When the materials were distributed in the regions, the deans and heads of colleges were convened for orientation on their use.

On 9 December 1992, CHR and DECS signed a Joint Declaration of Undertaking, in which the two agencies agreed to jointly implement the following:

- Curriculum development
 - Continuing integration of human rights and responsibilities education in primary, secondary, tertiary, and nonformal education.
 - Continuing preparation and production of instructional materials, including audio-visual and other teaching/learning aids, for both formal and nonformal education.
- Training and capability building
 - Regular seminar-workshops at various school levels to identify problems and solutions in teaching human rights and responsibilities.
 - Regular refresher courses for teachers.
 - Regional and national conferences on the teaching of human rights and responsibilities.
 - A speakers bureau for students and teachers.
- Monitoring, research, and evaluation
 - Regular updating, research, documentation, and development of human rights instructional materials.
 - Information campaign through sensitivity training and consciousness-raising activities directed in the academic community.
 - Assessment and evaluation of the short- and long-term effects of human rights teaching.
- Policy and legislative support
 - Legislative and administrative support for human rights teaching and promotion of human rights principles.

- Cooperative programs and networking
 - Linkages with local and international NGOs for the following:
 - exchanging information and transfer of technology to improve human rights and responsibilities education;
 - conducting programs and activities for the celebration of events related to human rights, including Human Rights Week, adoption or ratification of human rights instruments, etc.;
 - generating and sharing resources;
 - continuing advocacy and social mobilization;
 - creating a network to assist in human rights information dissemination; and
 - establishing mechanisms for initiating and sustaining common programs of action.

For the joint undertaking, the CHR-DECS Implementing Committee was created with the following functions:

- operation of identified programs;
- submission of regular progress reports to appropriate agencies; and
- performance of other functions as the concerned agencies may direct.

In 1994, Republic Act No. 7722 put the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) in charge of supervising public and private institutions of higher learning, including degree-granting programs in all post-secondary educational institutions, public and private. On 18 October 1996, CHR, DECS, CHED, and Amnesty International-Pilipinas signed a memorandum of agreement to jointly undertake the nationwide GO-NGO-Academe Consultative Workshop to define a national vision on human rights and produce the Long-term National Plan of Action on Human Rights Education.

In April 1996, DECS started the series of seminar-workshops for regional education officials in cooperation with CHR. The seminar-

workshops provide knowledge on human rights as applied to teaching-learning processes, day-to-day interaction, teacher-training, and other activities.

On 16 May 1996, CHED issued Memorandum Order No. 31 pursuant to the memorandum of agreement, directing all higher educational institutions to conduct human rights education, and training projects, including but not limited to integrating human rights education concepts in subjects. All higher educational institutions were required to document their human rights education accomplishments and submit a semestral or trimestral report to the CHED office in their respective regions. All reports submitted to regional offices were to be consolidated and submitted to CHED.

The efforts of the Philippine government and its educational agencies to promote human rights education, including the extent of implementation of the different laws, policies, orders, and memorandums on human rights, have not been fully evaluated.

Implementation of Human Rights Education in Nueva Ecija

While human rights education stands on firm legal and policy ground, respect for human rights cannot be legislated. It should be inculcated in the hearts and minds of all members of society. Schools must help achieve this ideal.

To what extent human rights education has been undertaken in schools and to what extent it has enlightened the citizenry to respect human rights is the subject of an exploratory study conducted by graduate students enrolled in the legal foundations of education class (1998-1999) of the Nueva Ecija University of Science and Technology.

Objectives of the Study

The study explored the extent of implementing human rights education in the schools sur-

veyed and the level of awareness of both teachers and pupils about human rights.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study covered teachers and pupils in three public elementary schools: Talavera Central School in Talavera; Muñoz South Central School in Muñoz; and Pulo Elementary School in San Isidro. It sought to find out how human rights education was implemented in the schools, and to what extent human rights as a concept and value was inculcated in the teachers and pupils. As purposive sampling was used, the findings may not represent the general situation.

Methodology

The descriptive qualitative research method and the purposive sampling method were used. Respondents were 29 grade-school teachers and 92 pupils. The questionnaire contained queries on the implementation of human rights education and the extent of knowledge and values on the respondent's human rights.

Data gathered were tabulated. Simple percentages based on the frequency of distribution of responses to each question item were obtained. Findings from responses of teachers and pupils were presented in separate tables and briefly discussed.

Findings

Responses of teachers

Of the 29 teacher-respondents, only 1 claimed to have attended a training workshop on human rights. His attendance was financed by the school.

The teacher-respondents were asked nine questions answerable by yes or no. Table 1 presents the frequency distribution of the responses. It shows that teachers received direc-

TABLE 1. Frequency and Distribution of Teacher Respondents to Questions on Human Rights Education

Questions	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
1. Have you received any directions from your principal to teach or conduct activities on human rights education?	2	6.89	13	14.83
2. Did you follow the order given to you by your superior?	2	6.89	5	17.24
3. Did you render a report of your activities to the higher authorities?	–	–	2	10.34
4. Did you receive any reward for following the order?	1	3.45	6	20.70
5. Have you attempted to teach human rights on your own initiative?	12	41.38	7	24.14
6. In your present work as a teacher, have you ever come across any written directive from DECS that human rights education should be undertaken by the schools?	10	34.48	8	27.59
7. Did you use such directives as bases in teaching human rights?	4	13.79	3	17.24

N = 29

tives from their principals to teach or conduct activities on human rights education. Two followed the directives, and three said they did not submit a report to their superior. One teacher claimed to have received a reward for following the order. Twelve teachers attempted to teach human rights on their own initiative. Ten indicated that they came across written directives from DECS that human rights education should be undertaken in schools. Four said they used such directives in teaching human rights.

Table 2 contains the teachers' personal ratings of their knowledge of human rights. It shows that the number of teachers who claim to have much knowledge of human rights is around the same as those who do not.

Teachers were asked to rate 12 items based on a five-point rating scale. Table 3 presents the findings. It shows that most teachers either highly agree or agree with the following statements on human rights:

- All men are born equal in dignity and rights.
- Men and women are equal.
- Children and youth have rights that must be respected.
- The promotion of human rights is the concern of all.

- By virtue of being human, we have rights.
- It is important for every person to know his/her rights.
- If you want your rights respected, you must respect the rights of others.

It was noted, however, that in the first two statements, some teachers were not sure, or either disagreed or highly disagreed. More teachers agreed or highly agreed with the statement "Our human rights are given to us by our government." Only three either disagreed or highly disagreed, and six were not sure. These findings suggest that more teachers believe that the government is the source, rather than the guarantor, of human rights.

Twelve teachers were not sure whether or not "only the State can protect our human rights." An almost-equal number either agreed/highly agreed or disagreed/highly dis-

TABLE 2. Teachers' Personal Ratings of the Extent of their Knowledge on Human Rights

Teachers' personal ratings	Frequency	%
Very much	2	6.89
Much	8	27.59
Not much	7	24.14
Not very much	2	6.89

TABLE 3. Teachers' Reactions to Ten Statements on Human Rights

Items	Highly agree		Agree		Not sure		Highly disagree		Disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. All men are born equal in dignity and rights.	12	41.38	10	34.49	2	6.89	1	3.45	1	3.45
2. Men and women are equal.	10	34.49	11	37.93	2	10.34	1	3.45	1	3.45
3. Children and youth have rights that must be respected.	12	44.83	8	48.28	—	—	—	—	—	—
4. The promotion of human rights is the concern of all.	8	27.59	16	55.17	2	6.89	—	—	—	—
5. By virtue of being human, we have rights.	13	48.27	14	48.27	—	—	—	—	—	—
6. Our human rights are given to us by our government.	5	17.24	12	44.83	5	20.70	1	3.45	2	6.89
7. Only the State can protect our human rights.	6	20.70	2	6.89	10	41.38	—	—	6	20.70
8. Rich people have more rights than the poor.	1	3.45	1	6.89	1	3.45	14	48.27	6	20.70
9. It is important for every person to know his/her rights.	18	62.07	8	27.58	—	—	—	—	—	—
10. If you want your rights respected, you must respect the rights of others.										

agreed. The respondents were divided on who was responsible for the protection of human rights. While the state has responsibility for people within its jurisdiction, civil society, which includes organized citizens, people's organizations, and NGOs, has a role in protecting human rights. In fact, all members of humankind have the responsibility to protect human rights.

The findings also revealed that more teachers either disagreed or highly disagreed with the statement that rich people have more rights than the poor, one was not sure, and three either highly agreed or agreed. This means that some teachers still believe that wealth makes a difference in matters of human rights, and that theory is different from practice, the ideal different from the real. This finding suggests that the principle of nondiscrimination in possess-

ing and enjoying human rights has not been fully inculcated in all of the respondents.

To the question, "Should human rights be taught in the school?" all the respondents answered yes. Asked what the legal sources of their knowledge of human rights were, they pointed to various sources. As shown in Table 4, 18 teachers, or 62%, obtained their knowledge of human rights from the Magna Carta of Public School Teachers.⁶ Others, from international covenants or conventions such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women; International Convention on the Rights of the Child; and Philippine laws such as the 1987 Constitution and the Child and Youth Welfare Code.

TABLE 4. Legal Sources of Knowledge on Human Rights of Teacher-Respondents

<i>Legal sources</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
1. Universal Declaration of Human Rights	5	17.24
2. Article II of 1987 Philippine Constitution	8	27.59
3. Child and Youth Welfare Code	7	24.14
4. International Convention on the Rights of the Child	4	13.79
5. Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women	3	10.34
6. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights	2	6.89
7. International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights	3	10.34
8. Magna Carta of Public School Teachers	10	62.07

Responses of Pupils

Findings of the study from the responses of pupils are presented in Table 5, which shows that most pupils have little knowledge of human rights. Most who did cited their teachers and parents as sources (Table 6). Many pupils cited the mass media, particularly television, as a source of knowledge, as some television ads and programs promote human rights. The mass media are therefore a significant source of knowledge, as most Filipino homes have a television set and radio.

The smallest percentage of pupils cited movies as a source of knowledge. Although it was not clear what specific knowledge of human rights were gained from the movies, it was clear that movies influence the pupils.

To the question, “Since you started school, have you ever been taught human rights?” 83 pupils, or 90.2 percent, answered yes; only 7 (7.6%) said no, suggesting that schools are promoting human rights education.

Of the pupil-respondents, 82 (89.1%) said that human rights were taught to them in their school. Only 6 (6.5%) said otherwise. Asked further if it was taught during the school year when the study was conducted, 83 (90.2%) said yes and only 2 (2.2%) answered no.

Asked if some school activities focused on human rights, 59 (64.1%) answered yes, and 30 (32.6%) answered no. Asked further if they participated in any of these activities, 58 (63%) answered yes, and 29 (31.5%) answered no.

Table 7 shows that 43 (46.7%) pupils indicated that human rights were often taught to them, as against 38 (41.3%) who said otherwise; 6 (6.5%) said that human rights were taught very often to them; and 1 (1%) said it was taught only once.

Table 8 shows the pupils’ reactions to 10 statements on human rights. The findings reveal the pupils’ knowledge and values. Some pupils responded “not sure” to all 10 statements, which may indicate insufficient learning.

To three statements—“Our human rights are given to us by our government,” “Only the

TABLE 5. Pupils Extent of Knowledge on Human Rights

<i>Extent of knowledge</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Very much	—	—
Much	37	40.21
Not much	51	55.43
Nothing	1	1.08

TABLE 6. Sources of Knowledge on Human Rights

<i>Sources of knowledge on human rights</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
From my teachers in our school	78	84.78
From my parents	73	79.34
From magazines and newspapers	41	44.56
From books	32	34.78
From radio	41	44.56
From TV	56	60.86
From movies	15	16.30

Questions	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
1. Since you studied formally in school, have you been taught human rights in any school attended?	83	90.21	7	7.60
2. Were human rights ever taught to you where you are studying now?	82	89.13	6	6.52
3. If yes, were they taught to you this schoolyear?	83	90.21	2	2.17
4. Are there activities in the school which focus on human rights?	59	64.13	30	32.60
5. Did you participate in any of these activities?	58	63.04	29	31.52

How often were human rights taught to you?	Frequency	%
Very often	6	6.52
Often	41	46.73
Not so often	37	41.30
Once only	1	1.08

state can protect our human rights,” and “Rich people have more rights than the poor”—many said the opposite of what was expected. Most agreed or highly agreed with the statement “Our human rights are given to us by our government.” As for the statement, “Only the state can protect our human rights,” 11 pupils were not sure, 23 agreed, and 8 highly agreed, 13 highly disagreed, and 35 disagreed. The same trend was observed in the pupils’ reactions to the statement, “Rich people have more rights than the poor.” (Insert table 9.)

One disagreed and another was not sure about the statement, “Children and youth have rights that must be respected.” The rest answered positively, showing that pupils are becoming aware of their rights.

Summary of Findings

- Some teachers were aware of directives from higher authorities to teach human rights. Some admitted that they received

directives from their superiors to teach human rights.

- Some teachers taught human rights based on the directives of superiors, but more taught human rights on their own initiative.
- Teachers derived their knowledge of human rights from international and local laws.
- Most teachers showed positive reactions to statements that conformed with acceptable knowledge of or values concerning human rights, but a few expressed uncertainty over some controversial statements.
- Pupils were taught human rights.
- Teachers and parents were the main source of knowledge on human rights of most pupils. The mass media also contributed to their knowledge.
- A sizable number of pupils were not sure of their position on the 10 statements on human rights, although more conformed with statements that revealed acceptable knowledge of and values concerning human rights.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions are made:

- Human rights education is undertaken in the schools surveyed.

TABLE 9. Pupils' Reactions to Ten Statements on Human Rights

Items	Highly agree		Agree		Not sure		Highly disagree		Disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. All men are born equal in dignity and rights.	38	41.30	42	45.05	10	10.86	—	—	1	1.08
2. Men and women are equal.	15	16.30	59	64.13	12	14.13	1	1.08	1	1.08
3. Children and youth have rights that must be respected.	59	64.13	22	23.91	1	1.08	1	1.08	—	—
4. The promotion of human rights is the concern of all.	12	13.04	47	51.08	31	33.69	—	—	—	—
5. By virtue of being human, we have rights.	43	46.73	37	40.21	8	10.86	2	2.17	—	—
6. Our human rights are given to us by our government.	14	15.21	62	67.39	15	16.30	—	—	1	1.08
7. Only the State can protect our human rights.	8	8.69	23	25	9	11.95	13	14.13	35	38.04
8. Rich people have more rights than the poor.	12	13.04	4	4.35	6	6.52	29	31.52	32	34.78
9. It is important for every person to know his/her rights.	63	68.48	23	25	2	3.26	1	1.08	—	—
10. If you want your rights respected, you must respect the rights of others.	73	79.35	13	14.13	2	2.17	3	3.26	1	1.08

- Teachers derive their knowledge of human rights from legal sources.
- Teachers' reactions to human rights generally conform with acceptable knowledge of and values concerning human rights.
- Teachers value the teaching of human rights.
- Pupils are aware of human rights.
- The frequency with which human rights is taught varies.
- Pupils need more instruction on human rights to enhance their knowledge of and respect for them.
- Human rights activities are conducted in schools.
- Pupil participation in human rights activities is not widespread.

Recommendations

- Teachers should undergo regular training that emphasizes content and methods in teaching human rights. NGOs may be invited to share their experience in human rights work and enrich the learning experience of teachers.
- Compliance of educational institutions with the mandate to conduct human rights instruction should be regularly monitored.
- Schools should conduct more human rights activities that will encourage or motivate more pupils to participate. These activities should be appropriate to the pupils' age, background, and interests.
- The Philippines has many laws and policies on human rights, but they are not implemented as they should be. All social

sectors should participate and be involved in monitoring the implementation of the laws at the local and national levels.

- School officials should be encouraged to promote human rights education. Incentives or awards should be given to institutions that perform well in human rights education.
- Teachers should be motivated to produce instructional materials on human rights. The materials can be shared through networking among teachers, with the support and assistance of the school division. Incentives should be given to teachers who show dedication in the teaching of human rights.
- Implementation of human rights education laws and policies should be evaluated.
- Human rights education should be a major concern of all school officials and personnel. Every school should cultivate a climate conducive to promotion of respect for human rights. Administrators and teachers should serve as role models in showing respect for the human rights of pupils and other members of the academic community.
- Teachers and parents should jointly promote the teaching of human rights. Parents should be involved in reinforcing human rights instructions.
- The curriculum at each grade level should include human rights courses. Periodic curricular review should be conducted.
- DECS, CHED, and the Technology Education and Services Development Authority should rigorously observe Proclamation No. 177 and continue to improve human rights education.
- This study should be followed by a more thorough and detailed qualitative study on the status of implementing human rights education at different levels of formal and nonformal education.

PANGKAT Foundation

The Provincial Association for Human Rights Advocacy—Nueva Ecija (Panlalawigang Asosasyong Nagtataguyod sa Karapatan ng Tao—Nueva Ecija, or PANGKAT-NE) was established in 1986 as an alliance of human rights organizations in 3 cities and 29 towns in Nueva Ecija province. Its members are groups of farmers, farmworkers, professionals, urban poor, women, youth, and students. It was converted into a foundation in 1991 and renamed PANGKAT Foundation.

The foundation primarily aims to promote and protect human rights through preventive and remedial legal measures. It also aims to conduct education campaigns for the general public on basic individual and collective rights and to institutionalize human rights education by offering short-term non-degree and non-diploma courses on human rights teaching.

To implement its programs, the foundation established the Nueva Ecija Human Rights Action Center, which was later renamed the Center for Human Rights and Development Advocacy.

The PANGKAT Foundation implements the following programs:

- Human Rights Education and Training;
- Paralegal Training Development;
- Legal Aid and Referral;
- Community Organizing for Human Rights and Development;
- Family Welfare and Barangay (Community) Development.

To support its programs, it organizes various groups such as chapter units in communities, Human Rights Groups (HRGs) composed of people who have attended its human rights education activities, and volunteer-run Human Rights Extension Offices (HREOs) in some towns. By 1991, the foundation had established 19 community chapters, 25 HRGs, and 5 HREOs. It also organized students at the

Central Luzon Polytechnic College into the CLPC Human Rights Volunteers Association, which helps in campaigning for the rights of children and youth in several towns.

The foundation's human rights education program is implemented through the following activities:

- a radio program;
- an awareness program on human rights;
- leadership training for core human rights advocates;
- study programs on
 - human rights, law, and development;
 - human rights teaching; and
 - human rights and *barangay* (community) justice;
- seminars on human rights for teachers;
- echo seminars on human rights protection systems;
- seminars on curriculum and human rights; and
- orientation seminars.

In 1986, the foundation started a radio program called "Unlad Talino sa Himpapawid" (Knowledge Development through Broadcast). The radio program broadcast five modules on human rights (foundation of human rights; human rights advocacy; civil, political, economic and cultural rights; rights of specific groups in society; and human rights remedies and safeguards). The program broadcasts lectures by lawyers, public prosecutors, government officials, and community leaders. Home listeners clubs were formed in schools and communities to help increase the number of listeners. In a 1987 survey of listeners, most of the 1,879 respondents said they became interested in human rights through the radio program.

The radio program's human rights courses change their content every year. One of the first courses was General Course on Human Rights and Rebuilding of the Filipino Character. Another course which targeted teachers is Listeners' Course on Human Rights Teach-

ing. Enrolled teachers get a certificate for completing the course by listening to the radio program, attending lectures to supplement radio presentations, and passing an examination. In 1993, the radio program adopted a magazine format with live discussions among a panel of speakers. It stopped broadcasting briefly, then reopened in 1995 as "Karapatang Pangtao at Paralegalismo sa DWNE" (Human Rights and Paralegalism in DWNE), aired every Sunday, 8:00-10:00 am. The radio program has been renamed "Pinoy Gising sa Yong Karapatan at Kaunlaran" (Filipinos Wake Up to Your Rights and Progress). In this program, discussions on problems on agrarian laws, human rights in general, and specific sector rights (women and child rights) are taken up.

Training under the human rights paralegal development program equips community members with skills such as documentation of human rights violations. Awareness campaigns on human rights issues relating to children and youth, women, the disabled, and indigenous people are undertaken under the Family Welfare and Barangay (Community) Development program.

Schoolteachers participate in many of the foundations's human rights education activities. In the 1990 study program on human rights teaching, 50 teachers from 10 primary schools, 6 secondary schools, 2 colleges, and 1 university participated.

In 1997, the foundation co-organized a seminar on the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education with the Central Luzon Polytechnic College (later renamed the Nueva Ecija University of Science and Technology), the Commission on Higher Education, and the Commission on Human Rights. Organized for administrators and faculty members of higher educational institutions, the seminar introduced the UN Decade and discussed the needs, problems, and activities relating to human rights education.

In the same year, the foundation worked with the Nueva Ecija University of Science and

Technology (NEUST), Department of Education, Culture and Sports, Technical Education and Skills Development Authority, the Commission on Higher Education, and the Commission on Human Rights to establish the Central Luzon Human Rights Education Center. The center offers the following services:

- human rights education training;
- consulting services on human rights education programs and projects;
- library services; and
- materials procurement, development, and dissemination.

The center's library is housed at the NEUST Department of Management library. The center aims to serve the needs of all educational institutions in central Luzon and civil-society institutions such as NGOs, workers and employers organizations, community organizations, and officials of local government units and national government agencies. It held a regional trainers' training on human rights education in cooperation with NEUST and TESDA. Lecturers came from CHR, CHED, TESDA, DECS, NEUST, and PANGKAT Foundation.

PANGKAT Foundation has influenced the NEUST in integrating human rights education in the activities of its students and offering a subject on human rights education in its graduate programs where teachers from both private and public schools enroll. Human rights education is covered under the subject Legal Foundations of Education for graduate students taking up courses on educational management, master of arts in teaching, and master of arts in industrial education. Human rights education is likewise included in the practicum of students, which entails doing field research and attending seminars. This system is employed in NEUST's graduate courses held in collaboration with the Aurora State College of Technology (ASCOT). In March 2000, graduate students of ASCOT enrolled in Legal Foundations of Education held a human

rights education seminar in one community in San Luis, Aurora, for the local residents (including indigenous people) and officials. A similar seminar held two years ago in two other towns of the province resulted in the establishment of the Teachers' Legal Bureau composed of the teacher-graduate students. The organization aims to promote human rights.

Notes

1. Asia-Pacific Human Rights Information Center, *Human Rights Education in Asian Schools*, Osaka, 1998, p. iii.

2. Valai na Pombejr, "The United Nations and Human Rights Education in Schools" in *Human Rights Education in Asian Schools*, p. 2.

3. Ibid.

4. Asia-Pacific Human Rights Information Center, p. 5.

5. Ibid., p 6.

6. The Magna Carta for Public School Teachers is another name for Republic Act Number 4670, which was enacted on 18 June 1966. This law is meant to promote and improve the social and economic status of public school teachers, their living and working conditions, their terms of employment, and career prospects. Many provisions of this law "while qualified or strengthened by subsequent laws, including the New Constitution, are still valid." Jose N. Nollodo, *The Education Act of the Philippines—Annotated*, Manila: National Bookstore, 1995, page 89.

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Thailand: The Thongbai Thongpao Experience

THONGBAI THONGPAO FOUNDATION

The Thongbai Thongpao Foundation, established in 1990, is the main vehicle for public service by a well-known Thai human rights lawyer—Thongbai Thongpao. It continues the legal assistance and education programs of the Thongbai Thongpao Law Office, which was established in 1966.

Thongbai Thongpao started as a lawyer-journalist. He was imprisoned by the military government of Marshal Sarit Thanarat in 1958 after returning from a visit to China. He was accused of being a communist. Thailand at that time had no diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China. He spent eight years in jail without trial. A military court acquitted him in 1966. During his imprisonment, he realized that the prisoners were unaware of their rights. He then started an education program for the prisoners on their legal rights. He also found the time to study many laws that were not only obsolete but were used against the poor.

When he was finally released from jail, he decided to establish a legal aid program to help those in need, especially prisoners. His clients ranged from poor farmers to activists who were arrested on false charges of ties with the Communist Party of Thailand. Since then, he has handled many cases of importance to the development of democracy in Thailand.

Immensely popular in his country, Thongbai Thongpao continues to work as a journalist for several newspapers and magazines on law and societal issues, relaying knowledge about the law and human rights.

He received a Ramon Magsaysay Award in 1984 for his “effective and fair use of his legal skills and pen to defend those who have ‘less in life and thus need more in law.’”¹

The foundation has the following objectives:

- Provide legal literacy to people.
- Participate in social development activities to support people's self-reliance.
- Encourage people to create a peaceful society.
- Coordinate its development activities with government agencies and social action groups.

The foundation is governed by the following principles:

- Every person has equal rights, and people who are in distress must be able to take part in solving their own problems.
- Human rights, peace, and fraternity must be upheld.
- People must learn about human rights issues, the law, and ethics; they must also help victims of injustice.

The foundation thus has a number of legal education activities that try to reach various sectors of society through different mediums.

¹ This paper is based on the report *Making Thai People Use the Law: Non-formal Legal Education in Thailand* by Jefferson R. Plantilla submitted to the National Research Council of Thailand (December 1998).

They target people in the villages, as well as children and workers.

A team led by Thongbai Thongpao himself regularly visits rural areas where law is taught to farmers and other local residents. Classes are held on Saturdays and Sundays from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. with short breaks. They teach the Thai constitution, human rights, laws on marriage, loans and mortgages, labor, and everyday situations. The lectures include dramatizations of court cases. The people are encouraged to ask questions after the class.

So that people will not be bored, presentations use simple language or even the local dialect such as waw laos. Lecturers are informal and tell jokes to prevent people from falling asleep.²

The foundation also has a legal aid course, which trains people at the village level on how to use the legal system in addressing their problems. Those who finish the course receive certificates that prove their qualification to provide legal aid whenever necessary. Participants receive identification cards with their photo, and the name and signature of their lawyer. At the back of the card is a list of the rights of suspects: the right to remain silent, to legal assistance, to know the charges against them, and the right to bail.³

The foundation produces a newsletter, videos (on child rights, family law, moot court), slides, and legal handbooks (on human rights, laws on guns, family, land, forest, sales, labor, slum areas). In order to maintain their links with each other, the foundation and rural communities establish centers for legal assistance and counseling as well as village, district, provincial, and the regional human rights committees. In northeast Thailand (the Isaan region), a human rights committee was formed, composed of 17 provincial committees. The committees have card-bearing members. (Each village has about 7-9 members.)

Training activities are held upon the request of village leaders, schoolteachers, and the Ministry of Education. They may last 1-2 days (Sat-

urday and Sunday). To support the formation of human rights committees, the foundation holds training activities attended by 500-1,000 people at once.

In cooperation with the Ministry of Interior, the foundation participates in human resource development activities for government personnel and in local community education activities for community leaders.

The foundation team visits around 30 villages and districts annually. In 1992, the foundation held 22 legal training sessions for students, youths, teachers, local leaders, women leaders, and people in general, reaching a total of 2,425 people. In 1993, it "conducted such [legal education] programs benefiting about 2,032 rural people in 212 districts, including places as widespread as Chiang Rai, Khon Kaen in the North, and Surin, near the Cambodian border. In 1994, 24 districts were served involving 5,325 people in villages including Suphan Buri, Chon Buri, Sai Khao, Samut Sakhon, Lop Buri, Pathun Thani, Chiang Khan, and Samut Songkhram."⁴

One foundation project (Law for Rural Areas—Use of the Media), held over two months in 1992, involved a series of training activities for teachers, and women and men local leaders in five provinces (Lopburi, Pattalong, Nakorn Sri Thammarat, Pichit, and Chiangrai). It was held in cooperation with the Ministries of Interior and Education, the General Education Department, and the Office of the National Primary Education Commission. Of the 484 participants, 70% were teachers.

In Amphur Buayai, the foundation and the local teachers' group set up a center providing free legal assistance and counseling, which saves the villagers a trip to Bangkok to solve their legal problems.⁵

An evaluation of the training activities shows the following data:

- 112 (65.5%) of the teachers said that they learned something about the law.
- 130 (76.0%) said that the training was useful but too short.

- All said they would like to get specific information about the laws.
- All suggested allotting more time for questions and discussions.⁶

The foundation currently has other activities that are also related to legal education:

- Protection of Child Rights project. It aims to provide legal assistance to children in need and launch a public campaign to raise awareness of the human and legal rights of children. It also aims to foster a network of cooperation between organizations providing legal assistance and advice to children.
- Labor Law for Children and Women in the Rural Areas project. It aims to promote the labor law regarding children, women, and the public in general in rural areas and to support people who migrate to cities as laborers by making them aware of their rights.
- Legal Literacy for Children project. It aims to coordinate with schools in Bangkok and also in rural areas to provide legal education to schoolchildren.
- Promotion of Child Rights to the General Public project. It aims to raise awareness about the rights of the child among the general public and to urge people to join the project's activities.

The foundation has another set of regular legal education activities that are aimed mainly at the general public. It has a weekly 15-minute radio program called "Law for Everyday Life." It also has magazine columns in several magazines:

- "Law for Women," in a women's magazine;
- "Law and Life," in a men's magazine; and
- "Law for Everyday Life" and "Law Close to You," in general readership magazines (*Moh Khao Ban* and *Taan Weekly*, respectively).

Thongbai Thongpao abides by his principles in performing his educational tasks to the public, including children in schools. It is said that his "prowess as a human rights lawyer stems not from his love of law, but from his determination to fight injustice: 'I know very little about law, I know only justice.'"⁷

May this principle be a guide to the students and teachers alike.

Notes

1. See "Thongbai Thongpao—Citation read by Dr. Dioscoro Umali, Trustee, Ramon Magsaysay Award Foundation," Ramon Magsaysay Award 1984 booklet on public service (Manila: Ramon Magsaysay Award Foundation) 8.

2. Supakana Sopittakamol, "Legal Literacy with the Thongbai Foundation," *Bangkok World Student Weekly* (2 March 1992): 10.

3. Richard Claude, *Educating for Human Rights — The Philippines and Beyond* (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1996) 158.

4. *Ibid.*, 157.

5. "'Law' Made Easy for the Rural People," Magsaysay Awardee, Manila, January-June 1994, 12.

6. Newsletter of Thongbai Foundation (April-June 1993) 3.

7. Magsaysay Award Citation, 21.

Human Rights Education in New Zealand Schools

RAJEN PRASAD

There is now an increasing supply of written materials on human rights education in schools. Among them are recent publications by the Asia-Pacific Human Rights Information Center in Osaka, Japan. The first chapter of the center's 1999 publication, *Schools, Human Rights and Society*, provides a useful analysis of human rights education in Southeast, Northeast, and South Asia. Its analysis could well apply to New Zealand, and equally to Australia, Canada, and the United States. Many of the publications about human rights education have a number of common themes, most of which have been carefully captured in the materials provided for this workshop.

The United Nations High Commission for Human Rights and most national human rights commissions and related nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) justifiably place a high value on the school as a critical site for the promotion of understanding and for acquiring competence in human rights matters. New Zealand articulates a similar view. The Office of the Race Relations Conciliator, where I work, has signaled an altered strategic approach by which New Zealand's race relations and race discrimination issues will be addressed through a sustained educational program. The school is a primary site in the strategy.

We all seem to take a values-based experimental approach to sensitizing students to human rights concepts. In most of our countries, both government and NGOs, with varying levels of involvement, are the providers of the programs. The materials that have been developed to date have many similarities.

In most countries, however, despite the quality of human rights education materials produced for use in schools, the topic is usually relegated to compete with other aspects of the school curriculum. We often find that unless

the teacher has a particular interest in human rights, it is left virtually to chance to determine whether or not the topic will be included in the teaching/learning program. Some schools gladly include human rights topics while others do not see it as part of the basic curriculum at all. Too many schools seem interested only in the basic curriculum with subjects such as reading, writing, science, mathematics, language, and the like, but place much less weight on values, critical thinking, fairness, and equity. Consequently, many students are not introduced to human rights issues.

The New Zealand Experience

Despite the generalities, the specific form of human rights education a country adopts is context specific. In New Zealand, for example, understanding the context requires some knowledge of New Zealand history, the country's definitions of what constitutes human rights, the nature of its education system, the structure of the education curriculum, the value placed on human rights by administrators and teachers, leadership for human rights,

the general culture of New Zealand, and the resources allocated to human rights education.

My task is to explain New Zealand's experiences and the lessons we have learned over the 27 years that we have had a human rights institution.

New Zealand is a Pacific nation of 3.8 million people. It was established by the Treaty of Waitangi between the sovereign Maori tribes and the British Crown in 1840. In 1996, 71% percent of its people were of British or European origin, 15% Maori, about 5% Pacific Islanders, and 4% of Asian background. In less than 50 years, it is projected that only half the population will be of European origin, indigenous people will make up 20%, and Asian and Pacific peoples about 12% each. New Zealand society is going through demographic changes that will vastly alter its population mix.

While New Zealand's history is one of the usual excesses of colonization, its more recent history reflects a desire to resolve the breaches of the treaty by the Crown and to acknowledge our indigenous peoples. The resurgence of the importance of our founding document over the last 20 years or so has changed the nature of the relationship between the government and the Maori, and its imprint is seen in many aspects of New Zealand life. Consequently, some people feel that the focus on indigenous people has gone too far and believe it is time to create "one law for all" and to treat everyone the same. We all know this is a code for wanting everyone to be like the majority.

When we examine human rights today, we do so against a background of considerable recent discussion and debate about the rights of particular sections of our society. There is some sensitivity amongst non-indigenous people about the issues and the demand to resolve treaty grievances. A number of large claims have been resolved, in turn creating further tensions. The important point is to realize that the conflicts are also interpreted as human rights and race relations issues.

New Zealand's more recent immigration policies have shifted from attracting migrants from traditional European sources to skill-based and investment-based migration from any country. The result is a much greater mix of cultures and increased migrant visibility in our neighborhood. The pace of change is fairly rapid and citizens have not been fully informed about the impact of the changes or of the many efforts to plan for the future impact of the changes.

Human rights education in New Zealand also has to be seen against the background of two macro developments. First, the country shifted to a deliberate and aggressive market model in its purest form in 1984. Its ideological position has for the past 15 years determined the purpose and role of government, the role of the market, greater competition, the notion of individual choice and responsibility, less state intervention in the lives of citizens, and a systematic reduction in welfare.

While a great deal of attention has been given to providing the "right" conditions for economic development, the human-capital side of the development equation has been left to the market to determine. The impact of these profound shifts on citizens and their human rights is not to be underestimated.

Another major change that has been taking place and which informs the context of human rights education in schools is our education reforms. Compulsory primary and secondary education is provided by the state. Reforms were spurred by the drive for efficiencies. Now all schools are effectively run by locally elected Boards of Trustees, who are usually, although not exclusively, the parents of the children in the school. Many schools have been directed by their Boards of Trustees to focus on the essential curriculum, usually reading, writing, mathematics, science, and the like.

The challenge to traditional human rights education is enormous. An environment that values individualism at the expense of cooperation, that tolerates significant levels of un-

employment and differential access to quality health services for all risks discrimination and endangers the whole society. The converse is an inclusive society giving attention to the relationship among citizens and between government and citizen.

The second challenge is to address the issues arising out of the nation's founding document, initially to increase understanding of the constitutional and historical significance of the treaty and its present-day status. Conflict has developed between social sectors that accept the treaty and its implications and those that want it completely excluded from any consideration. The matter is further complicated by the fact that government has accepted that many of the cultural and property rights of the indigenous people have been disregarded.

The third challenge is to come to terms with growing ethnic diversity and to prepare for dramatically altered inter-ethnic relations.

The fourth challenge is to increase the level of knowledge about international human rights conventions and the provisions of New Zealand's own human rights legislation. The challenge includes making more avenues available to citizens to lodge complaints of discrimination and receive information about their rights.

The School Curriculum Structure

The school curriculum provides many opportunities for human rights education. It is guided by nine principles that guide all teaching and learning. It specifies seven essential learning areas that describe in broad terms the knowledge and understanding that all students need to acquire, seeks the development of eight essential skills by all students, and indicates the place of attitudes and values in the school curriculum.

The key principles for the New Zealand education curriculum are the following:

- Establish the direction for learning and assessment in all schools.

- Foster achievement and success for all students.
- Provide for flexibility, enabling teachers to design programs appropriate to the learning needs of the students.
- Ensure that learning progresses coherently throughout schooling.
- Encourage students to become independent and lifelong learners.
- Provide all students with equal educational opportunities.
- Recognize the significance of the Treaty of Waitangi.
- Reflect the multicultural nature of New Zealand society.
- Relate learning to the wider world.

The seven learning areas include:

- learning and language;
- mathematics;
- science;
- technology;
- social sciences;
- the arts; and
- health and physical well-being.

The eight essential skills include those related to the following:

- communication;
- numbers;
- information;
- problem solving;
- self-management and competition;
- social and cooperation;
- physical ability; and
- work and study.

Finally, the school curriculum is required to reinforce the commonly held values of individual and collective responsibility that underpin New Zealand society: honesty, reliability, respect for others, respect for the law, tolerance, fairness, caring or compassion, nonsexism, and nonracism.

The curriculum framework provides for a flexible approach to education where one ac-

tivity could address a number of curriculum goals. Consequently, while human rights do not constitute a curriculum area, they could be taught under a number of learning areas and essential skills. Opportunities to include human rights in lessons exist in social studies, the arts, and health and well-being, and in teaching communication, problem solving, and socializing and cooperation skills.

Definition of Human Rights

A wide range of educational experiences would qualify as human rights education. While the Human Rights Commission and the Race Relations Office have specific programs in schools, other organizations have also secured opportunities to offer courses or develop materials for use by teachers. The organizations include the following:

- The Peace Foundation, which offers courses on learning peaceful relations (for primary schools) and extending peaceful relations (for secondary schools). It provides books of activities that the teacher can use to achieve several curriculum goals. It also offers a “Cool Schools” program, a school-based mediation program run by students, which is copyrighted and available only to people who have gone through their training program.
- The Youth Law Office, which offers legal education programs to young people to make them aware of the range of legal provisions that affect them and how to access legal help when required.
- The Human Rights Commission, which offers three courses, one each for primary, intermediate, and secondary schools. All three courses follow the inquiry process and incorporate values exploration and social decision making.

Courses are divided into six modules. Each module is structured so that it allows teachers to focus teaching and learning both on the

objectives of the national curriculum and on understanding human rights.

The activities range from warm-up games, class discussion, brainstorming, group work, individual work, debates, and information interpretation. Most courses have an enrichment and an extension suggestion that links the students to the wider community and then to the global one.

The Race Relations Office offers a range of learning opportunities for young people. Usually a staff member provides the education input. The office aims to achieve a heart-and-mind shift by having people think and feel during the learning experiences.

A separate program, “In Tune,” is available to schools. It focuses on the Treaty of Waitangi, its historical origins, current application, and impact on New Zealand society. It is available in the country’s two official languages and is designed to fit into a number of the topics in the national social studies curriculum themes.

New Zealand’s human rights education in schools mirrors much of other countries’ experience. Human rights education is usually not explicitly identified as such except in the programs that are about to be introduced by the Human Rights Commission. The programs are offered by a number of organizations and are designed to be flexible enough to be incorporated into the school curriculum at a number of different levels and in different learning areas.

Perhaps the only remarkable element about New Zealand’s human rights education is the pervasive influence of the Treaty of Waitangi. Our founding document prescribes the relationship between tribes and the Crown, but many citizens have some way to go to fully accept its status and importance. Issues relating to the rights of indigenous peoples are often submerged because of the status of the treaty in New Zealand law and because of the significant progress that has been made to resolve the disputes of the past.

Implications

Despite much of the excellent work that has been done in human rights education, our experiences and lessons learned might be the same as other countries’.

- Human rights education is optional.

The carefully designed programs aimed at different aspects of the curriculum will come to nothing unless teachers accept it as an idea worth supporting. Human rights education cannot remain as a one-shot act of conscience but must be sustained by a strong belief in the human rights perspective. Such a powerful educational program needs continuity in the higher grades at school. If a series of inputs is meant to follow a reasonably precise order, then missing one or two critical sessions will tend to negate the impact of the program overall. No element of public policy that has an optional aspect to it has a good record of achieving behavioral change, especially when some are cynical about its importance and others take it on board grudgingly.

This shortcoming can be fixed by a much stronger commitment on the part of the educational fraternity. Whether it will occur on a voluntary basis is a matter for conjecture. Consequently, some thought may need to be given at the level of policy to make human rights education in schools compulsory.

- Human rights education requires a human rights mindset.

We still have some way to go to develop a pervasive mindset that supports human rights education and sees it as a powerful element of national development. To do so requires a major promotional exercise that has to demonstrate the benefits of enhancing human rights protection. For as long as the focus is on the excessive compliance costs of human rights protection, the issue will remain one to be brought out into the open a little more

deliberately. At times it seems that people feel that human rights are fine provided human rights education doesn’t get out of hand.

- Human rights education needs powerful leaders to promote it.

Only powerful national leaders will be able to promote human rights education in schools, communities, businesses, and in public policy consideration. We live in times where evidence of ethnic conflicts and human rights abuses are well documented internationally, which should provide the impetus for renewed focus on developing a discrimination-free society.

- Human rights education should be approached holistically.

There is no doubt that schools are a natural site for transforming society into a more rights-conscious society. However, we are unable to calculate the extent to which the good work done in the schools is being undone by parents and others in the community. In order to ensure that this does not happen, other members of the community ought to receive appropriate human rights education as well.

- Human rights education teachers must be trained.

One wonders if we will ever have enough resources to introduce human rights education in all schools. It is therefore imperative that the next generation of teachers be trained to internalize the human rights perspective and then to provide classroom training themselves. The model of human rights education in New Zealand and in many other countries, which is dependent on human rights commissions and NGOs developing material for optional use by schools, will ensure that inconsistencies continue and the educational fraternity is absolved of its broader responsibility for human rights education. Thus, an effective human rights education strategy for teacher training is required.

- Human rights education efforts should be evaluated.

We need to be sure that our educational efforts are successful. Consequently, appropriate, longitudinal, and cross-sectional studies need to be commissioned to evaluate the effects of human rights training programs. We need to know if we are affecting thinking and action and in what direction. We need to know the extent to which parents corrupt the learning that children experience and the conditions under which the learning is enhanced by their interests.

- Program development should carefully plan the actual use of materials.

It takes a long time to develop and produce effective materials for human rights education in schools. It is heartbreaking when so much has been done to produce material, which then sits on the shelves unused.

Conclusion

The New Zealand experience of human rights education in schools has much in common with other countries in the region. Our programs follow a similar logic and methods. The historical treaty-based context of New Zealand provides it with some special challenges that have to do with indigenous rights and breaches of the covenants. Perhaps the underestimated element of human rights education in New Zealand has to do with the politics of implementation as there are political considerations, from the conceptualization to the development and implementation of an educational program. If we could strip the process of the considerations that limit the resources available, that frustrate the introduction of programs into schools, and that subvert the message of positive human rights, then we could develop a true human rights culture where people do not miss out on that to which they are entitled simply on the basis of what nature and circumstance have endowed them.

Textbook Analysis, Education Policy,
Training, Research and Surveys

India: Devaluation and Distortion of Human Rights in Textbooks

SHEELA BARSE

As someone who stepped into the arena of public expression and action in spontaneous rebellion against deprivation and exploitation, I have instinctive difficulties in accepting the term “human rights” and its recent common, almost-casual usage. Although I invoke human rights instruments in my work, I invariably stumble when the expression lands in my path, as a question mark I am not ready to deal with yet. The gilding of coinage gives rise to anxieties that the glitter may hide the disturbing flaws of conceptualization, identification, and composition from the undiscerning eye and distract us into blind acceptance of this work of the United Nations (UN) General Assembly.

That the controversy over human rights conceptualization is deeply rooted in Western sociocultural and political systems is well known. Many activists must have found that the UN-codified human rights do not match our intuitive zeroing-in on violations and our perceptions of what the rights of wronged peoples should be. The tensions between rights of different groups are not easy to resolve. Juridical collages and amalgamations of different UN conventions, covenants, declarations, principles, and protocols do not always yield a perfect picture.¹

The Constitution empowers the Supreme Court to interpret it and to review laws and judicial and executive decisions. The Constitution’s potential for developing and updating human rights is therefore great. However, the quality of judicial pronouncement is not assured; hence, the expositions of the Supreme Court may not project a great image of human rights.

Flaws and incompleteness are not bad news. Precepts cannot be magically pulled out of the Assembly Hall. Ideas dealing with complexities of human lives and civilizations need time

and space to develop. That human rights formatting is neither complete nor perfect leaves us with plenty of creative work to be done. The juxtaposition of human rights and school children provides one such exploration and formulation adventure.

Old, New, Newer Rights of Children

For a right to be a beacon and enforceable, it must be specific, and all other semantics associated with it must be precise and transparent. Our focus is on schoolchildren, so we should be sure of the definitions of the words such as child, school, education, and human rights, surely, and their baggage. What is a school, for example? Is a building an essential component of the concept? Are printed textbooks the sum and substance of schooling? Is the expression a noun or a verb or both? Should we presume the UN instruments to be the last word on a subject? How are the rights to freedom and culture accommodated in a system? I am not a pedagogue and this paper is not a plea for a legal thesaurus. But the ferment of such questioning does bubble in the stream of thought in this paper.

The theme of this paper, split into clauses for convenience, is as follows:

- Children's mental and physical ability, and needs are relevant to evaluation of school textbooks.
- Ignoring this fact leads to erosion of child rights.
- Child rights vis-a-vis textbooks ought to be developed before introducing child rights and human rights in school curriculums.
- Some textbooks distort or devalue human rights and ideas about them.
- Deviance in the syllabus and textbooks must also be corrected before teaching and learning material on human rights are introduced into schools.

These propositions seek sustenance from UN instruments and the Constitution and extend to newer, needed formulations such as a specifically scripted fundamental right to childhood.

I would like to explore and expand a new charter of education rights around which this critique is built:

- *Right to childhood*, which has not been codified in so many words, but is implicit in the UN and the Constitution's articles on education, child labor, special care, etc.²
- *Right to learning experience*. This should be a foremost, primary right. It should include a right *not* to be targeted as a crowd or as consumers of packaged mixes to be mindlessly stored in memory and ladled out at tests and examinations. It is the right to participate in the process of learning, decisions about learning and, learning itself.
- *Right to education*, which the UN instruments and the Constitution recognize.³
- *Right to culture*, which is endorsed by many UN conventions and documents, and the Constitution.⁴

- *Right to information*, which is formalized by the UN General Assembly and the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, and is implicit in the Constitution.⁵
- *Right to creative* expression and activity as a development right.
- *Right to safe schools*, implicitly guaranteed in the Constitution.⁶
- *Right to equality* of access and opportunity.⁷
- *Right to peace*. Peace is not merely absence of war, but implies a positive construct and resolution of tensions and conflicts.

I feel great affinity with the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article 29:

- State 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;
 - The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
 - The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country from which he or she may originate and for civilizations different from his or her own;
 - 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;
 - The development of respect for the natural environment.
- No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with

the liberty of individuals or bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principles set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article and requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid by the State.

Selection of Textbooks for this Paper

In our multilingual, federal nation, syllabi, standards, and contents of prescribed textbooks are as naturally diverse as their sociocultural and political contexts. In the western state of Maharashtra, schooling is available in several languages. In Mumbai, the Maharashtra state capital, the spectrum of school management sectors is broad and varied. Some schools are set up and controlled by clerics—Muslim, Christian, Hindu, and Parsee. Some are run by trusts, and may be elitist and expensive or cater to slum dwellers. Some are run by the central government, the state government, the local (municipal) administration, and private bodies such as nongovernmental organizations that offer nonformal education on sidewalks, in buses, in open spaces, and in slums. The students and parents have a choice of the State Board for the Secondary School Certificate Examination, the national Central Board School Examination, and the Indian School Certificate Examination, which is supposed to meet Commonwealth standards. The municipal corporation of Mumbai offers primary school education in eight languages: the national language, Hindi; the state language, Marathi; the languages of the large communities in the city—Gujarathi, Kannada, Tamil, Telugu, and Malayalam; and English, the national language of administration.

Given this complexity, an exhaustive study is not possible unless multilingual talents are pooled together. I had to choose and circumscribe the focus of this study, taking into account the following:

- my proficiency in a language and the knowledge of its literature; and
- my concerns as a child rights campaigner.

So for this presentation I opted for the language readers of Hindi, Marathi, and English, and the textbooks of history and civics for grades V to X. They offer a reasonably broad panorama. It must be mentioned that all schoolbooks are not sold under one roof and some textbooks may be out of print. Thus not all the textbooks are available in the market.

State bodies, using the guidelines given by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), select the textbook contents.

For the awesome task of writing and selecting texts, the state education councils have to rely on diverse talents. Therefore, no matter how great the effort invested in execution of this responsibility, there can be no assurance of an unblemished outcome. I certainly would not dwell on small spots and smudges.

The children have to study 3-4 languages—the medium of instruction, which may be an Indian language; Hindi; the state language, if it is different from the language of instruction; and, at the same stage, English, if it is not the medium of instruction. Thus, a Hindi-medium school student in Mumbai would have to study Marathi and English. A Marathi-medium student would have to study Hindi and English.

The language other than the medium of instruction is known as the second language. For a Hindi-medium school, for example, Marathi could be second language, and for an English-medium student, Hindi and Marathi.

I divide this analysis into broad theses:

- violence in school textbooks;
 - validation of physical and mental punishment;
 - use of violence for dispute settlement;
- the environment as a “natural” casualty;
- martyrdom and war; and
- gender discrimination.

Violence in School Textbooks: Validation of Physical and Mental Punishment

Let me begin by clarifying some of my value positions and perspectives.

Children generally may not have problems with the cruelties and killings described or depicted in stories, and therefore adults should perhaps not be so protective unless the brutality is excessive or sadistic or is rationalized.

Classic creative works should not be censored out of children's lives simply because of their violent content. But when it is time to introduce students to great literature or films, care must be taken so that young minds do not view the violent works as parables or moral stories. In short, text should not be puritanical.

This affirmation does not help the Maharashtra state school education councils and the textbook production and curriculum research councils to counter my sharp criticism of violence ingrained in some of the Maharashtra school texts. The texts project abuse, assault, physical and mental punishment, degradation, torture, and maiming as good, useful, normal, acceptable aspects of human behavior and as dependable, effective, role-model-approved tools of correction.

In a Hindi (second language) textbook for 10-year-olds, an illustrated story tells how M. K. Gandhi as a child was caned by his teacher for coming late to school. The future Mahatma accepts the corporal punishment as deserved. The child, who was to become the most enduring symbol of nonviolence in the world, is presented to children as a person who legitimizes teachers' violence as a disciplinary tool. In the Marathi (second language) textbook for grade VI, the teacher canes pupils for littering the classroom. One of the boys—who grew up to be a legendary freedom fighter, the thinker and social reformer Bal Gangadhar Tilak—refuses to extend his palm to receive the beating because he insists he had not created the mess. Tilak is sent out of the class for

his protest, a punishment he accepts. The moral of the story is not a protest against corporal punishment. No one has any problem with it. The lesson is on honesty.

In a Marathi poem about rain for pupils 12 years old and above, a child pleasantly asks his mother, "Why has the sky been crying since yesterday morning? Do you think his mother must have beaten him the whole day? Does she also get very angry as you do?" The illustration depicts a bemused mother. Thus, an abusive mother is projected as pleasant a being as the poet's mother and associated with a universal phenomenon as rain.

In a story purporting to resolve the tension between classroom discipline and giving space to the pupil's creativity,⁸ a teacher emotionally suffocates and mentally tortures a boy who has painted a nature scene from memory during the class assignment of geometrical scale drawing (of a cube). The teacher's priorities are obedience, discipline, and strict adherence to the teacher's schedule and scheme of teaching. The child's creativity, sensitivity, and instinctive exposition of talent are evils in the context of the teacher's agenda. Agitated and stressed, the boy tears up his painting and promises to do creative work only at home. This is projected as positive outcome of the degradation and the anguish suffered by the child, and proof that the teacher's brutality was a just method of bringing order into the student's life.

Use of Violence for Dispute Settlement

How do you instruct errant citizens in social change? By resorting to threat of or real thrashing: that is the message in a textbook, which, according to its foreword, aims at "personality development, love of literature, realization and growth of esteem for mother tongue, society, and country, and enrichment of social and moral awareness" (translated from the Marathi). The introduction to the story⁹—

a parable of valor and compassion(!)—explains that it is a “personality sketch of the outlaw Sawla, who brings happiness to a family of women destroyed by dowry.”

What is the greatness of Sawla, whose “huge body matches his giant deeds”? He slaps and threatens to kill with his “glittering” axe a man who, along with his young daughter Kashi, hides in the bushes on sighting Sawla. The man pleads for Kashi’s safety as he explains why he hid. He says that the bridegroom and his family had rejected Kashi for not paying the promised dowry. Sawla orders Kashi and her father to accompany him to the groom’s house. Under pain of death, he achieves reconciliation between the greedy, heartless groom and the victim bride. Among Kashi’s heartfelt wishes is a prayer that Sawla’s sword should always be sharp. What do children learn from this story about conflict resolution, about a woman’s ideal behavior as a daughter, a bride and a citizen, and about the rule of law?

One of the “just” acts of Shivaji, the seventh-century nationalist rebel king who is virtually deified in Maharashtra, was to order sadistic punishment for rape and murder.¹⁰ The offender’s arms and legs were to be chopped off and the torso paraded around in public on the back of an ass.

I am quite sure that no historian or ballad singer has ever come across even a hint of such an event in the life of Shivaji. The textbook does not identify or authenticate the story, which is, in my opinion, also a bad piece of literature as it exceeds writer’s license. I have several problems with this wretched piece.

The failure to clarify whether the narrative is a piece of history or a rewritten legend or merely an inventive fiction is a derogation of children’s right to correct information and quality education. Worse, the textbook editors assert that Shivaji’s “love for justice” and appreciation of human qualities find expression in the lesson. What is appreciable in sadistic violence and public display as an interactive mode of contact between the ruler and the citizens?

Unbelievably, this savage, mawkishly sentimental and, I am sure, piece of sheer fancy is meant for students in Hindi- and English-medium schools. The avowed objective of the Education Council is “to inculcate among non-Marathi schoolchildren, the love of and affinity for Marathi.”

In one *samuj*¹¹—literally, lesson—a husband publicly slaps and humiliates his wife in order to eliminate a dowry demand by the wife’s brother and father during the wife’s brother’s wedding. In this “lesson,” the “wisdom” of the author-husband flows in his violent behavior and in his treatment of his wife as a subjugated nonentity. The story, so shockingly derogatory to women, will be discussed in the section on gender discrimination.

Environment a “Natural” Casualty?

Of all the Anglo-Indian writings, the selection of Gieve Patel’s “On Killing a Tree”¹² most defies logic. The guide questions attempt to project the brutal descriptions of the tree and the savagery required to destroy it completely, as proof of life in a tree.

In the anecdote on Shivaji’s “majestic” behavior mentioned in the section on violence,¹³ the ideal king’s strategy for curbing the menace of foxes is to reward the killing of the animals by “brave” citizens who must bring the foxtail as proof of their good deed.

The following poem¹⁴ for Marathi-medium grade VIII adolescent pupils poses a destructive conflict between environment and triumphant science:

I shall crush under my feet
the moon, the sun, the planets and the stars,
banish the gods and demons from the heavens
to the netherworld.
I shall enslave air,
tether rain at my gate.
The goddess of wealth would feel ashamed
if she saw my prosperity.

Martyrdom and War

Is martyrdom noble? Is childhood the right time to assert and reiterate annihilation as an ideal? Is sociopolitical distress the right cause for *harakiri*? Do precaution, good planning and preparedness, dialogue, a commitment to philosophy of nonviolence devalue courage or sacrifice?

At what stage should textbooks move beyond flag flying and into the war zone? Is war wonderful if used to resolve conflict among nations? Does the student have the right to know of modes other than war to maintain national security and achieve peace? If not, does Indian education have a special obligation to inform the children of the ideas, worldviews, and behavior guidelines propounded by our revered protagonists of *ahimsa* (non-violence) and peace—Mahavir Jain, Gautam Buddha, Emperor Ashok, Mahatma Gandhi?

These are disturbing questions if the right to childhood, to innocence, to complete information, to opting for peace are accepted as human rights concerns.

It seems that in their enthusiasm for value education in patriotism, social responsibility, and selfless courage, as prescribed by the National Education Policy of 1986 and the National Council of Educational Research and Training, the text selectors rushed to meet the agenda without a pause for a thought to children's needs.

“Freedom Struggle” is a horrifying, sickening story in the textbook for 11-12-year-olds about the “glorious” death of six “spirited and radiant” 8-10-year-old schoolboys in a close-range police assault with guns and daggers.¹⁵ The gory deaths are purported to be in endorsement of Mahatma Gandhi's 1942 “Quit India” call. The police of the British colonial government charge into a parade of schoolchildren agitating for India's freedom. As policemen attack the children with batons and gunfire, child-hero Shirish bares his chest, chal-

lenging them to shoot him, target him well, and try again if they fail in the first round. After he crumples to the ground, his friends face the police and die from bullet and stab wounds. A “cow” dies in the gunfire, but it is not clear whether she is an animal or meant to be a representation of women. Shirish dies begging for water. The children are not alone when they meet their gory deaths. Adults watch the children's protest and martyrdom from their homes. Lawyers witness the killings from the steps of the court building. The police threaten the few men who are “moved” by the dying child's cries, so no one brings him water. In glorifying the children's martyrdom, the authors ask, What is water? The children died in an attempt to attain for Mother India the immortal drink—*amrut*—of freedom!

Another lesson, projected as a real-life event, records how a youth, Bapu Gaidhani (literally, master of cows), ignores the presence of the fire brigade to rescue children from a two-story building and, half-burnt, re-enters the raging fires to rescue cattle, particularly a cow, and loses his life.¹⁶ The youth glows with satisfaction during the fiery action. Mahatma Gandhi is said to have eulogized his parents for the spiritual richness they received through the son's sacrifice. No mention is made anywhere about the precautions he should have taken or the help the fire brigade could have given him.

Am I reading too much into the selections? You would not think so if you knew how the textbook editors completely distorted the intent of *chhayavadi* (romantic) litterateur Mahadevi Verma in her famous poem “Mitane Ka Adhikar.”¹⁷ The poet romanticizes surrender to sorrow and self-effacement. She argues that pain-free immortals do not experience god's grace of compassion and therefore do not know the depths of melancholy and the generosity of yielding. She eulogizes the joy of merger with a greater universe by accepting agony. But our educator's introduction “informs” the 15-year-old students that the poet

believes “in extreme sacrifices for betterment of humanity” and “self-annihilation to light up the world.” Thus, a poem about pushing the borders of suffering to sublimate one’s existence is presented to the schoolchildren as an ode to the wondrous aspects of martyrdom.

There are countless stories about battles and belligerency. At least one should definitely be deleted from textbooks. In it a World War II veteran is in sickbed when Pakistan attacks India. The soldier is proud when his son, an air force officer, dies in action. He, too, wishes to be killed in action rather than succumb to illness in bed. He dies of a heart attack on learning of the end of the Indo-Pakistani war. The most disturbing aspect of the narrative is that it is replete with descriptions of the veteran’s intoxication at the thought of armed combat and euphoria over martyrdom. The introduction to the tragic tale is hyperbolic.

Wars are a reality and their depictions represent both the student’s right to know and the litterateurs’ right of free expression. But should wars be idealized? Should men be admired for their bloodlust?

Should children not be taught other ways of conflict resolution and their right to peace in the same book? Is peace not a powerful concept?

Gender Discrimination

I have often taken positions opposed by feminists and women’s groups. It was I who persuaded the government to accord a distinct identity to girl-children and launch separate programs for them. But, unlike feminists, I believe that girls belong to the children’s, not the female, stream, although sex discrimination is an aspect of girls’ spectrum of rights.

I record this for a single reason: to appeal that, whatever the readers’ position on women’s issues, they examine my critique with an open mind.

Stereotypical Images of Girls

Millions of Indian girls and women daily perform myriad tasks, from weeding fields to weaving cloth to doing assembly work in factories to nursing, trading, piloting planes, to leading socioeconomic, cultural, creative, and political activities. They are participants in artistic and intellectual fields.

But with rarest of rare exceptions, they are all invisible in the Maharashtra state school textbooks and the Indian School Certificate Examination (ICSE) books. The ICSE curriculums are also obsessed with the West, misinterpret Indian events, and marginalize the Indian elements. The ICSE biases are a damnable class by themselves, hence their derogation of females must be dealt with separately.

When a fraction of the 48 percent the nation’s citizens does surface in the prescribed school studies, the typical girl in both the Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE) and ICSE texts is most likely to be emotional, gossipy, nervous, clumsy, generally incapable of taking care of herself but good at caring for the family—a home helper. The women are mainly good or great mothers, rarely supportive of their husbands, and irredeemably minor or inconsequential players in family and public life. In the ICSE books, they are also difficult teachers or nondescript receptionists.

The female images in SSCE prose texts are tabulated below. The letter “L” identifies the girl/woman as a leading persona; “m,” as a minor/inconsequential character. Positive (+) images include realistic and literary portrayals of girls and women. The negative (-) list includes stereotypes of them as emotional and dependent.

<i>Language of text</i>	<i>School medium of instruction</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Numbers of boys and men</i>	<i>Chapters with human cast</i>	<i>Male*</i>	<i>Male (-)</i>	<i>Female*</i>	<i>Female (-)</i>
Marathi	Marathi	VI	03 B 24 M	19/24	04	07/27	00	03/07
Marathi	Marathi	VII	02 B 30 M	18/21	02	07/32	00	05/06
Marathi	Marathi	VIII	01 B 21 M	19/22	04	05/22	02	04/09
Marathi	Non-Marathi	VI	02 B 23 M	19/25	04	06/25	00	04/06
Marathi	Non-Marathi	VII	00 B 13M	10/14	04	04/13	01	02/03
Marathi	Non-Marathi	VIII	01 B 18 M	12/19	08	01/19	01	01/03
Marathi	Non-Marathi	IX	02 B 09 M	11/12	04	02/11	01	¼
Marathi	Non-Marathi	X	01 B 17 M	10/12	04	05/18	01	02/06
Marathi	Non-Marathi	VI-X	12 B +	155 M	34	37	06	22/43

<i>Language of text</i>	<i>School medium of instruction</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Numbers of girls and women</i>	<i>Chapters with human characters</i>	<i>Roles in which girls and women are sketched</i>	<i>Image</i>	<i>(+)</i>	<i>(-)</i>
Marathi	Marathi	VI	2 G 5 W	19/24	1. Child worker 2. Housewife 3. Housewife 4. Social worker 5. Grandmother 6. Mother 7. Daughter	L real L (-) m (-) L (+) L L (+) L emot	04	03
Marathi	Marathi	VII	1 G 5 W	18/21	1. Housewife 2. Sister 3. Mother-in-law 4. Daughter-in-law 5. Mother	L (-) L sacrf L (-) L (-) m emot		05
Marathi	Marathi	VIII	9W	19/22	1. Housewife 2. Bride 3. Maestro 4. Teacher 5. Grandma 6. Mother 7. Street artist 8. Social worker 9. Farm workers	m (-) m depn L* (+) L (+) L (+) L tough L real L* real L truble	05	04
Marathi	Non-Marathi	VI	2 G 2 S 3 W	19/24	1. Mother 2. Symbol 3. Grandmother 4. Milk woman 5. Dister 6. Symbol 7. Students	L (-) L (-) L (+) L (+) L sacrf L depn m depn	02	05

Continuation

Language of text	School medium of instruction	Grade	Numbers of girls and women	Chapters with human characters	Roles in which girls and women are sketched	Image	(+)	(-)
Marathi	Non-Marathi	VII	3 W	10/14	1. Wife 2. Social worker 3. Travelers	L depn L* (+) L (-)	01	01
Marathi		VIII	2 W	12/19	1. Freedom fighter 2. Grandmother	L* (+) L (+)	02	00
Marathi	Non-Marathi	IX	4 W	11/12	1. Pioneer 2. Mother 3. Mother 4. Wife			
Marathi	Non-Marathi	X	1 G 5 W	10/12	1. Housewife 2. Wife 3. Wife 4. Wife 5. Daughter 6. Wife	L lit. L (+) m (+) L* (+) m victim L victim	03	01
7 textbks		VI-IX	6G+2s+35W	116	7.	35 L 8 m	21	22
Child worker		01	Daughters		02			
Laborers		03	Sisters		02			
Teacher		01	Mothers		06			
Social workers		03	Grandmothers		04			
Pioneer		01	Mother-in-law		01			
Maestro		01	Daughter-in-law		01			
Freedom fighter		01	Wives/Housewives		12			
Students		01			28			
Travelers		01						
Symbols		02						
		13						

* = well-known person or legend; B = boys; M = men; G = girls; W = women; L = leading character; m = minor character; (+) = positive; (-) = negative; trubl = in trouble; depen = dependent; sacrf = sacrifices for family; emot = emotional.

Symbolism indicative of gender roles is included in the tables but excluded from the final tally, which is restricted to human beings.

Total tally:

Girls and women at school or work or traveling	07
Well-known achievers	06
Housebound family members	28
Symbols of feminine characteristics	02

A comparison with the numbers of male characters (good, bad, heroic, or legendary) highlights the suppression of women's roles and their human qualities. Boys are heroic, compassionate, and responsible, while girls are vulnerable, dependent, victims, and willing to sacrifice themselves for their family's well-being or whims.

Of 35 women characters in eight textbooks, 27 are housebound. Only 3 out of the 12 wives/housewives are positive (essentially supportive of their husband); 3 out of 6 mothers are negative; of the 6 women achievers, 3 are social workers. Among the six girl characters, one is a child worker, one a victim, one in trouble, one emotional; one dependent; and one sacrifices herself.

There are 42 girls and women and 167 males, or a ratio of 25:75. Of 34 heroes, only 6 are women, or a ratio of 17.6: 82.4. Female symbols are negative, male symbols positive. Of 167 males, only 37 (22%) are repressive, cruel, greedy, nags, nuisances, sufferers, and victims. Women are depicted as strong and thoughtful only when they are mothers and grandmothers.

In a cast of 167 men, 130 are political executives, leaders, reformers, freedom fighters, litterateurs, industrialists, lawyers, judges, village craftsmen, farmers, honest, studious, and, as family men, supportive. But women are projected as problems half the time, and rarely as role models for achievers.

The ICSE books try to make up for the absence of stories with girls and women as lead characters by portraying females in illustrations. And what do girls do in the pictures? They are likely to get into trouble; they help in the kitchen; they sew; they baby-sit; they nag.

Women are mostly housewives, occasionally teachers and receptionists. Boys and men may be involved in a variety of outdoor activities when not relaxing.

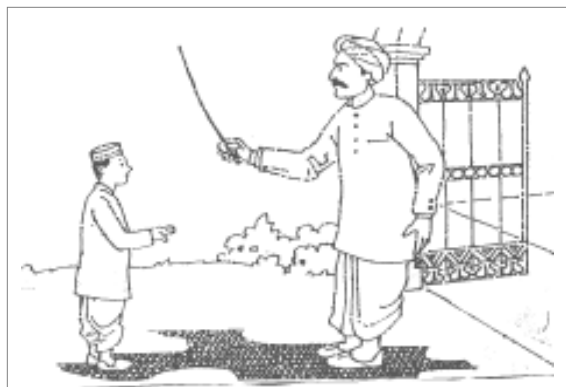
The illustration below is from *Advanced English Coursebook* for ICSE middle school. The year level is not specified.

Wife Beating Promoted in Lesson on Gender Rights

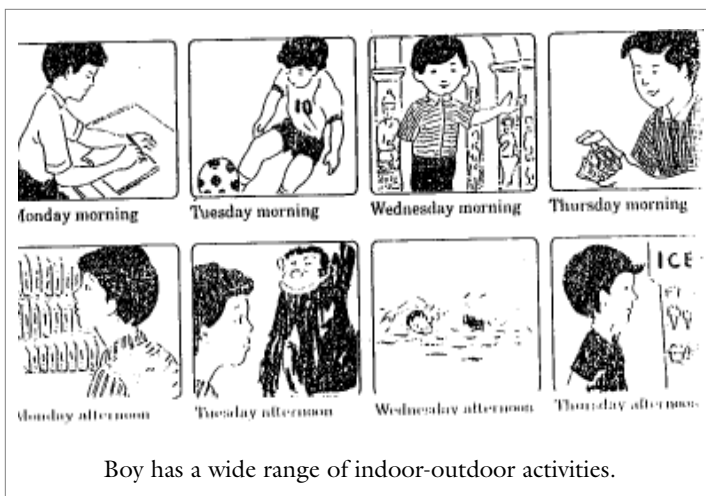
If all the textbooks were cleansed of all biases and the vacuum filled with affirmative material, but if one samuj¹⁸ survived, it would be sufficient to demand accountability of the Textbook Board.

The author of the story is introduced as a writer whose forte is depiction of tensions within rural families and *their resolution*. In the samuj, the textbook editors inform the student, the lesson is given to the father-in-law. The wedding of Daji, brother of our “hero’s” wife Shyamala, is held up because the father-in-law wants dowry. Daji, too, succumbs to greed. Our “hero” has a solution.

He hollers for Shyamala, attracting the attention of all present in the crowded wedding hall. She “rushes in, all decked up, showing off, joyous with memories of their own wedding.” As the stunned guests watch, he slaps her hard on her cheek. As she turns away humiliated and tormented, he pulls her back, hits



The Future ‘Mahatma’ M.K. Gandhi Coolly to accepting caning as disciplinary punishment for being late to school.



Boy has a wide range of indoor-outdoor activities.



a. *If you do not get up, you will be late.*



b. *Unless you submit your work, you will be in trouble.*



c. ... you ask him, I am sure that he will help you.



d. *I shall not go ... you come too.*



e. ... you wait here, I will see if Mr Gupta is in his room.



f. ... you finish before I do, please wait for me.



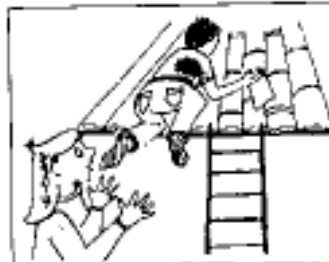
g. ... he replies soon, I shall write to him again.



h. *Bring the trousers back ... they do not fit.*



i. *You'll cut yourself ... you are not careful.*



a. *fall/hurt*



b. *drop/break*



c. *touch/get bitten*



d. *cut/get sick*



e. *fall/break*



f. *take off/get burned*

Girls nag, get into trouble, need help.

her hard again, and shouts out his demand for the dowry he never received when he married her. If his wish is not instantly fulfilled, he threatens, it is the end of their marriage. Chastened, the greedy father drops the dowry demand and orders his son's wedding to go ahead. The author concludes, "It took me some time to explain and soften her (*samjoot kadhayala*), but in the midst of it all, I had a full meal and burped."

The lessons of the story, as I understand them, are the following:

- A wife is a possession devoid of rights of dignity, integrity of her person, equal status, and can be the object of whimsical abuse and public humiliation.
- Wife-beating is great if the cause is right.
- Mental and physical violence is a wonderful, reliable tool for teaching relatives a lesson, and its use should not cause guilt or interfere with enjoyment of a feast.
- A man's sensibilities about and sensitivity to public causes justifies cruelty to family members.
- The hurts caused to wives do not last long. Women's emotions can be satisfactorily manipulated with some effort, but without taking away a macho man's glory and enjoyment of life.

Violation of Right to Culture, Dignity, and Correct Information

Violation of Culture Rights

The right to culture surely includes correct and comprehensive information about one's culture. The Maharashtra text selectors seem to be unaware of India's myriad cultures and even the dominant cultures. For example, the scores of language and history textbooks make no reference to the northeastern region (known as a group of seven sister states), the home of distinctive ethnic streams, where women have major roles as managers of the village economy.

The Indian Union has 26 states and 6 centrally administered union territories. The names and the languages of the states are listed below to give the reader a sense of multiplicity of regions and cultures. The language identified in parentheses is only the main, official language.

- Andhra Pradesh (Telugu, tribal languages)
- Arunachal Pradesh (several tribal languages)
- Assam (Assamese and tribal languages)
- Bihar (Hindi, its dialects, tribal languages)
- Delhi (Hindi)
- Goa (Konkani)
- Gujerath (Gujerathi and Kacchi)
- Haryana (Haryanvi)
- Himachal Pradesh (Himachali, Pahadi)
- Jammu and Kashmir (Kashmiri, Dogra, Tibetan)
- Karnataka (Kannada and Konkani)
- Kerala (Malayalam)
- Madhya Pradesh (Hindi and tribal languages)
- Maharashtra (Marathi and several tribal languages)
- Manipur (Manipuri and tribal languages)
- Meghalaya (tribal languages)
- Mizoram (Mizo and other tribal languages)
- Nagaland (Naga and other tribal languages)
- Orissa (Oriya and tribal languages)
- Punjab (Punjabi)
- Rajasthan (Rajasthani, Marwari, tribal languages)
- Sikkim (Sikkimese and Tibetan)
- Tamil Nadu (Tamil)
- Tripura (tribal language and Bengali)
- Uttar Pradesh (Hindi, its dialects, Gadhwal, tribal languages)
- West Bengal (Bengali)

Eighteen languages (including the national language Hindi and the "heritage language" Sanskrit) are recognized by the Constitution for the purpose of public administration, edu-

cation, literary awards, etc. The tribal languages and other dialects number more than 250.

Some of the oldest and richest literature of the world is in three Indian languages—Marathi (and its sister dialects), Kannada, and Malayalam. Orissa, Assam, Bihar, and other states have some of the richest art forms. But reading the SSCE and ICSE textbooks, the student would not know of their existence, let alone their wealth and magnificence.

India is home to hundreds of tribes (635 were recorded by a study group), some of whom are the earth's oldest inhabitants.¹⁹ Their role as major protectors of the environment has been acknowledged in several studies.²⁰ The Europeans could not colonize some major ethnic groups.²¹ But our children do not even know of their existence.

The rich heritage of folk arts, the continuity of designs and work methods, the extraordinary spectrums of world news and religious thoughts, the diversities of languages and daily life—everything that gives the Indian people their unique identity—are excluded from textbooks. Our textbook selectors seem to have never read the admonition in ancient Sanskrit texts to respect the tribal peoples for their special role in preserving the nation's riches.

Tribal peoples constitute only 8% of the Indian population. But they and even the rural people—80% of the population—appear in textbooks as oddities to be patronized.

Denigrating Our Heritage

The colonists' disdain for Indian religious ideas and literary heritages seems to have survived not merely as an occasional or dying relic but as intellectual theories, themes, beliefs, measures. NCERT advice to use textbooks to promote communal harmony is an added pollutant.

Take, for example, the 12th-century saint-poet Dnyaneshwar. At age 16 he started writing a treatise on Vedic metaphysical ideas and the Bhagwad Geeta. On completion of the

tome at age 21, he took *samadhi*—a voluntary exit from life. An iconoclast, he defied the religious establishment and wrote his epic work in Marathi using a simple poetic meter—*owi*. He is a strong, revered presence in Maharashtra even today. Every year, thousands of devotees walk the route he used to take to a temple town, for 21 days, singing his *owi*. Among publishers and booksellers, *Dnyaneshwari* is a perennial. His *owi* are set to music and sung by some of the greatest classical singers of India, whose tapes are aired, broadcast, sold across counters daily. I consider *Dnyaneshwari* the greatest book in the world for its literary qualities, wisdom, iconoclasm, and pro-people orientation.

An ICSE textbook, however, disposes of Dnyaneshwar and his epic in just one sentence that states that he was a saint and wrote a great book. But pages are devoted to what is essentially a religion of the West, Christianity, with emphasis on the "Great Crusade." About 2.5% of Indians follow Christianity, which is one of the most respected religions of India. But what is the reason for ignoring Indian religious heritage?

In Marathi textbooks, Dnyaneshwar is converted into a protagonist of communal harmony although Islam, let alone the powerful bigoted rulers, had not arrived in his time. Similarly, the textbooks highlight Moghul and British architecture but ignore India's world heritage sites.

History Texts Endorse Colonists' Perspectives

Several historians from different nations have asserted that the colonists wrote a distorted history to cover up their amorality, gild their sins, and project themselves as not only great races but also as saviors and educators of the people they enslaved and exploited. Just a few lines from the colonial texts will convince the reader that they are packed with misinformation. The historians, social scientists, authors, and their publications referred to are the following:

- David Birmingham, *A Concise History of Portugal* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993).
- Veena Das, ed. *Mirrors of Violence* (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1992).
- John Kenneth Galbraith, *The Age of Uncertainty* (London: British Broadcasting Corporation, 1977).
- Ranjit Guha, *Subaltern Studies* (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1988).
- Edward Said, *Culture and Imperialism* (London: Vintage, 1994).
- Arnold Toynbee, *A Study of History* (London: Oxford University Press and Thames and Hudson, 1972).
- Stanley Wolpert, *A New History of India* (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1993).

Schoolchildren should be given the correct information and analytical perspectives about both the intellectual streams and the moral, exploitative, often-racist politics of the ruling classes of some of these countries in the past. The students should learn to differentiate between the worlds of ideas and of political and economic hegemony.

Imperialism and the Indian Freedom Struggle, the history textbook for grade X (the final year of high school), is one of the most shameful examples of continued mental subjugation to the colonists in general and to the NATO alliance in particular. I do note that the book does not absolve Germany and Italy of their distasteful pre-World War II politics, probably in mimicry of the American versions of history.

It is distressing that the book makes no mention of the Western political ideas, analytical philosophies, and great literary works that had freed the minds of India's leaders and intellectuals.

Some of the best educators are supposed to have written and chosen the texts for the ICSE pupils. The Additional Director of the Maharashtra State Board of Secondary and

Higher Secondary Education, Vasant Patil, even claims to bring in “new ideas and concepts in history teaching” and is sure that the texts will make the students “aware of values” of the freedom movement and “create a sense of injustice... a will to fight it.”

The facts show the absolute opposite. Every history text is steeped in colonial bias. The textbooks describe the Europeans as mere import-and-export business people who carried on trade with the cooperation of local kings. However, the unprofessional behavior of the small-time rulers pushed them to subjugate Asia and Africa. The European nations were drawn into power feuds among themselves by their positive quality of competitiveness. Unfortunately, the conflict spilled over to Asia and Africa, spurring, to quote from the very first page of the first chapter of the grade X history textbook, a “race...to acquire rich territories... England and France were in the forefront of this competition. Germany, however, entered this competition rather late. In Africa and Asia, England and France had acquired strategic and rich territories, and therefore they were envied by other nations.”

Not a word about the loss of freedom, wealth, or right to self-determination of the colonized!

The freedom struggle led by some of India's great leaders—B. G. Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai, and B. P. Pal—is described in chapter 9, “Period of Extremist Politics.” Extremism is “an agitation form” of the freedom movement; the extremists “demand (freedom) more aggressively”; their “methods” and “attitudes” were “aggressive.” Tilak's declaration, “Freedom is my birth right and I shall have it,” is an example of “aggressiveness.”

The marketing of European rulers as the preferred “Platonic Guardians” (to use apologist Charles Trevelyan's coinage) to the local whimsical, feudal lords, is an astounding success ad infinitum.

Conclusion

Teaching of human rights is not merely a matter of narrating or learning by rote the provisions of various human rights instruments. The international codifications themselves should be studied with a questioning mind. The process of introducing the study of human rights in school should begin with the educators. The textbooks should be meticulously examined for their flaws and rewritten.

Notes

1. For example, my public interest litigation for the rights of the mentally ill in the Supreme Court of India (1988) and for the children of indigenous peoples in the Supreme Court and the High Court of Bombay, Nagpur Bench (1993), I sought supportive material from the UN Center for Human Rights (UNCHR) and the International Commission of Jurists, Geneva. UNCHR informed me that the UN had not pursued the issues. Its document on indigenous peoples was old and unsatisfactory. A draft of principles on mental health was lying on the shelves. UNCHR formalized the principles by 1992, which was in time for the first major ruling of the court in my public interest litigation. But I cannot say the final script covered all the concerns of the mentally ill and their protagonists.

2. The International Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990); International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1976), Article 10 (1 and 3); International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), Article 24; and the Constitution, Articles 15 (3), 24, 39 (e and f), 45, and 47.

3. International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Articles 13 and 14; International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Article 26; International Convention on the Rights of the Child, Articles 28 and 29; and the Constitution, Articles 30, 41, 45, and 46.

4. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Article 27; International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Articles 6 (2), 15, and 25; International Convention on the Rights of the Child,

Article 30; and the Constitution, Articles 25, 29, 30, and 350A.

5. Convention on International Right of Correction (1952); International Convention on the Rights of the Child, Articles 13 and 17; and the Constitution, Article 19.

6. The Constitution, Article 21 (right to life).

7. The Constitution, Articles 14, 15, and 29.

8. "Thoklyache Chitra" by Y. G. Joshi; Chapter 2, Marathi Bal Bharati for Marathi-medium grade VI.

9. "Maze Maher Vaghdara" by Anna Bhau Sathe; Chapter 7, Marathi Balbharati, for Marathi-medium grade VIII.

10. "Shivaji 'Raje' Shobhale" by Ranjit Desai; Chapter 10, Marathi Vachanpath for grade X non-Marathi-medium students. Translates as "Shivaji beautifully personifies regency." In the same story, Shivaji rewards the killing of foxes.

11. See notes on gender-discriminatory texts.

12. "On Killing a Tree" by Gieve Patel; Chapter 6, English Balbharati for English-medium grade VIII.

13. Ibid.

14. "Manus," (literally, Man) by Ram More; Chapter 12, Marathi Balbharati for Marathi-medium standard VIII.

15. "Shrishkumar" by Sanegurujji; Chapter 21, Marathi Sulabhbharati for Hindi- and English-medium grade VI. The author of this "account of a historic fact" was the respected Teacher Sane, patriot and writer. His sentimental, nationalist writings appealed to Maharashtrians then in the midst of the freedom struggle. Sanegurujji may deserve his place in history and as litterateur of the state, but that is no reason to include this story in books for young schoolchildren.

16. "Veer Bapu Gaidhani," an extract from a memorial volume; Chapter 2, Marathi Balbharati for Marathi-medium grade VIII.

17. Mahadevi Verma, Chapter 8, *Hindi LOKABHARATI* for Grade X in language mediums other than Hindi.

18. "Samuj" by Mukund Krishna Gaikwad; Chapter 12, Marathi Vachanpath as second-language reading for grade X.

19. Singh, S.K., *The Scheduled Tribes—People of India National Series*, Vol. III (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1994).

20. Guha Ramchandra, *The Unquiet Woods* (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1989); Gadgil Madhav and Guha Ramchandra, *The Fissured Land—An Ecological History of India* (India: Oxford University Press, 1993); Barse Sheela, *Our Children Are Gone* (Mumbai: Neergaurav Foundation, 1997).

21. B. Shiva Rao, Editorial Committee Chairperson, “The Framing of India’s Constitution—Select Documents.” (Delhi: The Indian Institute of Public Administration, 1968).

An Agenda for Gender-fair Education

ZENAIDA QUEZADA-REYES

My long involvement with women's studies has made me sensitive to what I read. I automatically classify books as either sexist or not. I examine the participation of women and the biases against them in many books that I use in teaching social science subjects. As one writer states:

No one has ever devised a method for detaching the scholar from the circumstances in life, from the fact of his involvement (conscious or unconscious) with a class, a set of beliefs, a social position, or from the mere activity of being a member of a society.

No production of knowledge in the human sciences can ever ignore or disclaim its author's involvement as a human subject in his own circumstance (Said, in Saigol 1995).

I support an antipatriarchal ideology and envision a society that pursues gender equity in the area of education. Gender-fair education involves the experiences, perceptions, and perspectives of girls and women as well as boys and men (DE, USA 1995). It aims to promote the teaching and learning of gender equity, highlighting female experiences as products of historical and cultural processes.

Gender-fair education works on the following principles:

- Men and women are born equal, and so they must be given equal opportunities to develop their potential.
- All students have the right to a gender-fair learning environment.
- All education programs and career decisions should be based on the student's interests and abilities, regardless of gender.
- Gender-fair education incorporates issues of social class, culture, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, and age.

- Gender-fair education requires sensitivity, determination, commitment, and vigilance.
- The foundation of gender-fair education is the cooperation and collaboration among students, educational organizations, and other relevant institutions.

These principles must guide teachers, school administrators, curriculum writers, and, most important, the textbook writers, in eliminating patriarchal ideology in the classroom.

Philippine Schools' Gendered Curriculum

Schools reflect the social, economic, and political structures and processes of a given society. They tend to reproduce the social order and maintain the status quo (Cortes 1993). Philippine society supports patriarchal ideology. The formal education system promotes and propagates patriarchal ideology. The first Church-run schools and tertiary educational institutions were established in the 1600s under Spanish colonial rule. Only the sons of Spaniards and upper-class Filipinos could attend. Their sisters entered *beaterios*, where they were trained in housework, religious music, and religious rituals. While men pursued higher education, women stayed at home and took care of their families. Even the Spanish Royal Educational Decree of 1863, which established the public school system in the Philippines, did not allow women to go to school, and set up

training schools only for male teachers. The Spanish Royal Decree of 1865 gave even more privileges to men by extending the public school system to the secondary level. Vocational and technical schools were established, also only for men.

Under US colonial rule (1898-1946), the Education Act of 1901 established the public school system and free primary education. But while women now had access to education, schools continued to uphold traditional roles of both men and women, as girls studied home economics and boys took up practical arts.

Under Japanese colonial rule (1942-1945), the Basic Principles of Education were the following:

- Present the Philippines as a member of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.
- Eradicate the idea of relying upon Western nations, especially the United States and Great Britain, and promote a culture based on Filipinos' identity as Asians.
- Encourage people to be less materialistic.
- Spread the Japanese language and stop the use of English.
- Promote elementary and vocational education.
- Encourage people to be industrious.

Subjects were similar to those under the US system, including social studies, arithmetic, science, industrial arts for boys, and housekeeping and household arts for girls. The only difference was that the Japanese required students to undergo military training.

Teachers were ordered to modify their instructional materials. Anything that hinted at American ideology was to be discarded. Compliance, however, was more artificial than real (Pangilinan 1954). The teachers remained loyal to the United States and to the patriarchal ideology embodied in the US school curriculum.

After World War II, all prewar superintendents, supervisors, principals, and classroom

teachers were reappointed. They resumed propagating the US curriculum, with emphasis on democratic values and community participation. At the primary, intermediate, and secondary levels, boys and girls took up general subjects—math, science, social studies, English, Filipino, health and physical education, character education, and vocational education (UNESCO 1960). From the intermediate to secondary levels, however, boys took up industrial arts, gardening, and club work, while girls studied home economics, needlework, cooking and housekeeping, food selection and diet, and home nursing.

In 1957, the curriculum was revised to separate students as destined either for vocational schools or college. General subjects were offered to both groups during the first two years of secondary education. During the third and fourth years, students preparing for college took college-oriented courses; the rest took vocational courses. Boys still took vocational education and girls still took home economics.

In the 1970s, the government revised the curriculum, but girls continued to take home economics, and boys, practical arts. Real change took place only in 1985, when the curriculum was further revised, allowing boys and girls to choose between home economics and practical arts. Boys were now able to learn sewing, cooking, and interior design, while girls could learn carpentry and how to do electrical repair.

Gendered Textbooks

An analysis (adapted from Saigol [1995]) of selected Asian history textbooks being used in Philippine secondary schools reveals their patriarchal construction of gender through their writers' (i) point of view, (ii) handling and interpretation of facts and events, (iii) definition of concepts, (iv) images, and (v) in-depth analysis. The textbooks examined are the following:

- *Kabihasnang Asyano*. 1989. Serye ng Secondary Education Development Program (SEDP). Pilipinas: Kagawaran ng Edukasyon, Kultura at Isports.
- Latourette, Kenneth Scott. 1967. *A Short History of the Far East*. Philippines: Ken Inc.
- Leogardo, Felicitas. 1988. *History of Asian Nations*. Manila: Sto. Niño Catholic House.
- Pearn, B.R. 1970. *An Introduction to the History of Southeast Asia*. Hongkong: Sheck Wah Tong Printing Press.

The gender bias of textbooks may be explicit or implicit. It is explicit when men and women are shown as having certain roles: women as mothers and wives, for example, who have to sew, weave, cook, clean, and take care of children; and men as soldiers, leaders, and citizens.

Of history books, Fernandez (1998) has this to say:

Judging from what is written in history books, one would be led to conclude that:

1. Women must have wombs a hundred times bigger than their body size such that they can beget thousands of male children with one or two females only. This would explain the scarcity of females and the overwhelming presence of males in recorded history;
2. Women do nothing but watch while men single-handedly make history as conquering heroes, national liberators, victorious generals, benevolent monarchs, wise law-givers and some such;
3. Some women, on a few occasions, assist men in history-making as when they sew a flag made out of their skirts which the men raise over a conquered territory or when they use their feminine charms on the enemy to ferret out military or state secrets; and

4. A few women, on rare occasions, make history somehow, and that is because they are not truly women in the first place, but men in women's bodies.

None of the textbooks examined show the role of women in nation building, except when they become national leaders after their husbands (or fathers) are assassinated (Corazon Aquino, for example, and Sirimavo Bandaranaike). Otherwise, women are portrayed as housewives and mothers who submit to their husbands. Some mention that Asian women, specifically Chinese women, have attained equal rights. Yet, although women are given the freedom to work for economic production, they alone bear the burden of reproduction.

Implicitly, Asian history textbooks impart the characteristics of maleness and femaleness. The hidden voice in the text or subtext (Saigol 1995) is not openly articulated. The author may not even be aware of it. The significant events in Asian history are subtly used to dichotomize categories that represent masculine and feminine characteristics: open/enclosed, light/dark, good/bad, brave/timid, powerful/powerless, and so on. Gendered construction of history as masculine discusses war, bravery, aggression, conquest, fearlessness, and dominance. Women, however, are objects of male desire with no needs of their own as individuals. They are humble, respectful, good, and pure. The words "masculine" and "feminine" do not appear as biological and natural characteristics in the hidden text. But the manner in which facts are presented are socially constructed as having male and female characteristics. In other words, the discourse used by the writers has "masculine" and "feminine" aspects (Saigol 1995). The patriarchal discourses appear in the following threads: masculine/feminine positioning, celebratory view of history, glorification of the military, and powerful state and submissive citizens.

Masculine/Feminine Positioning in Asian History

The triumph of democracy over communism is prominent in discussions on Asian history. In the discourse of Leogardo (1988), for example, Asian nations attained their true independence by rejecting communism. Before democracy, there was darkness, misery, and conflict, which are “female.” Under democracy, Asian nations experienced light, happiness, and independence, which are “male.”

Latourette (1967) projects the technologically advanced, male “West” and the backward, female “Far East.” Western colonialization, therefore, signified the development of Asian civilization.

The discussion on conquest and subjugation uses male and female imagery. The colonizer was the “male” conqueror, liberator, and subjugator of “female” Asian countries and “virgin” land. Asian history textbooks are stories of conquest (by Kublai Khan, for example) and colonization (by foreign powers) of well-established civilizations, which brought misery and political, economic, and cultural dislocation.

The Celebratory View of History

Representations of Asian history as a series of male political leaders glorify personalities such as Kublai Khan, Emperor Akihito, Mao Zedong, Khomeini, Nehru, Sukarno, and so on, who are held up as role models for children. In the books, men are preoccupied with war. Peace and happiness are invisible in the stories of humankind.

Glorification of the Military

The narratives of the great kingdoms that later on became nation states concentrate on the military prowess of leaders. The description of strong Chinese leaders, the shogun of Japan, colonization by the West, and World War II, for example, send out the subtle message that leaders are strong, male command-

ers. Women are never portrayed as defending their country.

The greatest military leaders are projected as fighting for a just cause (as in Pakistan, for example), mainly in defense of the Motherland, mothers, and children.

Powerful State and Submissive Citizens

Asian history textbooks promote ideologies of citizenship and the relationship between the state and the citizen. The citizen is the passive, infantilized, feminized Other of the patriarchal state. The chapter on political systems of Asia in the SEDP series sends a subtle message that citizens must respect their leaders just as they respect their own fathers.

Promoting Gender-fair Teaching Strategies

Gender-fair educators advocate the following (DE, USA 1997):

- Be committed to learning and practicing equitable teaching by being committed to improving the needs and welfare of both male and female students.
- Use gender-specific terms to market opportunities. For example, if a technology fair has been designed to appeal to girls, mention girls clearly and specifically. Many girls assume that gender-neutral language in nontraditional fields means boys.
- Modify content, teaching style, and assessment practices to make nontraditional subjects more relevant and interesting for female and female students.
- Highlight the social aspects and usefulness of activities, skills, and knowledge.
- Recognize comments received from female students; and explore social, moral, and environmental impacts of decisions, especially those that would affect women.
- When establishing relevance of material, consider the different interests and life experiences that girls and boys may have.

- Choose a variety of instructional strategies such as cooperative and collaborative work in small groups, opportunities for safe risk-taking, hands-on work, and opportunities to integrate knowledge and skills (e.g., science and communication).
- Provide specific strategies, special opportunities, and resources to encourage students to excel in areas of study in which they are typically underrepresented.
- Design lessons to explore many perspectives and to use different sources of information; refer to male and female experts.
- Manage competitiveness in the classroom, particularly in areas in which male students typically excel.
- Watch for biases (for example, in behavior or learning resources) and teach students strategies to recognize and work to eliminate inequities they observe.
- Be aware of accepted gender-biased practices in physical activity (e.g., in team sports, funding for athletes, and choices in physical education programs).
- Do not assume that all students are heterosexual.
- Share information and build a network of colleagues with a strong commitment to equity.
- Model nonbiased behavior: use inclusive, parallel, or gender-sensitive language; question and coach male and female students with the same frequency, specificity, and depth; allow quiet students sufficient time to respond to questions.
- Have colleagues familiar with common gender biases observe your teaching and discuss any potential bias they may observe.
- Be consistent over time.

The concept and principles of teaching strategies are useful in developing a gender-fair education curriculum.

In conclusion, I would like to quote Saigol (1995):

Human beings are gendered emotionally, psychologically and politically because most families are based on gendered relations of inferiority and superiority. The family is the first “political unit”. It is a biosocial, political, emotional and psychological space that is riddled with concerns of power. It produces gendered individuals, who, in turn, reproduce gendered families.

Gendered thinking, that is, notions of “masculine” and “feminine” seem to become so infused with *affect (negative and positive)* for both men and women, and so deeply ingrained, that social and political entities take on gendered meanings for people consciously and unconsciously.

This consciousness is reinforced by the school system through the hidden curriculum embodied in textbooks. The school as the second agent of socialization is equally important in shaping the minds of individuals. The teacher must take note of gendered construction of reality in teaching and in the learning environment.

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Thailand: Human Rights Education

SAVITRI SUWANSATHIT

Thailand is undergoing simultaneous reforms in various aspects of its national life—politics, law, economics, the government system, and education. New ideas are being discussed in line with the need to bring the country's economy back to health and to implement the provisions of the 1997 Constitution.

Education in general and human rights education in particular play a crucial role in the process of societal reform.

Human rights education is defined in the draft National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education as follows:

The process of learning, searching, and taking action, in order to develop the knowledge, understanding, awareness, values, attitudes, skills, personalities, behavior, and standards, or norms, in practicing human rights which will result in peaceful coexistence, enabling people to live together with common understanding and common courtesy, with unity, dignity, responsibility, equality, friendship, and acting towards each other as fellow human beings, with mutual respect for each other's rights and freedom. These are essential basic factors that will lead to any kind of development with qualities which are the principles of civilized social progresses.

Background of Human Rights Education in Thailand

In the past, the Thai people learned about human rights through daily life. During the Sukhothai period (1240-1438), the relationship between rulers and subjects was a basic

principle in promoting and recognizing individual rights and freedom. The abolition of slavery during the reign of King Chulalongkorn (1868-1910) was a recognition of human equality and dignity in Thai society. However, learning human rights through the general education system had not been properly systematized. Human rights was learned through ordinary, daily interactions, without any particular form and covering all fields.

Thailand became a member of the United Nations (UN) soon after the World War II, and voted to adopt the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. Although the declaration was not legally binding, the government incorporated human rights principles in the Constitution and in many important national laws. Many lawyers and students of international law and international relations learned about them, but the general public did not.

In the early postwar days, the public knew little of the Constitution and laws as communication technology was backward and the level of literacy low. National Education Commission statistics show that in 1998, people aged 60 and above have on average 3.3 years of education. The government, aware that education is a basic requirement for people's participation in the development process, has given high

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priority to basic and compulsory education, as well as supported the development of higher levels of education.

A survey conducted by the Human Rights Education Plan Subcommittee on the occasion of the celebration of the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1998 reveals that human rights education in Thailand is not widely conducted. It is a mere subject in primary and secondary schools, and an optional subject in some universities. In government, human rights education is conducted only in agencies whose functions risk causing human rights violations. Most people are not aware of human rights, and they are not given the opportunity to learn and realize it or empowered to protect their own dignity and rights. Violations, therefore, both in government and the private sector, have been frequent and are becoming even more violent.

Curriculum Reform

Since the end of World War II, international cooperation through UN agencies, as well as regional and bilateral cooperation with other agencies and countries, made it necessary and relevant for the Thai people to learn more about the world, the UN system, universal values, and other cultures. School curriculums were reformed many times; textbooks and materials were changed, improved, or developed. The current national curriculum gives due emphasis at all levels of education to the learning of English as the first foreign language, as the language for world communication, and as a means to learn about other countries, the world, the UN, and universal values.

One strategy for UNESCO's Education for Peace, International Understanding, Human Rights, Tolerance, and Sustainable Development is the promotion of an international network of schools called the Associated Schools Project (ASP). The government, through the National Commission for UNESCO, supports

ASP. More than a hundred schools from the primary level to teacher colleges and higher educational institutions all over the country actively participate in ASP. Students and teachers from these schools are concerned with global issues and eager to learn about other languages, countries, and cultures. In recent years, the commission, which is based at the Ministry of Education (MOE), has increasingly involved these schools in many major international events, either initiated at the national level or organized by UNESCO and other international agencies. ASP organized meetings that sometimes coincided with UNESCO meetings held in Thailand. ASP students therefore learn not only from teachers and textbooks, but also from their experience and from interactions with each other and with the international community.

The member-schools of ASP and schools for children with special needs work in cooperation with UNESCO through MOE. They have brought many new ideas and inspired many changes and developments in the educational system.

Another type of school network, initiated by His Majesty the King of Thailand, involves Suk Sasongkrob Schools and Raja Prachanukrob Schools, which were established in remote areas to give educational services to children who are "hard to reach" or are in "difficult circumstances," such as the hill-tribe children, children in remotest villages of the poor and underprivileged, and children with special needs. Mostly free boarding schools, some of them organize self-sufficiency projects such as school agriculture for students' meals, and income-generating activities such as handicrafts.

The students learn that although they come from different tribes, villages, and backgrounds, they have to learn to respect one another, live together in harmony, and become citizens of the same nation.

The Constitution of 1997—A New National Context

The 1997 Constitution provides for an entirely new national framework for development in Thailand. It contains five articles that specifically state the “rights and freedom of the individuals” and mention the term “human dignity” several times. Article 43 states that all Thai people have the right to a 12-year basic education, to be provided by the state equitably and with quality. It is free of charge and gives due recognition to the participation of the local authorities and the private sector.

Article 58 provides for the right to public information, while Article 81 stresses that the state shall provide education and training, as well as support the endeavors of the private sector, so that education will emphasize both knowledge and values. Chapter 8 provides for the establishment of the National Human Rights Commission, whose functions include educating and informing the public on human rights.

In accordance with the Constitution, the National Education Act was passed in August 1999. Chapter 1 (general objectives and principles) of the act states:

Education shall aim at the full development of the Thai people in all aspects: physical and mental health, intellect, knowledge, morality, integrity, and desirable way of life so as to be able to live in harmony with other people.

The learning process shall aim at inculcating sound awareness of politics; democratic system of government under a constitutional monarchy; ability to protect and promote their rights, responsibilities, freedom, respect for the rule of law, equality, and human dignity; pride in Thai identity; ability to protect public and national interests; promotion of religion, art, national culture, sports, local wisdom, Thai wisdom and universal knowledge; inculcating ability to preserve natural resources and the environment; ability to earn a living; self-reliance; creativity; and acquir-

ing thirst for knowledge and capability of self-learning on a continuous basis.

The law also provides for the following:

- free, quality education for 12 years;
- student-centered learning and school charters, which are part of human rights education;
- timeframe for educational reform: an educational reform committee to be established within one year, all laws to be reformed within three years; and
- increased assessment of schools: schools shall conduct internal assessments and publish their reports so that the public can access them; schools shall be evaluated externally by each district.

Goals of Human Rights Education

Based on Thailand’s experience in education, the goals of human rights education shall be the following:

- Create a peaceful society.
- Create harmony.
- Promote sustainable development.
- Promote human dignity and development.

Trust, equality, cooperation, compassion, mutual support, and a continual review of goals, methods, and target audiences are needed to realize these goals.

Points of Discussion

To extensively promote human rights education, the following ideas shall be considered:

- Human rights should be taught as an extension of Asian philosophy and religion. Religious centers have been asked to establish preschool centers and playgrounds as part of educational reform. Human rights education may be included in religious instruction. After all, according to Buddha, “Everyone is equal under the same Dharma.”

- Human rights education requires the support of teachers and parents. Therefore, anyone who has anything to do with the school system should be educated on the importance of human rights and human rights education.
- In cases where there is a backlash against “human rights” for a variety of reasons (threat to status quo, Western origin of the concept, negative notion of human rights, etc.), human rights principles may be taught without using the words “human rights.”
- Target groups of human rights education shall be the students, families, communities, and the general public. Learning centers are expected to increase people’s access to information on human rights. (See draft national plan of action.)
- Human rights should be integrated into all aspects of learning, rather than remain as just a subject. This way, teachers and students simultaneously learn about human rights. Teachers have to learn to shift from a teacher-centered classroom to a student-centered classroom.

Education Reform and Human Rights Education

The current curriculums (revised 1990) for primary and secondary levels do not directly include civil rights topics but set content areas.¹ For Grades 1-6, the topics include family life, law, and rights and obligations of citizens in a democratic society with the King as the Supreme Head of State.

Topics in the secondary curriculum are part of compulsory subjects in social studies. They include roles of the family and community members in a democratic society, rights and obligations of citizens in a democratic society with the King as the Supreme Head of State, election laws, basic laws, and the present and past civil rights situation in other countries (especially on such issues as sexual abuse, child rights, etc. that have relevance to Thailand).

The curriculum also emphasizes learning strategies for solving social problems peacefully using ethical and moral principles.

In support of education reform, the following activities are undertaken:

- development of a national plan for civil rights education;
- experimental teaching of human rights in schools;
- preparation of a basic education curriculum on human rights; and
- publication of UN instructional materials on human rights and their distribution to elementary and secondary schools and other educational institutions to help administrators, teachers, students, and other concerned personnel better understand human rights.

Based on the requirements of the new education law, a Basic Education Curriculum is being drafted. The drafting committee emphasizes the development of human rights curriculum standards for each grade level. The curriculum aims to progressively introduce human rights concepts—in a simpler way at the lower grades, in a more complex way at the higher grades. (See Annex A for the draft standards and benchmarks for teaching human rights in primary and secondary school.²)

The National Commission for the Celebration of the Human Rights Declaration

In 1998, the government joined the world community in celebrating the 50th Anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In January 1998, the prime minister created the national commission for the celebration, with the minister of justice as chairperson, and representatives of government ministries, academic communities, and NGOs as members. In April 1998, the commission set up a subcommittee to draft the national plan of action on human rights education. The subcommittee had the following tasks:

- Survey the needs of human rights education in Thailand.
- Draft the national plan of action for human rights education based on the needs surveyed.
- Submit the plan to the commission.
- Organize other activities deemed necessary.

The Subcommittee for Drafting the National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education

The subcommittee, which is an inter-departmental and interdisciplinary body, set up a working group to accomplish the following:

- a survey to assess the state of human rights education and to ascertain the need for human rights education at all levels in future programs;
- a draft of the National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education, which was presented in May 1999 to a focus group seminar made up of teachers, students, NGO workers, academics, and government officials for comments and reactions; and
- a revised version of the National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education, which was submitted in September 1999 to the minister of justice in his capacity as chair of the 50th Anniversary Celebration of Human Rights in Thailand.

Key issues Regarding the National Plan

The proposed National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education faces many challenges. Its successful implementation depends on the following:

- integration of the plan into the overall national policies and plans for development;
- integration of the plan into the National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education;
- ownership of the plan by all sectors;

- creation of a national coordination mechanism and resource center for human rights and human rights education;
- support and encouragement by the media;
- implementation by all agencies at all levels;
- creation of networks of human rights educators, teachers, and human rights schools and nonformal groups at the national and grass-roots levels; and
- monitoring, evaluation, and creation of a reporting system for human rights education at all levels.

Conclusion

Governments generally have never been known to be outstanding protectors of human rights or promoters of human rights education. International and national nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have always been the ones active in this area, and have often been critical of the action or inaction of governments on matters of human rights.

However, in the spirit of providing education for all—and in this context, human rights education for all—NGOs and the government should create a harmonious and effective partnership for promoting human rights education. Partnership, cooperation, and participation are the key to peaceful coexistence in a democratic society. The government, local administrators, individuals and families, community organizations, private organizations, professional groups, religious institutions, and other social institutions, must cooperate in order to successfully implement the National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education once it is approved. The ultimate objective of human rights education is the creation of a harmonious and peaceful society, where people from all walks of life live together under the rule of law, with due respect for each other's rights and dignity. This will take a long time—and a great deal of understanding, commitment, and continuous learning—to achieve. Hatred and violence cannot solve problems; they can only

destroy everything, including the noble ideals for which men and women have worked so hard in order to gain recognition for human rights as a universal idea.

Notes

1. This portion is taken from “Human Rights Education in Thailand,” a paper presented by Prapaipan

Kosaisunthorn of the Ministry of Education at the UN Intersessional Workshop on National Plans of Action for Human Rights Education in the Asia-Pacific Region, Tokyo, Japan, 17-19 January 2000, organized by the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights and hosted by the Japanese government.

2. Ibid.

ANNEX A

Draft Standards and Benchmarks on Teaching Human Rights at Primary and Secondary Levels

Standard Possessing knowledge, understanding, and awareness of one’s rights, duties, and freedom, and acting responsibly as a good citizen under a democratic system.

Benchmarks for each grade level

Grades 1-3 Being aware of one’s rights, duties, freedom, and responsibility as a member of the family, school, and community; behaving appropriately.

Grades 4-6 Being aware of one’s rights, duties, freedom, and responsibility as a member of the family, school, and community in accordance with the Constitution.

Grades 7-9 Understanding the reasons behind inclusion of personal rights and freedom in the Constitution; being able to assess the behavior one’s self and others in society.

Grades 10-12 Understanding the line of thought concerning universal human rights; being able to analyze the Constitution and national policies concerning protection of human rights and citizens.

Standard Understanding the characteristics of coexistence of members of society, powers and functions of government organizations and social institutions; knowing how to live peacefully with others.

Benchmarks for each grade level

Grades 1-3 Knowing that Thailand employs constitutional laws in governing the nation.

Grades 4-6 Knowing that constitutional laws constitute the basis of other laws; knowing about delegation of authority and accepting that one’s locality has to be administered by the mechanism specified in the Constitution.

Grades 7-9 Understanding the rationale, principle, and intention of some important articles of the Constitution relating to politics, governance, economic, and socio-cultural aspects as well as the implications of adopting the Constitution to the way of life of the citizens.

Grades 10-12 Understanding and analyzing relationships among various articles in the Constitution, emphasizing certain articles involving elections, rights, freedom, education, etc. in conjunction with social changes as well as the resulting status of the nation and the global society.

Standard Knowing, understanding, and being proud of the Thai culture; accepting diversity; and possessing good conscience in behaving appropriately in a democratic society.

Benchmarks for each grade level

Grades 1-3 Respecting personal rights, freedom, and properties as well as the rights of others in the school.

Grades 4-6 Respecting personal rights, freedom, and properties as well as the rights of others and public properties in one's community.

Grades 7-9 Respecting personal rights, freedom, and properties as well as helping maintain public properties in the larger national society.

Grades 10-12 Respecting rights and freedom; knowing how to protect one's rights and public properties; deciding to behave appropriately; and assessing behavior that will benefit the self, others, and the nation as a whole.

China: Revitalizing Education in the 21st Century

ZHANG LI, LIN ZHI-HUA, WANG JIA-QIN, AND WANG MIN

A look back at the 20th century reveals that education provided the momentum for economic growth and social development in both developing and developed countries. Global economic competition is, in a sense, a competition for science and technology, education, and human resources.

In the 21st century, the world faces the challenge of the high-technology revolution. More and more experts think that this century will be dominated by knowledge-based economies, and the most important sources of economic growth will turn out to be the production, processing, dissemination, and application of knowledge as well as information.

In the era of the knowledge-based economy, knowledge is fundamental, talent crucial, and education essential. Education will play a prominent and basic role both in knowledge innovation and human resource development. Only those who control education will possibly survive the fierce worldwide competition.

Revitalizing the Education System

The experience of educational development in China indicates that a high-quality educational system is one of the most important infrastructures and has a particularly strategic role in narrowing the gap between China and developed countries. The government is vigorously carrying out its educational strategy—Vitalizing the Nation through Science and Education (Strategy VNSE). Outstanding developments in education are as follows:

Major efforts have been made in developing elementary education. The government's top

priority in 2000 is to universalize nine-year compulsory education and wipe out illiteracy among the young and middle-aged population. Net enrollment of school-aged children at the primary stage was 99.1% in 1999. Compulsory primary education was implemented in 92% of the country. The gross enrollment rate in junior secondary schools was 88.5%, and nine-year compulsory education implemented in 80% of the country. The illiteracy rate among the young and middle aged is below 5.5%.

Vocational education and adult education have been actively developed. Secondary-level vocational education has advanced dramatically. In 1999, enrollment in secondary vocational and technical schools accounted for 52% of total enrollment at the senior secondary level. Meanwhile, major efforts have been devoted to developing higher vocational education. Adult education is an important part of life-long education. Taking into account that one person can take part in a training course more than once, during the last five years, worker and officer in-service training and continuing education have added up to 210 million "person-times." Farmers have received training 300 million person-times.

Higher education has developed vigorously and steadily. The scale of higher education has

been enlarged under macro adjustment and control. In 1999, 7.19 million students enrolled in the regular and adult higher-education institutions for undergraduate and professional education. The administrative system of higher education has been reformed continuously through joint efforts by the central government and local governments, adjustment in distribution of universities and colleges, cooperation among campuses, and merging of universities and colleges. The total number of universities and colleges has decreased, and enrollment increased by an average of 3,112 students per university. The four universities, for example, have been merged to form Zhejiang University, which has the most number of disciplines and departments in China. The Plan for Reform in Teaching Contents and Curricular System Toward the 21st Century is being drawn up. At the same time, a number of new advanced vocational colleges (at post-secondary level) have been set up. They are run separately by local governments and the private sector.

Great progress has been made in building the educational legal system. Based on existing laws such as the Education Law, the Compulsory Education Law, the Teachers Law, the Regulations on Academic Degrees, and the Law of Protection of Minors, the Higher Education Law was adopted by the National People's Congress in August 1998. In addition, 16 educational administrative laws and regulations, and more than 200 educational administrative rules have been issued. A fundamental legal framework for education is taking shape.

The achievements over the last 20 years have laid a solid foundation for revitalizing the education system in the 21st century. However, China still has a long way to go. The total education level is still low, and the educational structure and system have not kept up with changes in the economic system. Educational philosophy and ideology, curriculums, meth-

odologies, and training models also do not meet the needs of social development. World-class creative talent is especially lacking.

To foster a knowledge-based economy, the government resolved to implement Strategy VNSE and to establish the National Innovation System (NIS). The State Council has already constituted a national lead council on science and education composed of heads of the Ministry of Education (MOE), Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST), and other relevant agencies.

MOE drew up the Action Plan for Vitalizing Education Toward the 21st Century as required by the 1993 Guidelines for Reform and Development of China's Education by 2000. The State Council approved the action plan in January 1999. In June 1999, the central government held a national conference on education and issued The Decision to Deepen Educational Reforms and Advance Quality Education.¹ Reforms will be guided by the following principles:

- Plan holistically.
- Stress key-problem solving.
- Issue guidelines according to type or category of education.
- Accomplish change in steps.

Policies will be adapted to the highly unbalanced conditions among the different regions. Various issues such as development vs. reform, universalization vs. improvement, and popularity vs. emphasis must be handled correctly. The main objectives and tasks within the first 10 years of the century stated in both the Decision to Deepen Educational Reforms and Advance Quality Education and the Action Plan for Vitalizing Education Toward the 21st Century are as follows:

Realize the goal of "Education for All" and continuously promote universalization of education. By 2010, nine-year compulsory education should be universal, and senior secondary education (about 12 years) should be imple-

mented in the urban and developed rural areas. The education period should be close to that in middle-income countries. We should emphasize development of curricular and teaching material at the elementary level, training of teachers in primary and secondary schools, improvement of the quality of teachers, and development of a modern elementary-school curriculum. Comprehensive improvement of elementary education will lay the foundation for improving the quality of overall education.

Build a system for lifelong education. The cultural and technical training system in rural areas, the education system within the modern enterprises, and the system of continuing education for higher education will be perfected in order to train workers and to carry out pre-service and in-service training for them. Retraining will be offered to the unemployed and workers who have shifted to new jobs. In 1999, Internet users numbered 8.9 million; they are expected to increase to more than 10 million in 2000. Personal computer sales are expected to increase by 4 million each year. With the China Education and Research Network (CERNET) and satellite video transmission system as the base, the government will set up a long-distance educational network for continuing education. Traditional audio-visuals, computer-aided instruction, and non-PC NET (such as cable TV) facilities will also be tapped.

Actively promote enrollment in higher education, particularly in advanced vocational education. It is estimated that by 2010 the gross enrollment rate at the tertiary level will surpass 15%. Joint activities and other forms of cooperation among higher educational institutions, independent research institutes, and enterprises must be strengthened. Knowledge innovation and high-technology courses in colleges and universities must be brought to a higher level. Colleges and universities will play

a wider and more energetic role in NIS. They must also attract, keep, and train world-class talent. In 10 years, we will try to push some universities to an international A-level standard, decrease the brain drain, and bridge the knowledge gap between China and developed countries.

Accelerate reform of the educational system. In the next five years, a mechanism will be in place for supplementing schools' state funding with a great variety of other sources, and for jointly developing public and private schools. The government is reforming the administrative system of institutions for higher learning. Under the new administrative system, central and local governments will jointly support higher education, while provincial governments will be the main supporters of schools under the national coordination system. Meanwhile, reforms in the system of student enrollment and graduates' employment and in school management will continue. The technological upgrading of support service in colleges and universities is being realized rapidly.

Increase educational expenditure according to law. The Education Law provides that the ratio of public expenditure on education to GNP must increase progressively. In 1999, the ratio was only 2.55%, much lower than that of other countries. The immediate goal is 4%.

Assessment of Education Results

The government has a national project to improve the technology for assessing the education system. Indicators and methods of gathering information for assessment purposes are being reviewed. A research project was launched in 1996 on Educational Evidence and Indicator System as part of the Six-nation Education Research Project. It is led by the National Center for Education Development Research (NCEDR) with members from other government agencies.² The research examines

ways to assess educational outcomes with reference to international standards and approaches, and determines the kinds of evidence and indicators that would be useful for educational policymaking. In short, the research aims to develop the National Educational Indicators (NEI) system.

NEI will help the government revise education policies and measures. Since the 1980s, education has developed steadily and accomplished much. NEI and the National Educational Management Information System (NEMIS) have been improving greatly. Educational Statistics Investigation Indicators and Educational Evaluation and Monitoring Indicators are gradually becoming standardized. They make available to the public statistical data, which provides basic materials for educational policymaking and supports macro educational research.

In 1984, MOE published the basic statistical data on education for 1949-1981. In the same year, MOE's Department of Planning and Finance published *Achievements of Education in China (Statistics 1949-1983)* in Chinese and English. In 1986, the Department of Planning and Finance of what was then the State Education Commission (SEDC, now MOE) published *Achievements of Education in China (Statistics 1980-1985)* and then *Achievements of Education in China (Statistics 1986-1990)*. In 1988, SEDC began publication of *Educational Statistics Yearbook of China*, which mainly makes public statistical data about schools, students, and teachers, and other information about the structures by level, field of study, locale, and administrative relations. Since 1990, a Chinese-English yearbook has been published annually. At the same time, SEDC published *Educational Expenditure Statistics of China* and *Comprehensive Statistical Yearbook of Chinese Education*. The publications offer supplementary information such as statistics on physical facilities, the national higher education examinations for self-taught students, research and development activities

in regular universities and colleges and school-run enterprises, and so on. NEI data are used for educational policymaking in the following manner:

NEI data help national and local governments conduct research and draw up policies. China is a large country, with a large population and uneven economic development. NEI data show how unbalanced educational development is in coastal areas, and in the central and western areas. The information spurred the national government to make compulsory education universal while allowing different regions to proceed at different speeds.

NEI data help the government formulate its annual education plan, which is based on the previous year's action plan and expenditure. Generally speaking, the speed at which data are gathered is catching up with that of industrialized countries, and is faster than that of developing countries with large populations. The sample survey in 1998 showed that the financial resource (input) and expenditures are used most frequently in seven categories of educational indicators.³ The expenditure indicators are often the priority in making annual plans and medium- or long-term projects.

NEI data are used to monitor the operation of the education system in order to send out warning messages on time when deviations are found, and to improve the multi-agency system of developing education. For example, several sample surveys by the State Statistics Bureau (SSB) since the mid-1990s indicate that the school-age population (12-14 years old) in 2000 will increase by 10%. MOE has asked the local governments to take note of this trend, and to prepare the teachers and schools for the coming changes. The provincial educational commission also found that the qualification rating of teachers in secondary and primary schools is lower compared to the previous year due to inadequate teacher training

in the provinces. The educational commission therefore proposed to provincial governments an urgent measure to improve the quality of teachers. The provincial governments immediately adopted the measure, hastening the standardization of education and of teaching quality.

A 1998 survey indicates that the application of indicators in educational administration and institution management and in monitoring the educational process at various levels is not yet popular. Neither is the educational-indicator system. Only some of the indicators are used frequently, such as those related to educational expenditure, because they are immediately relevant to the schools' survival, and those necessary for monitoring school policy, including qualification of full-time teachers, enrollment rate in primary and secondary schools, annual dropout rate, and size of schools. Other indicators are rarely used because of their vagueness or weakness and should be replaced. All the survey's respondents think that the educational indicators need to be improved. Indicators that reflect educational input and output, for example, should be well designed, definite, and easy to interpret.

Other Applications of National Educational Indicators Data

NEI data provide essential information for and serve the requirements of routine education management and scientific education research. Since the 1990s, every provincial educational department has published local statistical yearbooks or data on education that is more detailed compared to NEI's. They not only play an active role in educational reform and development and in strengthening scientific education management, they also provide basic analytical data for local educational research institutes. The data provide better reference for educational policymaking. A sample survey in 1991 showed that an indicators system exists in most regions. The educational departments

submit annual educational statistics reports to local governments in order to get help in terms of planning, finance, and personnel support.

NEI data, and the publication of educational indicators and statistical data, help improve public understanding of and support for education. MOE uses all possible means to provide educational information service to the public. Aside from publishing statistical yearbooks, it set up and runs the Educational Management Information Center (EMIC), which provides advice and information. The CD-ROM version of *Higher Education in China* was issued in 1997. Since 1998, MOE has maintained a homepage featuring the latest educational statistics. Through a computer network service, MOE and the provincial educational departments issue annual statistical bulletins aside from regular news releases. A 1991-1992 study showed that educational statistical data are most often used in making annual plans by the educational administrative departments at various levels. However, in terms of "mak[ing] the public and parents understand, supervise, cooperate and support education," the use of educational statistical data still has "a long way to go."

NEI data have been used to improve school management and quality of teaching, which is a micro-educational process and therefore of interest to secondary- and primary-school principals and teachers, who pay close attention to school evaluation indicators such as the rates for enrollment, retention, dropping out, repetition, passing the qualifying examination, student promotion, and teacher qualification; and criteria for choosing books and reading materials, experiment equipment, physical facilities, and school buildings. However, the principals and teachers are generally more interested in comparisons of indicators within local areas than in statistical information on the national macro-education situation. A 1998 sampling survey shows that primary- and secondary-school headmasters use the indicators less frequently than do administrative personnel and

researchers, which means that the indicators should be improved.

Comparison between National Educational Indicators and Educational Assessment Indicators

NEI is usually equivalent to the regular educational statistical indicators used in NEMIS at the national and local levels. Educational assessment is gaining importance, as seen in the efforts of the World Bank to help set up a National Assessment System (NAS) in various developing countries since 1990. Educational administrative departments, education research institutes, and schools are trying to use different indicators and methods to assess educational achievements and teaching processes. The experience gained in this area supplements NEI information. The demand for NAS is getting stronger. Table 1 shows the difference between the two sets of indicators.

Compared with NEI, assessment indicators are better in dealing with specific topics, lowering cost, combining quality and quantity assessments, widening the coverage of investigation, and so on. But they have weak points such as insufficient samples and lower comparability with other cases in terms of scope or the years covered. However, assessment indicators and the conventional NEI mutually supplement each other. In China, the main activities in educational assessment are the following.

First, the Education, Science, Culture, and Sanitation Committees of both the National People's Congress and the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference supervise and inspect compulsory education in different areas, while the Educational Superintendent Office of MOE develops an indicator system for compulsory education based on the existing NEI. The indicator system consists of indicators related to students, teachers, school conditions, and expenditures. It is used to check and supervise the process of making compulsory education universal.

Second, testing and assessing the students' ability and qualifications have great impact because they concern the majority of students. At the end of each semester, 20 million graduates from primary schools take the examination held in cities and counties, 15 million graduates from junior secondary schools take a standard examination held in provinces and cities, and around 2.5 million graduates from senior secondary schools take a standard examination given by provincial and national agencies for entrance to universities and colleges. Testing and assessing are the means to check the students' academic qualifications. Educational administrators use the results and findings to analyze the performance of students with different academic backgrounds and to determine the weakness in the teaching process in order to improve the quality of education. The qualifying examination is a major component of the academic process. It shows the educational progress of the graduates, and helps in placing them for employment.

In recent years, NCEDR and some MOE departments conducted several studies to assess the quality of compulsory education in rural areas. They were assisted by UNICEF, UNESCO, and other international organizations. The National Institute for Educational Studies (NIES) and some provincial educational research institutes carried out foreign-assisted projects to assess pupils' learning achievement at the primary level using International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement methods. However, MOE also developed a set of national criteria for assessing the students' physical condition.

Third, national professional and specialized institutions assess universities and colleges and specialized secondary schools. The Academic Degree Committee of the State Council organizes qualification assessments of special fields of study for doctorate and master's degrees, and of teachers all over the country. MOE is conducting pre-examination assessments of 100 key universities that will be incorporated

<i>Educational statistical indicators</i>	<i>Educational assessment indicators</i>
Emphasize the state of educational institutions; receivers of education; ranks of teachers, staff, and workers; public educational expenditure; facilities; research and development activities in schools; work-study programs and school-run enterprises.	Emphasize teaching quality, professional ability, academic qualification, academic levels, internal and external relationship, factors of intelligence and non-intelligence, management efficiency, human relations, value judgment.
Use numerical or quantitative indicators.	Use quantitative and qualitative indicators.
Whole statistics undergo annual conventional procedure approved by SSB or put on record officially.	Function as an investigation activity that collects sampling data through single (rather than regular annual), time-bound surveys.
Law ensures general investigation of schools and individuals.	Findings (based on sampling survey) have no legal effect and simply treated as indicators.
Data are collected by a permanent network of full-time statistical staff.	Data on specific topics are collected by temporary project teams.
Has higher costs in terms of human, financial, and material resources for data collecting and processing.	Has lower costs in terms of human and financial resources for data collecting and processing.
Collect data for computer database at the national and provincial levels; data processing is aided by PCs, mostly at prefecture and city levels, sometimes at the county level.	Process and analyze data usually by computer, based on survey needs.
Are of lower quality and credibility; may evaluate systematic errors and accidental errors, but cannot easily control them.	Are clear; can easily and systematically control errors.
Have higher comparability of the indicators of one category in different years.	Have lower comparability of the survey in one category in different years and scopes.
Results released in a statistical bulletin annually and published in a statistical yearbook.	Results published in the form of essay, report, and others.

into Project 211, which has been carried out by the central and local governments since 1995. Most of the assessments basically determine universities' academic capacity for scientific research in major special fields of study, the condition of scientific research, and current expenditures. More than 100 indicators for assessing higher education have been selected to set up a new National Database on Regular Universities/Colleges.

Fourth, evaluations of curricular teaching, school management, expenditure, and finance management are conducted frequently. The methods of investigation, discussion and interview, the questionnaire survey, and the methods of practical observation are designed to investigate and analyze the influence of intelligent and non-intelligent factors in the learning process, such as family background, social environment, human relationships, and

value judgment. Some investigations and evaluations borrow from experiences and achievements at home and abroad. They also get support and advice from international institutions and experts. For example, a series of projects for assessing the quality of students in primary school was implemented in Beijing, and the management-by-objective approach was used to regulate and improve the quality of compulsory education in Miluo city, Hunan province.

Great Changes in National Educational Indicators in the Last 20 years

The statistical-indicator system of education used before 1980 had two major weak points. One, it was set up on the basis of the centrally planned economic and education systems, as well as management methods, of the 1950s. Although they were revised from time to time during the 30 years of their use, many of the indicators are out of date and hardly reflect the educational developments that followed the policy reforms and liberalization of China. Two, it emphasized spreading and speeding up the delivery of educational services over large areas, but neglected the improvement of physical facilities of schools. It formulated a system of statistical survey for collecting data but did not develop a system for educational evaluation and monitoring of indicators that show the overall status of education. People used scattered indicators to describe educational results according to their own understanding, which caused differences and confusion.

The existing education indicator system began to be evaluated and revised in the 1980s, and became a new system in 1991. The revised NEI system is now better suited to the reform needs of the education system, and the management of educational institutions. It has two new features. One is the expanded survey indicators. To reform school management and the student admission system, statistical indicators for private and vocational schools jointly run by different agencies were expanded and

applied to the whole educational system. Statistical indicators for the new student admission system were expanded and matched with plans for the admission system to universities and colleges. Statistical indicators for physical facilities were expanded to balance the demand between educational development and physical facilities improvement.

The establishment of evaluation and monitoring indicators completes the indicator system. The new NEI system can better reflect, describe, and assess the process of educational development objectively and scientifically. It has been operating for five years. However, the new system has weak indicators in the following areas:

- education quality;
- adult education;
- qualification for nonacademic or non-degree courses;
- educational input and output;
- level of school management;
- effectiveness of expenditures; and
- evaluation and monitoring, which is not comprehensive.

A 1998 sample survey suggested the inclusion of the following statistical indicators:

- school-management structure, especially of private schools, to guide the government in dealing with different types of school management;
- financial investment in education by the various levels of government, to differentiate the shares of educational expenditure by different financial administrations;
- school charges (including fee and tuition) criteria at various types and levels of schools, to help in local education policymaking and explaining the policy to the public;
- admission rate of students, to adjust to the wave of school-age population, change the educational program, reduce the number of schools, improve school facilities, and reduce the number of superfluous teachers;

- directions taken by students after graduation, to classify them as “admitted to a higher school level” or “looking for employment” or “uncertain”;
- physical and arts education, in terms of equipment; painting and music; and health, psychology, and other relevant subjects; and
- pay and working conditions of teachers, such as the annual salary scale and its average compared to that of other industries; average size of teachers’ housing and its ratio to that of other citizens’; the proportion of teachers’ salary in the educational expenditure of schools at various levels, and the changes in such proportion, etc.

Improvement of National Educational Indicators and the Renewal Plan

Despite improvements in the indicator system, it still needs better human resources, technology, and administrative personnel. Some local governments and educational administration departments still give little importance to the creation of an information system on education management.

China is planning to improve the educational-indicator system based on the following considerations. First, the system should suit the changes in educational activities resulting from the transition from the planned economy to the socialist market economy. For example, the employment of graduates will be determined by the labor market, not by the government. Schools will adjust their admission rate and their structure of specialties according to the needs of the labor market. For this reason, it is becoming more and more important to have an overall view of the employment situation of graduates. The Action Plan for Vitalizing Education Toward the 21st Century provides for the “setting up of an integrated information net system for recruiting students, registration management, and employment

information service in universities and colleges all over the country.”

Second, the system should meet the needs of transition in mode of production. The economy has long had serious problems such as high investment and cost and low output, wastage of resources, and low-quality or ineffective education. Indicators should show and measure the efficiency of investment in education. At the same time, they should be highly reliable and valid. The low validity of some indicators is due to design, and some to the great difficulty in operating and controlling them. Low reliability affects their validity. MOE is studying and improving China’s EMIS on the basis of a new international standard classification in education under the educational statistics indicator system of UNESCO and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Third, the system should suit the demands of international comparative research. Progress in science and technology has reduced the distance between peoples and places. The Internet has made possible the direct transmission of messages between and among countries. Narrowing the difference of education indicators between China and foreign countries will benefit educational managers and researchers all over the world. MOE has set up CERNET, linked with more than 100 universities through the Internet. Small internal networks have been developed in various agencies. Now MOE is establishing an internal EMIS network within educational departments and agencies. (Please visit <http://www.moe.edu.cn> or <http://www.cernet.cn>.)

Fourth, the system should meet the needs of evaluating educational quality and implementing quality-oriented education. By 2000, nine-year compulsory education will be universalized. To guarantee and improve educational quality is a major problem in basic education. Thus, more and more attention is paid to indicators of quality education. The central

government's decision focused on advancing high-quality education in the 21st century.

Fifth, it should meet the needs of monitoring educational planning. Implementation of the plan for 2000 is nearing completion. The long-term plan for 2010 has been designed. Whether or not the current status of education meets the requirements of the plan, the monitoring system has become an important project and been put on the agenda. Generally speaking, there are favorable trends for research and experiment on NEI. The educational administrative departments and the schools emphasize the establishment of a scientific NEI. The educational quality, including the quality of learning achievement, and the conditions of schools, student groups, school management, and so on, are the key points that should be integrated in the statistics reporting of existing systems such as EMIS, the superintendent system, the examination system, the teaching-learning assessment system, and the system evaluating school conditions and internal management. The new NEI system, with educational quality as its core content, should be operationally useful and diversified, and relevant to the characteristics and status of various regions.

Teaching Human Rights in Schools

Human rights education in Chinese schools mainly takes the form of legal education. It is not only part of socio-legal education, it is also a major component of moral education. It is an important means of teaching students about socialist democracy and the legal system, and of achieving the rule of law. It is therefore a crucial link in the cause of human rights.

The government attaches great importance to legal and human rights education for 320 million students each year. Article 24 of the Constitution makes it the responsibility of the state to provide legal and human rights education. Article 6 of the Education Law mandates the state to provide legal education. Article 3

of the Law on the Protection of Minors; Articles 4, 6, and 9 of the Law on the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency; and other education laws lay down special regulations on legal and human rights education in schools.

According to the national syllabus, all schools should offer courses on legal education, or incorporate contents of legal education into relevant courses, and employ full-time or part-time teachers for legal education. Schools are also encouraged to employ after-class tutors. Education programs should be result-oriented by taking into account the age of students and by including the basic legal knowledge closely related to their daily life. At the same time, primary schools and middle schools should offer moral education courses that also teach human rights. The state formulates teaching plans, sets curriculum criteria, compiles textbooks, and assigns full-time teachers.

The state requires that teachers engaged in human rights education at all levels should study the Constitution and have basic knowledge of laws to enhance their own legal awareness and set an example for students. Legal education is a core course for the in-service training of teachers. In order to build a stronger team, schools adopt various approaches to provide systematic legal training for teachers, such as pre-service, in-service, and full-time training. In order to advance human rights studies and expand international exchanges, many universities and colleges have set up relevant research institutions. They also carry out human rights education and research by holding direct talks with other countries. Human rights education institutions in some universities in Beijing conduct wide-ranging exchanges with human rights institutions abroad. The participating teachers bring back useful information and incorporate them into their teaching materials, eventually raising the level of human rights education in universities.

The government's Decision to Deepen Educational Reforms and Advance Quality Edu-

cation and the Action Plan for Vitalizing Education Toward the 21st Century require schools, universities and colleges, educational administrators, and other concerned sectors to emphasize moral and legal education. Government agencies and research institutes have developed a series of legal, moral, and human rights education materials for schools and the general public. For example, they have published *Textbook on Human Rights of Citizens in China* and numerous reference books and monographs on human rights education.

This year, cases of violence committed by minors have shaken China. Underaged criminals often know little about law and morality, and often suffer from too much school work and pressure from their parents and classmates. Meanwhile, many high-achieving students, especially in rural areas or towns, do not know how they can legally protect themselves. Legal, moral, and human rights education on campuses have thus recently received more attention than in the past.

School headmasters and teachers are asked to use and develop various assessment methods to determine the impact of legal, moral, and human rights education, and to evaluate behaviors in the education process. They are required to help students solve different problems (learning and psychological) and to coordinate with parents and the local community, under the guidance of educational researchers and administrators. MOE is preparing guidelines for inspecting quality-oriented

education and for assessing the patterns of legal and moral education.

Notes

1. There has been a protracted discussion on quality of education, especially at the elementary stage. The very rigid examination system and heavy learning load are not suitable for children. More and more students, parents, communities, and governments want to develop a new high-quality education system. A more flexible and diversified education system will encourage young people to develop holistically.

2. The Six-nation Education Research Project has been conducted jointly since 1993 by several research institutes from China, Germany, Japan, Singapore, Switzerland, and the United States. The National Center for Education Development Research coordinates the sub-project on Educational Indicators with Singapore and the United States. More than 10 experts from the Department of Planning, the Educational Management Information Center, and the Department of International Cooperation of the Ministry of Education, the National Institute of Education Research, and the Department of Social Development of the State Statistics Bureau take part in the project in China.

3. Seven educational statistics indicators are adopted under the National Educational Indicators system: input, capital construction, expenditure, staff, teachers, school-age population, and average educational attainment. The indicators are drawn from the standards of statistical indicators of UNESCO and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Southeast Asia Pilot Teacher Training Workshop on Human Rights Education in Schools

HURIGHTS OSAKA

In 1998, the Asia-Pacific Human Rights Information Center (HURIGHTS OSAKA) organized a series of workshops on human rights education in schools. The workshops disseminated to a wide audience the human rights education experiences of schools in several Asian countries. They also helped raise awareness of the need to develop linkages among groups in Asia. One workshop each was held for Southeast, South, and Northeast Asia. A regional workshop, held in Osaka, Japan, in November 1998, ended the series of workshops.

The workshop series consistently echoed one key theme: the need to train teachers and other education officials to implement human rights education in schools. Much of the concern centered on imparting (i) knowledge on human rights and human rights education, (ii) attitudes and values supportive of human rights, and (iii) skills in using learning methods that adhere to the principles of human rights. Training is therefore a crucial element in any program of human rights education in schools. HURIGHTS OSAKA thus launched a training program, again in collaboration with various institutions in the region.

HURIGHTS OSAKA, with the National Human Rights Commission of Indonesia and the Center for Human Rights Studies of Universitas Surabaya, held the Southeast Asia workshop on human rights education in schools on 14-17 May 1998 in Surabaya, Indonesia. The workshop stressed the need for an ASEAN sub-regional training program. In the subsequent workshop held on 23-26 November 1998 in

Osaka, Japan, participants from Southeast Asia agreed on a draft training design.

A preparatory committee composed of representatives from Indonesia, Thailand, and the Philippines met in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, on 23-25 February 1999 and worked out the details of the training design. A program for a four-day training was adopted. The training workshop was held on 26-29 April 1999 in Bali, Indonesia.

HURIGHTS OSAKA, the National Human Rights Commission of Indonesia, and the Center for Human Rights Studies of Universitas Surabaya jointly organized the training workshop. The Southeast Asia Fund for Institutional and Legal Development and the UNESCO Jakarta office provided additional financial support.

Training Design

The Southeast Asia Pilot Teachers' Training Workshop is designed to review the experiences

An excerpt of the report from the training workshop. For the full report, see www.hurights.or.jp.

of Southeast Asian schools in teaching human rights. It attempts to (i) develop ideas and teaching modules that will strengthen existing activities, (ii) provide support to an informal network on human rights education in schools, and (iii) provide concrete support to national-level initiatives on human rights education in schools.

In particular, the training design has the following elements:

- An ASEAN focus, which requires the following:
 - dealing with experiences of various institutions in the subregion;
 - situating human rights education programs within the realities of the subregion;
 - discussing the issue of culture and human rights in the context of the subregion; and
 - developing a vision for human rights education in the subregion.
- Networking among human rights educators as well as relevant institutions in the subregion.
- Using participant-centered methodology, which requires participants' involvement in activities such as small group discussion sessions that have no resource persons and whose facilitators provide minimal input.

Training Objectives

The training workshop's objectives were the following:

- Explicitly identify and integrate human rights in the school curriculum and teacher training programs.
- Demonstrate knowledge, attitudes, and skills in promoting human rights in schools in various capacities (as teacher trainers and curriculum developers, for example).
- Use of participant-centered methodology.
- Develop skills in designing teacher training programs and action plans for dissemi-

nation, evaluation, and monitoring of human rights education.

- Develop a support system for national activities through networking.
- Develop an understanding of the various human rights education experiences in ASEAN.

Training Participants

The training workshop is designed to serve the needs of the following:

- teacher trainers;
- teaching-material developers;
- curriculum developers;
- officers of teachers' colleges and education faculties of universities; and
- school heads.

The selection of participants primarily considers how important they are in promoting human rights education within the education system. They must have the following qualifications:

- a position of influence in the education system;
- an interest in a particular subject related to human rights;
- an interest in social justice issues; and
- English-language proficiency.

Participants from Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam generally satisfied the qualifications set. Those invited from Malaysia were unable to attend.

Major Components of Training Design

The training workshop has the following major components:

- *human rights concept and vision*, which reviews the human rights situation and issues, national histories, and sectoral human rights concerns (such as those of women, children, minorities, etc.);

- *human rights education and the school curriculum*, which includes (i) an update on human rights education work, (ii) discussion on the role of schools in promoting human rights in society, (iii) profiling of human rights advocates (teachers and students), and (iv) developing model human rights curriculums;
- *teaching methodology*, which involves making lesson plans, modules, and teaching guides;
- *dissemination* mechanism for training output (within and outside the school system); and
- *evaluation* of human rights education programs and activities.

Each component is translated into a program activity.

Workshop Proceedings

Presentation and Clarification of Training Objectives

In leveling off their expectations with the workshop's objectives, participants raised several issues:

- integration or nonintegration of human rights in school curriculums, overloaded school curriculums, and use of extracurricular activities;
- relationship between human rights and family life, as human rights awareness starts at home;
- human rights education as related to the development of the community and empowerment of people, since its objective is not limited to the schools and should therefore relate to the community;
- relationship between the political climate and human rights education, and the fact that a legal mandate for human rights education in ASEAN countries is important in fostering a positive political climate;
- development of teaching skills, selection of teachers, etc. as important factors that

can assure quality human rights education, and the need to simplify teacher training programs;

- collaboration between nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and the Ministry of Education as important in human rights education in schools;
- the need to compile human rights education materials in ASEAN countries; and
- how other subjects in the curriculum may affect human rights education, since they may promote values incompatible with human rights.

These comments relate to the objectives of the training workshop and are therefore considered part of the training agenda.

Country reports

The country reports as well as ensuing discussions highlighted the following observations:

- Various manifestations of culture affect the human rights situation in ASEAN countries, including the following:
 - the culture of war and violence, which results from the lack of a system to peacefully resolve conflicts;
 - “family worship,” which regards the family as so important that family members will even engage in corrupt practices to protect their clan's interests;
 - the culture of patriarchy, which especially affects women adversely;
 - the culture of impunity, which shields government officials from accountability;
 - the culture of silence, which afflicts most people, especially the poor, and which is worsened by the policy of silence and impunity by those who have power; and
 - support for the death penalty, which threatens the right to life.
- Economic change and development affect the education system, as in Vietnam.

- The principle of the rule of law has been disregarded for too long.
- The relationship between the government and the people is being redefined as social reform movements try to transform government into one that is of, for, and by the people;
- The meaning of human rights in relation to the family, school, and society is now seen as an important issue.

The small group discussions also covered the human rights issues arising from a collective reading of the ASEAN situation. Each group reported the results of the discussion in the plenary session.

Group 1

- Poverty is a human rights violation as it hinders the exercise of some rights.
- Equal access to education is obstructed by weaknesses in the education system (including inadequate education of teachers), which is a result of poor governance.
- Laws are poorly enforced and judicial independence nonexistent. Government corruption frustrates the realization of human rights.
- Injustice, discrimination against women, and domestic violence plague society.
- Ignorance makes people passive. Cultural values clash with human rights values.
- Concepts related to human rights are the following:
 - human dignity;
 - equitable distribution of wealth;
 - freedom;
 - equal access to education;
 - justice, fairness, and equality;
 - responsibilities vs. rights;
 - individual vs. collective rights;
 - gender sensitivity, gender balance, women’s rights;
 - human rights vs. citizenship;
 - human rights values and culture, traditions, laws, and social contexts;

- peace and conflict resolution;
- democracy, national unity, independence, national sovereignty;
- rights to life and self-development (economic rights);
- human rights in practice; and
- social justice

Query: Is the teaching of moral values a form of human rights education? Is moral obligation a concept related to human rights?

Group 2

- The relationship between the government and people does not favor human rights.
- Absolute government power produces a culture of silence. There is still no clear concept of human rights in Asian culture. The right to be treated with respect despite differences of opinion, and the rights to freedom of expression and active participation by people should be respected.
- Girls are not given the opportunity to go to school. They also suffer from domestic violence. Women suffer discrimination in the workplace and at home. Human rights education in schools can prevent it.
- Some teachers are unfamiliar with human rights. Others lack the knowledge and capacity necessary to teach human rights. Human rights education must equip teacher-advocates with the attitude, skills, and knowledge to teach the subject.
- Misunderstanding and conflict characterize “mainstream” society’s relations with ethnic minorities.
- Ethnic groups suffer discrimination. Their rights to their own identity and to their own beliefs, religion, values, and way of life are not respected.
- Child labor is increasing. The rights of children to an education and to be protected against exploitation and dangerous work are violated.
- The environmental situation is worsening due to modernization and technology,

violating people's rights to life, to a safe environment, and to basic needs.

- The culture itself has elements that are antithetical to human rights, a fact that governments use as an excuse to force people to obey. A culture of human rights must be created in Asia.

Query: Is there an Asian culture of human rights?

Some view human rights as a Western value, without which Asian countries can live in peace and harmony, and Western cultures as riddled with conflict. Some assert that a non-Western concept of human rights can be developed. It can be based on Buddhism, for example, which holds that every living creature, not just human beings, has the right to life. Human rights are thus defined according to their cultural context.

Query: Are people's conceptions of human rights so varied?

An exercise requiring teachers to identify human rights suggests not. Teachers made a list of what they consider as basic rights. Their list turned out to be similar to the provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Group 3

ASEAN realities include the following:

- a culture of silence (e.g., about corruption);
- exploitation of disadvantaged people because of the economic crisis (e.g., through prostitution);
- patriarchal culture (e.g., as manifested in domestic violence); and
- use and misinterpretation of religion and traditional values to protect the status quo (e.g., dogmatic interpretation of religion, control of minorities by the majority).

Human rights issues include the following:

- lack of awareness and knowledge of human rights;

- violation of economic and basic rights;
- lack of appreciation of gender equality;
- misinterpretation of religion and traditional values; and
- legalization of violations of the right to life.

Human rights concepts include the following:

- self-dignity, and love and respect for others;
- sectoral, racial, religious, and economic equality;
- right to information;
- respect for other people's rights;
- rights to privacy, education, food, and shelter (social entitlement).

Some debates continue:

- Some believe that duty has a higher priority than rights because it is altruistic, implying that the self should be relegated to a secondary status. But the marginalized who insist on their right to self-dignity cannot be wrong. It is wrong to insist that those who are already suffering be made to perform their duty to others who do not suffer. The fact that they love themselves does not mean that they love others less.
- The relationship between civil obligation and human rights should be clarified.
- Some assert that prostitution does not constitute a human rights violation, but is an economic activity, a career, and that women should not be prevented from engaging in prostitution on the ground that it violates human dignity. Some, however, believe that economic needs cannot be used to justify the violation of human dignity and that family values that require one to serve the needs of the family even through prostitution violate human rights. Whether prostitution is work or a violation of human dignity (and therefore a human rights violation) is still being de-

bated in international forums, and even women's groups are not unanimous on the issue.

Vision, Mission, and Goal

Facilitator Nerissa L. Losaria stated that vision is the art of seeing the invisible. Someone else once wrote: "Vision without action is a daydream. Daydream without vision is a nightmare." Vision is a framework for action. Losaria gave a sample vision from the Philippines: "Every young Filipino possesses and demonstrates human rights knowledge, skill, and attitudes guiding the values of justice, democracy, gender equality, spirituality, peace, and universality of dignity."

The participants performed the visioning exercise toward the end of the workshop.

Update on Human Rights Education in Schools

The participants gave country presentations on the status of human rights education in schools. Below are the highlights:

Inhibiting and Supporting Factors

Participants were divided into three groups and asked to identify and discuss factors that inhibit or support human rights education in schools. They also discussed measures to address the inhibiting factors. They then drew up the profile of a human rights advocate as a teacher and as a student.

The results of the small group discussions were combined into three matrixes as shown below. Clarifications and comments were raised at the plenary sessions (see Table 1).

Profile of Human Rights Advocates

The profile of human rights advocates as teachers and as students lists the values and/or attitudes, knowledge, and skills that they need to have in order to promote and protect

human rights. It provides a basis for developing any program on human rights education in schools. In the exercise, "heart" means attitudes and values, "head" means knowledge, and "hand" means skills—not just physical skills, but mental and other skills as well (see Tables 2 and 3).

During the plenary session, the main issues raised were the following:

- *Gaps between reality and international human rights standards.* Some children who study human rights in schools have been known to ask their parents, "Why don't I get three meals a day? It is against human rights."
- *The need for critical thinking if teachers are to relate the culture of the community to the universal standard of human rights.* Traditional values sometimes work as inhibiting factors. How does one determine whether a traditional value is for or against human rights?
- *Misconceptions about human rights.* These can inhibit human rights education. Some think that promoting human rights is "activism." Others are afraid to talk about human rights due to the political situation. Teachers sometimes feel insecure about teaching human rights.
- *The need to distinguish human rights from personal rights.* Students sometimes confuse them. Some, for example, see smoking in the classroom as a human right.
- *Evaluating activities of students outside the schools.* It is difficult to tell whether their actions are good or bad, but the students should be made to think about the consequences of their behavior, not only for themselves but also for others.
- *The need for voluntary adoption of programs for human rights education in schools.* They should not be adopted only because of a mandate from the central government.
- *The fact that teachers themselves are not aware of the importance or usefulness of*

TABLE 1. Inhibiting Factors, Supporting Factors, and Feasible Measures in Human Rights Education

<i>Inhibiting factors</i>	<i>Supporting factors</i>	<i>Feasible measures</i>
<p>In relation to the schools:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inappropriate teaching methods, and materials. • Overloaded curriculum. • Preoccupation with exams. • Lack of mandate for human rights education. • Lack of recognition of the needs of human rights education. • Restrictive school rules and regulations. • Unsupportive school environment. • Lack of preparedness of the government education agency. • Different situations between public and private schools. <p>In relation to the teachers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Undesirable attitude. • Lack of training. • Lack of skill or competence. • Lack of human rights awareness. • Lack of motivation, or indifference. • Fear of reaction from government, school, and students. • Fear of talking about human rights. <p>In relation to human rights concept:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unclear relationship between human rights and other issues. • Misconception of human rights. <p>In relation to society:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consumerism. • Traditional values and culture. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existence of NGO movements. • Support from national human rights commissions. • Support from UNESCO. • People’s awareness of human rights. • Support from Asian foundations. • Existence of National Plan of Action for Human Rights Education, Constitutional and legal mandate, government policy. • Provision of funds for human rights education. • Commitment of some government and nongovernmental agencies to human rights education. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education and curriculum reform. • Inclusion of human rights in some subjects, including those on State ideology. • Support from parents. • Moral support from other sectors. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness of minority groups. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educators, who are not activists, who become active. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of local art, music and values. • Simplification of the notion of human rights. • Exposure programs for students. • Seminars and workshops. • Use of media. • Development of education methods. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government lobby work. • Curriculum reform. • Intensive teacher training. • Fund raising. • Networking among schools, organizations, and individuals. • Adoption of appropriate school management system. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creation of system of cooperation between government and NGOs. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human rights education awareness-raising programs.

human rights. When this is the case, no amount of supporting factors will advance a human rights education program.

- *The need to introduce the concept of human rights not only in school, but in other areas of daily life.* The importance of human rights should be learned through practice. Otherwise, students will study human rights only to find that their lessons are inconsistent with the reality.

- *NGOs as a supporting factor.* However, there are many types of NGOs. Some are established by the government, while others are ideologically oriented or “fly-by-night.” Governments sometimes use NGOs as “spies.” Some groups would thus rather call themselves “social development agencies” to distinguish themselves from the spurious NGOs.

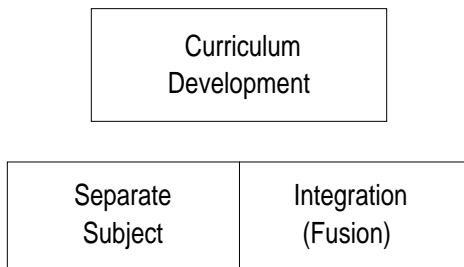
<i>Heart</i>	<i>Head</i>	<i>Hand</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Humane (kindness, friendship, caring). • Open-minded. • Committed. • Tolerant. • Respectful of and sensitive to differences. • Conscientious. • Role model. • Good listener. • Vigilant. • Optimistic. • Sincere and honest. • Sense of fairness, justice. • Courageous. • Concern for others. • Respect for one's self and others. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Issues and problems of human rights. • Good overview of human rights movement (in and out). • Human rights violations redress procedure. • Alternative, effective teaching methodologies. • Basic human rights concepts and principles. • Human rights situationer. • Local culture and values related to human rights. • Current economic, social, and political situationer (international, national and regional). • Forms of violations of human rights. • UN conventions related human rights. • Social standards. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human rights teaching skills. • Innovative and creative teaching of human rights. • Communication skills. • Good leadership and motivation. • Participatory approach. • Conflict management and negotiation. • Ability to measure, promote, solve human rights problems. • "Pedagogy of love." • Socialization of human rights.

<i>Heart</i>	<i>Head</i>	<i>Hand</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caring. • Respectful of differences. • Respectful of self. • Peace-loving. • Assertive. • Self-confident. • Self-reliant. • Courageous and optimistic. • Responsibility for social action. • Good behavior. • Respectfulness. • Social responsibility. • Belief in the correctness of morals. • Service orientation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local culture and values related to human rights. • Current economic, social and political situation (international, national and regional). • Forms of violations of human rights. • UN conventions related to human rights. • Understanding of social standards. • Human rights concepts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Critical thinking. • Peace building. • Ability to act suitably according to social standards. • Ability to cooperate. • Human rights practitioner. • Reflection making. • Ability to use conflict resolution mechanism.

Curriculum Development

Facilitator Sirilus Belen explained that human rights can either be integrated or separated from existing subjects in the curriculum as follows:

FIGURE 1.



He mentioned the five approaches identified by educator Douglas Barnes in curriculum development:

- content-based approach, which may cause overloading of the curriculum;
- concept-based approach, which guides children in forming their own values;
- basic-skills approach (active-learning or participatory approach), which imparts social, physical, and intellectual skills;
- problem-solving approach; and
- interest-based approach.

The first two approaches focus on *what* to learn. The basic-skills approach focuses on *how* to learn; it is also the most popular.

Why the Participatory Approach?

The teaching of human rights should follow the participatory approach for the following reasons:

- It inherently promotes child rights.
- It is based on the belief in human potentials, capacities, indigenous talents, as well as on self-determination, freedom, justice, egalitarianism, and respect for human rights.

Curriculum Components

A curriculum is composed of the following:

- objectives;
- contents;
- methodology;
- learning materials; and
- process evaluation.

Developing a Model Teachers' Curriculum

The Indonesian experience suggests that a model teachers' curriculum can be developed by doing the following:

- organizing teachers' clubs in schools;
- forming clusters of 6-7 schools in a specific area; and
- adopting the cascade system to implement the curriculum.

The teachers in an area should develop the curriculum as a team. Teachers' manuals should be like cookbooks: the readers should be able to use them without help. The teachers and schools should do this activity on their own, without a mandate from the central or provincial government, or district education office.

Integrating Human Rights Concepts into Other Subjects

Losaria presented a sample curriculum from the Philippines and made the following points:

- Human rights education is most easily integrated into social studies and values education.
- The curriculum is broken down into the syllabus and lesson plans. Lesson plans should contain ready examples to help the teachers, who otherwise might consider that teaching human rights is merely an additional burden on their already-heavy teaching load.
- Human rights questions are included in examinations.

Subject	Content	Human rights concepts
Cooperation (Social studies)	Discussion about goals and advantages of cooperation, including its relation to achieving improved living standard.	Right to good living standard for each person, his/her family, including provision of clothes, food and shelter.
Colonial era (History)	Stories about the arrival of colonial powers (the Portuguese, Dutch, and British) in Indonesia. Expressing people's suffering during the colonial era.	Independence. Right to be free from punishment, torture, forced disappearance.

- The contents of human rights infusion seem more cognitive. The process aspect is shown through the teaching process. Guide materials evaluate students' skill. Activities outside the classroom are also observed.

After the presentations, the three groups were each assigned human rights education activities taken from United Nations's *ABC—Teaching Human Rights*. The activities are described as follows:

- *Me on the Wall*. Trace the outline of each child on a large piece of paper (best done lying down). Have the student paint in physical details, and then write down the child's personal and physical qualities (name, height, weight, what the child would most like to learn or do at school) on a label, which is then attached to the piece of paper. Pin the drawings up on the wall, allowing all students to learn about each other.

- *A "Who am I?" book*. Ask the children to begin a book about themselves, with their self-portrait on the cover. The book may contain personal pictures, prose, and poems. As children learn to write, they can put in personal details, questions about themselves, and answers to questions. If resources are limited, a

book can be made for the whole class with a page or two for each child.

- *The Lifeline*. Have all the children stretch out a piece of yarn representing their life. They then hang on it drawings and stories that detail the important things that have happened to them, chronologically or not. They can also draw and write about the future.

- *Wishing Well*. Ask students to form a circle, which is the "wishing well." They take turns in making wishes:

If I could be any animal, I'd be _____ because...

Then they replace "animal" with bird, insect, flower, tree, piece of furniture, musical instrument, building, car, street, state, foreign country, game, record, TV show, movie, food and color.

- *Blind Trust*. Divide the class into pairs. Have one student blindfold the other and have the sighted member of the pair lead the "blind" one about for a few minutes. Make sure the leading child is not abusing his or her power to lead, since the idea is to nurture trust, not to destroy it. The "leader" of the pair should try to provide as wide a variety of experiences as possible, such as having the "blind" partner

feel things with his or her feet or fingers, leading with vocal directions, or even playing a game.

After a few minutes, have the participants reverse the roles and repeat the process so that the “leader” is now the led, and the “blind” partner the sighted one.

Once the activity is over, have the students talk about what happened. Discuss how they felt—both as the “blind” and as “leaders.”

The activity can foster not only a greater awareness of what life is like for people with sight (or hearing) disabilities, but also spark a discussion of the importance of trust in the whole community. This can then lead to a discussion of world society and how it works and can fail to work.

- *Me and My Senses.* Have the children form a circle and use a role-play to explore the following statements:

Hearing helps me to...

Seeing helps me to...

Smelling helps me to...

Touching helps me to...

Tasting helps me to...

Rephrase the questions, where appropriate, to suit the needs of children with disabilities (e.g., “not being able to see (very well? at all?) I’m still me, and I can...”), get each child to invent an instrument to help them smell or touch better. Have them describe, draw, or dramatize it.

The groups then reported on the experience at the plenary session following the small group activity. Belen explained that the activities are meant to help the participants understand how learners learn, which is an important element in teaching.

Lesson Planning

Before the teaching demonstration session at a Bali high school, facilitators showed participants how to make a lesson plan. Les-

son plans have the following general components:

- objectives;
- contents;
- activities;
- assessment;
- materials and resources; and
- evaluation.

The three groups met again separately to discuss the lesson plans that could be prepared for the teaching demonstration. They agreed that there would be team teaching with an Indonesian participant working together with a non-Indonesian participant. An evaluation form for the teaching demonstration was distributed to the observers.

Teaching Demonstration

The teaching demonstration was held in the morning of 28 April 1999, in Sekolah Menengah Umum Denpasar (State Senior High School), for three classes of 16-17-year-old students. The participants from Thailand, the Philippines, and Indonesia had planned to conduct the teaching demonstration for 45 minutes in English, but the sessions went on for over an hour. The workshop participants and the students apparently had no language problems, and they all enjoyed the sessions. The lesson plans required the students to do an activity such as group work and then to report their discussions to the whole class.

The teaching demonstration was the first held at the school. The teachers and heads of the school expressed the desire to learn more. The participants in turn thanked the school-teachers and school heads for letting them work with the students.

Evaluating Human Rights Education Programs

Losaria briefly discussed the evaluation of programs on human rights education in schools.

Definition of evaluation

She defined evaluation as a process of determining the value, benefits, and impacts of any effort on the target beneficiaries—participants, organizers, or the organization. Evaluation helps improve existing efforts.

In making an evaluation, several issues have to be clarified:

- the project to be evaluated;
- the reason for the evaluation;
- the results of the evaluation; and
- the lessons learned.

If the results are positive, the project may continue. If not, the project may be modified. It is important to answer the question “Who makes the improvements, and how and when?” in undertaking the next steps. In case there is no actual project to evaluate, benchmarking can be done. Benchmarking is a combination of needs assessment and evaluation. The best practices related to the subject are collected and studied. The information can then be used to envision the desired future. Planning and implementation then follow. Another form of evaluation is the cost-benefit analysis.

Questions for evaluation

- What is the purpose of evaluation?
- What do I want to find?
- What data do I need?
- What are the processes and mechanisms for data gathering?
- Who will do the evaluation?
- Did the program suit the types of learners?
- Did it correspond to their needs?
- What is the time frame for evaluation?

Evaluation data should serve as a basis for program improvement, modification, and planning.

Instruments of evaluation

- Field testing (similar to observation guide).
- Advice and comments from teachers who tried the materials and programs.
- Qualitative and quantitative evaluation.
- Internal and external evaluation.

Impact evaluation

Measuring impact is difficult if the subject of evaluation is behavioral change. Attitude can be evaluated using the following:

- surveys (questionnaires); and
- skill testing (through simulation).

Areas to be reviewed are the following:

- vision, mission, goals, and plan evaluation;
- gaps between “what is” and “what should be”;
- quantitative and qualitative aspects of the vision (each aspect being differentiated); and
- two levels of evaluation:
 - program evaluation (students’ achievement level); and
 - teaching and learning processes evaluation. (See Annex for sample questionnaires.)

Country Visions

Participants expressed their vision for their own society and their mission for human rights education. The visioning exercise was done for each country. Participants also identified activities and projects that they could implement. An evaluation component was added to the exercise.

The groups’ vision, mission, goal statement, and proposed plans follow.

THAILAND

Vision

- A society that is free from all forms of exploitation, where the people's rights and liberties are respected, where equality and justice prevail, where people help one another as a consequence of rational actions based upon firm moral values.
- A society where the potential of all persons, especially from the less fortunate sectors, is developed; where there are no violations of rights; where democratic practices ensure that people live together in peace and happiness, and in harmony with nature and the environment.

Mission

- Foster traditional values and wisdom as well as new values that promote respect for human rights.
- Promote a culture of human rights, democracy, and peace.
- Conscientize people in order to make respect for human rights a way of life.
- Promote and foster spiritual values in the hearts of the people, beginning in the family and community, and then in education, religion, politics, mass media, and other sectors.

Objectives and goals

- Provide knowledge and understanding of human rights so that respect for human rights becomes a way of life.
- Adopt action plans for human rights education within people's organizations, NGOs, and other institutions, both public and private.
- Ensure the establishment of the National Human Rights Commission as the mechanism that will work on and ensure human rights education in every educational and training institution.

Society in general

Goals

- Empower the people.
- Change the culture of the ruler vs. subjects.

Projects

- Promote human dignity, self-esteem, self-reliance, and actualization through participatory group processes focusing on freedom and respect for equality.

Evaluation indicators

- Response and demand from communities for workshops.
- Participation of the community in self-governance.
- Increase in number of people's forums.
- Increase in number of people's organizations.
- Establishment of saving groups (informal coops).
- Self-help projects.
- Transformation of bureaucrats' attitudes.

School

Goal

- Transform schools into instruments of social change.

Projects

- Teach human rights education in schools.
- Foster a culture of human rights in schools.

Evaluation indicators

- Involvement of the community in developing curriculums and instructional techniques.
- Involvement of schools in community development.
- Quality of relationship between schools and community.
- Desire of students to be in school.
- Changes in attitude and leadership style of the school administrator into those more participatory and cooperative.

Two programs (one for the schools and another for the community) should be implemented simultaneously so that changes in the community and the schools will support each other.

INDONESIA

Vision

- A civilized, peaceful, and respectful society.
- A nondiscriminatory society that treats each person equally despite ethnic, religious, gender, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, disability, or age differences.
- A democratic society enjoying freedom, justice, egalitarianism, and human rights.

Mission

- Empower the powerless and disadvantaged.

Goal

- Develop and enrich knowledge, attitudes, and skills, related to human rights.

Target

- Students and out-of-school youth.
- Decision makers.

VIETNAM

Goals

- Develop and enrich teachers' and students' awareness of basic rights and citizen's obligations to the family, school, and community.
- Develop appropriate attitudes and behavior (self-respect, confidence, responsibility).
- Develop critical thinking and assessment with respect to rights and obligations.
- Remind people to protect their rights and obligations.

Action plan

- Organize training workshops on human rights education in schools, including those under the UNESCO Associated Schools Program.

- Adjust the content and improve methods of teaching human rights through civic education in secondary schools and moral education in primary schools.
- Develop a project to assess and evaluate programs on human rights education in schools.

CAMBODIA

Vision

- Human rights for peace and reconciliation.

Mission

- Transform the culture of violence into one of peace and respect.

Targets

- Decision makers.
- Youth.
- Grass-roots communities.

Goal

- Change people's behavior.

Objectives

- Raise public awareness of human rights.
- Understand human rights, responsibilities, and duties.
- Encourage participation at all levels of society.
- Enable the people to claim their rights.

Evaluation

- Assess human rights education in schools using the following methods:
 - quantitative (internal and external) and qualitative evaluation;
 - geographical evaluation; and
 - evaluation of short learning.

- Assess the influence of the program on the awareness and interest of decision makers in government ministries, school leaders and trainers, teachers, and parents.
- Assess the sustainability of the program by tapping the initiative and creativity of the communities.

THE PHILIPPINES

Vision

- A country where people have the knowledge, values, attitudes, and skills that will impel them to create and maintain a society governed and guided by the principles of social justice, democracy and participation, gender equality, sustainable development, spirituality, peace, and universality of human dignity.

Mission

- Evolve a human rights culture by institutionalizing a multidisciplinary human rights education

program in schools and nonformal venues, and in communities.

Goals

- Lobby Congress to integrate human rights in school curriculums.
- Network with government institutions, NGOs, international organizations, and the mass media.
- Conduct research and special studies to enhance existing human rights education programs.
- Integrate the teaching of human rights concepts and values in the existing curriculum.
- Develop instructional materials and teaching supplements for teachers' use. Monitor human rights content in the curriculum. Include human rights questions in national examinations.
- Develop capability-building programs for teachers.
- Implement grass-roots and community-based advocacy programs.

Proposals for Follow-up Activities

The training program ended with an exercise in visioning and planning. Participants discussed proposals for follow-up activities that would promote networking and continuous mutual support at the national level. Some of the suggested activities are the following:

- holding a writing workshop (“writeshop”) for facilitators;
- developing human rights education modules for facilitators and teachers;
- conducting country-level research on local cultures and traditions (on rice culture, for example, and including the negative aspects) for teaching-material development; and
- strengthening the partnership between schools.

The Justice and Peace Commission (Catholic) in Thailand has already started a program that sends students in Bangkok to remote rural schools. Some participants suggested having bilateral programs between Indonesia and Thailand, and between Cambodia and Thailand.

Workshop Evaluation

Participants briefly evaluated the training workshop, and stated that they learned the following:

- True learning is acquired through friendship.
- Country experiences have differences and commonalities.
- Ideas about human rights and human rights education are changing.
- Human rights education is love.

They stated that they accomplished the following:

- Developed good relationships with fellow participants.
- Explored the adult learning process.
- Became involved in the workshop's activities.
- Explored a cooperative and constructive learning process.
- Developed curriculums.
- Deepened their respect for others.
- Learned more about the pedagogy of love.
- Shared and exchanged ideas.

A more formal evaluation was undertaken through a questionnaire: 11 of the 18 participants—and 4 nonparticipants (3 members of the organizing committee and 1 observer)—responded; 22 persons are covered by the table of responses in the evaluation form. (See Annex.)

Most respondents found the workshop “very satisfactory.” Workshop objectives were rated “very relevant” or “excellent.” The activities, the time allotted to each activity, the quality of workshop output, the relevance of materials, time management, knowledge on human rights obtained by the participants, and application of skills learned were found to be either “satisfactory” or “very satisfactory.”

The participants found the most beneficial aspects of the workshop to be the following:

- sharing of country experiences;
- lesson plan and curriculum development exercises; and
- the teaching demonstration.

Participants especially valued the exchange of experiences and the skills-improvement exercises. Many recommended stressing these in future workshops, as well as further emphasizing lesson planning and teaching methodology.

One important suggestion was that the workshop be held annually in different countries.

Concluding Note

The Southeast Asia Pilot Teacher Training Workshop is actually a misnomer. It does not respond to the needs only of the teachers but also of curriculum developers, education policymakers, NGO workers, and school administration officials. It is therefore a general training course on human rights education in schools.

As a pilot training workshop, it requires modifications in training design, activities, materials, and even timeframe. Thus, the evaluation results are an important component of the whole exercise.

Participants consisted of a mix of educators (in various capacities), which ensured variety and substance in the discussions. The group discussions, for example, include frank statements on the situation of Southeast Asia societies. Such inputs are important as human rights education is based on learning from reality. Human rights education, as the participants said, has to be relevant to their lives, beginning with their situation at home.

The workshop showed the importance of involving various parts of the education system in developing and implementing human rights education in schools. While teachers should certainly be a primary beneficiary of support, education officials in various capacities are likewise in need of training to be able to establish a sustainable support system for the teachers within and outside the government education structure. Thus, teacher trainers, curriculum developers, school administrators, and policymakers all play a major role in the human rights education program in schools, especially in supporting the frontline workers—the teachers.

If all goes according to plan, further training can be held with respect to specific areas such as developing school curriculum or materials. This workshop is a significant first step in that direction.

ANNEX

Sample Evaluation Form						
What to evaluate	Objectives	Process mechanisms	Target respondents / participants	When/date	Use of data	Guidelines

Evaluation Questionnaire for Human Rights Lesson Plans				
OBSERVATION GUIDE				
Title:	Subject:			
Grade/Year Level:	School:			
On a scale of 1 (lowest) to 4 (highest), rate the following items.				
ITEM	4	3	2	1
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The session/lesson objectives are clear, attainable and measurable. 2. Human rights concepts being developed were translated to relevant classroom activities. 3. The lesson provides for the development of higher cognitive skills such as critical thinking, creativity, learning by doing and problem solving. 4. The learning objectives are congruent with: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. content; b. teaching methodology/activities; c. process/analysis questions; d. evaluation mechanisms. 5. The lesson as a whole is appropriate to the learners' grade level. 6. There are motivational strategies (such as priming, games, clinchers) to enhance learners' attention and interest. 7. The evaluation mechanisms provided are appropriate to gauge the learners' progress/grasp of concepts/ideas. 8. Time management was properly observed. 9. All instructions were clear and easily understood by the pupils/students. 10. The activities enhanced pupil/student participation in the discussions. 				
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Are there portions in the lesson that may be worrisome to teachers and learners such as biases on gender, religion, use of language, illustrations, etc? 2. Please identify particular portions/areas which need improvement. 3. What are the strengths of the lesson? 4. Other comments: 				
Thank you.				

Table of Responses in the Workshop Evaluation Form

Legend: 1 – unsatisfactory; 2 – fairly satisfactory; 3 – satisfactory; 4 – very satisfactory; 5 – excellent

Two groups are involved: participants and the facilitators/observers. Their responses are separately indicated.

1. On the whole, how would you rate the training program?

1. 0
2. 0
3. II = 2
4. IIIII – III(IIII) = 8/12
5. I = 1

2. How would you rate the training in terms of

a. relevance of the objectives

1. 0
2. II = 2
3. 0
4. IIIII – I (III) = 6/9
5. III (I) = 3/4

b. appropriateness of the workshop activities

1. 0
2. I = 1
3. IIIII – (II) = 5/7
4. II (II) = 2/4
5. III = 3

c. adequacy of time allotment per session

1. 0
2. III = 3
3. IIIII – (III) = 5/8
4. II (I) = 2/3
5. I = 1

d. quality of workshop outputs of the participants

1. 0
2. II = 2
3. II (II) = 2/2
4. IIIII – II (II) = 7/9
5. 0

e. relevance of materials or handouts

1. 0
2. (I) = 1
3. IIIII – (I) = 5/6
4. IIIII – I(II) = 6/8
5. 0

f. time management

1. 0
2. I = 1
3. IIIII – I (II) = 6/8

4. III (II) = 3/5

5. 0

g. performance of management staff

1. 0
2. I = 1
3. II = 2
4. IIIII – (II) = 5/7
5. III (II) = 3/5

h. participant's participation

1. 0
2. II = 2
3. 0
4. IIIII – II (III) = 7/10
5. II (I) = 2/3

3. How would you rate yourself in terms of

a. knowledge obtained on human rights

1. 0
2. I = 1
3. II (II) = 2/4
4. IIIII – III(II) = 8/11
5. 0

b. your ability to apply skills gained

1. 0
2. 0
3. IIIII – (III) = 5/8
4. IIIII – I(I) = 6/7
5. 0

c. commitment to the promotion of human rights

1. 0
2. I = 1
3. II = 2
4. IIIII(I) – (II) = 4/7
5. IIIII(I) = 4/5

4. Which workshop objective was best achieved? Please explain.

- a. Vision, mission, goal formulation.
- b. Understanding implementation of human rights subjects by the teachers.
- c. Practically all objectives.
- d. Understanding of state of art of human rights education in school per country.
- e. Developing curriculum, profiling of human rights advocates (2), creating atmosphere for human rights education, making lesson plans.
- f. Promotion and development of knowledge and skills (2).
- g. Commitment building.
- h. Teaching demonstration (2).
- i. Having combination of seminar and workshop.

Responses from non-participants

- a. Increase/development of knowledge on human rights.
- b. All objectives.
- c. Sharing of country experiences.

5. From which workshop session did you learn most? Please explain.

- a. Teaching demonstration (2), meeting with local teachers.
- b. Small group discussions (2).
- c. Sharing of country experiences (4).
- d. Action planning.
- e. Methodology of teaching (2).

(Responses from non-participants)

- a. Development of human rights curriculum.
- b. Teaching demonstration.
- c. Human rights issues.
- d. Learning activities exercises.
- e. Drafting action plans.

6. What skills did you get from the training program?

- a. Preparation of issues for small group discussions and consolidate ideas in plenary session.
- b. Preparation of lesson plan (4), preparation of curriculum plan (3).
- c. Organizing international workshops.
- d. Situational analysis.
- f. Making decisions relevant to activity planning (2).
- g. Communication skills.
- h. Presentation skills.
- i. Formulation of vision, mission, goal (2).
- j. Setting training program.
- k. Designing sample teaching textbooks.
- l. Teaching methodology (2).
- j. Sharing and listening.
- l. Cognitive skills on human rights education in schools.
- l. Teaching demonstration.

(Responses from non-participants)

- a. Leading discussions in a democratic way.
- b. How to share ideas to people from other countries.
- c. How to introduce human rights education schools using existing resources and networks.
- d. Communication skills (2).
- e. Presentation skills.
- f. How to work with people from other countries.

7. What aspect of the training program did you find most satisfying?

- a. Atmosphere of training (friendship, brotherhood/sisterhood).
- b. High-caliber facilitation.
- c. Country-experience sharing (2).
- d. Teaching demonstration (5).
- e. Evaluating human rights education (2).

(Responses from non-participants)

- a. Spirit of cooperation among participants.
- b. Teaching demonstration.
- c. Small group discussions for consensus building.
- d. Active participation of participants.

8. Kindly state any suggestions to further improve the training program.

- a. Send materials on human rights education prior to workshop.
- b. Allot a half-day to sightseeing.
- c. Conduct the workshop annually in different countries.
- d. Discuss how to improve implementation of human rights education for students.
- e. Have more input into and exercises related to making lesson plans.
- f. Have another session with participants from countries in other regions.
- g. Gather additional input.
- h. Provide a better-equipped room.
- i. Have more common conviction and involvement in action among participants.
- j. Allot more time for teaching demonstration.
- k. Have a longer training period.
- l. Have a workshop on teaching materials.
- m. Provide successful models from other countries.
- n. Provide more materials on teaching methodology and making lesson plans.

(Responses from non-participants)

- a. Use a bigger room.
- b. Lessen talking and increase practical activities.
- c. Extend workshop to five days.
- d. Allot more time to study of human rights documents.
- e. Have more action plans to deal with real human rights problems.
- f. Have more input into lesson preparation.
- g. Allot more time for each component of the workshop to allow more discussion and understanding of issues.

The Present Status of Human Rights Perception and Behavior and their Relationship to Smoking and Drinking Among Adolescent Students in Taiwan

PESUS CHOU, MEEI-YUAN LIOU, AND HONG-JEN CHANG

This study has three major goals: 1) to survey the present status of adolescents attending schools in Taiwan about four values associated with human rights, 2) to survey the same population about smoking and drinking habits and possible related factors for smoking and drinking, and 3) to thoroughly analyze both sets of survey data to determine relationships. Multi-stage, stratified cluster sampling with proportional allocation was used to determine the study population, which was equal to approximately 0.5% of all students in that age group in Taiwan. A total of 100 schools throughout Taiwan were chosen (50 junior high schools, 14 high schools, 21 vocational schools, and 15 junior colleges), and the proportions were determined by the percentage of all students attending each type of school. One class from each year level at each school was selected. 12,355 of the 12,557 eligible students participated (97.3%).

The four human rights values were respect, trust, esteem, and privacy, and all questions were related to daily life. Regarding attitudes toward privacy, a number of negative trends were found which warrant concern, but no significant relationships were found between privacy issues and smoking and drinking. Questions on "respect" covered the attitudes of both parents and teachers toward the student as perceived by the student. Questions on "trust" all dealt with the family. Questions on "esteem" dealt with two facets: family members and friends/classmates. Multiple instances were found of statistically significant correlations

between student perceptions of respect, trust, and esteem with student smoking and drinking habits. This suggests that there is a significant relationship present and it is hoped that human rights education might decrease drinking and smoking prevalence, which in turn might decrease illicit drug use.

Introduction

Human rights are the idea of our time [1]. They can be defined as the basic rights and fundamental freedoms that every person as a human being is entitled to. Beginning with the

Charter of the United Nations adopted in 1946, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, and the two international covenants in 1966, as well as some 60 to 70 international agreements, conventions and U. N. General Assembly resolutions, the body of international human rights law is impressive indeed. The implementation of the law, however, is problematic [2]. Many states simply refused to comply, citing sovereignty, cultural values and different stage in economic development. Others were confronted with urgent tasks of feeding the people and keeping the nation together, hardly capable of taking human rights seriously [3].

Against this background, it was recognized early that human rights education is the key to successful implementation of rights and freedoms. By early 1990s, the goal of human rights education was described as the promotion of the human rights culture, giving emphasis to human dignity, tolerance, and full development of the person. The preservation of peace and a heightened sense of environmental protection plainly were also part of the educational efforts in the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004) as declared by an U.N. General Assembly resolution in 1994 [4].

To the extent that human rights education is far from being robust in Taiwan, much need be done. This survey is part of a research project aiming at complying teaching materials for middle and high school students. It seeks to establish a baseline against which to measure future developments in human rights education in the Taiwan area. In order to obtain an understanding of possible effecting factors, in addition to questions on the four human rights values (respect, trust, esteem, and privacy) questions on smoking, drinking, and related factors were included in the survey. Factors considered possibly related to smoking and drinking included cutting into lines, playing video games, working as a student, and gang membership [5,6].

Materials and Methods

Participants in this study were all students attending junior high school, high school, vocational school, or junior college (first three years only) in Taiwan and were ages 12 to 19. A total of 100 schools throughout Taiwan were chosen (50 junior high schools, 14 high schools, 21 vocational schools, and 15 junior colleges), and the proportions were determined by the percentage of all students attending each type of school. Multi-stage, stratified cluster sampling with proportional allocation was used, according to the total number of students attending each of these types of schools in Taiwan, with the goal of surveying 0.5% of all students in the specific grades. The survey was completed in September of 1994. Three classes (one per grade) were randomly selected from each sample school, and all students present in a given class on the day of the survey were asked to complete the questionnaire. Class size was generally 30 to 50 students. 12,355 of the 12,557 eligible students participated (97.3%).

5th year medical students at the School of Medicine of National Yang-Ming University administered the questionnaires. All survey administrators were also members of Yang-Ming Crusade, a community service group. This group does volunteer work in health education and participates in health-related service and survey projects during school vacation periods. Every effort was made to make it perfectly clear to the students that the questionnaires were completely anonymous and that there was no possibility that the information given could be used against them.

Basic demographic information included sex, age, and ethnicity. The survey also included questions regarding family situation (use of rewards versus punishment by the parents to influence behavior, calling home if one will be late, and who makes decisions within the family) and lifestyle (smoking, drinking, playing

video games, cutting into lines, working while a student, and gang membership) [7-12].

Central to this study were questions regarding four values associated with human rights. [13-14] These included respect (from parents and teachers), trust (from parents), esteem (by parents and classmates), and privacy (both respect of family members' and classmates' privacy and personal experiences of violation of privacy by others).

All information was self-reported (therefore, all data was in fact regarding *perceived* respect, trust, esteem, etc., but this distinction was not of concern to us). We did not use strict definitions, but instead posed simple questions that would be responded by choosing "yes" or "no" (Example: Do you smoke?) or by choosing one of a list of general answers (Example: Do your parents respect your opinion? Pick one of the following: yes, no, depends on circumstances). (Please refer to the tables for further examples.)

The selection of the four human rights factors and all questions in the survey was based on the goals of this study and a thorough analysis of current research literature. The questionnaires were reviewed by various background experts for expert validity and pretested in nearby school students.

Statistical analysis began with descriptive analysis using frequency distribution of basic demographic information, family situation, four values associated with human rights (respect, trust, esteem, and privacy) and lifestyle factors (smoking, drinking, cutting into lines, frequenting video arcades, holding a job, and gang membership). Univariate analysis using the Chi-square test was done to determine significant relationships between smoking/drinking and the four human rights values. Stratified analysis according to sex was done to determine how risk factors for smoking and drinking varied between the sexes. Multivariate analysis was performed using divisions of the study population according to both sex and age: a younger group that included all junior high school students and an older group that

included all high school, vocational school, and junior college students. In the multivariate analysis, logistic regression analysis was used to determine further relationships between smoking/drinking and the four human rights values. Finally, adjusted odds ratios for risk factors were determined.

Results

12,355 of the 12,557 eligible students participated (97.3%). The percentage difference between males (49.6%) and females (50.4%) was very small. The majority of junior high school students varied in age from 12 to 15. The majority of students at high schools, junior colleges, and vocational schools ranged from 15 to 18 years of age.

Regarding parenting style, 33.1% of all students responded that their parents used roughly equal amounts of rewarding and punishing, 15.6% said that they used mostly rewarding, and only 4.2% said they used mostly punishing. The largest percentage of parents that used mostly rewarding was among high school students (21.7%), and the smallest percentage that mostly used punishment was among vocational school students (3.5%). The largest segment of all groups (and over half of the junior high school students, 52.2%) responded that their parents used either rewarding or punishing depending upon the situation. Regarding who makes decisions in the family, the percentages were fairly evenly spread between the mother (26%), father (21.3%), and the whole family together (22.3%). For 30.4% there was no specific pattern. The large majority (91.4%) of all students called home when they were not able to return on time, and the reason the majority of these gave for doing so was not to let the people at home worry (88.8%). (Table 1)

Questions on "respect" covered the attitudes of both parents and teachers toward the student as perceived by the student. Regarding parents' respect of the students' opinions, 5.4% did not, 39.6% did, and for 55.0% it depended

TABLE 1. Family situation, survey of school-attending adolescents in Taiwan in 1994.

	Total		Junior H.S.		High School		Voc. School		Jr. College		<i>X</i> ² Test <i>P</i> -value
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Do your parents try to effect your behavior by giving rewards or by punishing?											
Mostly by rewarding	1912	15.6	828	14.5	408	21.7	364	13.2	312	16.3	<0.001
Mostly by punishing	513	4.2	253	4.4	84	4.4	97	3.5	79	4.1	
Equally through rewarding and punishing	4065	33.1	1650	28.9	729	38.7	959	34.9	727	37.9	
Depends upon situation	5776	47.1	2984	52.2	662	35.2	1332	48.4	798	41.7	
Total	12266	100.0	5715	100.0	1883	100.0	2752	100.0	1916	100.0	
Which person makes most of the decision in the family?											
Father	2614	21.3	1162	20.4	455	24.1	564	20.4	433	22.6	<0.001
Mother	3188	26.0	1368	24.0	499	26.5	798	28.9	523	27.2	
The whole family	2740	22.3	1366	24.0	382	20.2	563	20.4	429	22.3	
Uncertain	3726	30.4	1805	31.6	551	29.2	835	30.3	535	27.9	
Total	12268	100.0	5701	100.0	1887	100.0	2760	100.0	1920	100.0	
If you are not able to return home on time, do you feel you need to call to say so?											
Yes	11227	91.4	5192	90.9	1754	92.7	2521	91.1	1760	91.7	0.104
No	1060	8.6	518	9.1	138	7.3	245	8.9	159	8.3	
Total	12287	100.0	5710	100.0	1892	100.0	2766	100.0	1919	100.0	
If you feel you need to call home, what is the reason for this?											
Required by family members So that family members would not be worried	915	8.8	457	9.7	145	8.6	194	8.5	119	7.3	<0.001
Other	9183	88.8	4141	87.4	1499	89.2	2055	89.6	1488	91.1	
Total	245	2.4	138	2.9	362	2.2	45	1.9	26	1.6	
Total	10343	100.0	4636	100.0	1680	100.0	2294	100.0	1633	100.0	

on the situation. High school students were most likely to feel that their opinions were respected (50.4%), followed by junior college students (48.1%), vocational school (41.7%), and junior high school students (32.3%). Furthermore, junior high school students reported the largest percentage of parents who did not respect their opinions (6.6%). The relative lack of respect for the opinions of junior high school students is probably due to age. Regarding normal, daily feelings of respect from teachers, 4.1% of the students felt a lack of respect and 80.4% felt respect to be average or better. Junior high school students reported the highest number who believed that teachers normally respected them very much (34.9%), while high school students were most likely to feel a lack of respect from their teachers (4.8%). (Table 2)

Regarding "trust," 4.0% of the students felt they were not trusted by other family mem-

bers, 56.9% felt trust levels were average, 28.9% felt they were trusted very much, and for 10.2% it depended on the situation. Of the four groups, junior college students reported the highest amount of trust and junior high school students the lowest. (Table 2)

Questions on "esteem" dealt with 2 facets: family members and friends/classmates. For 6.2% the amount of esteem showed to them by their parents was low, for 68.4% it was normal, and for 14.7% it was high. Junior high school students were most likely to feel that their parents showed them a low level of esteem (6.7%). For 3.1% the amount of esteem showed to them by their friends was low, for 71.8% it was normal, and for 9.9% it was high. Junior high school students were most likely to feel that their friends showed them a low level of esteem (4.1%). (Table 2)

TABLE 2. Perceptions of respect, trust, and esteem, survey of school-attending adolescents in Taiwan in 1994.

	Total		Junior H.S.		High School		Voc. School		Jr. College		X ² Test P-value
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Do your parents respect your opinions											
Yes	4848	39.6	1829	32.2	948	50.4	1149	41.7	922	48.1	<0.001
No	659	5.4	376	6.6	91	4.8	117	4.3	75	3.9	
Depends on circum.	6730	55.0	3480	61.2	844	44.8	1487	54.0	919	48.0	
Total	12237	100.0	5685	100.0	1883	100.0	2753	100.0	1915	100.0	
In general, do you feel that teachers respect students?											
Yes	3836	31.5	1977	34.9	598	31.8	741	27.1	520	27.4	<0.001
Somewhat (average)	5962	48.9	2512	44.4	920	48.9	1478	53.9	1052	55.5	
No	50	14.1	25	34.5	90	4.8	110	4.0	48	2.5	
Depends on circum.	1880	15.5	919	16.2	273	14.5	411	15.0	277	14.6	
Total	12179	100.0	5661	100.0	1881	100.0	2740	100.0	1897	100.0	
Do the people in your family trust you?											
Yes	3551	28.9	1359	23.8	685	36.2	799	28.9	708	36.8	<0.001
Somewhat (average)	6997	56.9	3365	58.8	1009	53.4	1623	58.7	1000	52.0	
No	493	4.0	217	3.8	83	4.4	117	4.2	76	4.0	
Depends on circum.	1257	10.2	779	13.6	113	6.0	227	8.2	138	7.2	
Total	12298	100.0	5720	100.0	1890	100.0	2766	100.0	1922	100.0	
In general, to what extent do your parents esteem you?											
High	1803	14.7	705	12.3	330	17.5	396	14.3	372	19.4	<0.001
Average	8413	68.4	3901	68.2	1281	67.7	1942	70.2	1289	67.1	
Low	761	6.2	381	6.7	111	5.9	165	6.0	104	5.4	
Depends on circum.	1322	10.7	735	12.8	169	8.9	263	9.5	155	8.1	
Total	12299	100.0	5722	100.0	1891	100.0	2742	100.0	1920	100.0	
In general, to what extent to your friends and classmate esteem you?											
High	1201	9.9	508	9.0	221	11.8	286	10.5	186	9.8	<0.001
Average	8715	71.8	3842	68.1	1363	72.7	2071	75.7	1439	76.0	
Low	383	3.1	228	4.1	41	2.2	75	2.7	39	2.1	
Depends on circum.	1844	15.2	1061	18.8	250	13.3	304	11.1	229	12.1	
Total	12143	100.0	5639	100.0	1875	100.0	2736	100.0	1893	100.0	

Regarding behaviors toward privacy, a number of negative trends were found. 34.2% said that they had looked through other students' book bags without their permission, 19.0% had read other people's mail, 18.2% had listened to other people's telephone conversations, and 13.0% had read other people's diaries. Family members also often did these things to the students. On at least one occasion 43.8% had had their diaries read, 60.6% their mail read, 65.2% their book bags looked into, and 70.3% their telephone conversations listened to. The students were also asked what their reaction would be to such violations of privacy. Of the four

groups, high school students were most likely to be upset and junior high school students were least likely, once again possibly due to age differences. The students were more likely to be very upset if friends/classmates (as opposed to family members) open their mail, look into their book bag, or read their diary. But the students were more likely to be upset by family members listening to telephone conversations than friends doing so. At the same time, friends/classmates opening mail, looking into book bags, and reading diaries happen much often, if only because they have more opportunity to do so. (Table 3)

TABLE 3. Privacy issues, survey of school-attending adolescents in Taiwan in 1994.

	<i>Total</i>		<i>Junior H.S.</i>		<i>High School</i>		<i>Voc. School</i>		<i>Jr. College</i>		<i>X² Test P-value</i>
	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	
How do you feel when someone in your family opens your mail?											
Very unhappy	4067	33.1	1512	26.5	752	39.7	1037	37.6	766	40.0	<0.001
Not concerned	1095	8.9	594	10.4	133	7.1	216	7.8	152	7.9	
Depends on circumstances	2283	18.6	1051	18.4	341	18.0	514	18.6	376	19.6	
Has never occurred	4832	39.4	2546	44.7	666	35.2	993	36.0	627	32.6	
Total	12276	100.0	5703	100.0	1892	100.0	2760	100.0	1921	100.0	
How do you feel when someone in your family looks in your book bag?											
Very unhappy	3164	25.8	1179	20.7	660	34.9	751	27.3	574	29.9	<0.001
Not concerned	2768	22.6	1428	25.0	364	19.2	566	20.5	410	21.3	
Depends on circumstances	2066	16.8	1140	20.0	240	12.7	417	15.1	269	14.0	
Has never occurred	4279	34.8	1958	34.3	629	33.2	1023	37.1	669	34.8	
Total	12277	100.0	5705	100.0	1893	100.0	2757	100.0	1922	100.0	
How do you feel when someone in your family listens to your telephone conversations?											
Very unhappy	4651	37.9	1747	30.7	865	45.7	1199	43.5	840	43.8	<0.001
Not concerned	1906	15.6	1147	20.1	210	11.1	292	10.6	257	13.4	
Depends on circumstances	2063	16.8	999	17.5	286	15.1	489	17.7	289	15.0	
Has never occurred	3648	29.7	1805	31.7	532	28.1	777	28.2	534	27.8	
Total	12268	100.0	5698	100.0	1893	100.0	2757	100.0	1920	100.0	
How do you feel when someone in your family reads your diary?											
Very unhappy	3705	30.3	1403	24.7	700	37.0	896	32.6	706	36.8	<0.001
Not concerned	966	7.9	638	11.2	81	4.3	157	5.7	90	4.7	
Depends on circumstances	688	5.6	434	7.7	62	3.3	111	4.0	81	4.2	
Has never occurred	6874	56.2	3200	6.4	1047	55.4	1587	57.7	1040	54.3	
Total	12233	100.0	5675	100.0	1890	100.0	2751	100.0	1917	100.0	
How do you feel when a friend/classmate opens your mail?											
Very unhappy	5145	42.0	2266	39.9	846	44.7	1111	40.3	922	48.0	<0.001
Not concerned	672	5.5	331	5.8	80	4.2	166	6.1	95	4.9	
Depends on circumstances	1920	15.6	859	15.1	275	14.5	496	18.0	290	15.1	
Has never occurred	4517	36.9	2229	39.2	692	36.6	982	35.6	614	32.0	
Total	12254	100.0	5685	100.0	1893	100.0	2755	100.0	1921	100.0	
How do you feel when a friend/classmate looks in your book bag?											
Very unhappy	4261	34.8	2177	38.3	585	30.9	824	29.9	675	35.2	<0.001
Not concerned	2003	16.3	758	13.3	374	19.8	513	18.6	358	18.7	
Depends on circumstances	3504	28.6	1520	26.7	567	29.9	904	32.8	513	26.7	
Has never occurred	2483	20.3	1230	21.7	367	19.4	513	18.7	373	19.4	
Total	12251	100.0	5685	100.0	1893	100.0	2754	100.0	1919	100.0	
How do you feel when a friend/classmate listens to your telephone conversations?											
Very unhappy	3057	25.0	1257	22.2	561	29.6	667	24.2	572	29.8	<0.001
Not concerned	1587	13.0	760	13.4	219	11.6	377	13.7	231	12.0	
Depends on circumstances	1890	15.4	835	14.7	252	13.3	472	17.1	331	17.3	
Has never occurred	5700	46.6	2815	49.7	860	45.5	1239	45.0	786	40.9	
Total	12234	100.0	5667	100.0	1892	100.0	2755	100.0	1920	100.0	

TABLE 3. Privacy issues, survey of school-attending adolescents in Taiwan in 1994 (continuation)

	Total		Junior H.S.		High School		Voc. School		Jr. College		X ² Test P-value
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
How do you feel when a friend/classmate reads your diary?											
Very unhappy	4343	35.6	1907	33.8	715	37.9	949	34.6	772	40.3	<0.001
Not concerned	637	5.2	384	6.8	46	2.4	137	5.0	70	3.7	
Depends on circumstances	1009	8.3	560	9.9	112	5.9	209	7.6	128	6.7	
Has never occurred	6201	50.9	2793	49.5	1014	53.8	1450	52.8	944	49.3	
Total	12190	100.0	5644	100.0	1887	100.0	2745	100.0	1914	100.0	
Do you open other people's mail?											
Often	96	0.8	60	1.1	7	0.4	14	0.5	15	0.8	<0.001
Sometimes	2222	18.2	1107	19.5	304	16.1	487	17.7	324	16.9	
Have never	9912	81.0	4502	79.4	1580	83.5	2250	81.8	1580	82.3	
Total	12230	100.0	5669	100.0	1891	100.0	2751	100.0	1919	100.0	
Do you look inside other people's book bags?											
Often	142	1.1	84	1.5	18	0.9	19	0.7	21	1.1	<0.008
Sometimes	4041	33.1	1873	33.1	657	34.8	915	33.2	596	31.0	
Have never	8037	65.8	3702	65.4	1214	64.3	1818	66.1	1303	67.9	
Total	12220	100.0	5659	100.0	1889	100.0	2752	100.0	1920	100.0	
Do you listen to other people's telephone conversations?											
Often	156	13.0	110	1.9	14	0.8	13	0.5	19	1.0	<0.001
Sometimes	2063	16.9	1082	19.2	284	15.0	424	15.4	273	14.2	
Have never	9988	81.8	4455	78.9	1592	84.2	2314	84.1	1627	84.8	
Total	12207	100.0	5647	100.0	1890	100.0	2751	100.0	1919	100.0	
Do you read other people's diaries?											
Often	111	0.9	67	1.2	11	0.6	17	0.6	16	0.8	<0.001
Sometimes	1478	12.1	844	15.0	175	9.3	267	9.7	192	10.0	
Have never	10610	87.0	4732	83.8	1701	90.1	2466	89.7	1711	89.2	
Total	12199	100.0	5643	100.0	1887	100.0	2789	100.0	1919	100.0	

When they have been treated unfairly, high school, junior college, and vocational students are more likely to stand up for their rights than junior high school students. But for all groups, the largest number would base their reactions on the circumstances of the situation (total 53.2%). Only 3.2% regularly cut into lines, but 80.8% have done so at least once. The large majority of people are upset by others cutting into line, but only 17.8% would consider confronting such a person. Information was also collected on how often the students go to video arcades, if they have held a job, and if they had ever joined a gang, though this data was much less critical than the data on smoking and drinking. (Table 4)

1250 of the study participants smoked (10.1%). The highest number was among vocational school students (13.8%), followed by junior college students (12.6%), junior high school students (8.8%) and high school students (6.2%). 1315 of the study participants drank (10.6%). The highest number was among junior college students (13.3%), followed by vocational school students (12.5%), junior high school students (9.8%) and high school students (7.9%). Both smoking and drinking rates increased with age, though the average total decreased from 1991 to 1994 and then increased from 1994 to 1996 (data not shown).

TABLE 4. Lifestyle and habits, survey of school-attending adolescents in Taiwan in 1994.

	Total		Junior H.S.		High School		Voc. School		Jr. College		<i>X</i> ² Test <i>P</i> -value
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
When are treated unfairly what do you do?											
Fight for your rights	3917	31.9	1668	29.3	678	35.8	895	32.4	676	35.2	<0.001
Hide your anger	1403	11.5	708	12.4	194	10.2	320	11.6	181	9.4	
Do not care	418	3.4	259	4.6	43	2.3	82	3.0	34	1.8	
Depends on circum.	6524	53.2	3057	53.7	979	51.7	1460	53.0	1028	53.6	
Total	12262	100.0	5787	100.0	1894	100.0	2757	100.0	1919	100.0	
When you are waiting in line and someone cuts line in front of you, how do you feel?											
Am upset and will say something	2189	17.8	1298	22.8	258	13.6	413	14.9	220	11.4	<0.001
Am upset, but will not say anything	5592	45.6	2025	35.6	1075	56.6	1392	50.4	1100	57.3	
Do not care	1097	8.9	658	11.6	98	5.2	216	7.8	125	6.5	
Depends on circum.	3393	27.7	1708	30.0	466	24.6	743	26.9	476	24.8	
Total	12271	100.0	5689	100.0	1897	100.0	2764	100.0	1921	100.0	
Do you ever cut into lines?											
Often	383	3.2	195	3.4	45	2.4	67	2.4	76	4.0	<0.001
Sometimes	2605	21.3	1211	21.4	377	19.9	536	19.6	481	25.1	
Very seldom	6847	56.3	3144	55.5	1075	56.7	1599	58.4	1056	55.1	
Never	2354	19.2	1115	19.7	397	21.0	538	19.6	304	15.9	
Total	12216	100.0	5665	100.0	1894	100.0	2740	100.0	1917	100.0	
Do you go to video game parlors?											
Every day	159	1.3	80	1.4	13	0.7	36	1.3	30	1.6	<0.001
Often (2-3 times a week)	704	5.8	290	5.1	97	5.1	156	5.7	161	8.4	
Sometimes (2-3 times a month)	2035	16.6	866	15.2	335	17.7	481	17.4	353	18.4	
Rarely (once a month or less)	4681	38.2	1865	32.8	784	41.4	1244	45.2	788	41.2	
Never	4674	38.2	2589	45.5	665	35.1	838	30.4	582	30.4	
Total	12253	100.0	5690	100.0	1894	100.0	2740	100.0	1917	100.0	
Have you ever held a job?											
No	6171	50.8	3463	61.5	1171	62.2	855	31.2	682	35.9	<0.001
Only during vacation	4669	38.4	1692	30.0	594	31.6	1408	51.5	975	51.4	
Yes	1310	10.8	479	8.5	116	6.2	473	17.3	242	12.7	
Total	12150	100.0	5634	100.0	1881	100.0	2736	100.0	1899	100.0	
Have you ever been in a gang?											
Yes	310	2.6	161	2.9	33	1.8	64	2.4	52	2.8	<0.001
No	11613	97.4	5348	97.1	1831	98.2	2622	97.6	1812	97.2	
Total	11923	100.0	5509	100.0	1864	100.0	2686	100.0	1864	100.0	

For analysis of the relationship between everyday human rights concepts and smoking and drinking habits, the study population was divided into two groups, a younger group (generally ages 13-15) consisting of all junior high school students and an older group (generally ages 16-19) consisting of students from all other school types. Analysis was also done according to sex. In the following “YM” will stand for younger males, “OM” for older

males, “YF” for younger females, and “OF” for older females. Multivariate analysis was then done comparing these four groups regarding smoking (Tables 5) and drinking (Table 6).

There were no significant relationships between parental respect and smoking and drinking, except for YF: those who said they were not respected by their parents were 2.3 times more likely to drink. The relationship between respect from teachers and smoking and drink-

TABLE 5. Logistic regression analysis on smoking among school-attending adolescents in Taiwan in 1994.

	Younger Group		Older Group	
	Male OR (95% C.I.)	Female OR (95% C.I.)	Male OR (95% C.I.)	Female OR (95% C.I.)
Type of school				
Vocational vs. High School	—	—	2.9 (2.2~3.7)	2.1 (1.3~3.6)
Junior College vs. High School	—	—	2.5 (1.9~3.3)	1.2 (0.6~2.1)
Respect of teachers				
No vs. very much	2.2 (1.4~3.5)	6.4 (3.1~13.3)	1.9 (1.2~2.9)	N.S.
Average or uncertain vs. very much	1.4 (1.1~1.8)	1.8 (1.0~3.1)	1.4 (1.1~1.8)	N.S.
Trust of family				
No vs. very much	3.0 (1.7~5.4)	7.2 (3.0~17.3)	2.2 (1.4~3.5)	3.1 (1.4~7.1)
Average or uncertain vs. very much	1.7 (1.2~2.3)	2.6 (1.3~5.3)	1.7 (1.3~2.2)	1.5 (0.9~2.5)
Esteem of parents				
Low vs. very high	1.8 (1.0~3.2)	N.S.	2.9 (1.8~4.6)	N.S.
Average or uncertain vs. very much	1.6 (1.0~2.4)	N.S.	1.4 (1.0~1.9)	N.S.
Esteem of friends and classmates				
Low vs. very high	0.5 (0.3~0.9)	N.S.	0.5 (0.3~0.8)	N.S.
Average or uncertain vs. very much	0.6 (0.4~0.9)	N.S.	0.6 (0.5~0.8)	N.S.
Reaction to family members opening mail				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	N.S.	2.7 (1.6~4.4)	1.2 (0.9~1.5)	1.5 (0.9~2.6)
Not care vs. never occurred	N.S.	0.9 (0.5~1.7)	0.7 (0.6~0.9)	0.5 (0.2~1.0)
Reaction to family members listening to telephone conversations				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	1.6 (1.1~2.3)	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
Not care vs. never occurred	1.4 (1.0~1.9)	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
Reaction to friends or classmates opening mail				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	N.S.	N.S.	1.0 (0.7~1.4)	1.2 (0.7~2.1)
Not care vs. never occurred	N.S.	N.S.	1.4 (1.0~1.9)	2.1 (1.2~3.7)
Reaction to friends or classmates listening to telephone conversations				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	1.7 (1.2~2.3)	N.S.	1.2 (0.9~1.7)	N.S.
Not care vs. never occurred	1.3 (1.0~1.8)	N.S.	1.6 (1.2~2.1)	N.S.
Reaction to friends or classmates looking inside book bag				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	0.7 (0.5~0.9)	N.S.	N.S.	2.7 (1.3~5.8)
Not care vs. never occurred	0.8 (0.6~1.1)	N.S.	N.S.	1.9 (1.0~3.9)
Reaction to friends or classmates reading diary				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	N.S.	1.1 (0.7~1.7)	N.S.	N.S.
Not care vs. never occurred	N.S.	2.1 (1.2~3.6)	N.S.	N.S.
Calling home if late				
No vs. yes	N.S.	2.5 (1.5~4.2)	N.S.	N.S.

The following were not statistically significant: respect of parents, reaction to family members looking inside book bag, reaction to family members reading diary, parenting style, and decision making within the family.

ing was significant for YM, OM, and YF, but insignificant for OF. The younger females seemed particularly sensitive in this regard—those who felt their teachers did not respect them were 6.4 times more likely to smoke.

Trust was a significant factor for smoking in all groups but was a factor for drinking only for OM and OF. Trust was of particular importance for YF. Young females who do not feel trusted by family members were 7.2 times

more likely to smoke than young females who felt they were trusted very much.

Esteem from the parents was a factor for smoking and drinking among OM and for drinking among YF. Young females whose parents did not esteem them were 7.0 times more likely to drink than young females whose parents esteemed them very much. But the effect of esteem from friends/classmates had the opposite relationship: those who were highly

TABLE 6. Logistic regression analysis on drinking among school-attending adolescents in Taiwan in 1994.

	Younger Group		Older Group	
	Male OR (95% C.I.)	Female OR (95% C.I.)	Male OR (95% C.I.)	Female OR (95% C.I.)
Type of school				
Voc. vs. H.S.	—	—	1.9 (1.5~2.4)	1.5 (1.0~2.2)
Jr. Col. vs. H.S.	—	—	2.0 (1.6~2.6)	1.2 (0.8~1.9)
Respect of parents				
No vs. yes	N.S.	2.3 (1.2~4.1)	N.S.	N.S.
Uncertain vs. yes	N.S.	1.4 (0.9~2.1)	N.S.	N.S.
Respect of teachers				
No vs. very much	2.3 (1.5~3.6)	2.9(1.6~5.4)	2.2 (1.5~3.4)	N.S.
Average or uncertain vs. very much	1.2 (0.9~1.6)	1.3 (0.9~1.9)	1.3 (1.1~1.7)	N.S.
Trust of family				
No vs. very much	N.S.	N.S.	1.7 (1.1~2.7)	3.0 (1.5~6.0)
Average or uncertain vs. very much	N.S.	N.S.	1.3 (1.0~1.7)	1.8 (1.2~2.7)
Esteem of parents				
Low vs. very high	N.S.	7.0 (2.9~16.9)	2.5 (1.6~4.0)	N.S.
Average or uncertain vs. very much	N.S.	2.3 (1.1~4.8)	1.4 (1.0~2.0)	N.S.
Esteem of friends and classmates				
Low vs. very high	0.8 (0.5~1.4)	0.7 (0.3~1.6)	0.5 (0.3~ 0.9)	N.S.
Average or uncertain vs. very much	0.7 (0.5~0.9)	0.5 (0.3~0.8)	0.8 (0.6~1.0)	N.S.
Reaction to family members opening mail				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	1.5 (1.1~2.1)	N.S.	1.1 (0.9~1.5)	1.4 (1.0~1.9)
Not care vs. never occurred	1.3 (1.0~1.7)	N.S.	0.7 (0.6~1.0)	0.5 (0.3~0.9)
Reaction to family members looking inside book bag				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	N.S.	2.2 (1.4~3.4)	N.S.	N.S.
Not care vs. never occurred	N.S.	1.1 (0.7~1.7)	N.S.	N.S.
Reaction to friends or classmates opening mail				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	N.S.	1.3 (0.9~2.0)	1.1 (0.8~1.6)	N.S.
Not care vs. never occurred	N.S.	1.8 (1.2~2.9)	1.4 (1.1~2.0)	N.S.
Reaction to friends or classmates listening to telephone conversations				
Very unhappy vs. never occurred	1.4 (1.1~1.9)	N.S.	1.1 (0.8~1.5)	N.S.
Not care vs. never occurred	1.2 (0.9~1.6)	N.S.	1.4 (1.1~1.8)	N.S.
Calling home if late				
No vs. yes	1.8 (1.4~2.5)	1.9 (1.2~3.1)	1.5 (1.1~1.9)	1.8 (1.1~3.1)

The following items were not statistically significant: decision making within the family, parenting style, reaction to friends or classmates looking inside book bag, reaction to friends or classmates reading diary, reaction to family members reading diary, and reaction to family members listening to telephone conversations.

esteemed by friends/classmates were more likely to smoke or drink than those who were esteemed to less or average.

In summary, the major findings from logistic regression analysis of the four groups in relation to smoking and drinking are the following: 1) Younger females are more likely to be effected by respect from parents and teachers, trust within the family, and esteem from the parents. This sensitivity often reflects itself in higher rates of smoking and drinking. 2) The level of respect from teachers is more likely to

be associated with smoking and drinking habits than the level of respect from parents. 3) In every school category but one, students who felt they were not trusted were more likely to smoke and drink. The exception was junior high schools, where a lack of trust did have a significant effect on smoking but not on drinking. 4) A low level of esteem from parents increases the likelihood of smoking and drinking, but low esteem from friend/classmates has the opposite effect. This is true for all male students.

Discussion

Because of the sampling design of the study, the study population represented very well all adolescents attending schools in Taiwan in 1994. We hope that this study may serve as a base for future studies, and the quality of our data should be at a level that a comparison with data collected in the future would be both valid and useful. The primary weakness of this study is probably the general and inexact nature of many of the questions. This was done in order to avoid making the questionnaire excessively long. A longer questionnaire might have provided more specific information in some areas, but may also have caused the participation rate to be lower.

Many findings in the logistic regression analysis might be attributable solely to age factors, particularly regarding esteem and respect of privacy. Additional research specific to the effect of age on these factors would be very helpful in interpreting our findings in these areas.

The most interesting results were in regards to esteem in general (not its relationship to the two age groups). As mentioned above, the effect of esteem from friends/classmates had the opposite relationship of esteem from family: those who were highly esteemed by friends/classmates were more likely to smoke or drink than those who were esteemed to less or average, but *low* esteem from parents was associated with smoking and drinking. This shows that there is an extreme difference between the way adolescents interpret esteem from parents and esteem from friends/classmates. An understanding of these differences is crucial to successful health and human rights education efforts, and more research in this area is definitely needed.

Many studies have demonstrated the link between smoking, drinking, and drug use [15-18], but this is one of the first studies to analyze the connection between these dangerous, unhealthy habits and basic elements of our

lifestyles and values. To some extent, attitudes and perceptions that work against human rights values are risk factors for smoking and drinking. On the other hand, it is possible that an opposite relationship is also at play, and perhaps smoking and drinking discourage human rights values. In either case, there is a definite relationship between human rights values and substance use, and this is the most important finding of this study. Because of this relationship, a coordinated education effort probably would be the most effective, especially considering that in at least one area (esteem from parents and teachers and its effect on smoking and drinking), teachers appear to have a larger influence than parents. Be that as it may, both parents and teachers should work to teach children and adolescents not only to lead healthy lifestyles, but also to respect themselves and others as human beings.

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An International Comparative Study of School Curriculums

NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

This study is best viewed in the wider context of educational research projects initiated by the National Institute for Educational Research (NIER) of Japan. In the late 1960s, for example, NIER organized a series of workshops as part of a joint research project: *A Comparative Study of School Curriculum Development of the Stage of Elementary Education in Asian Countries*. The outcome of these workshops was the publication in 1970 of a three-volume report titled *Asian Study of Curriculum*.

In the 1980s, NIER initiated two joint research projects on school curriculum with a series of workshops and meetings. The objectives of the projects were the following:

- Study the curriculum systems of the countries in Asia and the Pacific.
- Appreciate the similarities and differences among them in the context of their socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds.
- Identify general trends as well as the unique features of their problems in these areas.
- Exchange experiences with one another for mutual benefit.

The outcome of the projects were the publication of *Elementary/Primary Schools Curriculum in Asia and the Pacific* and *Some Critical Aspects of Secondary Education in the Countries of Asia and the Pacific*.

Over the last decade, since the joint project was launched, many countries have revised, or are in the process of revising, their curricula. NIER therefore decided to initiate a new re-

search project on the study of curriculum at both primary and secondary education levels. Accordingly, at the first phase, NIER organized two meetings: the Regional Meeting on the Study of Curriculum in Asia and the Pacific on 10-21 November 1997, and the Editorial Committee Meeting on the Study of Curriculum in Asia and the Pacific on 9-11 March 1998.

Based on the questionnaire developed by the first Regional Meeting and further finalized by the Editorial Committee Meeting, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific as well as in other regions were invited to undertake national studies. In order to share their experiences and make a comparative analysis of national studies conducted by the participating countries of the project, NIER organized the International Meeting on the Study of School Curriculum on 9-20 November 1998. This meeting was convened in collaboration with ACEID, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (PROAP), Bangkok.

Reprinted from *An International Comparative Study of School Curriculum* (Tokyo: National Institute for Educational Research, 1999).

Objectives of the Meeting

The objectives of the meeting were as follows:

- Cross-nationally analyze the background information in terms of the socioeconomic conditions, educational systems, and other related matters of the participating countries.
- Make a comparative analysis of the school curriculums based on reports of the national studies conducted in the participating countries.
- Complete the final report of the study.

Participation

Participants from selected countries in Asia-Pacific as well as Europe and North America were invited to the meeting. In some cases, participants attended as official country representatives and in others in their individual capacities. They were from Australia, China, Fiji, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Japan, Lao People's Democratic Republic (PDR), Malaysia, New Zealand, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Thailand, the United States of America, Uzbekistan, and Vietnam. A representative from the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok also attended the meeting.

Inauguration

The meeting was inaugurated on 9 November 1998 with an opening address by Shigeru Yoshida, director-general of NIER. This was followed by a welcome address by Masamitsu Oki, deputy director general of the Science and International Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbusho) of Japan on behalf of Monbusho as well as the Japanese Commission for UNESCO. A welcome message from Rupert Maclean, chief of ACEID, was also presented on behalf of the director of PROAP.

Officers

The following participants were elected as officers of the meeting:

Co-chairpersons:

Ram Chankar (Fiji) – Group A

B.P. Khandelwal (India) – Group B

Co-rapporteurs:

David Nohara (USA) – Group A

Bella O. Mariñas (Philippines) – Group B

Organization

The meeting conducted its work in plenary sessions as well as in group sessions. After the presentation of country reports, the participants decided to continue to work on the analytical framework developed by Robyn Baker (New Zealand) and the NIER secretariat prior to the meeting. Two working groups were constituted: Group A dealt with sections B and D, while Group B was in charge of sections C and E of the questionnaire.

A drafting committee composed of officers of the meeting—Susan Mann (Australia), Colin Brown (New Zealand), Gyu Ho Hwang (Republic of Korea)—and the NIER Secretariat was formed for the purpose of finalizing a draft manuscript.

Final Report

The draft final report of the meeting and the joint project was adopted in the final working session on 20 November 1998. Minor modifications and final editing were completed by the NIER secretariat. Each participating country finalized its report.

Curriculum Policies

Background

During the last decade, various efforts have been made in each country to remodel its

education system to bring it into line with social, economic, political, and cultural change. These educational changes are reflected in national educational policies and the curriculum framework.

Social/economic/political/cultural contexts of curriculum policies

Curriculum policies in participating countries represent a wide variety of social, economic, political, and cultural contexts. While the degree of emphasis varies in each country, the following imperatives driving curriculum policy are evident:

- The need to build social cohesion and national identity in global society and to preserve cultural heritage, e.g., in Australia, Germany.
- The need to impart cultural, ethical, and moral values, e.g., in Indonesia, Fiji, Lao PDR, Malaysia.
- Concern for future economic well-being, international competitiveness, e.g., in Australia, New Zealand, the United States, Uzbekistan.
- Concern for equal opportunity and equity, (urban/rural, gender, income, disabilities), e.g., in Sri Lanka, the United States, India.
- The desire to raise achievement for all students, e.g., in New Zealand, the United States.

Educational goals/aims for the compulsory education sector

All countries have stated educational goals for their compulsory education sector. The most common include development of basic foundation knowledge (literacy, numeracy, and life skills); and of the child's intellectual, emotional, spiritual, and physical potential; and of critical thinking and problem-solving skills. Others mentioned are knowledge of the world

of work, respect for human dignity and human rights, understanding of ecology and appreciation of the environment, international understanding and development of a one-world view, promotion of civic and moral values, and the ability to adapt to change.

One major difference between countries is the existence of religious goals and the extent to which they are included in the curriculum. For example, the Indonesian and Malaysian curriculums include religious goals, while other countries, including Australia, France, and New Zealand, are secular in their public education systems.

Regulations governing curriculum policies

In all countries, schools are subject to some degree of government regulatory control of the curriculum, either at a national or state level.

In countries with a federal structure where the states have responsibility for education, as in Australia, Germany, and the United States, there is no mandatory national curriculum. Within these countries, regulations at the state level may vary.

Countries with a national education structure exhibit a range of national regulations, from the complete control of all aspects of student outcomes and curriculum implementation, including time allocations, subjects, and assessments, (as in China, Lao PDR, Sri Lanka, and Vietnam) to curriculum and administrative guidelines with flexibility for implementation at the school level (as in India and New Zealand).

Countries with a high degree of curriculum regulation also tend to highly regulate textbook development and provision.

Curriculum Change

Curriculum changes over the past 5-10 years

There have been a variety of changes in the school curriculum of participating countries

over the past 5-10 years. The following table provides an overview.

All countries report significant curriculum changes over the last 5-10 years. The most commonly introduced new subjects include information technology, civics, and additional foreign languages. Other new subjects are technology (Australia and New Zealand), and integrated studies (Life Environmental Studies in Japan, and The World Around Us in Lao PDR).

The development and revision of national or state curriculum frameworks and standards/competencies occurred in Australia, Germany (Bavaria), the Philippines, the United States (New York State), and Vietnam.

One common trend was the attempt to redefine the balance between compulsory and elective subjects. Interestingly, countries with a broad range of elective subjects were attempting to refocus on a common core (Australia and Germany [Bavaria]). Other countries were expanding their electives to provide more subject choice (Fiji, Japan, and Vietnam).

The analysis reveals an increasing emphasis on school-based continuous assessment in Australia, Fiji, India, Malaysia, New Zealand, Philippines, and Sri Lanka.

Predicted changes in national curriculum for the next 5-10 years

As countries look toward the future, there is a general readiness and acceptance of the need to revise and review curriculum. Many of the expected changes over the next 5-10 years continue current reform efforts. Some countries (Japan and Sri Lanka) have an approved government direction for future curriculum, while others are only in the position to predict trends.

The integration of information technology across the curriculum is regarded as a major priority by many countries. Other priority areas for the next 5-10 years include maintaining basic skills such as literacy and numeracy;

values education in a pluralistic society; vocational education and enterprise studies; encouragement of independent, self-directed learning; development and refinement of school-based assessment; and education for participation in a global society.

Countries expect to continue to focus on the balance between compulsory and elective subjects. Those where subjects proliferate need to strengthen the core (Australia, Germany [Bavaria], New Zealand, and the United States [New York State]). Those with a large number of mandated subjects expect to provide more flexibility by introducing more electives (China, Japan, Korea, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Vietnam).

In addition to curricular and pedagogical changes, some countries are considering changes in school structures. For example, the Philippines is planning to increase the number of years of compulsory schooling by one year, Vietnam is increasing the number of hours in the school day, and Japan is reducing the number of school days by eliminating instruction on Saturdays.

Curriculum Development Processes

Degree of centralization of curriculum development

The role of curriculum development is considered to be of such importance for national and state policies that no government in the participating countries has abrogated its overall responsibility for this task.

In most countries, curriculum development is generally centralized, but at the implementation level there is a varying degree of autonomy of local authorities, schools and teachers.

China, Fiji, France, Germany (Bavaria), Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Lao PDR, Malaysia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Uzbekistan all report highly centralized curriculum development processes.

TABLE 1. Curriculum Policies: An International Comparative Study of School Curriculums

<i>Country</i>	<i>Subject change</i>	<i>National curriculum standards</i>	<i>Balance between compulsory and electives</i>	<i>School structures</i>	<i>Assessment</i>	<i>Monitoring</i>
Australia	Asian languages, technology, civics.	Nationally developed curriculum frameworks.	8 compulsory subject areas defined.	Vocational education has changed Yr. 11 and 12 school structures.	Certificate assessments includes internal and external assessments.	Introduction of literacy and numeracy testing.
China	Computer technology, integration of social studies.	Curriculum plan for 9-year compulsory education.	Reduction of some compulsory and addition of more electives and activities.	No great change.	Emphasis is on testing abilities.	Three levels of management: central, local, and school.
Fiji	Computer technology, vernacular languages now examinable. Conversational and cross-cultural foreign language taught in primary education.	Primary framework revised for grades 1-8. Secondary framework undergoing revision.	Class 8 exam change to include environment and moral values studies.	No change.	Internal assessment conducted in Form 7 subjects.	Standardized test in classes 3 and 4 in literacy and numeracy.
France	NTIC	National Curriculum Standards and National Curriculum Council.	Electives in classes 8 and 9.	Unified lower secondary school (6-9) has two types of upper secondary schools: general and technology (10-12) vocational.	External examinations in classes 9 and 12. Internal assessments conducted.	Literacy and numeracy testing at the beginning of classes 3 and 6. French, mathematics, foreign language, history, geography testing at the beginning of class 10.
Germany (Bavaria)	Foreign language and IT in primary and secondary education. Integrated social and science studies in one type of secondary school.	Set curriculums for all schools.	Reduction of electives in upper secondary (focus core curriculum).	No change.	Final examinations held for all types of school.	No change.
India	National core curriculum in 8 subject areas. Computer technology and communicative foreign language learning at secondary level.	National core curriculum up to secondary level. Secondary equal to O level and Senior equal to A level.	Emphasis on more electives at senior secondary level in new subjects and vocational education.	Development of parallel structure for vocational courses, and at secondary and senior secondary level.	Continuous and comprehensive evaluation held with external assessment at grades 10 and 12.	Attempts for national standards tests at secondary level since 1990s.
Indonesia	Civic education. Science technology. Computer science. Local curriculum.	Minimum national standards.	10 compulsory subjects.	No change.	National assessments in 7 subjects.	No change.
Japan	Integration of social studies and science in grades 1 and 2; Life Environmental Studies and Social Studies divided into Geography and History, and Civics in upper secondary.	Course of study.	Increased number of elective subjects and reduction in compulsory subjects.	Comprehensive course introduced.	National assessments conducted.	Introduction of school evaluation by local educational authorities. Local educational authorities evaluation by Ministry of Education.

<i>Country</i>	<i>Subject change</i>	<i>National curriculum standards</i>	<i>Balance between compulsory and electives</i>	<i>School structures</i>	<i>Assessment</i>	<i>Monitoring</i>
Lao PDR	Primary: "The world around us" (integrated class). Lower secondary: biology, physics, and chemistry integrated into natural science. Upper secondary: politics replaced by civics. All levels: HIV/AIDS and drug abuse prevention.	Move from teacher centered to student centered.	No change.	No change.	Various assessment instruments developed for use by teachers.	Positions of pedagogical adviser and supervisor created.
Malaysia	Primary: science, living skills, and local studies. Secondary: living skills-invention, information technology.	Move from student's profile to national standards.	More electives offered at upper secondary level.	5-7 years allotted for primary level.	Growing emphasis on school-based assessment. External exams for certain levels.	Empowerment to state/district/school authority to monitor curriculum implementation.
New Zealand	Technology, essential skills identified and integrated into the curriculum.	Development of curriculum statements based on the NZ Curriculum Framework and on a National Qualifications Framework.	7 compulsory subject areas defined.	Flexibility introduced into school structures. Move to self-managing schools. Establishment of Kura Kaupapa Maori (Maori immersion schooling).	Move to school-based assessments and inclusion of internal assessment for qualifications.	NEMP Project (benchmarks, to be examined every four years). National exams held in Years 11 and 13.
Philippines	Introduction of values education as a separate subject as well as integrated in other subject areas. Introduction of technology into science and vocational education. Focus on critical thinking, problem solving, practical work.	Identified desired learning competencies in all areas.	No system of electives.	No change.	Year-of-level national examinations (NEAT/NSAT) are school-based.	Move towards decentralization.
Republic of Korea	English introduced at elementary level (from year 3). Optional courses for elementary and secondary schools. Technology and home economics become compulsory for both boys and girls at secondary level. Computer science and environmental studies introduced as optional courses at secondary level.	Revision of national curriculum in 1992, giving more flexibility to local and school level.	More elective courses at upper secondary level.	No change.	More emphasis placed on essay writing at elementary and secondary levels.	School evaluation introduced by local education authorities. Local educational authority evaluation conducted by Ministry of Education.

TABLE 1. Curriculum Policies: An International Comparative Study of School Curriculum (*continuation*)

Country	Subject change	National curriculum standards	Balance between compulsory and electives	School structures	Assessment	Monitoring
Sri Lanka	College level: business statistics and math for non-math students; introduced new topics in pure mathematics and applied mathematics, geography, history, political science, logic and st. [Jeff-?] methods, Greek civilization. Primary level: environment studies. Integration, activity-based beginning science	Move from teacher-oriented to competency-based.	No change.	253 national schools introduced. (Administration by central ministry)	Continuous assessments introduced.	No change.
Thailand	Repackaging subjects in physical education and hygiene with human and self-development.	Set national standards in all learning areas for basic education outcomes. Set benchmarks of every 3-year level.	Balancing between compulsory and elective subjects in terms of time constraints. Balance in bipolar development standards (e.g. self vs. society).	School and community design their school structure and curriculum based on standards and readiness of school.	School-based assessment for every year in primary and every quarter in secondary by alternate year.	School has self-audit through school charter and school quality control. School quality assured by accountability assessment of administrative authorities and other agencies.
United States	No change in national level.	Move from syllabus approach to curriculum framework.	No change in national level.	No change in national level.	No change in national level.	No change in national level.
Uzbekistan	Technology; values; business; environmental studies.	National curriculum standards in grades 1-9.	Emphasis on compulsory subjects.	National schools introduced.	Continuous and comprehensive assessment.	Ministry of Education.
Vietnam	Integrated natural and social sciences in grades 1-3.	New primary curriculum. National curriculum standards in grades 1-9.	Nine compulsory subjects in primary school. Some elective subjects in primary and secondary.	No change.	No change.	No change.

In some countries there is a varying possibility for local authorities, schools, and teachers to influence curriculum development at the implementation level. For example, local content is allowed in Indonesia (20%), Lao PDR (10%), and Vietnam (15%). In other countries such as Australia and New Zealand, teachers develop their own content within centrally developed curriculum frameworks.

Initiation of curriculum development

Involvement of a wide range of agencies and stakeholders is regarded as an important factor to assist government or its nominee to develop an effective curriculum. Although final decisions are generally made at the government level, stakeholders are consulted before and during the development process. The consul-

tation takes a variety of forms, including the use of councils of experts to directly develop policy, as in Japan and Bavaria; systematic input from teachers on policy development, trialing, and reviewing curriculum as in France, Australia, New Zealand, and the Philippines; and advice from parents and communities, as in Australia, Bavaria, Indonesia, New Zealand, and Vietnam. Other stakeholders involved in curriculum development include foreign con-

sultants, research institutes, university staff, and welfare agencies.

The involvement of representatives from industry and business in consultation on curriculum issues is a distinctive feature in a range of countries, including Australia, Fiji, Germany, Indonesia, New Zealand, the Philippines, and the United States, particularly in relation to vocational education.

<i>Country</i>	<i>Agency initiating curriculum development</i>	<i>Agencies consulted</i>
Australia	Education Departments (state and federal) Curriculum Corporation	Schools, teachers, parents, industry, business, other government departments, teacher unions, universities, school communities
China	State Education Ministry	Professional editors, colleges and universities, teachers, students parents, other professions
Fiji	Curriculum Development Unit, Ministry of Education	Local government, teachers unions, research institutions, employers, industries, nongovernmental agencies, teachers
France	Ministry of Education; National Curriculum Council	National educational organizations, teachers
Germany (Bavaria)	Ministry of Education	State Advisory School Council, State Institute for School Education (can propose revision and develop curriculum)
India	National Council of Educational Research and Training, State Councils for Education, Research and Training and State Boards of Secondary Education	School boards, official associations of teachers, individual teachers (no involvement of parents and students)
Indonesia	Ministry of Education	Senior officials from relevant institutions, subject specialists, universities and institutes, senior subject teachers, headmasters, representatives from the National Education Advisory Board, private companies
Japan	Ministry of Education	Central Council for Education (broad aims), Curriculum Council (curriculum guidelines), committee for making the course of study
Lao PDR	National Research Institute for Educational Science	Some departments within MOE (e.g., Department of General Education, Department of Teacher Training), representatives of trade unions, women's unions and youth unions, Party Central Committee for Ideological Education, Teacher Development Center, National University

<i>Country</i>	<i>Agency initiating curriculum development</i>	<i>Agencies consulted</i>
Malaysia	Curriculum Development Center	Academics, teachers' unions, parents, professional bodies, and nongovernmental agencies
New Zealand	Ministry of Education	Government departments, teachers, sector groups and organizations, teachers' unions, parents, community, international and national experts, business and industry groups
Philippines	Bureaus of Elementary and Secondary Education	Professional stakeholders, parents, teachers, students
Republic of Korea	Ministry of Education (sometimes by special commission)	Research institutes (e.g., KEDI and KICE, involved in developing draft version), various groups (e.g., teachers, parents, students, industry, academic associations)
Sri Lanka	National Institute of Education	Foreign consultants (Asian Development Bank, World Bank) and local consultants, university staff members, Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Provincial Education Authorities, master teachers, experienced senior teachers
Thailand	Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development; Ministry of Education	Department of Curriculum Development, local agencies, teachers, community, welfare agencies
United States (New York)	State Education Department (Board of Regents)	All stakeholders
Uzbekistan	People's Education Ministry, Ministry of Higher Education	Research institutions
Vietnam	National Institute for Education Sciences	National Education Council, international and national experts, teachers, parents

*Accommodation of group opinions
in curriculum decision making*

The following table describes the process of incorporating stakeholder opinion in curriculum decision making.

Whether at the formulation or review stage, education stakeholders are consulted on curriculum development in all participating countries. In New York state and Bavaria, consultation is required by law where the change is significant.

The purpose of consultation varies across countries, from providing information to the public, to seeking genuine feedback and com-

ment. New Zealand has established a legal definition of public consultation to ensure it is seriously considered by policymakers.

The most common methods of consultation include meetings of formal representative committees, either formed for the ongoing purpose of consultation or brought together to review the specific initiative. In addition, seminars, workshops, public forums, and other forms of structured discussion are used. Questionnaires to schools, research and school piloting of draft proposals are also used. In some countries, including Australia, Japan, and the United States, the Internet is starting to be used to publish draft consultation documents.

TABLE 3. Input of Stakeholders in Curriculum Development	
<i>Country</i>	<i>Processes</i>
Australia	Consulting with committees representing stakeholder groups; consulting with media (press); consulting at school level with parents, community; surveying schools to review policy, school pilots.
China	Examining policy, using academics.
Fiji	Using consultation committees (including teacher unions, principals and head teachers, university and research representatives; no parents); using pilot school committees; surveying schools.
France	Consulting teachers on projects.
Germany (Bavaria)	Using state advisory councils (including teachers; parents; students; representatives of industry, commerce, and the church) that make recommendations to minister and are responsible to parliament.
India	Encouraging expression of opinion by all segments of society.
Indonesia	Using committees of principals, parents, teachers, students, industry representatives, and stakeholders.
Japan	Publishing of draft papers, collecting opinions, conducting hearings of parents and specialists, before submission of final report by the council.
Korea	Using groups, but resorting to government decision when groups don't and can't agree.
Lao PDR	Developing drafts and questionnaires, holding stakeholder meetings, adopting final curriculum document by National Institute for Educational Sciences. Ministerial commission makes final decision.
Malaysia	Participating in curriculum design; adopting resolutions and suggestions from seminars, conferences, and workshops; issuing memorandums.
New Zealand	Developing policy specifications for writing curriculum, acceptance of tenders or contract for writing curriculum by Ministry of Education. Consultation with various groups, provision of draft to ministry by contractors. Seeking input, development of final draft, approval and signing by minister.
Philippines	Conduct of conferences, seminars, and workshops.
Sri Lanka	Interview of university personnel and other professionals, teachers, parents, students; conduct of pilot process to get public's views; use of public media programs (for education and dissemination).
Thailand	Participation in national curriculum framework development through hearings and seminars; school board of stakeholders approves school charters and school curriculum.
United States (New York)	Legally requiring public comment in some cases, from curriculum development committees (of subject specialists, SED staff, university researchers, teachers, business) for example; developing draft documents; holding public forums; disseminating the draft; drafting final document.
Uzbekistan	Experimenting with trial policies in good schools; involving students and researchers.
Vietnam	Establishing curriculum development committee, preparing drafts, organizing workshops to review drafts, conducting trials in some provinces, establishing science council with minister's approval.

The length of time for consultation varies, depending on the country and the extent of the change. Time and money appear to be constraints on thorough consultation.

Curriculum approaches to promote unity and cultural diversity

The following table details how each country promotes unity and cultural diversity through its curriculum.

There is a general consensus that cultural diversity and national unity are promoted through the curriculum with varying emphasis, depending on the countries concerned.

Culturally homogeneous countries such as Korea and Japan emphasize national unity, particularly through a centrally developed common curriculum and examination system. Cultural understanding in these countries is supported through tolerance and moral education programs and developing international understanding. Encouraging cultural diversity is interpreted as emphasizing local or provincial differences.

In countries with diverse ethnic groups, including Australia, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, New Zealand, and Sri Lanka, stress is equally placed on the development of cultural diversity and national unity. This aim is generally supported through the following:

- curriculum or topic offerings, commonly including civics, social studies, history, and moral education courses (Australia, Lao PDR, New Zealand Philippines);
- use of ethnic languages as a medium for instruction (Fiji, Indonesia [primary school], Malaysia, New Zealand, Sri Lanka, and Uzbekistan);
- bilingual programs and migrant languages (Australia and Germany); and
- foreign language instruction including cultural studies.

In some cases where cultural diversity is supported, local community groups are involved

in curriculum development, e.g. Maori groups in New Zealand, and aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in Australia.

Provision for children with special needs

In the development of curriculum policies, all countries make varying provisions for students with special needs through modification of the curriculum, special schools, support services, and improving access to mainstream education.

Most countries provide for students with physical disabilities through special schools. In nearly all countries, efforts are made to integrate these students into mainstream education where possible.

While most countries modify their curriculum and provide additional support for low achievers, only a few countries have specific curriculum policies for high achievers and gifted students. These include Australia, China, Germany, Indonesia, the Philippines, the United States, and Vietnam.

Except for Australia, China, Japan, Lao PDR, New Zealand, and the United States (New York state), there is little consideration of the issue of gender in the curriculum. Where it is addressed, the trend is to increase girls' participation in mainstream education.

In many countries, ethnicity and low socioeconomic background are addressed through additional support services with the aim of improving access and participation to mainstream education.

Curriculum Organization

Every country needs to make decisions regarding the overall approach to curriculum design as well as to the subject areas.

Basic Approaches to Curriculum Design

Two main approaches to curriculum design reported by the participating countries are the

TABLE 4. National Unity and Cultural Diversity Curriculum				
	<i>Curriculum focus</i>	<i>Languages</i>	<i>Teaching materials</i>	<i>Community groups</i>
Australia	Civics and social studies.	Languages of migrant groups.	Civics, social studies, and language materials reflecting multicultural community.	Variety of ethnic groups and aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders included.
China	State arranged, with a few locally arranged curriculums.	Chinese and ethnic languages.	Bilingual teaching materials and local editing of materials.	Inclusion of community groups in developing policies.
Fiji	English and other languages.	Various ethnic languages.	Locally produced material and cassette tapes.	
France	Unity promoted by national curriculum standards.	Regional languages as options with exam subjects.		Participation of teachers in formulating curriculum.
Germany (Bavaria)	Policy applies to all schools and unifies entitlement.	Various migrant languages to preserve identity. Cross-cultural and conversational language instruction.	Those that illustrate how diversity enriches culture and life.	
India	Local curriculums appropriate to needs.	Hindi as the official language; English as the link language (second foreign language). Three-language formula (learning of one more regional, foreign, or ancient language).	Provided by NCERT and SCERT.	
Indonesia	National development needs. Science, technology, arts, environment, civic education, religious education, reading, writing, and mathematics.	Indonesian languages. English, French, German, encouraged.	Pancasila (five principles) education. Introductory science and technology, geography, national and world history, handicrafts and arts, drawing, local content curriculum.	
Japan	National standards to introduce and reinforce moral and civic education. Emphasis on international understanding in moral education.	Japanese as official language. French, German, Korean etc. encouraged.	Local studies.	Local co-curricular activities.
Lao PDR	Topics in history, civics, and Lao language.	Lao to non-Lao-speaking taught to children.	Concentrated "language encounter" materials for local studies.	Special schools for ethnic minorities in each province.
Malaysia	Single medium of instruction Core subjects for all.	National language as medium of instruction. Ethnic language for school instruction at primary level.		National types. Tamil and Chinese primary schools.
New Zealand	Social studies curriculum. Curriculum statements developed in Te Reo Maori.	Community and international languages.	Materials reflecting the multi-cultural community. Resource support for teaching languages as an option.	Maori language schools; Involvement of Pacific islands and other ethnic communities.

TABLE 4. National Unity and Cultural Diversity Curriculum (*continuation*)

	<i>Curriculum focus</i>	<i>Languages</i>	<i>Teaching materials</i>	<i>Community groups</i>
Philippines	Indigenization/localization of the curriculum.	Local languages.	Local content and context.	Indigeneous cultural communities.
Republic of Korea	National curriculum provides common features, but diversity through modification is also emphasized. Moral education and history are regarded as the foundation for unity.		Separate books for provincial studies.	
Sri Lanka	One common curriculum and common examination. Values and morals education integrated into religious education.	Sinhala as first language and Tamil as second, or Tamil as first language and Sinhala as second, English compulsory, other foreign languages optional.	In both Sinhala and Tamil.	Involvement of all community groups.
Thailand	New proposed curriculum design: national standards for basic education outcomes and benchmarks every three years for local schools to develop curriculum	Unified national language. Local language (dialect) taught to study local wisdom, foreign language as optional subject.	Teachers' decision.	Involvement in approval of school charter and curriculum.
United States	Specific topics in citizenship. State and national history and culture emphasized in social studies and English. Diversity integrated in all subjects.	English as language of instruction. Bilingual and second language instruction provided.		
Uzbekistan		Russian language for inter-ethnic dialogue. Instruction in ethnic language groups.	Materials on local heritage, history, and culture.	
Vietnam	Moral and civic education, mathematics, nature and science, Vietnamese language.	Bilingual program for ethnic areas.	Materials from integrated subjects.	

content or topic-based approach and the outcome-based approach.

The content or topic-based approach lists the topics or themes of the subject area or discipline. The listing is generally broad and includes the aims and objectives for the subject area.

The outcome-based approach to curriculum design defines the outcomes, usually as abilities or skills, that students are expected to

achieve by the end of the period of study or period of schooling for the specific subject.

The general trend is toward the combined use of content-based and outcome-based approaches to curriculum design. For example, China, France, Germany, Japan, Korea, Lao PDR, Malaysia, the Philippines, and the United States report that they have designed their curriculum using varying combinations of the con-

tent and outcome-based approaches. Australia, New Zealand, and Thailand predominantly use the outcome-based approach, while Fiji, Indonesia, and Vietnam predominantly use the content-based approach. India and Sri Lanka are moving from a content- to an outcome-based approach, while Uzbekistan reports a move from a purely outcome-based model to a combination of both approaches.

Other details of the curriculum organization of the different countries are shown in the table below.

TABLE 5. Approaches to Curriculum Design

Country	Approach
Australia	2
China	1
Fiji	1
France	1→3, 1→2(TVE)
Germany (Bavaria)	3
India	1→2
Indonesia	1
Japan	1
Lao PDR	3
Malaysia	3
New Zealand	2
Philippines	3
Republic of Korea	3, 1-2
Sri Lanka	1→2
Thailand	2
United States (New York state)	3
Uzbekistan	2→3(TVE)
Vietnam	1→3,

Legend: 1 – content based; 2 – outcome based; 3 – combination TVE – Technical/Vocational education.

Curriculum interpretation by teachers

Teachers in Australia interpret their curriculum frameworks with some variations across the states and territories and across subject areas. Teachers in Korea, India, and Malaysia are moving from implementing the curriculum as prescribed to some degree of local interpretation. In China, Fiji, Indonesia, Lao PDR, and

Uzbekistan, teachers must implement the curriculum as it is prescribed. The curriculum of all the other countries is interpreted by the teachers and implemented with some local variations.

The general trend is toward the setting of national guidelines with a certain degree of flexibility for interpretation at the local (regional, state, district, and school) level.

Curriculum structure

The participating countries offer a variety of courses or subjects in both the primary and secondary level. These subjects include the national language and any regional or local language, foreign languages, science, technology, mathematics, social studies, humanities, vocational education, creative and performing arts, health, and physical education. Some related areas are further illustrated under each of the subject denomination, as shown below.

Curriculum structure at the primary level

Analysis of the course offerings at the primary level in all the participating countries, shows that while the above content areas are generally covered, time allotments and the nature of the content vary across each subject area. Foreign languages are offered by Australia, China, France, Germany, Malaysia, New Zealand, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka on either a mandatory or optional basis. Six countries—Fiji, Japan, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, and Uzbekistan—do not offer any foreign language at this level.

A major aim of all countries at the primary level of education is functional literacy and numeracy. The national language and mathematics are offered by all the participating countries.

Multilingual and multicultural countries provide options to address language and cultural needs of their students.

TABLE 6. Subjects in the Curriculum per Topic

Social studies	History Civics Economics	Political science Geography
Health and physical education	Physical education Games and sports	Health education Personal management*
Humanities	Ethics/Religion Moral/Values education Classical and cultural background	
Creative and performing arts	Art Music and dance	Drama
Technical vocational	Pre-vocational Agricultural science Industrial/Practical arts	Home economics Business management Services education
Technology	Computer Electronics	Communications Mechanics

*Personal management includes management of time, life skills, consumer education, safety education, personal hygiene, and etiquette.

Curriculum structure at the lower secondary level

Analysis of the curriculum structure at the lower secondary level shows that foreign language subjects are offered by all the participating countries, except Fiji. National language and mathematics courses are offered in all countries.

In many countries, the study of the Humanities is integrated into other subjects. In China, India, and Thailand, technology is an emerging content area in science, while in Australia and New Zealand they are a new distinct subject.

Curriculum structure at the upper secondary level

At the upper secondary level, subjects include the national language and any regional or local languages, foreign languages, science, technology, mathematics, social studies, humanities, creative and performing arts, health, and physical education. There is an increasing trend toward subject diversification and the integration of technical education into general education.

In addition, technical/vocational education in all countries prepares students for the world

of work or for higher education. There is an increasing trend for bridges and pathways between academic and vocational streams.

At this level, the subject offerings are more specialized, more detailed, and more specific, and there are more options across the subject areas.

At least two language courses, including the national and a foreign language, are part of the curricular offerings for all countries. Some countries, (Korea, France, Germany, Australia, and Uzbekistan) offer a third language either on a compulsory or optional basis.

Curriculum integration

Integration can be viewed as the combination of knowledge of several subjects with similar features into one subject area, usually around themes. An example is values education, where values can be incorporated across subject areas, although values education may also be offered as a separate subject area.

In Malaysia, integration is seen as the incorporation of key aspects into the prescribed curriculum. On the other hand, in the United

States, integration is the approach used to improve understanding of academic content.

Integration of specific curriculum areas

In the majority of participating countries, values education and environmental education are integrated into existing subjects of the curriculum.

While some countries offer values education, education for the world of work, science and technology, information and communication technology, health education, and environmental education as separate subjects, they are often also integrated into other subject areas to strengthen their emphasis.

Curriculum coverage

Issues relating to curriculum coverage

In designing the curriculum, countries need to make decisions about the breadth and depth of subject content and approaches. Some countries are concerned that the general education provided in their school system requires students to cover too many subject areas. There are also pressures to add new subject areas such as environmental studies, international understanding, information technology, etc. Other countries are concerned about the number of subjects that students are required to study either because of the pressure this puts on students or because it means that subjects are approached in a way that does not lead to a depth

TABLE 7. Integration of Specific Curriculum Areas

Country	Themes/Areas											
	Values/ International understanding/moral/ ethical issues		Education for the world of work		Foreign languages		Computer information technology		Health education		Environmental education	
Australia	I	P/S	I	S	D	S	I	S	D	P/S	I/D	P/S
China	I	P/S	I	S	D	S	I	S	D	P/S	I	P/S
Fiji	I/D	P/S	I	S	D	P/S	D	S	D/I	P/S	I	P/S
France	I	P/S	I	S	I/D	P/S	I	P/S	I	P/S	I	P/S
Germany (Bavaria)	I		I		D	S	I/D	P/S	I		I	
India	I/D	P/S	D	P/S	D (6-10)	P/S	D/P(1-10)	P/S	I/D	P/S	I	P/S
Indonesia	I	P/S	I	S	I	S	I	S	I	P/S	I	P/S
Japan	I	P/S	I	S	D	S	I	S	I	P/S	I	P/S
Lao PDR	I	P/S	D	P/S	D	S	–	–	D	P/S	D	P/S
Malaysia	I/D	P/S	I	S	D	P/S	I/D	P/S	I/D	P/S	I	P/S
New Zealand	I	P/S	I	P/S	D	S	I/D	P/S	D	P/SS	I	P/S
Philippines	I/D	P/S	D	P/S	D	P/S	I	S	I	P/S	I	P/S
Republic of Korea	I/D	P/S	I	P/S	D	P/S	I/D	P/S	I/D	P/S	I/D	S
Sri Lanka	I	E/S	I	S	S	S	I	US	S	E/S	I	E/S
Thailand	I	P/S	I	P/S	D	P/S	I	P/S	I	P/S	I	P/S
United States	I	P/S	D	S	D	P/S	I/D	P/S	D	P/S	I	P/S
Uzbekistan	I	P/S	I/D	P/U	D	LS	D	LS	I	P/S	I	P/S
Vietnam	I/D	P/S	I	S	D	S	–	–	D	P/S	I	P/S

Legend: I – Integrated; P – Primary; D – Distinct; S – Secondary.

of understanding or to the fostering of creative and critical thinking.

Overcrowding of the curriculum is caused by schools being asked to take responsibility for a wide range of social issues that were once viewed as the responsibility of families or the community as a whole, such as appropriate behavior and personal etiquette.

Actions to address the issues relating to curriculum coverage

Countries identify a number of actions to address issues relating to curriculum coverage, including a continuing review of the existing content so that, where possible, integration can be undertaken rather than new subjects created.

Integration need not be limited to the curricular content but can also include co-curricular activities and optional or elective subjects, both at the primary and secondary levels. For other themes that are seasonal or periodic, resource materials can be provided in the library for general information and reading.

The use of new or appropriate technology is suggested as another means to address the overcrowded curriculum. Where distance education or some other alternative delivery system is possible, content can be learned through these means. Multimedia resources are increasingly becoming more sophisticated, and learning may not be confined within the classroom.

Where the overcrowded curriculum results from an inability of curriculum developers to determine the basic knowledge and skills that should go into a subject area, restructuring and prioritization of basic content, deemed relevant, necessary, and appropriate at each level and in each subject area could be of assistance. Benchmarks could also be established so that there is basis for monitoring and evaluation.

The perennial issue of pressure from government or groups may be transformed into a healthy working relationship through closer collaboration between competing interest groups. The pressures from these groups need not be accommodated totally. A balance can

be struck between political, social, scientific, and academic requirements.

Teachers play a very important role in delivering the curriculum. Resistance sometimes exists because of their lack of involvement in planning and the lack of training and orientation prior to curriculum implementation. This may be alleviated by regular or periodic upgrading of teacher competencies through continuing in-service training.

Continuing research, monitoring, and evaluation was also proposed, so that feedback and reports of curriculum reviews could become the basis for curriculum revision or development.

Curriculum Implementation

Unless there are effective strategies for the implementation of curriculum policies, an education system does not derive the full benefits that should accrue from the school curriculum. The questions in this section of the questionnaire sought responses to key aspects which are crucial for curriculum implementation: teacher development; resource provision; classroom strategies; and student assessment.

Teacher Professional Development

A curriculum, no matter how good, will simply remain a curriculum on paper if it is not implemented properly. The teacher and the instructional leaders in the school are the key to the implementation of that curriculum. The questions in this section of the questionnaire sought to find out how teachers in the various countries are prepared professionally for teaching, and the programmes available for their continuous professional development.

Pre-service teacher development

Requirements for teacher education qualification

All the countries reported requirements for qualification or admission into the Teacher

Training Institutions or any form of pre-service teacher education.

Framework for pre-service teacher education

The following table shows the description of national frameworks for pre-service teacher education.

All countries or states have some form of curriculum, guidelines, or frameworks for pre-service teacher education.

Programs for pre-service teacher development

See table.

Components of the pre-service teacher education programs

Pre-service teacher education programs in various countries commonly include four main components: educational methods/teaching methods; professional education/basic education; subject courses/curriculum studies; and teaching practice/field experience. Additional components may include co-curricular activities, self-enrichment, and languages. Topics or subjects like introduction to educational systems of other countries (France), languages (Sri Lanka), emerging Indian society (India) and morality and career education (Thailand).

TABLE 8. Description of National Frameworks

Country	Description of national frameworks for pre-service teacher education
Australia	National Standards and Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education.
China	
Fiji	National Curriculum Framework.
France	National guidelines for teacher training university colleges.
Germany (Bavaria)	State Law on Teacher Education; State Examination Regulations.
India	There is no prescribed national curriculum for pre-service teacher education. However, there are guidelines and a framework for pre-service teacher education developed by National Council of Teacher Education.
Indonesia	National curriculum for training teachers of each level of education.
Japan	National guidelines.
Lao P.D.R.	Various teacher training curriculums adopted in 1993 by the Prime Minister Decree on State Education Personnel.
Malaysia	Framework prescribed by the Teacher Education Division of the Ministry of Education and the university.
New Zealand	Approval of courses through internal quality assurance and governmental agencies, national professional standards established for beginning teachers (used by individual institutions) as a basis for course development.
Philippines	Policies/guidelines (Policy Standards for Teacher Education) provided by the Commission on Higher Education
Republic of Korea	
Sri Lanka	Prescribed curriculum for diploma in teaching for colleges of education.
Thailand	
United States (New York state)	General guidelines. Curriculums and syllabuses developed by institutions. State-approved programs for institution.
Uzbekistan	State-approved curriculum of each institution.
Vietnam	National curriculum for training teachers of each level of education.

TABLE 9. Title/Length of Program for Pre-service Development				
<i>Country</i>	<i>Level of teacher</i>	<i>Title/Length of program</i>	<i>Type of institution</i>	<i>Minimum entry requirement</i>
Australia	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	4-year degree	University	Year 12 (secondary)
China	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	Primary school teachers' trial post regulation (3-4 years) Secondary school teachers' trial post regulation (2-3 years) Secondary school teachers' trial post regulation (4 years)	Secondary normal school Universities and colleges Universities and colleges	Junior secondary school graduates Senior secondary school graduates Senior secondary school graduates
Fiji	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	2-year teacher's certificate 2-year diploma in education 4-year bachelor of education (PGCE—postgraduate certificate of education)	Teachers' college Teachers' college University of the South Pacific	Pass in Form 6 (in practice, Form 7) Pass in Form 7 Pass in Form 7
France	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	3 + 1 + 1 3 + 1 + 1 3 + 1 + 1 4 + 1 + 1	University + Institute Universitaire pour la Formation des Mai(circ)tres (IUFM) + IUFM University + Institute Universitaire pour la Formation des Mai(circ)tres (IUFM) + IUFM University + Institute Universitaire pour la Formation des Mai(circ)tres (IUFM) + IUFM	Baccalaureate Baccalaureate Baccalaureate
Germany	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	5 years (3 + 2) 5 years (3 + 2) 6 years (4 + 2)	University + Seminar University + Seminar University + Seminar	Abitur (Gymnasium leaving certificate) Abitur (Gymnasium leaving certificate) Abitur (Gymnasium leaving certificate)
India	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	2 years 1 year 1 year	Teacher training institute University University	Senior secondary Graduate (3 years) Postgraduate (2 years)
Indonesia	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	D2 (2 years) D3 (3 years) S1 (4 years)	Higher education Higher education Higher education	12 year (secondary school) 12 year (secondary school) 12 year (secondary school)
Japan	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	Teachers' certificate Teachers' certificate Teachers' certificate	Universities and colleges Universities and colleges Universities and colleges	
Lao P.D.R.	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	3 years (with 8 years prior) 1 year (with 11 years prior) 3 years 4 years	Teacher training school Teacher college University	Graduate of lower/upper secondary education Graduate of upper secondary Graduate of upper secondary

TABLE 9. Title/Length of Program for Pre-service Development (continuation)				
<i>Country</i>	<i>Level of teacher</i>	<i>Title/Length of program</i>	<i>Type of institution</i>	<i>Minimum entry requirement</i>
Malaysia	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	Diploma in teaching (3 years) Diploma in teaching (1 year) Diploma in teaching (1 year)	Teacher training colleges University University	School certificate Degree Degree
New Zealand	Primary Lower and upper secondary	B.Ed. (teaching) (3 years) B.Ed. (4 years) Diploma of Teaching (2 years) Diploma of Teaching (1 year) Diploma of Teaching (1 year)	University, polytechnic, college of education Polytechnics, college of education University, polytechnic, college of education University, polytechnic, college of education	University entrance or equivalent Partial tertiary qualification and relevant work experience A degree A degree with relevant teaching subjects
Philippines	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	Bachelor of elementary education (4 years) Bachelor of secondary education (4 years) Diploma of teaching (1 year)	College of education Teacher education institution College of education Teacher education institution University, polytechnic, college of education	High school graduate High school graduate A degree with relevant teaching subjects
Republic of Korea	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	4 years 4 years 4 years	Primary education departments of national universities National or private National or private	
Sri Lanka	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	Diploma in teaching (3 years) Diploma in teaching (3 years) B.Ed. (3 years)	Colleges of education Colleges of education Universities	G.C.E. (A/L) G.C.E. (A/L) G.C.E. (A/L)
Thailand	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	No (depends on local body-teacher training institution) No (depends on local body-teacher training institution) No (depends on local body-teacher training institution)		High school graduation High school graduation High school graduation
United States (New York state)	Primary (pre-kindergarten, 6) Secondary (7-12)	Length of program not specified, but typically part of a 4-year baccalaureate (recently introduced policy requires master's degree of all newly hired teacher)	Typically, a 4-year post-secondary education institution with a teacher education program approved by and registered with the State Education Department	Varies by institution, but usually at least a high school diploma
Uzbekistan	Primary Lower secondary Upper secondary	Bachelor / 3-4 years Bachelor / 4-5 years Bachelor / 4-5 years	College Institute Institute / University Institute / University	30% out of 226 grades (1998) 30% out of 226 grades (1998) 30% out of 226 grades (1998)

TABLE 9. Title/Length of Program for Pre-service Development (*continuation*)

Country	Level of teacher	Title/Length of program	Type of institution	Minimum entry requirement
Vietnam	Primary	Bachelor of primary education (2 years)	Teacher training college	Graduation from general education (grade 12)
	Lower Secondary	Bachelor of lower sec (3 years)	Teacher training college	Graduation from general education (grade 12)
	Upper Secondary	Bachelor of up sec (4 years)	National teaching university	Graduation from general education (grade 12)

With few exceptions, all countries report having the four components identified in their pre-service teacher training programs.

Processes undertaken by pre-service teacher education

The measures taken in all countries to ensure that pre-service teacher education programmes keep up with changes in school curriculum and other areas of change in education can be categorized into two main groups: (i) change as prescribed by regulation; and (ii) changes initiated by the teacher education institution itself as part of its quality system process.

While some countries regulate changes to pre-service teacher education, others rely on self-regulation of the teacher education institutions themselves. However, there is a range of ways these countries preserve pre-service teacher education standards. Some examples include Germany (Bavaria) where there are state examinations established by the Education Ministry, teacher licenses in the United States, and teacher registration and professional standards for beginning teachers set by the Australia and New Zealand educational authorities. In some cases (Fiji, for example), where the changes are prescribed by regulation, the teacher training education institutions are involved in curriculum change.

In-service teacher development programs

Professional development for teachers

A large number of countries provide compulsory in-service training either for all teach-

ers each year, including Vietnam, Lao PDR, and Sri Lanka. Some countries provide or require in-service training for all teachers over a longer time frame (United States, New York state) and others for promotion to leadership positions (Australia, France, Germany, and Japan) or for relicensing (Philippines, New York state). In addition, there are a wide range of voluntary opportunities for in-service, and a number of countries combine voluntary and compulsory activities.

Compulsory time varies: Lao PDR—80-180 hours per year; New York state—175 hours every five years; Sri Lanka—300 hours prior to next promotion; Vietnam—1 month per year in the summer.

Support for in-service training programs

All countries provide financial support for in-service education.

Methods of improving teaching practice

The most common professional development opportunities available for teachers include enrollment in graduate studies, distance learning, membership in professional groups, subscription to journals and educational magazines, attendance in local and foreign seminar-workshops and conferences, staff meetings, refresher courses, inter-school visits, the use of central curriculum advisors, and observance of peer teaching, including master teachers.

In addition to the more conventional opportunities, a range of methods making use of modern technology is evident. It includes the use of the Internet (Australia, Indonesia, New

Country	Change as prescribed by regulation	Changes instigated by a teacher education institution	Comment
Australia		X	National Guidelines for Teacher Training specify outcomes, which include familiarity with current educational policy. However, teacher education institutions exercise quality control.
China		X	
Fiji	X		Teacher training institutions involved in curriculum changes.
France	X		
Germany (Bavaria)	X		State examinations for teachers take into account curriculum changes.
India		X	National Council of Teacher Education provides guidelines.
Indonesia	X		
Japan	X		
Malaysia	X		Teaching training colleges involved in curriculum change.
Lao PDR	X		Teacher development center created to develop new curriculum for teacher training institutions.
New Zealand		X	Course approval every 3-5 years by national agency and therefore must reflect current policy changes.
Philippines		X	Changes initiated are decided by institution.
Republic of Korea		X	
Sri Lanka	X		National Institute of Education prepares both school curriculum and pre-service training curriculum.
Thailand			
United States		X	
Uzbekistan		X	Each education division or institution designs curriculum according to state standards.
Vietnam		X	

Zealand, and the United States), and distance learning, teleconferences, TV programs, and satellite TV (Australia, China, Indonesia, the United States, and Vietnam).

Some countries reported a comprehensive approach to professional development at the school level. This often involves teachers working in teams toward agreed common professional development goals.

Incentives for teachers to participate in in-service training

Teachers may participate in in-service training for several reasons, such as to receive a promotion or an increase in salary, to meet relicensing or rectification requirements, and for their own personal or professional benefit.

Teachers as a professional group are actively engaged in professional development in all countries. The main motivating factors and incentives for ongoing participation are professional and personal enrichment and career development and promotion. In some countries, in-service training is required to ensure that teachers are able to upgrade their qualifications (Lao PDR), and maintain their license to teach (Philippines and New York state).

Strategies for in-service training of teachers

All countries recognize the importance of providing central support for the implementation of the curriculum. This support is provided as additional central funding, as teaching and learning resources, and as publications

Country	Career development (promotion, salary)	Relicensing	Professional enrichment	Other requirement	Comment
Australia			X		Many activities sponsored by education administration and by professional organizations of subject area teachers.
China	X	X	X		
Fiji	X		X		
France	X		X		
Germany (Bavaria)	X		X		Many activities sponsored by professional organizations (of subject area teachers).
India	X		X		Move toward in-service as requirement for promotion of teachers.
Indonesia	X		X		
Japan	X		X		
Lao P.D.R.			X	X	
Malaysia	X		X		
New Zealand	Not mandatory (but recognized as important by employing boards)		X	X	
Philippines	X	X	X		Many activities sponsored by professional organizations (of subject area teachers).
Republic of Korea					
Sri Lanka	X		X		Educational administrative bodies organize in-service training programs under their responsibilities by providing funds.
Thailand					
United States (New York)	X	X	X		
Uzbekistan	X		X		
Vietnam	X		X		

to inform teachers, parents, and the community of curriculum changes. In a few countries (Australia, New Zealand, and the United States), information technology is being used to provide curriculum resources and professional development.

Resource Support

Countries are using a diverse range of materials to support the implementation of new

curriculums. Material support of various kinds may assist in the provision of information for students, provide a guide to teachers and assist teachers in implementing effective classroom programmes that actively involve the students in learning. This material support may take various forms such as textbooks, videos, computer software, calculators, equipment and apparatus, multimedia, teacher guides, and CD ROMs. The following section was designed to find out the kinds of support materials coun-

tries are using to assist teachers implement curriculum change.

Textbooks

Countries use a variety of approaches for the development and supply of textbooks. Table 12 shows how countries develop and distribute textbooks and some comments on textbooks and other teaching/learning resources.

Textbooks are used in most education systems to ensure that all students are able to learn basic curriculum content. Most countries report that a government agency is responsible for the provision or approval of textbooks (Fiji, Indonesia, Lao PDR, and Sri Lanka). In some countries, schools select textbooks published by the private sector (Australia, New Zealand, and the United States), while in others they select textbooks from an approved list (Fiji, Germany, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia and the Philippines).

Teaching/Learning support materials

There are also other teaching/learning support materials available for schools, including teacher guides, video tapes, computer software, CD-ROMs, etc.

Besides textbooks, almost all countries provide additional teaching and learning resources such as CD-ROMs, videos, workbooks, software, instructional material, supplementary reading material, resource guides, laboratory equipment, and other teaching aids to enhance learning programs.

In all countries, government funds the development of supplementary materials for teachers and students. In many countries, private publishers also produce and sell materials directly to teachers and schools. In some countries, private publishers must have their materials approved. Instances of government collaboration with the private sector are also noted.

Development process of supplementary materials

Teachers are often involved in the development of supplementary materials, whether working for the government or for private companies. In addition, a wide range of individuals, such as university professors, professionals from business and industry, and professional writers may also be involved.

Germany, France, and New Zealand also have dissemination networks of regional and local groups.

Provision of textbooks and other materials

Textbooks and other materials are either provided by the government or purchased by parents. The situation in the participating countries shown in Table 12.

Many countries provide textbooks free of charge. In some countries, students can keep the books at the end of the year, while in others they are only on loan and must be returned (Lao PDR, New Zealand, and the Philippines). Governments generally tend to provide textbooks to children during the years of compulsory schooling, but expect parents to assist in funding textbooks in the upper secondary, noncompulsory years.

Community Support

Extent of community support

Support for curriculum development is provided by parents, the local community, the business community, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). In the participating countries, the situation is shown in Table 13.

Most countries report a trend toward encouraging parent-teacher organizations, parents, and community members to contribute to the implementation of curriculum. In some countries, business and NGOs provide additional support for schools (New Zealand, the

<i>Country</i>	<i>Government provides</i>	<i>Free loan</i>	<i>Rent</i>	<i>Parent purchase</i>	<i>Comment</i>
Australia		Some primary and secondary		Some primary and secondary	
China			T (parents) [sic]	Primary and secondary	
Fiji	Primary		Secondary	Secondary and some primary	Books provided by special projects in 7 & 8 and junior secondary
France		Primary and lower secondary			
Germany (Bavaria)		Primary and secondary			
India	Government school			Private schools	
Indonesia	Primary school (government schools only)	Lower and upper secondary		Lower and upper secondary	Depends on school
Japan	Primary and lower secondary			Upper secondary	
Lao PDR		Primary education	Lower secondary	Upper secondary and private schools	
Malaysia		Income-based loan scheme		Monthly income lower than \$400 eligible for textbook loan	Monthly income lower than \$400, textbooks are free
New Zealand		School loans			
Philippines		Public schools		Private schools	
Republic of Korea	Primary school			Secondary (low cost)	
Sri Lanka	Primary and lower secondary			Upper secondary	(No prescribed textbooks for upper secondary; supplementary materials only)
Thailand					
United States (New York)		All schools			
Uzbekistan				Primary and secondary	
Vietnam		Some primary		Secondary and some primary	

United States, and Uzbekistan). In a few countries, religious groups and alumni associations provide a range of types of assistance.

Classroom Strategies

Strategies to introduce new teaching approaches

Most countries provide in-service training to teachers to encourage the use of new teaching approaches. In addition, there are many

other ways for teachers to access professional development of new teaching approaches. These methods include peer group teaching, the training of expert facilitators to work with other teachers, pilot schools demonstrating new approaches, and modeling of these methods in guidebooks, professional development programs, and other media. These opportunities can be provided by the government, teachers' unions, professional organizations, and private enterprises.

<i>Country</i>	<i>Parents</i>	<i>Local community</i>	<i>Business community</i>	<i>NGOs</i>	<i>Other</i>
Australia	Involved in school management and school programs	Used as resource	Sometimes develops curriculum materials	Sometimes develop curriculum materials	
China	Involved in school management	Children's Palaces for additional learning experiences; provision of additional equipment in rural areas	Donation to schools	Assistance to develop informal education	
Fiji	PTA management of school	Local government research institutions	Reviews curriculum and supplies materials	Reviewing curricula Assist in nonformal education	Religious bodies (support moral education), parents, leaders
France		Provision of additional equipment	Tax for technical and vocational education purposes Sponsor schools		
Germany (Bavaria)	PTAs				
India	PTAs	Set up own schools outside of government funding			
Indonesia	PTA	Local government	Private business	Many different groups, depends on district	Religious groups assist in schools; PTA meets 3 times/year)
Japan	PTAs (small role)	Use of local environment as resource			
Lao PDR	Consultations with parent and student associations		Education Foundation For Needy Students		
Malaysia	PTAs	Financial/material support	Scholarships/ material support	Material support	
New Zealand	Consultation; helpers in class; fund-raising; school development committee; PTAs	Sponsor schools; experts provided for class programs; learning experience outside class	Collaboration in resource development; school-industry links; sponsorship; donations	Other ministry resource material; research agency donations	
Philippines	PTAs in each school (provide general support)	Provision of additional help, finance and materials	Provision of additional help, finance, and materials	Provide instructional aids	
Republic of Korea	Parents interested in school operations and management	Revising and enlarging curriculum, materials development			
Sri Lanka	Participate in school development committee	Participate in school development committee	Occasional donations (library books, infrastructure, other resources)	Occasional donations (library books, infrastructure, other resources)	Students and alumni participate in school development committee
Thailand					

TABLE 13. Community Support for Curriculum Development (continuation)

Country	Parents	Local community	Business community	NGOs	Other
United States (New York)	PTAs	Local school boards manage school	Collaborative projects with school	Grant programs for schools and teachers	Various groups can have power if opposed to curriculum Ustoz Republican Foundation
Uzbekistan				Sponsor competitions and study programs; introduces curriculum materials	
Vietnam	Give comments and financial support to curriculum	Give comments and financial support to curriculum; maintain school buildings			

Issues and concerns about teaching methods

Countries report several major trends in issues and concerns about teaching methods. Most report a shift from teacher-centered instruction to child-centered learning, which involves encouraging problem solving, creative thinking, learning to learn, and activity-based classroom programs. In a few countries, there is a refocus on the balance between learning processes and subject content (Australia, New Zealand, and the United States).

School-based Student Assessment

The key issue for effective implementation of the curriculum involves students and their learning assessment at the school level. Countries use a variety of strategies to assess student learning. School-based assessment provides feedback to teachers with respect to the effectiveness of their teaching and provides students and parents with essential information about student progress.

The following table shows the methods of assessing student performance in the elementary, and lower and upper secondary school levels. Also included are the purposes or uses of the results of assessment and the methods of reporting the assessment.

Developments in assessment

At the elementary level, the most common ways of collecting data on student assessment are the paper-and-pencil tests, practical work, and teachers' observations. The situation is almost the same at the lower secondary level with the introduction of laboratory work, authentic assessment (Thailand), including project specifics and portfolios, and school-based assessment for specific year levels in Sri Lanka.

At the upper secondary level, the trend is a shift from written tests to more performance tests across the subject areas. In France and Uzbekistan, student assessment includes projects in professional, technical, and vocational education.

Main purposes of assessment at the school level

School-based assessments are used to diagnose strengths and weaknesses of students, in which case, diagnostic tests are administered at the beginning of the school year or a year level. Assessments are also used to determine student performance and progress in school, most of the time leading to promotion or admission to the next grade/year level. Furthermore, assessments are used to report the child's progress in school to parents. The evaluation

Country	Elementary level	Secondary level		Purposes/Uses	Methods of reporting
		Lower	Upper		
Australia	Structured observation; written and standardized test	Structured observation; written and standardized test	Structured observation; written and standardized test	Report student progress; curriculum development	Percentage and letter grading; checklist of criteria; descriptive assessment
China	Paper-and-pencil tests; observations; interviews; portfolios	Paper-and-pencil tests; observations; interviews; portfolios	Paper-and-pencil tests; observations; interviews; portfolios	Diagnosis; selection of contestants; determination quality of instruction; examination of student progress; deciding professional direction	Comments; behavior marks; percentage; place in competition; grade
Fiji	Paper and pencil tests; project works	Paper and pencil tests; project works	Paper and pencil tests; project works, practical and laboratory work	Evaluate student performance; for promotion purposes; prepare for national and external examinations	Percentage
France	Paper-and-pencil tests; portfolio; tests	Paper-and-pencil tests; portfolio; tests; laboratory work	Paper-and-pencil tests; portfolio; tests; laboratory work; projects in TVE	Diagnosis; monitor student progress; decision for promotion	Grading and comments on achievement
Germany (Bavaria)	Oral/written tests	Oral/written tests	Oral/written tests; point-graded system	Diagnosis; assessment for promotion; reporting to parents	Verbal certification for grades 1-2; written plus point-grades in upper secondary
India	Continuous comprehensive evaluation paper-and-pencil tests; projects and practical work; school based	Internal reporting; external examination	Internal reporting; external examination	Monitor learning achievements; and effectiveness of instruction	Progress report cards. Observations (elementary); marks (secondary)
Indonesia	Paper-and-pencil tests; performance tests	Paper-and-pencil tests; performance tests	Paper-and-pencil tests; performance tests	Promotion; reporting to parents; diagnosis	Grades
Japan	Paper-and-pencil tests; practical work	Paper-and-pencil tests; practical work	Paper-and-pencil tests; practical work	Diagnosis; requirement for admission	Grade and comments
Lao PDR	Paper-and-pencil tests; oral tests observations; tele-record	Paper-and-pencil tests; oral tests; observations; tele-record	Paper-and-pencil tests; oral tests; observations tele-record	For parents to help children; for remediation; to improve the teaching/ learning performance	Ten score grading
Malaysia	Paper-and-pencil tests; teacher observation folios; practical work	Paper-and-pencil tests; teacher observation folios; practical work	Paper-and-pencil tests; teacher observation folios; practical work	To report student progress; diagnosis; teaching effectiveness	Grade; percentage; descriptive

TABLE 14. Types, Purposes and Methods of Reporting (continuation)

Country	Elementary level	Secondary level		Purposes/Uses	Methods of reporting
		Lower	Upper		
New Zealand	Paper-and-pencil test, practical work, observation standardized assessments, parent interviews	Paper-and-pencil test, practical work	Paper-and-pencil test, practical work	Measure of performance; to report to student and parents on progress. Diagnostic and formative to improve learning and teaching	Grading system
Philippines	Paper-and-pencil tests; projects; observations	Paper-and-pencil tests; projects; observations	Paper-and-pencil tests; projects; observations	Improve teaching/learning; diagnosis; improve student performance; report to parents	Percentage rating
Republic of Korea	Paper-and-pencil tests; performance	Paper-and-pencil tests; performance	Paper-and-pencil tests; performance	Reporting to parents; requirement for admission	Written comments for elementary level; grade and percentage in secondary level
Sri Lanka	School-based assessment; paper-and-pencil tests; practical work; assignments; observations	School-based assessment from 1998 in grade 6; from 1999 in grade 7-11; public exams in grade 11	Public examination in grade 13	To improve learning, teaching, and assessment practices	Grade; progress records; students profile; polar gram and subject -based reports
Thailand	Paper-and-pencil test at the end of year	Paper-and-pencil test at the end of semester; authentic assessment	Paper-and-pencil test at the end of semester; authentic assessment	Measure performance (elementary and secondary) and making new pass at end of year (secondary only)	Grading system; end of level report to parents and concerned authorities
United States (New York)	Observation; homework and projects; written exams	Observation; homework and projects; written exams	Observation; homework and projects; written exams	Describe performance; incentive for students for promotion	Percentage and grades
Uzbekistan	Paper-and-pencil test; observations; portfolio	Paper-and-pencil test and practical work	More paper-and-pencil test; laboratory work in professional and technical education	Evaluation of student learning; promotion for next grade	Percentage rating
Vietnam	Paper-and-pencil tests	Paper-and-pencil tests	Paper-and-pencil tests	Diagnosis (elementary level), assessment for promotion (secondary level)	Percentage or grades

of student performance is also a means to review the curriculum and results are therefore used to improve not only the curriculum but the teaching and learning process, as well.

Methods for reporting on students' performance

Student performances are reported quantitatively and qualitatively. Comments and observations describing student performance and progress in class are reported to parents. The comments maybe motivational or may say something about the potentials of the student. In India, exclusive use of observations on student performance are for the elementary level only while in Germany, there is a verbal certification for Grades 1 and 2.

A grading system is adopted in many countries. The letter, numerical equivalents, or percentages are used for recording results.

External examinations

Table 15 explains the types and purposes of external examinations as well as their impact on curriculum implementation.

Most of the countries report a system of external evaluation except for Indonesia and Thailand. This evaluation is usually at specific levels and at the end of levels, such as the elementary or secondary level.

The purposes of the external evaluation are to determine promotion or certification to the next level of education, student performance, and school accountability.

External evaluation has positive or negative impact on curriculum implementation because it provides feedback and data which may be used for curriculum development and improvement.

Barriers and Constraints to Effective Curriculum Implementation

The effective implementation of curriculum is dependent on a multitude of factors. Coun-

tries report the difficulties and barriers that have been identified as constraints to effective curriculum implementation include inadequate support instructional materials; large class sizes; language of instruction; out-of-date materials; teacher qualifications, teachers' availability; teachers' knowledge, skills, and attitudes; and the performance of teachers and principals.

Barriers and constraints to curriculum implementation

Countries reported potential obstacles to effective curriculum implementation:

- Lack of personnel resources (not enough teachers to reduce overcrowding, lack of staff qualifications, and not enough training regarding new reforms); lack of quality instructional materials related to new content and approaches; and lack of appropriate infrastructure.
- Difficulty of managing change; unrealistic expectations of policymakers, desire for immediate results, and inappropriate or lack of implementation strategies.
- Resistance to change among teachers, administrators, and the public, often stemming from an overabundance of reform initiatives.
- Conflict between reform goals and pressure on students to do well on entrance examinations.

Curriculum Monitoring and Evaluation

This section is devoted to overall curriculum evaluation and not to individual student evaluation, which was covered in the previous section.

Monitoring and Evaluation

There are a number of ways in which the curriculum can be monitored and evaluated.

Among the participating countries, monitoring and evaluation activities exist both at

<i>Countries</i>	<i>External examinations (levels)</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Impact on curriculum implementation</i>
Australia	Yes, 12 (10 in one state)	Certification; entry to higher education	Creation of uniform curriculum; comparability in assessment
China	Yes, 5 or 6, 9, 10, 11,12	Promotion; entrance to university	Certification of proper assessment; to ensure curriculum is implemented to basic level of educational quality
Fiji	Yes, 6,8,10,12,13	Performance monitoring (elementary); promotion (secondary) and employment and higher education	For curriculum revision
France	Yes, 9, 12	Certification and higher education	Incentive for full coverage of curriculum content
Germany (Bavaria)	Yes, 10, 12	Certification and higher education	Considerable influence on curriculum
Japan	Yes, 3	Promotion for higher education	Review of implementation
Korea	Yes, 12	Entrance to university	Uniformity of curriculum; examination orientation
India	Yes, 10, 12	Certification of achievements; qualification	Basis for analysis of performance
Indonesia	None	—	—
Lao PDR	Yes, 5,8,11	Certification	Revise curriculum
Malaysia	Yes, 6, 9, 11	6, 9 – performance; 11 – certification	Review of implementation; uniform curriculum
New Zealand	Yes, 11, 13	Certification (along with internal assessment)	Achievement levels Informs school planning Review of curriculum
Philippines	Yes, 4, 6	Student achievement	Curriculum improvement
Sri Lanka	Yes, 5 (scholarship ex.), 11, 13	Certification	
Thailand	None		
USA	Yes, 3, 5, 6, (subject wise)	Assess performance	For curriculum implementation
Uzbekistan	Yes, 9, 12	Lower secondary for entrance and vocational education, upper secondary for higher education	Diagnosis of curriculum implementation
Vietnam	Yes, every level	For merit attainment certification	Under consideration to reorganize examinations

the local and system level. At the school level, the classroom observation is the most common means of evaluation. Classes may be observed by the head or a subject area specialist, a pedagogical adviser or educational supervisor from the district, province, or state education office. Staff meetings are mentioned as a means to monitor and evaluate the curriculum. Visits by inspectors or supervisors are common among the participating countries.

At the system level, national examinations are the most common means of monitoring and evaluating the curriculum. Inspection and supervision by education officers are conducted regularly. Feedback from surveys, reviews, and studies undertaken by national or regional agencies are gathered during the monitoring and evaluation of the curriculum. This feedback forms a part of the baseline data for curriculum improvement.

Curriculum Evaluation

Countries report a variety of strategies for curriculum evaluation such as analysis of curriculum documents with respect to policy statements; validation conferences with relevant stakeholders, consultations with teachers, and pilot studies in a few school settings.

Mechanisms used for curriculum evaluation

The participating countries reported a variety of mechanisms and major tools for curriculum evaluation. The most common are internal and external evaluations, pilot studies of curriculum programs prior to implementation, and research and reviews conducted by various agencies to look into the effectiveness and impact of curriculum implementation, through consultations with various stakeholders, administration of achievement tests to assess performance of students, reports from school inspectors, and government reviews.

Use of results of national curriculum evaluation

Results of national curriculum evaluations are mainly used to provide information for curriculum revision and improvement of standards; improve the quality of teaching and learning at the school and national levels; address pressures from political, social, and economic groups and ensure balance; and improve programs for the educationally disadvantaged.

Monitoring of Local Curriculum

None of the countries reported any fully locally controlled curriculum. However, in cases where there is a local curriculum, it is assumed that it is developed within the framework of the national or state curriculum. Implementation of such curriculum is monitored by concerned authorities (local school board/district/province/state).

Student Assessment for Curriculum Monitoring

Some countries use national achievement studies to evaluate the curriculum. Table 16 below shows the types of assessment, how often it is administered, and at what grade level.

Student assessment for curriculum development is a combination of school-based, national, and international tests. National tests are administered annually or periodically for selected levels (elementary, lower or upper secondary education). Most countries participate in international testing programmes.

Research and Development

Analysis of research and development projects over the last 10 years indicated that they focused on the effectiveness of the curriculum; student performance (proficiency in languages in France, India, and Lao PDR); mathematics and science (Japan, India, and Korea); effectiveness of teaching/learning ma-

TABLE 16. Student Assessment for Curriculum Monitoring			
<i>Country</i>	<i>Type</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Grade level</i>
Australia	International assessment (IEA) State-wide School based (continuous)	Every year	Years 3, 5 (7) in some states All levels
China	National assessment	Once in the last 10 years	Primary; upper secondary
Fiji	National assessment	Every 5 years	Grade 6, 7, 10, 12, 13
France	International and national tests	Every 2 years for Grade 3, 6 Every year for Grade 10	Grade 3, 6, 10 for all + sample for other grades
Germany (Bavaria)	National exams	Every year	Grade 10
India	National (NCERT) School boards	Varying period in 10 years	Grade 5, 8, 10, 12
Indonesia	Year-end, national	3 times a year for each grade	
Japan	National assessment	Every 10 years	Primary + lower secondary
Lao PDR	National, classroom/school visits, performance tests	Once in 2 years	Grade 1-3, 6
Malaysia	School based National assessment International assessment (IEA)	End of year Every year	All grades Grade 6, 9, 11
New Zealand	National, achievement, International assessment (IEA)	Every year	Year 4, 8
Philippines	National assessment	Every year	Grade 6, year 4
Republic of Korea	National SAT	Every year for 0.5% of	Grade 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11 for NL and Maths; 4,6,7,8, 10 for ST and SS; 7,8, 10,11 for English
Sri Lanka	N/A	N/A	N/A
Thailand	School based National (proposed)	Year-end, quarter-end Every 2 years	Grade 6, 9 12 Primary and secondary
United States (New York)	State-wide	Every year	Primary and secondary
Uzbekistan	School based continuous International assessment (ADB)	Every year	For all levels
Vietnam	National assessment School-based	Every year	From primary to upper secondary

terials such as studies on the use of textbooks (Sri Lanka and China); and studies on specific content areas such as reforms in vocational education (Uzbekistan); and action research on the teaching of ethnic language (Lao PDR); and choice of elective subjects (Malaysia).

Research is undertaken at the institutional, national, local, and international levels, and the findings are used to improve the curriculum.

Examples of research and studies can be found in Table 17.

Summary and Conclusion

This section provides a general summary of the trends that emerged from a consideration of the country reports. During the group and plenary discussions. This summary identifies general directions for curriculum policy and implementation being considered by many participating countries. The conclusions have been grouped under four headings that reflect the main sections of the country reports.

<i>Country</i>	<i>Research/Studies conducted</i>
Australia	Studies on literacy, mathematics, science, gender differences, vocational education, assessment, and outcomes education
China	Experiments on teaching materials; investigation of the implementation of nine-year curriculum
Fiji	N/A
France	Studies on several aspects of all subjects with focus on literacy and role of mathematics in selection of students
Germany	None
India	Studies on language, math, sciences, social science, work experiences, technical and vocational education, population education, values education, general curriculum
Indonesia	
Japan	Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)
Lao PDR	Action Research on Teaching of Lao Language to Children of Ethnic Minorities
Malaysia	Effectiveness of the Integrated Curriculum for Primary/Secondary Schools, Trends in Choice of Elective Subjects of Upper Secondary Students
New Zealand	Factors Affecting School Progress, Evaluation of Teacher Development Programs, National Monitoring Projects, Curriculum Implementation, Assessment Resource Bank
Philippines	Survey of Outcomes of Elementary Education, Impact Study of the Elementary Curriculum, Monitoring and Evaluation of New Secondary Education Curriculum Student Achievement in the New Secondary Education Curriculum, Responsiveness of the Teacher Education Curriculum to the Secondary Education Curriculum
Republic of Korea	Needs Analysis, Evaluation of Current Curriculum, International Comparative Studies on Curriculum Reforms
Sri Lanka	Studies on Textbooks, Teaching Effectiveness of Mother Tongue, Studies on the GCE Examinations
Thailand	Effectiveness of Primary School Curriculum, Implementation of the Secondary School Curriculum Thai Children Potentiality
United States	Not available
Uzbekistan	Study on Social and Economic Conditions for Education, Reforms in Vocational Education
Vietnam	Effectiveness of School Curriculum from Primary to Upper Secondary

Curriculum Policies

During the last decade various efforts have been made in each country to revamp their education systems. The following general trends were reported by many countries:

- There is an on-going commitment to curriculum policy review and development to meet the challenges of the changing technological, social, economic, political, national, and global environments. Curriculum policies of participating countries emphasized the goals of social cohesion, economic well-being, and personal development.
- Countries appear to be developing curriculum, qualifications, and schooling frameworks and structures that are able to respond effectively both to national and international exchanges and more local needs.
- Participating countries recognize the importance of developing curriculum frameworks that ensure the learning of core content while providing opportunities for greater choice of elective subjects.
- Participating countries recognize the importance of a holistic approach to the curriculum. This kind of approach emphasizes the balance between mental, emotional, physical, and spiritual dimensions. Countries also mentioned the need to include child-centered and activity-based learning and teaching approaches that foster creative thinking and problem-solving, and encourage self-directed learning.
- Curriculum policy development, and/or approval, is retained centrally in most countries. However, there exists a trend to consult a wide range of stakeholders in policy development, and to devolve decision making on implementation issues to the local level.

Curriculum Design

Every country has to make decisions regarding the overall approach to curriculum design as well as to the subject area that will be included in the school curriculum. The following general trends were reported by many countries.

A trend was identified to move from content-based to varying combinations of competency and content-based curriculum frameworks that ensure the acquisition of both knowledge and skills.

The curriculum frameworks are being modified to include a range of new subject areas. These may be either integrated into existing subjects such as additional foreign languages. A significant degree of continuity of subjects offered was observed between primary and lower secondary levels in countries.

The curriculum overload was perceived to result from a variety of reasons, including too much content, too many subject areas, and the inappropriate early introduction of some content. There was also reported pressure from the community, lobbyists, and politicians to include subjects to meet immediate and emerging needs.

Curriculum Implementation

Effective strategies for the implementation of curriculum policies are required to ensure that teachers are able to develop and teach according to the planned curriculum. The following general trends were reported by many countries:

- The provision of professional development to help teachers understand content and pedagogical changes is usually supported by central and state governments. Increasingly, however, teachers are expected to undertake professional development as an integral part of their professional role.
- The supply of textbooks at primary and lower secondary levels is generally gov-

ernment or state funded while supplementary material is often developed and distributed by both government and private sources. The use of information technology to disseminate curriculum information is increasing and the utilization of a wide variety of media is apparent.

- There is evidence of increasing flexibility in curriculum requirements to enable schools to make more decisions on the best way to implement curriculum policies and to take account of local circumstances and needs.
- The lack of quality curriculum resources, inadequate infrastructure and facilities, underqualified teachers, and the rate and extent of curriculum changes remain key implementation issues for many countries.
- In many countries, the priority is to enhance the capacity of teachers and schools to undertake on-going school-based assessment. There appear to be three main purposes for this focus: to enable schools to review more effectively learning and teaching programs; to monitor student

progress; and to provide internal components for public examination.

Curriculum Monitoring and Evaluation

There are a number of ways in which the national curriculum frameworks can be monitored and evaluated. The following general trends were reported by many countries:

- The range of strategies to monitor and evaluate the curriculum include participating in international surveys such as the Third International Mathematics and Science Survey; using examination results; conducting inspection and supervision; and using feedback from surveys, reviews, and studies. Only a small number of countries reported the use of systematic research to monitor the curriculum.
- They agree on the importance of continuous efforts to revise their curriculums to meet the challenges of the new age, and on the usefulness of international projects such as this study as a forum for sharing ideas.

Asian Experiences

Education Policy for the 21st Century

The dawn of a new century has inspired the call for education reform in many Asia-Pacific countries. Many people see the need to improve the education system in order to face the challenges posed by information technology, the global market economy, and “global competitiveness.”¹

Education reform requires close attention to inevitable social changes. What and how to learn in a changing situation are questions that require new answers. Those who find no need to revise the education curriculum and those who see the need for a better and “competitive” education must debate the issues with each other.

The ongoing discussions on education are healthy signs. They provide a critical review of education as both advancing society as well as hindering its progress. However, it is not clear how much they will actually influence education reform.

The Japanese government has been discussing education reform for a number of years now. A prime minister expressed the need for education reform as follows:

Distrust and concern are spreading across the nation concerning the education system, including school bullying and violence. Because of an escalation in competition over entrance examinations, we now face a dearth of creative talent. We have to reconsider the uniform education system that puts so much emphasis on absorbing facts.²

But the public does not necessarily share his views, as another report shows:

Unfortunately, not everyone agrees that reducing the pressure on Japan’s schoolchildren is either necessary or desirable. For ex-

ample, the new curriculum guidelines offer no solution to the problem of “examination hell.” Despite glimmers of hope on the horizon, society here remains intransigent in insisting that academic achievement is of greater consequence than individual ability. In a recent survey by a vernacular newspaper, nearly three fourths of the adult respondents expressed dissatisfaction with the education provided by the nation’s schools, the highest figure since the first of such poll in 1984. Far from calling for any easing up, nearly 70 percent approved of elementary and junior high school students spending extra hours at cram schools in order to be able to pass entrance examinations.³

Two phenomena are cited as consequences of the current education system:

- Discouragement of those who cannot keep up with college classes. Professors are voicing concerns over the lack of “spirit” among a growing number of students.
- Polarization of students into those who study hard and those who do not. This could exacerbate inequality in the education system, which essentially aims at providing equal opportunities to all students.⁴

In Thailand it is reported that

...there’s an effort to lessen rote-learning in favour of “authentic learning”—a concept that gives students hands-on experience to

help them think for themselves. This is ground-breaking in a country where teachers traditionally dictate and students obey. “In Thailand, students learn strictly by remembering from teachers and textbooks. But students get quickly bored and, in the end, are lacking in reasoning skills,” says Kamol Sudprasert, principal adviser to the initiative. “At Ban Non Chan, we are making the curriculum more sensitive to the human-resource needs of the local community and of the students.”⁵

Ban Non Chan, a small village in northern Kamphaeng Phet province, provides an example of school autonomy:

[F]or the first time, the villagers have been given a say in what and how their children are taught. A committee of teachers, administrators, village leaders and parents are discussing ways to ensure students learn skills that are in demand in the local economy, such as through more vocational classes and training in agricultural technology.⁶

The prototype curriculum and administration of Ban Non Chan School may now be tried in other parts of the country.

The 1995 Education Law of the People’s Republic of China states that education is the “basis of socialist modernization, and the State shall ensure priority to the development of education undertakings. The whole society should be concerned with and support the development of educational undertakings” (Article 4). It is further provided that the “State and society shall establish and develop education facilities for minors to receive after school education. Schools and other educational institutions shall coordinate with grassroots autonomous organizations of a mass character, [business] institutions, public organizations and other social organizations to strengthen after school education” (Article 52).

An earlier law (Compulsory Education of 1986) provides that the “State, the community, schools and families shall, in accordance with the law, safeguard the right to compulsory education of school-age children and adolescents” (Article 4).

As reported by Li Zhang, education laws in China require schools to include in their curriculums legal education, which is equated with human rights education.

More and more people in China are calling for quality education to help children develop holistically. Getting the government to work with communities, schools, and families on education matters is thus crucial in raising the quality of education.

The 1986 National Education Policy law of India emphasizes the removal of disparities and equalization of education opportunities.⁷ One provision states the following:

To promote equality, it will be necessary to provide for equal opportunity to all not only in access, but also in conditions for success. Besides, awareness of the inherent equality of all will be created through a core curriculum. The purpose is to remove prejudices and complexes transmitted through the social environment and the accident of birth (Section 3.6).

The National Education Policy law includes “education for equality” provisions by focusing on women’s equality, and education for scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, and other disadvantaged sectors such as minorities and the handicapped. On values education, the law provides the following:

In our culturally plural society, education should foster universal and eternal values, oriented towards the unity and integration of our people. Such value education should help eliminate obscurantism, religious fanaticism, violence, superstition and fatalism (Section 8.5).

The usual gap between the literacy rates in urban and rural areas can be seen in India as in any other developing country. One report describes a situation in remote rural schools as follows:

The lessons are fixed and any child who craves some flexibility in the routine is penalised. Corporal punishment is the norm. There is no rapport between the teacher and the children or the community. But then the system doesn't give much freedom to the teachers either.⁸

The observation significantly raises the problem of the teachers. They may have the will to change the situation, but the education system may be working against them.

Education reform consists mainly of adoption of new education thinking. Traditional education systems are considered unable to respond to current societal conditions. But despite considerable efforts, reform may not be achieved after all. A report describing how the education system has largely remained the same despite years of advocacy for change suggests what current efforts will lead to:

Just as we once did, our kids spend most of their time in school with children of their own age. Most high school instruction is still divided into 45- or 50-minute periods. Students still have very little to say about what they will do and how they will learn. Good behavior or meritorious academic performance, as determined unilaterally by adults, is still rewarded; deviations are still punished. Grades are still handed out, award assemblies are still held. Students are still "tracked," particularly in the higher grades, so that some take honors and advanced placement courses while others get "basic" this and "remedial" that. Kids may be permitted to learn in groups periodically, but at the end of the day, eyes still must be kept on one's own paper. In-

deed, even from a purely physical standpoint, schools today look much like they did decades ago.⁹

Will there be changes in the education system beyond legal and policy pronouncements? The answer is most likely a yes. But the real questions are: What will the changes be? How much will the system change?

These are important questions from the perspective of human rights education in schools. The introduction of human rights education is one form of change. But whether or not human rights education will figure prominently in the change is not certain. Some governments declare the importance of learning human rights. But many governments believe that since human rights are already taught in schools (through such subjects as civics, moral education, law), not much change is needed. Consequently, the question is: What form will human rights education take?

A look at some of the key issues in education vis-à-vis government policy will shed some light on this question.

Textbook Development

School textbooks are normally subject to government regulation. Some observers criticize government policies regarding textbook development. In Japan, for example, textbook writers and publishers complain about the way the education ministry screens textbooks (see table).¹⁰

There is a difference between instructions and suggestions issued by the Ministry of Education. "Instruction" has binding force, while "suggestion" does not. "Ministry officials said that publishers have the freedom to decide whether to adhere to the suggestions because, as the ministry's opinions, they are non-binding" according to another report. But it said that "The Yokohama District Court ruled in April last year [1998] that some suggestions

Examples of Screening of Primary School Social Studies Textbooks			
	<i>Prescreening description</i>	<i>Ministry's view</i>	<i>Post-screening description</i>
National flag and anthem	In the Olympic games, the national flags of the winners' countries are raised above the podium and their national anthems are played in many cases.	Instruction The description about the national anthems is insufficient.	In the ceremonies, the national flags of the winners' countries are raised and their national anthems played in many cases. When a Japanese athlete wins, the Hinomaru (national flag) is raised and "Kimigayo" (the national anthem) played.
	The countries of the world respect each other's national flags and anthems as symbolizing their nations.	Suggestion It would be more desirable if this sentence included a phrase to the effect that the countries respect their own national flags and anthems as well.	The countries of the world respect not only their own national flags and anthems, but also other countries' national flags and anthems.
Comfort women	Young (Korean) women were also sent to factories and warring areas.	Instruction This description is difficult to understand and not clear. So please manage to find better expressions. Descriptions, even in indirect references about comfort women, should be avoided.	Young (Korean) women were also forced to work in factories.
War reparations	New problems have emerged (between Japan and South Korea) concerning war reparations.	Instruction The issue of war reparations has been settled between the two countries. Please take into consideration that now the issue is compensation demands based on individuals' right to make such demands.	The issue of Japan's war reparations to South Korea has been settled between the two nations. Recently, some people in South Korea have launched a move to demand compensation.
Global warming	If the level of carbon dioxide increases further, the temperature will rise, melting polar ice and changing global environment drastically.	Instruction The cause-and-effect relationship between the increase in the carbon dioxide and the rise in temperature and melting of polar ice is too definitely described, in light of various academic theories. Please manage to find a more appropriate description	It is said that if the level of carbon dioxide increases, it will change our living environment drastically, for instance, by pushing up the temperature gradually.
Ainu	The Ainu were forced to change their names to Japanese ones, for example. In response they stood up to demand that the government eliminate discrimination against them. They continue this effort even now.	Instruction The law to preserve Ainu culture and to guarantee their human rights has recently been passed. Taking this into consideration, the sentence should be revised so that it will not cause misunderstanding.	The Ainu were forced to change their names to Japanese ones, for example.

constituted government rules, not personal thoughts of screeners, as the government maintained.”¹¹

In improving the textbook screening process, a new guideline is proposed that requires a more transparent system and recognition of the need to create diverse and interesting textbooks that will nurture the “children’s abilities to interpret information and think for themselves.”

Another aspect of textbook development is presented in a case in the Philippines:¹²

In a review of elementary school basic readers used in Cebu Central School and the other public elementary schools in Cebu, women were overwhelmingly portrayed in the traditional roles of mother and housekeeper. Men were pictured as the breadwinners, involved in a multitude of jobs: engineers, taxi drivers, farmers, businessmen, doctors, scientists, soldiers, mechanics, and fishermen.

The “feature story” of the second grade teacher reader begins:

Mother works for the family.
 She goes to the market.
 She cooks the food.
 She cleans the house.
 Mother is very busy.
 She washes the clothes.
 She takes care of the baby.
 She takes care of the other children.
 Mother takes care of Father and Children.

The story then asks, “Does your mother work? What does she do?” To help the children respond six pictures of working women are presented including a secretary, teacher, seamstress, nurse, cook, and beautician.

In the third grade reader, “Mr. Virgilio Roman” is introduced as the head of the family and the breadwinner. Mrs. Roman supplements the family income as a secretary; the household chores are shared by her and a maid. A son, Lito, is shown helping his

mother and father sweep the yard, water the plants, feed the pets, and play with the younger children. Mila, a daughter, helps her mother clean the house, wipe the chairs and the table, and care for the babies. She also sets the table and washes the dishes.

These examples are representative of the role images in basic readers at Cebu Central School. Women are presented as homemakers and, secondarily, as participants in occupations outside the home. Even when the women have jobs, they are shown to have the principal responsibility for the family and the house. Women are portrayed as engaged in “women’s occupations,” such as teacher, nurse, and secretary. Boys have as many chores as girls at home but their jobs are portrayed as more adventurous and varied. Mothers are presented as lovely, calm, weak, feminine, nurturing, and passive, whereas fathers are active, dominant, strong, and intelligent. These images correspond to the self-images of men and women. By the time Filipino children finish elementary education, there are differences in the expectations and aspirations of boys and girls for their future roles. “Femaleness” is seen as synonymous with “domesticity,” while “masculinity” is associated with activities outside the home.

The report was made in 1982. Since then, the government has adopted many new policies on women, and new efforts are being launched to review school textbooks from the perspective of equality for women. But the realities of the education system may pose problems. Zenaida Reyes contends that “[T]he teacher must take note of gendered construction of reality in teaching and in the learning environment.” The gender-typing issue exemplified by the school textbook case in Cebu is linked to the fact that while there are more women in the education system, they do not necessarily address gender typing, nor do they occupy positions of authority to make proper changes in the system. One report says that

“men outnumber women in educational system’s top-level executive positions.” This is explained thus:

In the school year 1993-1994, women comprised 86.3 percent of all teachers in elementary schools, and 58 percent in colleges and universities. Over the years, women have come to gain more second level positions in the public educational system: 51.9 percent of public elementary schools principals in 1993 were females as were 57.3 percent of school division superintendents. But women have yet to gain higher level positions in significant numbers. Of the 83 state university and college presidents in 1993, only 15.7 percent were women, and of some 28 Regional and Assistant Regional Directors of the Department of Education, Culture and Sports, less than a third or only 28.7 percent were women.

Moreover, the highest DECS [Department of Education, Culture and Sports] official has always been a male except in 1986-1989 when a woman Secretary was appointed to the Department.¹³

A study of the key positions in the education system reveals the following statistics:¹⁴

How has education contributed to the perpetuation of gender typing? While the above figures are based on a 1995 survey, there is no indication of significant change since then.

The Japanese and Philippine cases show that education policy has to clearly set principles that will guide not only the education officials but also schools, parents, and society in general. Human rights education in schools will not prosper if education policy does not expect curriculums to deal with human rights, if subjects and materials do not incorporate human rights principles, and if school administrations do not respect human rights.

Some countries’ education policies probably contain provisions that support the development of human rights education in schools. The question is how to best use them to develop human rights education programs.

Trends in Education Reform

Education reform initiatives in several countries in the region emphasize a number of themes:

- **Autonomy.** Schools are now seen as capable of developing curriculums that can be adapted more effectively to the situation of their community. Education ministries can, in turn, provide guidelines as well as technical support to the schools.

Level	Total	Female (%)	Male (%)
1. President of state colleges and universities	83	15.7	84.3
2. Regional directors / assistant regional directors	28	28.6	71.4
3. School division superintendents	124	57.4	42.7
4. Assistant school superintendents	158	63.9	36.1
5. Public school district supervisors	1,090	56.8	43.2
6. Public elementary school principals	5,309	51.9	48.1
7. Division office personnel	11,230	37.5	62.5
8. Regional Office Personnel	1,732	57.4	42.6
9. Elementary-school head teachers	4,710	48.6	51.4
10. Elementary-school teachers	268,830	86.3	13.7
11. High-school teachers*	—	85.0	15.0
12. College or university teachers*	—	58.0	42.0

*Estimates

Source: Department of Education, Culture and Sports.

- Individuality. Students need to develop their creativity and critical thinking in order to cope with an increasingly competitive and knowledge-based society.
- School-society relationship. Since the schools alone cannot provide relevant education, they need the support of society.
- Productivity. Education is needed to be able to face the challenges of fulfilling the needs of society. Students have to learn how to maintain or increase productivity in view of changing technology and people's needs.

Integrating human rights principles into education reform is therefore not just desirable but a necessity. New perspectives on education do not detract from the main goals of education reform or from human rights principles. But the process of adopting human rights principles must be part of the education policy. And the process must continue through the years with the goal of finding the best means of promoting human rights.

Notes

1. The Philippine government education policy during the term of President Fidel V. Ramos (1992-1998), dubbed "Education 2000," had two "linchpin goals": people empowerment and global competitiveness. For comments on this policy see Bienvenido F. Nebres, S.J., "Education 2000—Comments and Recommendations," *INTERSECT*, Quezon City, June 1994.

2. Toshimichi Hironaka, "Changing education means fiddling with pillar of nation," *The Daily Yomiuri*, 27 March 1999.

3. "Easing the schoolchild's burden," Editorial, *The Daily Yomiuri*, 28 June 1998. A news report from China shows the same dilemma. While some advocate decreasing the burden of students by easing entrance examination requirements, parents are worried that doing so will mean that their children will be inadequately prepared for the job market. "Exam system hampers students," *China Daily*, 1 March 2000. See *Schools, Human Rights and Society—Report of the 1998 Asian Workshops on Human Rights Education in Schools* (HURIGHTS

OSAKA, 1999) for an Asia-wide observation of the problems caused by competitive education system on the right of children to appropriate education.

4. Hironaka, op. cit. The education ministry conducted a survey in January 1998 on the extent of improvement in middle schools' counseling on selecting high schools. It questioned the staff of 50 middle schools across the country as well as the students, their parents, and graduates of the previous year. They were asked whether they now give more consideration to students' individuality and wishes in guidance counseling. 87.2 percent said they agreed totally or to some extent. 95 percent said that the initiative in deciding on high schools had been transferred from teachers to the students. "In contrast, when the survey asked middle school students what they referred to when selecting high school, school test grades and records were chosen by 41.9 percent, reflecting the fact that most high schools place importance on reviewing candidates' middle school records. Results of examinations taken outside school followed with 22.2 percent, showing students still rely on such grades" ("Students still pick schools for results," *The Daily Yomiuri*, 27 March 1999).

5. Shawn W. Crispin, "Independent Thinking," *Far Eastern Economic Review*, 8 October 1998.

6. Ibid.

7. Quoted from *Human Rights—A Source Book* (New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1996).

8. "Dregs of Destiny," *Outlook* 4 (41): 68.

9. Alfie Kohn, "Reading, Writing, 'Rithmetic and Rote," *The Washington Post*, 15 October 1999, reprinted in *The Daily Yomiuri*.

10. "Government screening of textbooks remains rigid," *The Daily Yomiuri*, 29 June 1999.

11. Yukiko Furusawa, "System stifles authors' creativity," *The Daily Yomiuri*, 29 June 1999.

12. Clark D. Neher, "Sex Roles in the Philippines: The Ambiguous Cebuana," in Penny Van Esterik (ed.), *Women of Southeast Asia*, Occasional Paper No. 9, 1982, Center for Southeast Asian Studies, Northern Illinois University, pages 161-7.

13. *Filipino Women—Issues and Trends* (Manila: National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women and the Asian Development Bank 1995), pp. 51-2.

14. Ibid., p. 52.

Appendices

The Seoul Declaration

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SUBREGIONAL
TRAINING WORKSHOP ON HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION IN NORTHEAST ASIA,
HELD IN SEOUL, REPUBLIC OF KOREA, 1-4 DECEMBER 1999

The participants of the Subregional Training Workshop on Human Rights Education in Northeast Asia, including education policymakers, officers responsible for teacher-training institutions and for education faculties of universities, materials, and curriculum developers, and members of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and other national institutions and organizations active in the area of human rights education in schools from China, Japan, Mongolia, and Republic of Korea,

CONSIDERING THAT

The United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004), proclaimed in accordance with the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action (1993), has provided governments, international organizations, NGOs, professional associations, and all other sectors of civil society with a common strategy in worldwide efforts for human rights education, training, and public information;

The Framework for Regional Technical Cooperation adopted by consensus in the Sixth Workshop on Regional Arrangements for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights in the Asian and Pacific Region (Teheran 1998), and reaffirmed in the 1999 New Delhi Workshop, identified human rights education as one of the four key priorities for regional cooperation;

Human rights education in the formal education system, in conjunction with non-formal human rights education, is an important part of an overall national human rights educational strategy;

During the past two years, various human rights education partners have been discussing ways and means to advance human rights

education within the Asia-Pacific region, including the UNESCO-sponsored Asia and Pacific Conference on Education for Human Rights in Asia and the Pacific (Pune, India, February 1999), which gathered representatives of governments, national institutions, NGOs, and individual experts from approximately 20 countries;

Various countries in the Asia-Pacific region have undertaken significant steps toward the incorporation of human rights education in the school system, providing a wealth of experience on the development of teaching materials, methodologies, and curricular and extra-curricular activities;

MET IN ORDER TO

Share experiences and lessons learnt from the region; discuss challenges, opportunities, and obstacles in pursuing human rights education programs in Northeast Asian schools; compare methodologies; and explore various courses of action needed in order to develop and/or strengthen such programs,

AND AGREED ON THE FOLLOWING
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS:

CONCLUSIONS

In view of the changing social, political, and economic conditions brought about by democratization and development of economies in the subregion, there is a growing interest and a conducive environment for human rights education in schools

While there are different country specificities, the need for and commitment to human rights education are equally recognized

In the subregion there is a common understanding that human rights education in schools is based on universally accepted human rights standards and relevant national education policies and legislation. Human rights education—an effective tool to prevent human rights violations—should be understood to cover the whole range of civil, cultural, economic, political, and social rights; the right to development; as well as those of vulnerable groups. Related responsibilities are equally emphasized.

In addition, there is a consensus on the fact that those norms should be made relevant to the daily lives of the learners.

Participatory and learner-centered methodologies are considered effective for human rights education programs.

Human rights education programs in schools are developed and implemented through the efforts of various institutions and individuals (Ministries of Education, local authorities, universities, research institutes, teachers, students and parents, NGOs, etc.), who constitute the stakeholders of human rights education.

Human rights education programs in schools are developed in consideration of different cultural contexts and stages of development of the country. In this light, traditional values and beliefs which are related to the protection and the promotion of human rights can be employed in developing human rights education programs.

Planned education development and reform in the subregion provides the appropriate en-

vironment for the development and adoption of human rights education programs within the formal education system.

Regional training centres such as the Asia-Pacific Regional Centre of Education for International Understanding (associate centre of UNESCO) provide opportunities for training educators in human rights.

1. Training of teachers and other education personnel

- Teachers' education institutions do not provide separate courses in human rights and human rights education methodologies. Those topics are usually integrated in other courses (social sciences, for example), but not in a systematic or adequate manner.
- In-service human rights training for teachers is likewise sporadic and inadequate.
- While there is quite a range of materials for use in the classrooms, training materials for teachers are highly insufficient.

2. Curriculum development and extracurricular activities

- Human rights are not systematically covered in existing curriculums, even though all countries have developed some human rights education materials.
- Human rights do not constitute a separate subject, but are generally integrated into specific subjects (social studies, civics, history, legal education, moral education, etc.). In this context, however, human rights are not sufficiently dealt with.
- Extracurricular activities are an important contribution to making human rights education a living experience.

3. Policy issues

- Human rights are generally supported by national legislation which provides a basis for human rights education. However, this legislation lacks specific details to sys-

tematically implement human rights education programs in schools.

- Government financial allocation for human rights education is not adequate.
- Some countries have adopted a decentralized system of education which allows schools to develop their own human rights education programs.

4. Human rights education in the classroom

- Multi-method programs—including use of videos, dramatization, games, street theater, role plays, music, art/drawing, television—enhance teaching of human rights in the classroom.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FOLLOW-UP

Human rights education should be consistent with the principles and articles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child in order to promote children's well-being and best interests and to protect them from any risk of abuse.

Adequate financial allocation should be made for human rights education programs at the international, regional, and national levels.

Cooperation at the international, regional, and national levels should be enhanced, in the form of workshops, bilateral exchanges, surveys, teacher-training exchange, educators' networks and information sharing to enhance, among others, common understanding of human rights education.

The meaningful involvement of NGOs at all levels in the design, implementation, and evaluation of human rights education activities should be enhanced to maximize the use of their experience, and cooperation between governmental and nongovernmental players should be improved in an atmosphere of mutual respect and understanding.

Parents should be fully involved in human rights education programs in schools, both as learners and as educators.

Research in all aspects of human rights education in schools should be undertaken. Education research institutions should be established or strengthened.

The implementation of all recommendations should constitute part of a comprehensive (in terms of outreach), effective (in terms of educational strategies), and sustainable (over the long term) national strategy under a national action plan for human rights education, in accordance with the United Nations Guidelines for National Plans of Action for Human Rights Education.

The midterm review of progress made at the international, regional, national, and local levels toward achieving the objectives of the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004), envisaged for the year 2000, should include existing initiatives in the subregion and should give impetus to human rights education programs in schools.

The Seoul Workshop results should be brought to the attention of the participants in the Inter-Sessional Workshop on National Plans of Action for Human Rights Education in the Asia-Pacific Region which will be held in Japan at the beginning of the year 2000.

Governments in the subregion are urged to consider the assistance in the development and implementation of human rights education programs available under the United Nations Technical Cooperation Programme in the Field of Human Rights, administered by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights.

Participants and observers should disseminate through their networks the results of the workshop, which could be useful to partners in other countries willing to engage in similar efforts.

1. Training of teachers and other education personnel

- Teacher training should aim at increasing knowledge on human rights, developing skills in the use of participatory and cre-

ative methodologies, and enhancing motivation to teach human rights.

- Appropriate and adequate pre- and in-service human rights curriculums and user-friendly material for teachers should be developed.
- Human rights training programs should include human rights issues related to the teachers and to the family life of the students.
- In view of their multiplier effect, train-the-trainers courses should be organized.
- In-service training should be compulsory and be given credit, where appropriate, and should be provided at basic, intermediate, and advanced levels in order to meet the different needs of the teachers.
- Teacher-training institutes and/or training courses on human rights education should be established.

2. Curriculum development and extracurricular activities

- Curriculum development should be an all-inclusive process involving teachers, human rights experts, educationalists, parents, students, representatives of NGOs, school governance, etc.
- Curriculum development should be an on-going process subject to piloting, review, evaluation, and revision.
- Human rights education should be infused into all levels of education.
- Extracurricular activities should be organized within and for the benefit of the

community and the family. They could include field visits, interaction programs with other schools, camps, festivals, etc.

3. Policy issues

- Appropriate laws and regulations which support human rights education in schools should be enacted which, among others, allow flexibility in the development of human rights education programs.

4. Human rights education in the classroom

- Teachers should be aware of the background of their students and need to develop a trusting relationship with them in order to be effective. The question of the power relationship between teachers and students should be addressed.
- Classroom/school management should ensure that a human rights culture prevails in the classroom/school in support of human rights education.
- Classroom human rights educational materials should be user-friendly.
- United Nations agencies should provide adequate assistance to states in the compilation of “best practices” in teaching methodologies.
- A catalogue of appropriate creative methodologies for use in the classroom should be produced in cooperation with NGOs, research centers and relevant specialists, and widely disseminated to teachers.

The Pune Declaration on Education for Human Rights in Asia and the Pacific

ADOPTED BY THE ASIA AND PACIFIC REGIONAL CONFERENCE
ON EDUCATION FOR HUMAN RIGHTS
PUNE, INDIA, 3-6 FEBRUARY 1999

The participants of the Asia and Pacific Regional Conference on Education for Human Rights, organized in Pune, India, by the World Peace Centre of MAEER's MIT (Pune), National Human Rights Commission of India, and the Indian National Commission for Co-operation with UNESCO, at the initiative and with the support of UNESCO to commemorate the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004), discussed the status of education for human rights and the obstacles and special needs for its promotion in the region.

The Conference notes that the Asia and Pacific region

- is characterized by significant social, political and cultural diversity and varying levels of economic development;
- suffers in large parts from extreme poverty and illiteracy;
- is experiencing the adverse impact of globalization processes, especially in the economic and cultural fields, in many cases detrimental to human rights;
- suffers from the prevalence of different societal maladies such as child labor, sexual exploitation of women and children, gender inequality, contemporary forms of slavery, discrimination of persons belonging to national or ethnic or religious or linguistic minority groups, exclusion based on social status, deprived and disadvantaged communities, and other grounds which seriously impede the promotion of human rights;
- is disturbed by the sufferings of innocent people as a result of acts of terrorism, armed conflicts and abuse of power;

- is experiencing serious degradation of the environment affecting the quality of life of the people and threatening the very survival of humanity.

The Conference reaffirms that education is a basic right and an essential precondition for the implementation of all human rights for all.

Further, the participants of the Asia-Pacific Regional Conference feel that a comprehensive, integrated and holistic approach is called for, to popularize education for human rights from school level to graduate and post-graduate levels. A similar effort is also called for to bring about attitudinal changes to accept the value of human rights education as an important component of self-development. This ultimately results in creating the awareness rights from the childhood. Elementary education shall be free and compulsory. Education shall be directed, in conformity with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, to the full development of human personality and the strengthening of respect for human rights. It should enable the society to address civil, so-

cial, political, economic, and cultural problems preventing enjoyment of human rights, to improve the quality of life of the people, and to resolve conflicts through peaceful means.

The conference notes the efforts of the inter-governmental and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), national human rights institutions, educational community, and other segments of the civil society to promote education for human rights.

The conference is concerned that only very few states in the region have adopted national plans in conformity with the Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004).

The conference further notes that, though no formal regional mechanism has been set up in the Asia and Pacific to address human rights issues, other regional arrangements exist through the association and joint efforts of national human rights institutions as well as NGOs for the promotion of human rights education at the regional level.

Further, the conference reaffirms all human rights—civil, social, political, economic, cultural—are universal, interrelated, indivisible, and interdependent and should be treated on the same footing and with the same emphasis.

Aims and Objectives

The principal aims of education for human rights are:

- to strengthen respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- to develop fully the human personality and the sense of its dignity;
- to develop attitudes and behavior to promote respect for the rights of others;
- to ensure genuine gender equality and equal opportunities for women in all spheres;
- to promote understanding and tolerance among diverse national, ethnic, religious, linguistic, and other groups;

- to empower people to participate actively in the life of a free society;
- to promote democracy, development, social justice, communal harmony, solidarity, and friendship among nations;
- to further the activities of the UN system, in particular UNESCO, the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, and UNICEF, aimed at the creation of a culture of peace based upon universal values of human rights, international understanding, tolerance and non-violence.

Contents of Education for Human Rights

Education for human rights should be aimed at full enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms and for that purpose have regard to the following:

- All human rights are universal, indivisible, interrelated and interdependent, and all are essential for the full development of human personality;
- While regional and national particularities are to be borne in mind, it is the duty of states, regardless of their political, civil, economic, and cultural systems, to promote and protect all human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- Universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms contribute to stability, security and well-being, necessary for socioeconomic development;
- Human rights, democracy, peace, and development are interdependent and mutually reinforcing;
- Rights of women and girl-children are an inalienable, integral, and indivisible part of universal human rights;
- Human rights education should be aimed at the full and equal participation of women in political, economic, social, and cultural life. Awareness toward prevention of gender-based violence, sexual harass-

ment, and exploitation should be component of education programs;

- Promotion and protection of the rights of the child are a priority and require dissemination of knowledge of relevant standards. Special efforts are needed to eradicate child labor, child prostitution, and child pornography;
- Special attention should be paid to the rights of persons belonging to various vulnerable groups—national or ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities, indigenous people, refugees and internally displaced persons, migrant workers, persons with HIV/AIDS and other health problems, disabled, and the elderly;
- Special attention should be also given to the mobilization of the public opinion against major threats and challenges to human rights such as terrorism, organized crime, corruption, trafficking of human beings for exploitative purposes, drug trafficking, violence, etc.

Education for human rights should be multidisciplinary and should include the following:

- Knowledge of internationally recognized human rights standards enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, international covenants, international conventions, declarations and protocols, and international procedures and mechanism, for human rights protection as well as norms of international humanitarian law;
- Knowledge of national laws and procedures related to human rights;
- Skills necessary for the application of these standards and procedures in everyday life;
- Behavioral patterns based upon vigilance against violations of human rights wherever they occur;
- Knowledge of social realities and impact of globalization process.

Education in and for human rights should also be aimed at the elimination of prejudices

and negative stereotypes which, in many cases, become the source of discrimination, hatred, and violence. These concerns should be reflected in manuals, textbooks, and other educational materials.

Programs for education for human rights should be developed in accordance with the Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004), the UNESCO World Plan of Action on Education for Human Rights and Democracy (Montreal, 1993), and the Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy (Paris, 1995).

The conference stresses that education for human rights is, by itself, a human right.

It further underlines that it is the duty of the State to take all necessary measures to ensure the realization of this right.

Educational Methods, Teaching Aids, and Training Programs

Appropriate methodologies and materials for the teaching of human rights should be developed in full conformity with the human rights principles and standards.

Special attention should be given to the elaboration of educational materials suitable for formal and informal settings, and adapted to the needs and demands of various target groups. Such materials should be made available in various national and local languages, in different forms, and in sufficient number. Bearing in mind the special characteristics of the region and prevailing high level of illiteracy, innovative audio-visual programs should be prepared. An effort should also be made to reach the population especially in the remote and rural areas.

Environmental education is an essential part of education for human rights.

Participatory methodology for the teaching of human rights which takes into account the involvement of the target groups in the learning process should be adopted.

Further, special attention should be given to the training of the following:

- trainers who will ensure a multiplier effort in the promotion of human rights education;
- educators and other professionals involved in formal and informal education programs;
- journalists and other media professionals.

Emphasis should be given to the elaboration and dissemination of human rights training programs designed for professionals having special responsibilities related to the protection and implementation of human rights, in particular security, army, police, prison, immigration, and other government personnel and public functionaries at different levels, as well as medical doctors, other health professionals, and scientists engaged in biological research.

Players

The conference is convinced that the achievement of the goals of education for human rights can be ensured only through active cooperation and participation of all those who have the duty and obligation to promote and protect human rights. Parliamentarians and other elected representatives of the people at different levels, organs of state, educational and research institutes, national human rights institutions, NGOs, the mass media and, in fact, every segment of civil society have a very important role to play in promoting education for human rights.

The family is crucial for the education of children in the spirit of human rights.

National human rights institutions, NGOs and their regional associations have a very important role to play in the implementation of national and regional plans and strategies in the field of education for human rights.

Technical assistance and support of the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, UNESCO, and other organiza-

tions and bodies in the UN system have an important role to play in the development and implementation of national plans for education for human rights.

The mass media have a positive and a constructive role to play in the promotion of human rights. It should include dissemination of information on human rights issues, including information on violation of human rights and problems that demand urgent intervention. In addition, they should highlight the successful work and positive experiences accumulated by the governmental and nongovernmental players at national, regional, and international levels.

Private foundations, private enterprises, and associations of business and industry should be encouraged to contribute to the promotion of human rights.

Recommendations

With a view to accelerating the process of promoting education for human rights, the Asia and Pacific Regional Conference on Education for Human Rights adopted the following recommendations:

- I. Appeals to the states in the Asia and Pacific region
 - 1) To provide free and compulsory primary education for all children.
 - 2) To strictly observe the provisions of human rights instruments, and to become parties to human rights treaties if they have not yet done so.
 - 3) To disseminate the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other human rights standard-setting instruments as widely as possible in national and local languages.
 - 4) To establish, if they have not already done so, national human rights institutions in accordance with the Paris Principles (1991) and to ensure adequate procedural safeguards for their functioning in a truly independent manner.

- 5) To adopt, if they have not yet done so, National Plans in accordance with the aims of the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004) and take urgent measures for their implementation.
 - 6) To allocate sufficient resources to satisfy the needs related to the promotion of education for human rights.
 - 7) To draw up and implement sensitization and educational programmes for public functionaries in order to ensure respect for human rights for all.
 - 8) To draw up training programmes designed for professionals having special responsibilities related to the promotion and implementation of human rights in particular the army, security forces, police, prison, immigration and other government personnel at different levels, especially in areas of armed conflicts.
 - 9) To ensure that judicial processes are so organized to make them easily accessible, simple and sensitive to human rights concerns.
 - 10) To ensure that ministries of education and educational authorities at various levels accelerate their efforts to formulate appropriate syllabi for the teaching of human rights; to develop teaching aids for various target groups for an easy understanding of human rights; and to evolve and implement training programmes for teachers.
 - 11) To take measures in order to protect human rights activists and human rights defenders in full conformity with the Declaration on the Rights and Responsibilities of Individuals, Groups and Organs of Society to Promote and Protect Universally Recognized Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms adopted on 10 December 1998, the day of the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
 - 12) To create cells for education for human rights which shall be responsible for promoting and consolidating education for human rights. They shall plan the introduction of education for human rights at all stages of school, college, and university curriculums. They shall also elaborate and implement programs for nonformal education for large segments of society who are outside the ambit of formal education. They shall prepare teaching and training materials in the form of books, audio-visual aids, etc. covering the entire spectrum of education for human rights. They shall also promote short-term courses, seminars, workshops, and various other forms of training activities including summer and winter schools. Further, field work and experiential learning in the field of education for human rights shall be encouraged.
- II. Request selected representatives, Parliamentarians, and other elected representatives of the people actively support the promotion and protection of human rights and human rights education through appropriate actions within and outside the legislature.
- III. Urges NGOs working in the area of human rights to contribute to the effective implementation of human rights education programs and national plans of action.
- IV. Invites mass media to increase their contribution to the enhancement of awareness of human rights, sensitization of the general public on violation of human rights and threats to human rights, and formation of public opinion on human rights issues.
- V. Demands national human rights institutions, individually and jointly, through their regional forum in Asia and the Pacific, to support the efforts of governments, academic in-

stitutions, NGOs, and other players for the implementation of the national programs in line with the aims of the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004).

VI. Requests UNESCO Chairs, Associated Schools, Clubs, and Associations in the region, to contribute actively in implementing activities in the field of education for human rights.

VII. Invite United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, UNESCO, and other agencies and bodies within the UN system, as well as other interested intergovernmental organizations, to provide technical assistance and support in the development and implementation of national programs for education for human rights.

The conference also recommends that in order to have an on-going exchange of experience in the Asia and Pacific region on education for human rights, a regional network with a focal point should be created. It should ensure development and exchange of curriculums, training methodologies, technical support materials, student/faculty exchange programs, field visits, etc.

The conference stresses that human rights in their wake cast equally important responsibilities and duties on all individuals, society, and the state toward everyone. As Mahatma Gandhi, a great humanitarian, a champion of human rights, and a messenger of peace said: "Begin with duties of a man and rights will follow as spring follows winter." Rights and responsibilities go together. This also should form part of education for human rights.

Asia and Pacific Regional Framework for Action: Education for All

GUIDING PRINCIPLES, SPECIFIC GOALS AND TARGETS FOR 2015¹

During the Asia Pacific Conference on Education for All 2000 Assessment, held on 17-20 January 2000, the Regional Drafting Committee produced the Draft Outline of the Asia and Pacific Regional Framework for Action: Education for All. The Draft Outline document drew on the following information:

- the Draft Dakar Framework for Action, Preliminary Discussion Document, 5/11/99;
- the Asia-Pacific Region Draft Synthesis Report;
- the four Sub-Regional Draft Synthesis Reports; and
- points raised during the Plenary sessions on 17-20 January and the Sub-Regional Meetings on 18-19 January 2000.

On the final day of the conference, all delegates received a copy of the draft outline and were asked to make further suggestions and comments. In subsequent weeks, the Regional Technical Advisory Group (RTAG) Secretariat received 43 submissions from education ministries, UN agencies, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) throughout the region. All of the submissions were considered when constructing this document; many suggestions have been simply incorporated into the draft outline, while other comments have been listed in Appendix 1, Asia and Pacific Regional Framework for Action—Additional Concerns.

Preamble

Education is a fundamental human right of all people—of value in and of itself, for improving the quality of life, and as an essential part

of social and human development. The provision of basic education, whether it be formally or nonformally delivered, is a core responsibility of the state with active and genuine collaboration of parents, communities, and civil society. All people, especially those most disadvantaged and excluded,² must be guaranteed access to a basic education of decent quality.

The Gains

- Increase in primary school enrollment.
- Expansion of early childhood care and education programs.
- Higher priority given to quality.
- Increase in functional adult literacy.
- Improvement in educational management information systems.
- Increase in national budgets for basic education.
- Effective use of existing resources.
- Increase in international assistance to basic education.
- Increase in the number of legislative measures, campaigns, projects, and reforms in basic education.
- More innovative initiatives in basic education.
- More partnership between private sector and civil society.

The Challenges³

- Growing disparities within countries, particularly a persistent urban-rural gap.
- Persistent gender gap against girls, especially in South Asia.
- Relative lack of emphasis on alternative, non-formal approaches to basic education and disinterest in workplace education.⁴
- Emphasis placed on getting children into school, but not enough attention paid to the retention rate or to the completion of schooling.
- Urban bias of early childhood programs.
- Continuing shortfalls in national education budgets, especially for countries in economic crisis and transition and in relation to school-age population growth.
- Continuing shortfalls in international resources for basic education.
- Weakness in identifying, refining, and expanding best practices in basic education.
- Difficulty in recasting curriculums to address the new risks and challenges facing youth in the region.
- Inability to implement the required management reforms for educational systems of countries in transition.
- Lack of broad participation of communities and local leadership in management and delivery of education.
- Lack of reliable data and statistics.
- Increasing the visibility of people with disabilities and other disadvantaged groups.
- Disruption or cessation of basic education provisions, facilities, and support as a result of national or sub-national armed conflict or emergency.
- Lack of capacity to assess educational problems and contributing factors.
- Limited testing, assessment, and evaluation processes for learning often isolated from previous learning experiences.
- The (still) large number of illiterates in the region, and the challenge of delivering meaningful and relevant literacy programs to

people living in different social, economic, and political circumstances

- Inadequate means of assessing learning performance and achievement
- Disparities between big countries and small island states

Regional Objectives and Strategies

Goals

Early childhood care and education⁵

At all stages of life, children should be provided with quality, comprehensive, integrated care, and education. Child-centered, family-focused, community-based, holistic care and education of preschool children is essential for securing the well-being and rights of all children and should be supported by national policies and sufficient funds. This should be the result of synergistic partnership among families, communities, civil society, NGOs, and the government.

Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) programs, whether they be family- or community-based, or linked to schools or learning centers, must focus on caring for and educating the whole child, from birth to school entry. These programs must promote the child's optimum physical, psychosocial, emotional, cognitive, and linguistic development in ways that are culturally and socially relevant.

Investments in capacity building to improve the quality of care and education through the diverse program options and services for young children and families are critical. Improved data gathering and analysis of both program access and quality indicators, regular monitoring of program implementation and regulatory frameworks linked to both local and national systems are essential.

ECCE programmes should remain flexible and adaptable to the needs of preschool children and not become mere extensions of formal school systems. In addition, they should

be developmentally appropriate and responsive to the needs and interests of children, and should be firmly anchored on the family and community as the child's primary caring and learning environment.

Universal basic education

All must have the opportunity to receive a basic education of good quality that focuses on the “whole” person, including health, nutrition, and cognitive and psycho-social development.⁶ In order for this to happen, education systems must be able to adapt to the individual needs of child, youth, and adult learners, by incorporating formal and nonformal approaches and programs within an integrated and inclusive system of basic education.

A strong and serious commitment must be made to include the excluded. Clearer analyses must be made of reasons for exclusion, including issues such as language of instruction, and more innovative approaches made to address these reasons.

Greater, more explicit focus and commitment must be made to identify unreached children who are not in school and to promote innovative and varied approaches by government and NGOs to meet their diverse educational needs.

There is a need to improve demand as well as increase supply through the closer collaboration and genuine involvement of parents, communities, and the private sector in education.

There is also a need to mitigate the direct and indirect costs of basic education, especially for the disadvantaged. In order to achieve universal basic education, systems must become more internally and externally efficient and focus more sharply on retaining children in school.

Basic learning and skills programmes⁷

There have been impressive gains in child, youth, and adult literacy in the region, espe-

cially for girls and women. Nonetheless, they remain fragile and need constant reinforcement and recommitment.

Conflict, violence, social injustice, and other risks affect the lives of people in almost every country in the region. Basic education must focus increasingly on developing skills and capacities for life and work in a rapidly changing world. Values and cultural identity and their preservation must continue to find a prominent place in all learning programmes and teaching practices.

So, too, basic literacy and numeracy skills must be developed in the context of relevant life skills—whether they be work related or address any of the risks increasingly confronting children, youth, and adults. Such programs should adopt participatory, age appropriate, culturally sensitive, and integrated approaches to peace education and conflict resolution, gender relations, sexual and reproductive health, and HIV/AIDS education.

There is also a need to integrate functional education into equivalency programs to provide opportunities for out-of-school youth and adults to gain access to relevant and meaningful learning programmes leading to educational certification.

Learning achievement⁸

Improvement in the quality of education is critical to economic and social development and therefore a national imperative. Approaches to improving the quality of education require adoption of curriculum content and processes which are learner centered; recognize the diversity of learning needs and stages of cognitive, social, and emotional development; and develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for independent learning and problem solving. Improving the quality of education also requires access to appropriate learning resources. Assessment strategies at all levels should reflect such changing emphases, especially the focus on learning how to learn,

and include appropriately diverse, continuous, and responsive assessment strategies. Training of teachers and educational managers is required to support curriculum reforms and should include modalities which strengthen teacher monitoring and support mechanisms which ensure continuity of reform.

Education of women and girls and the elimination of gender disparities

It is essential to eliminate systemic gender disparities, where they persist, amongst girls and boys throughout the education system—in enrollment, achievement, and completion; in teacher training and career development; in curriculum, and learning practices and learning processes. This requires better appreciation of the role of education as an instrument of women's equality and empowerment.

Furthermore, specific measures should be taken to ensure the inclusion of women and girls with disabilities in all educational processes.

Where possible, also, specific programmes, both formal and non-formal in approach, should be developed to target the increased enrolment, retention, and completion of education by girls and women.

Literacy and continuing education⁹

Via the support of literacy campaigns, the goal of universal literacy should be aspired to in the next decade.

Life skills and values: education for peace and global understanding¹⁰

The education system should strive to address issues of peace, order and sociopolitical cohesion. Whether school-based or delivered nonformally, basic learning tools should increase the capacities of learners to deal with issues of day-to-day survival, to resolve community conflict, and to greater enjoy human, political, and civil rights.

Strategic Objectives

Investment and resource mobilization

Lack of resources is often a matter of political will, both within national governments and among international funding agencies. Both must continue to increase the absolute and relative size of their budgets devoted to basic education (without sacrificing needed resources for higher levels of education) and to push for more rapid debt relief and new funding mechanisms to complement existing resources directed toward education and health, if necessary through the transfer of budget allocation from the defense sector. Money saved through increased efficiency must continue to be reinvested in education systems and not subtracted from the overall allocation for education.

Special attention and support should be given to the most excluded and least accessible people in each country and those suffering the consequences of armed conflict, civil dislocation, and natural disasters. The needs of those people should be continually reassessed and the necessary actions defined and taken.

Additionally, education policymaking must assume a more central position in public policy dialogue and decisionmaking. There must be greater recognition of the interconnectedness of public policy issues so that the effects of actions taken in one sector on other sectors are clearly understood. This implies a need for more integrated processes and governmental mechanisms for public policy planning and a balancing of the influence of Treasury and Finance Ministries with the advice of Ministries of Education, Health, Social Welfare, Labor, and Regional Development.

New "space" for civil society

The need to broaden the way education is conceptualized, implemented, and evaluated requires the greater involvement of NGOs, the media, the private sector, and other civil-soci-

ety stakeholders—including families and children—at all levels and all stages of education program development.

To reach Education for All goals, we must ensure that genuine decision-making responsibilities are shared among all elements of society. The strong trend toward decentralization has important implications in terms of the provision of adequate support from the center and the transfer of both responsibility and decision-making authority to all levels in the administrative hierarchy. The latter requires both a more localized Education Management Information System (EMIS) and stronger management training at lower levels of the system.

More effective collaboration and equal partnership between governments and NGOs must be encouraged. A commitment has already been made between NGOs and governments in the region to create new space for genuine engagement and dialogue, bringing to the partnership strength in innovation, participatory processes, critical analysis, social mobilization, and school-community partnerships—but not at the risk of “user pays” scenarios, polarized education systems, and the increased exclusion of disadvantaged children.

Education and poverty elimination

Attempts must be made to ensure stronger linkages between education policies and programs, poverty alleviation strategies, and public policymaking. A strong focus must be placed on more and better education for excluded groups, culturally appropriate and cognitively stimulating early childhood care, education for girls and women, as well as education for life skills and employment.

In addition, the EFA process at all levels must be made barrier free in attitudinal, informational, and physical terms so that people with disabilities and socially disadvantaged groups can participate meaningfully in Education for All activities.

Decentralized micro-planning and delivery with people’s participation may be utilized on a wider scale for provision of basic education to unserved and underserved populations. NGOs working for the underprivileged should receive support and assistance on a sustainable basis.

Equitable harnessing of new technologies

The information and telecommunication technologies of the 21st century offer new ways of managing the educational processes as well as delivering particular programs. The ability to access and analyze data and information about formal and nonformal education, and about the community context in which education takes place, encourages better decision making at local levels. At other levels, policy decisions about technology can be taken to enhance equity and reduce disparities between groups within society at large.

Such technologies can also help to deliver learning programs at adult and professional levels, such as teacher education through distance education. Further study may be required to see where such technologies are cost-effective in serving the learning needs of children, youth, and adults more widely.

In many parts of the region, learning is increasingly taking place in an informal, media-based context. This wealth of information resources must be accessible by *all*, and the growing disparity between rich and poor, and the urban-rural divide in terms of access to technology must be taken into account when policies about technology are formulated. In addition, these information resources must be accessible in an equitable and structured way to ensure overall improvement in learning achievement. Information resources should be particularly accessible to people with sensory impairments and in a format that permits ready assimilation of content. Further, the deployment of technology in basic education should be done in a culturally sensitive manner.

Governments must promote popular access to relevant media and technology systems and incorporate media and technology as both a learning tool and as an interface for the expansion of information dissemination critical to better management.

Enabling teachers and learning facilitators

Public perceptions of teachers and teaching must be enhanced, and incentives to identify, attract, and retain good teachers must be provided. For example, policies should be in place to protect teachers' salaries, rights, and welfare. In addition, strong and on-going teacher, supervisor, and manager support and professional development services, at the level of the school and classroom, must be introduced. Teachers themselves must be more genuinely involved in decisions that affect their work. Adequate time and investment must be given to re-train the existing teacher workforce and to reform pre- and in-service training.

The role of teachers and learning is changing in the new decade and is crucial in the fulfillment of the goals of Education For All. New contexts and challenges in which teachers and their learners operate must be clearly understood. Above all, teachers must be able to make learning environments more inclusive and welcoming to children—healthier, more effective, and more nurturing.

Adequate learning materials, textbooks, teaching aids, and supplemental readers are critical to educating all children. They should reflect learning outcomes and the time available for instruction in the classroom. Values and subject content should be gender-fair and reflective of acceptance of diversity and cultural differences. Policy should foster the development and adaptation of learning experiences and materials to ensure social and cultural relevance for learners.

Education management reform¹¹

Increased emphases on decentralization of education management should be accompanied by the development of enhanced and comprehensive EMIS that provide timely, relevant, accurate, and valid information for local decision making. Locally relevant indicators compatible with national standards and curriculum frameworks, and which cover quantitative and qualitative aspects of learning, must be developed and monitored. The accountability of the school system to learners themselves, parents, and communities should be emphasized.

Effective decentralization also requires extensive training of school leaders and local managers, both at the institutional level and in district and provincial offices. Decentralization of authority and responsibility that is supported by improved EMIS and management training will lead to greater accountability and transparency in the allocation and utilization of resources. At the central level, enhancement of EMIS will increase the capacity of policy-makers to model the effects of proposed policy reforms as a basis for policy dialogue aimed at identifying optimal linkages between resource inputs and education outputs.

In addition, mechanisms must be put in place to ensure that managers and policy-makers have access to the latest information and research in the field of education.

Integration of development activities¹²

Partnership between government, donors, NGOs should encompass policy planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Exchange of information, experience, and innovations¹³

With the increasing availability of communication technologies in the region, governments and all stakeholders must promote an equitable exchange of information and experi-

ences about educational innovations that have been, and continue to be, successfully developed by countries and communities in the region. This exchange should cover a wide range of educational dimensions: policy reform; planning and management; resource mobilization; curriculum; teacher training; measurement and evaluation; community participation; and linkages between education and poverty alleviation. As a means of exchanging information and experiences, subregional resource centres could be set up in each country.

Appendix 1

Asia and Pacific Regional Framework for Action

Additional concerns

- Comments were received about the language of the Draft Framework for Action. The highlighted the need for stronger and more action-oriented language. Feedback received on the Draft Framework for Action pointed out that it failed to offer mechanisms for translating the vision into reality; it did not outline the new commitments from the Partner Agencies of UNICEF, United Nations Development Program, United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), UNESCO, the World Bank. Nor did it propose new directions for the future. Some went further, urging that a statement acknowledging that some of the commitments and promises made at Jomtien were not achieved, be added to the Dakar Framework for Action.
- Continuing education for life-long learning was highlighted by a number of participants, notably Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL), as being an important goal if a society is to truly become a learning society. After the completion of basic literacy, it was recommended that post-literacy and continuing education be provided in order to sustain and expand literacy skills.
- Emphasis must be placed on continuing education for the neo-literates, and the means of achieving scientific and technological literacy included in continuing education.
- Scientific and technological illiteracy was highlighted as a concern in the region, as well as the need for adequate teacher training in science and technology.
- Nonformal education should be developed in quality, comparable with the formal education sector, leading to the establishment of an equivalency program. Furthermore, Non-formal Education (NFE) should be given institutional shape.
- Much debate was centered on the meaning and concept of “quality education.” A suggestion was made that the Education for All Forum promote measures and indicators of quality that are common to both formal and nonformal modalities of learning and that focus on competencies, aptitudes, and functionality of the things learners learn and how they can apply them to their day-to-day existence.
- Although many argued for basic education to cater to the needs of disabled people, the fact remains that data on the educational experiences of disabled people remains difficult to access. One way of rectifying this situation could be to include the issue of disability as an indicator in all future country assessments.
- Children’s participation in the Education for All process should be encouraged, considering that childhood is the time when most people begin formal basic education.
- Care must be taken, however, not to place too much emphasis on child learners at the expense of adult learners. Learning is a life-long process, and the language of the Dakar

Framework for Action must be inclusive of all learners, whether young or old. Likewise, care should be exercised with official Education for All documents, pronouncements, and pictures, so as not to convey the false impression that Education for All is only about children.

- Attention must be given to the learning needs of adolescents.
- The Dakar Declaration must state in very clear terms whether secondary education will form part of basic education that should be universalized.
- Aside from the concern for access of those not in school, there was also expressed a concern for quality, relevance, and content of basic education for those already in school. It was felt that a fundamental reexamination of the curriculum and content of all forms of basic education was called for to meet the learning needs of a more complex and interconnected society in the future.
- The structural reform of a country's basic education system could be viewed as an economic and effective way of meeting that country's Education for All objectives. Consideration of structural reform is particularly pertinent in those countries where the projected rate of growth of the school-age population over the next 10 years far exceeds any reasonable expectation concerning the rate of growth of public expenditure on basic education. Many countries would, understandably, be reluctant to attempt to meet the implied funding gap over the next decade by taking up further education loans from either the World Bank or the Asian Development Bank because of the additional burden it would place on their capacity to service such foreign debt.

Endnotes

1. Some delegates suggested that 10 years may be a better time frame for assessment, rather than the 15 years suggested in the Draft Dakar Framework for Action.

2. For the purpose of this document, excluded groups include the poor, ethnic minority groups, remote populations, the displaced, people affected by civil unrest or emergency, child workers, and people with disabilities, whether they be physical, intellectual, or emotional.

3. The point was raised that the challenges be ordered according to importance, although, of course, this is entirely subjective.

4. Some delegates suggested that this sentence be rephrased in a more positive way, expanded on (see Additional Concerns document, second point and be included as a strategic objective, rather than as a challenge.

5. Some participants mentioned that ECCD was a more appropriate term.

6. A point of contention was whether a "good" education could be quantified and how many years constituted a "good" education. Bangladesh suggested that good quality should include at least 8 years of education, whereas the Maldives want 10. Other countries such as Laos did not agree to this, and felt it should be left to the country to decide what constituted a "good" education. It really depended on country-specific goals and the level of development in the country.

7. Other titles—"Linking Literacy and Skills Programmes" and "Adult Literacy and Skills Programmes"—were suggested

8. Other titles—"Quality of Learning" or "Learning Achievement and Quality of Education"—were proposed.

9. This additional goal was suggested.

10. This additional goal was suggested.

11. It was suggested that the sixth strategic objective be expanded so that it not only covers EMIS, but other aspects of education management such as reforms in general systems of management and institutional management and delivery systems.

12. "Integration of Development Activities" was suggested as an additional strategic objective.

13. "Exchange of Information, Experience, and Innovations" was suggested as an additional strategic objective.

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