Human rights education in the elementary school: a case study of fourth graders' responses to a democratic, social action oriented human rights curriculum.

Rahima C. Wade

University of Massachusetts Amherst
HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL:  
A CASE STUDY OF FOURTH GRADERS' RESPONSES TO A DEMOCRATIC,  
SOCIAL ACTION ORIENTED HUMAN RIGHTS CURRICULUM

A Dissertation Presented
by
RAHIMA CAROL WADE

Submitted to the Graduate School of the University of Massachusetts
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May 1992
School of Education
HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL:
A CASE STUDY OF FOURTH GRADERS' RESPONSES TO A DEMOCRATIC,
SOCIAL ACTION ORIENTED HUMAN RIGHTS CURRICULUM

A Dissertation Presented
by
RAHIMA CAROL WADE

Approved as to style and content by:

Sonia Nieto, Chair
Gretchen B. Rossman, Member
Ervin Staub, Member

Bailey W. Jackson, Dean
School of Education
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank the many people who have made the experience of completing this dissertation a joyful and empowering process. My chairperson, Sonia Nieto, is to be commended for her insightful feedback and timely reading of the manuscript. Sonia has been an encouraging and compassionate teacher every step of the way. Gretchen Rossman has been an excellent guide in the conduct of qualitative research and a continuing support throughout my doctoral program. I am very grateful to have had the opportunity to work with Ervin Staub as the outside member of my committee. His expertise in the area of prosocial behavior has enriched this study and inspired me to continue research in this area. My gratitude is also due to Clem Seldin for his constant support and "listening ear." These four individuals have given me an exemplary vision of what it means to be a true scholar and the faith that I can become one.

I also want to thank my good friend, Nicole Demarest, without whom this study would not have been possible. The love and encouragement from my husband, Jeff, and our children, Mira and Anders, have also been essential.

Finally I would like to thank my parents, Iris and Bill Wade, who often told me when I was growing up that I had the capability to do anything I wanted to in my life. They have taught me to set far-reaching goals, to believe in myself, and to celebrate success. It is to them that I dedicate this dissertation.
ABSTRACT

HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL:
A CASE STUDY OF FOURTH GRADERS' RESPONSES TO A DEMOCRATIC
SOCIAL ACTION ORIENTED HUMAN RIGHTS CURRICULUM
MAY 1992

RAHIMA CAROL WADE, B.S.Ed., STATE UNIVERSITY COLLEGE AT
BUFFALO
M.Ed., KEENE STATE COLLEGE
Ed.D., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS

Directed by: Professor Sonia Nieto

This qualitative, exploratory case study focused on the design and implementation of a human rights curriculum in a fourth grade, public school classroom. Based on a review of the literature on human rights education, a curriculum incorporating a month long unit, democratic classroom practices, and social action projects was designed and carried out with a group of eighteen, White fourth graders. The study examined students' responses in terms of their thinking about human rights, themselves, and others; their peer relations; and their involvement in social action projects.

Data collection methods included participant observation, interviews, audiotaping and videotaping classroom events, and document analysis. Feedback from the students, parents, and teachers in the school helped to establish reliability and confirmability.
The major finding of the study was that students' personal experiences, developmental levels, and family and cultural backgrounds interacted with the curriculum and peer relationships as influences on their ideas, interests, and subsequent learning about human rights.

Most students were able to develop a basic understanding of human rights concepts. Effective teaching techniques were simulations, using children's literature, role play, and action projects. Though the students' peer relations did not change appreciably, most of the students developed a greater interest in human rights issues and learning about different others as a result of the human rights curriculum. The democratic classroom practices and the social action projects gave many students opportunities to become empowered in their own learning.

The implications of this study are relevant for teaching at the upper elementary level. It is important for teachers to become aware of children's pre-existing knowledge and attitudes and provide them with meaningful experiences to build upon or change their thinking. In teaching about human rights and other cultural issues, educators need to be aware of their own biases and teach in ways that reduce rather than increase stereotypes and prejudice. An integrated, comprehensive, and developmentally appropriate approach to human rights instruction will maximize students' learning.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGMENTS</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>xi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background of the Problem</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Nature of the Problem</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumptions and Definitions of Terms</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach to the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. REVIEWS OF THE LITERATURE</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Literature on Human Rights Education</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Literature on Social and Moral Development in Middle Childhood</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Literature on Children's Prosocial Behavior</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Approach of the Inquiry</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection Methods</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Management</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis Procedures</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Role as Researcher</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Considerations</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. EARLY PARTICIPATION

Introduction.........................................................114
Sarah's Teaching and Disciplinary Styles..............116
Concerns for Rights, Perspective Taking Skills, and Interest in Global Issues..............................126
Students' Relationships........................................137
Chapter Summary................................................153

5. LATE PARTICIPATION

Introduction.........................................................156
Sarah's Teaching and Disciplinary Styles..............167
Understanding Human Rights..................................161
Understanding "Others"...........................................178
The Role of Empowerment......................................198
Positive and Negative Social Relations...................213
Chapter Summary................................................220

6. JENNIFER AND EVAN: PROFILES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMPATHY AND EMPOWERMENT

Introduction.........................................................223
Jennifer - The Minister's Daughter.............................223
Evan - The Media Child............................................236
Chapter Summary................................................247

7. FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Restatement of the Problem...........................................249
Findings.....................................................................250
Issues and Problems in Conducting the Study..........260
Implications.............................................................270
Recommendations for Further Research...................275
Chapter Summary.....................................................277
In Closing...............................................................278

APPENDICES

A. ACCESS NEGOTIATION INFORMATION..........................279
B. PARENTAL CONSENT FORM......................................287
C. COMMUNICATION WITH PARENTS..............................291
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Human Rights Curriculum Activities</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Data Collection Activities</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Daily Record Sheet</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Positive Social Interactions</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Negative Social Interactions</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Comparing Positive and Negative Social Interactions</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Activities During Week of March 4-8, 1991</td>
<td>317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Activities During Week of March 11-15, 1991</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Activities During Week of March 18-22, 1991</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Activities During Week of March 25-29, 1991</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Classroom Teacher Feedback Form</td>
<td>368</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

1. World Map........................................................................................................346
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

My questions and concerns for the world and my belief that education can be an important change agent led me to focus on human rights education for this study. The choice of human rights education began with my questions about and experiences with teaching global education. My involvement in global education has been guided by a belief that the world needs informed and active citizens who are willing to take moral stands on what is right and wrong and are engaged in actions to effect positive change.

It is not enough to become aware of or informed about global situations. We need people who are willing and able to take action in the world, guided by a set of values and morals that place justice and care for all beings at the forefront. Ryals and Foster (1976) also assert that the state of the planet necessitates value-based action.

Why should we teach values at all? The answer is quite simple. The survival of our society depends on it. If we continue to use up energy resources, pollute air, rivers, lakes, streams; fight wars for ideological reasons, oppress minority groups...then society as we know it, or ideally would like it, cannot exist. (p. 354).

Purpel (1989) believes that the injustice, despair, and estrangement on the planet create the necessity for a new vision of education. "What we must reveal are our passions, our values, and our justifications.... What we must risk is losing the posture of
neutral scholarship suffused with the aridity of living an uncommitted life" (pp. 297-298).

Global education seems particularly suited to answering this call. Yet, in a comprehensive paper exploring the key elements of five major global education programs in the United States, I found that many programs do not promote moral decision making and social action (Wade, 1990). The emphasis in the field seems to be on understanding and awareness rather than action. It seems critical to find ways to encourage global educators to go beyond fostering awareness and understanding to guiding others in making moral choices and taking responsible, principled action on behalf of the earth.

Instead, global education programs often choose neutrality in their efforts not to offend people of various cultures and political persuasions. Developing appreciation for cultural diversity is a primary objective of many programs. Certainly there is nothing wrong with this objective; it is important to honor cultural differences. The problem lies in the fact that, for many global educators, the principle of honoring cultural diversity seems to preclude taking a moral stand against oppressive and unjust actions on the parts of individuals or cultural groups.

Appreciating different others is not a panacea. Whereas many global educators feel that the world's injustices will be solved if we can learn to appreciate each other's cultures, other educators, particularly proponents of multicultural education, assert that we must directly address oppression through anti-bias and anti-racist education which includes a social action component.
In my search for how to begin framing global education in a context that would both support cultural diversity and encourage people to take a moral stand against oppression, the field of human rights education emerged. Universal human rights had been identified by all five of the programs I reviewed as an important area of study. In a world full of conflicting needs and purposes, human rights principles provide a universal standard in working towards peace and justice for all.

The choice of human rights education for this study is further grounded in the fact that it has globally accepted documents as its basis. United Nations documents such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of the Child provide standards which can be used to look at cultural, governmental, and individual practices in the world and decide if they are morally just or not.

Effective human rights teaching not only focuses on the rights we are all entitled to but also entails helping people realize their responsibilities to uphold other's rights through mindful action. Thus human rights education provides an appropriate vehicle for values-based social action in and beyond the classroom setting.

The Nature of the Problem

A review of the literature on human rights education revealed that although there are a preponderance of educators' assertions about the essential components of a human rights curriculum there is a decided lack of curricula in existence, especially for the upper elementary level. In examining the few existing intermediate level
curricula, many of them were found to be wanting for some of the key components discussed by human rights educators.

In particular, most of the curricula were designed to be taught in traditional classrooms where teachers make most of the important decisions about students' learning. Human rights educators stress the importance of learning about human rights in a democratic context that supports students' participating in working for their own and each other's rights. The second key component which was often left out was the inclusion of social action projects. Most of the curricula focused on knowledge and attitudes about human rights, with significantly less attention to working for human rights in the world.

The search for materials and ideas about human rights education took me around the world, via the mail. Educators from many other countries, notably Canada, England, and Australia, have contributed far more to the discourse on human rights education than those from the United States. As the field is still quite fledgling, it is not surprising that educators from all of these countries have written more about why human rights education is important and what is essential to include, than about curriculum development or implementation.

There have been very few studies examining the implementation of human rights curricula in the classroom. I was able to locate only two, one from Canada and one from Australia. Both of these studies, discussed further in Chapter 2, assessed the effects of different types of instruction on classes of elementary
students. Neither of these studies, however, was particularly comprehensive.

Thus, it seemed important to begin my research on human rights education by designing a model curriculum based on theorists' assertions about the key elements of human rights education and then studying students' responses to curricular implementation in an intermediate level classroom.

The reason for choosing the upper elementary level for this work will be discussed in depth in the literature review. In the years between nine and twelve, children's development in the areas of moral reasoning, empathy, and political socialization provide a foundation for human rights work that has personal meaning (Torney, 1980). Children at this age can understand interdependence in a global sense, can identify with being citizens of both one's country and one's world, and have a strong concern for fairness and justice (Anderson, 1976). For all of these reasons, preadolescence is an important period to introduce human rights education.

Assumptions and Definitions of Terms

This study was founded on a number of assumptions about appropriate education for the intermediate level. First, it is assumed that studies about global and multicultural issues, and in particular human rights and responsibilities, are valid educational endeavors. Students between the ages of nine and twelve have an openness and interest to learning about others. They are also very interested in justice and fairness and are at a stage in their lives where they are both interested in and more capable to take on
additional responsibilities in the classroom and school. These points will be discussed at length in the literature reviews.

Second, the importance of democratic classroom practices is affirmed in the approach of this study. The literatures on both human rights education and children's prosocial behavior indicate that giving children a voice in determining what and how they study as well as how the classroom environment is structured are integral to developing an understanding of the importance of rights and responsibilities.

Finally, the belief that students' moral and social, as well as cognitive, development are essential foci for elementary teachers is integral to this research. The classroom is the primary social setting for children, outside of the family. Because social and moral development are connected, the school setting provides an important training ground for both.

A number of terms referred to frequently throughout the study are defined here. They include human rights education, democratic education, multicultural education, prosocial behavior, role taking, empathy, and empowerment.

An understanding of human rights education first necessitates a definition of human rights. Concern for human rights have pervaded almost every society and culture throughout history. Though many people identify human rights as a recent Western invention which emanated from the development of key documents such as the United States' Bill of Rights and the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in fact the notion of human rights precedes these documents. While it is not the purpose of this
study to delineate the specific origins of human rights, it is important to note that they can be traced to non-Western cultures, such as Native American nations and Asian countries, as well as the more widely asserted beginnings in Ancient Israel and Greece (Berger, 1977).

Though subject to debate, most human rights proponents would agree that human rights are those conditions, practices, and experiences due every human being by virtue of being human. For the purpose of this study, the social, cultural, political, and civic rights outlined in the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNESCO, 1948) will constitute our understanding of human rights. (See Appendix E).

Human rights education as an educational field is "the newest of the new arrivals and it is also the least developed" (Lister, 1981). As in many developing fields of education—such as global education, peace education, and development education—the aims and purposes of human rights education vary widely. A number of curricula focus on education aimed at fostering attitudes of tolerance and respect, awareness of our responsibilities to treat all people with dignity, and knowledge about human rights (Carelli, 1981; Connecticut State Department of Education, 1987; Frazier, 1981; Torney-Purta, 1984).

In addition to attitudes, awareness, and knowledge, other human rights educators stress the importance of action skills and incorporating a human rights focus in day to day relationships (Heater, 1984; Henry, 1985; Hicks, 1986; Lister, 1984; Shafer, 1987). I agree with these educators that we must socialize children for the role of change agents by giving them not just the knowledge
but the practical skills to work for meaningful change in their relationships and in the world, according to their abilities. Therefore, human rights education should be understood in this study as incorporating knowledge, awareness, attitudes, action skills, and the incorporation of human rights in daily relationships.

Teaching about human rights will be more meaningful if it is accompanied "by greater democratization of school life and of relationships between pupils and the administration and teachers" (Council of Europe, cited in Shafer, 1987, p. 196). Democratic classroom practices "provide students with experiences through which they can develop democratic attitudes and values. Only by living them can students develop the democratic ideals of equality, liberty, and community" (Institute for Democratic Education, 1989, cover). Democratic classrooms involve students in making choices and decisions about their learning, creating rules, cooperative learning, evaluating class activities, and freely sharing their ideas and opinions (Radz, 1980).

Multicultural education is defined in many ways in the literature. For the purpose of this study multicultural education is seen as "a process of comprehensive and basic education for all students" that affirms pluralism and challenges and rejects racism and other forms of discrimination (Nieto, 1991, p. 307). Effective multicultural education permeates the curriculum and instructional strategies in the school, as well as the relationships between staff and students. Knowledge, reflection, and action are seen as the basis for social change towards peace and justice for all.
Prosocial behavior can be defined simply as "behavior that benefits other people" (Staub, 1979, p. 2). Children's prosocial behavior is a complex phenomenon affected by many factors including age, personality, motivation, cultural factors, socialization, and the characteristics of the helping situation. "Whether a person behaves prosocially or not in a specific instance depends not only on what characteristics this person possesses that are directly relevant to prosocial conduct but also on other personal characteristics and on surrounding conditions" (Staub, 1979, p. 14). Because this study looks at both children's relationships in the classroom as well as their involvement in action projects to benefit others, understanding children's prosocial development is critical.

Three additional terms are related to the understanding of human rights education and prosocial behavior: empathy, role taking, and empowerment. Empathy is interpreted in various ways in the literature. For the purpose of this study, empathy is defined as an affective state that includes emotional matching or the vicarious experiencing of a range of emotions consistent with those of another person (Eisenberg and Miller, 1987). Although not all prosocial behavior is motivated by empathy, research indicates that the two are related (Cain and Clark, 1987; Damon, 1988; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Staub, 1988).

Damon (1988) and Hoffman (1983) maintain that upper elementary children can begin to develop empathy for the suffering of distant others and may be motivated to engage in prosocial actions by these feelings. The capability has obvious implications
Another key term associated with prosocial behavior is role taking. Role taking is the ability to look at a situation from another person's perspective. Some researchers believe that role taking, or perspective taking, abilities are prerequisite to empathic responses and subsequent prosocial acts (Grusec, 1983; Dillard, Stiff, Somera, Kim, and Sleight, 1988; Rushton, 1980). Though the capacity to take another's point of view is not always related to prosocial behavior (Staub, 1979), it is an important skill which often develops rapidly during middle childhood (Branson and Torney-Purta, 1982; Flavell, 1975; Torney-Purta, 1984).

Finally, the concept of empowerment is referred to frequently in the discussion of this study's findings. Students who are empowered in the classroom setting are willing and able to speak up for themselves and to initiate their own learning. These children generally have positive, outgoing personalities and are interested in being actively involved in classroom life, often to benefit others. Fostering student empowerment involves respecting students' opinions and ideas as well as giving children opportunities to make decisions about their learning and how the class is structured. Empowerment is a hoped-for result of democratic teaching and human rights education.

**Approach to the Study**

I chose a challenging setting for the study that I hoped would provide both insights into effective human rights teaching
strategies as well as opportunities for revealing the difficulties in human rights education. I purposefully chose a class of children that had a reputation for being an uncohesive group with many social problems. In addition, the students were fourth graders who for the most part were concrete thinkers and might have difficulty relating to the abstract notion of human rights. Thirdly, the classroom was located in a school characterized largely by traditional approaches to teaching and classroom management, rather than the democratic context most supportive of human rights education.

I surmised that if these children were able to develop empathy, empowerment, and positive social relations, this would make a strong statement about the possibilities for human rights education with less difficult groups in democratic settings. I also thought that this group of students would be optimal for revealing the potential problems in human rights instruction at this level.

Other factors in conducting the study in this setting were likely to contribute to its success. I had worked in the school previously and thus knew the principal, most of the staff, and the classroom teacher. Also, many of the students' parents were familiar with my name and positively associated it with my prior position in the school as coordinator of gifted and talented education.

The classroom teacher, a friend of mine who lives close by, had mentioned to me early in the school year that she had thought about teaching a human rights unit to her fourth graders. When I approached her about the possibility of this project, it reignited her
interest in human rights. After showing her some of my plans, she readily agreed to my conducting the study in her classroom.

Thus, gaining access to the site took place quickly and easily. This seemed especially important in a study dealing with potential controversy. Although a few concerns were raised during the course of the study by the principal, the classroom teacher, and two parents, I think that my familiarity with the other adults in the setting contributed to my being trusted to carry out the study with tact and sensitivity.

Because I was most interested in how the students would create meaning in response to the human rights activities, I chose to design the study as a qualitative research project. I knew that I wanted to immerse myself in the setting, to observe the children as well as to engage in conversation with them and have them write about their thoughts and feelings. Marshall and Rossman (1989) describe this approach as research that entails immersion in the everyday life of the setting chosen for study, that values participants' perspectives on their worlds and seeks to discover those perspectives, that views inquiry as an interactive process between the researcher and the participants, and that is primarily descriptive and relies on people's words as the primary data (p. 11).

This study is also an example of classroom action research. As such, the study evolved and changed as activities were implemented and students responded to them. An example of this effect is when the students were asked to write as though they were children of color. When I realized that their responses were superficial because of their limited experiences with different
others, I arranged to have the local high school ESL class come to the fourth grade class for a visit. This event led to many of the key findings in the study.

Qualitative classroom action research "may not start with a hypothesis to test, but a wondering to pursue" (Bissex, 1991). Rather than having a list of expected outcomes, I began this study with the following questions:

• In what ways do the students respond to a democratic, action-oriented human rights curriculum?
• How do students' understandings of human rights and responsibilities influence their social relations and thinking about themselves and others?
• How do students give meaning to their participation in a human rights action project?
• How does the curriculum and the strategies used influence students' knowledge about human rights issues?

My involvement in the classroom began at the end of October 1990. From October through December, I was involved as a participant-observer, taking field notes during periods of observation and working with the students on their spelling, writing, and reading activities. In January 1991, I introduced the democratic classroom practices which continued throughout the rest of the school year. I also continued to observe as well. During the month of March, my role shifted to co-teacher as the classroom teacher and I taught the human rights unit. During the rest of the school year, through mid-June, I observed and helped the children
with many school activities, notably a number of social action projects.

The changes in my role and the classroom activities gave me access to different types of information about the students in the setting. A wide variety of data collection methods were used throughout the study, including audio- and videotaping, informal conversations, interviews, observations, art and written work, and feedback sheets from parents, the classroom teacher, and other teachers in the school. These methods contributed greatly to confirming the findings presented in this study.

In Chapter 2, the literature review on human rights education is presented. This chapter also includes reviews on preadolescent social and moral development and children's prosocial behavior. This information provided a necessary framework for both designing the research and analyzing the findings.

The design and methods employed in the study are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3. This chapter details the two periods of the study; including the human rights activities and the data collection methods used during each period. Approaches to data management, data analysis, and ethical considerations are also discussed here.

Chapter 4 presents the findings during the early participation period, from October 1990 through February 1991. In Chapter 5, the findings from the late participation period, March 1991 through June 1991, are discussed and contrasted with the findings in Chapter 4.
Chapter 6 focuses on two children, Jennifer and Evan, in an attempt to further explore key issues in human rights education at the intermediate level.

Finally, in Chapter 7, the implications and significance of the findings are discussed. Recommendations for future research studies and a discussion on the problems and issues associated with this study are also presented.

**Limitations**

There are a number of limitations to this study that may influence how the reader interprets and uses the findings. This research is a study of one group of White fourth graders in a suburban elementary school. Although the eighteen students embody a range of personalities, degrees of self-esteem, and levels of social and cognitive development, they cannot be said to be representative of fourth graders in public schools as a whole.

Because the students are all White and are living in a predominantly all White community, their experience with racial discrimination is limited. There is also limited ethnic, religious, and economic diversity in the class. Consequently many of the activities in the unit were designed to simulate the experience of racist and classist oppression. There was also a strong focus on role playing, reading, and writing activities that promoted understanding the feelings of those who were culturally different from them.

It is possible that the unit activities and findings of this study will be most useful to teachers who work in predominantly White
environments. Detailed descriptions of the students, the class, and school environment as a whole will help the reader to decide if the findings are applicable to another class or student.

I was in the classroom two to three mornings a week throughout most of the study and every morning during the teaching of the human rights unit. It is important to note that even if I had been in attendance all day every day, I never would have had complete access to students' thinking and behavior. The data collection process was not perfect. Children were occasionally absent, parents or teachers did not all contribute the requested information, and key words or events were sometimes missed.

While the data collected must therefore be considered an incomplete picture, frequent visits to the classroom at different times of day throughout the school year were helpful. Also, numerous conversations with Sarah, the classroom teacher, kept me informed of significant events that occurred when I was not present.

Another inherent limitation in any study is the design. There are always tradeoffs in the elements incorporated or not in research. A qualitative case study approach was chosen for this study in an effort to understand the complexities of children's thinking and behavior in response to the human rights curriculum. "Case study is a design particularly suited to situations where it is impossible to separate the phenomenon's variables from their context" (Merriam, 1988, p. 10).

Thus, this study trades off the predictive nature of the findings of an experimental design for a detailed account of a complex phenomenon. This approach is particularly useful in
presenting information about an area of education (in this case, human rights education) where little research has been conducted (Merriam, 1988).

Almost every feature of the design had both advantages and disadvantages for the study. The results of the study would have been quite different if I had chosen a group of students who had harmonious relationships or a class that existed in a democratic school context. However, my decision to "swim upstream" in this study revealed key findings that probably would not have been apparent in these other settings.

In addition, the curriculum covered a wide variety of topics and teaching strategies in a very short amount of time. While this approach to teaching was useful in this exploratory study, it ultimately became clear to me that covering many aspects of human rights briefly did not give children the indepth experiences they sometimes needed to effect changes in their attitudes, thinking, and behavior. The advantages of a more thorough approach to teaching human rights at the upper elementary level is discussed in the last chapter of this study.

A potential limitation which must be acknowledged here is researcher bias. Though I have attempted to become aware of beliefs and prior experiences which influence my perception of children and events, the interpretive nature of qualitative research always leaves open the possibility of bias. I sought to reduce this limitation by both scrupulous examination of my reactions to and interpretations of events throughout the study, as well as through the use of triangulating methodology such as multiple data
collection methods and checking my perceptions with the classroom teacher. The reader should read this report, however, in the recognition that the findings presented here are not "the truth", but rather my perspective on the students and classroom events.

**Significance of the Study**

This study was designed as an exploratory study which touches on a wide range of issues and practices concerned with human rights education. As such it has significance for further research and teaching in human rights education as well as other educational concerns during preadolescence.

The findings of this study build upon the existing literature on how preadolescent children develop an understanding of the concept of human rights and how they respond to different instructional activities and human rights topics in the classroom. Teachers who incorporate human rights in the curriculum and researchers pursuing further understanding of human rights education in the intermediate classroom will gain many useful ideas from the findings in this study.

The study also contributes to the literature on children's prosocial behavior, including the development of empathy, role taking skills, and empowerment. Much of the literature on children's prosocial behavior has been quantitative, examining specific determinants of this complex phenomenon. This study took a much needed comprehensive look at children's behavior in the context of the public school classroom. Observing children's behavior during the action projects and talking with them about their experiences of
helping others contributes to further understanding the relationship between classroom practices and the development of prosocial behavior. Many of the findings from this qualitative study support and strengthen the quantitative findings from the literature reviews.

Proponents of democratic education will also be interested in this study as the unit was taught using democratic practices such as class meetings, a class council, and cooperative learning. The findings of the study illustrate successes and problems using these strategies in the classroom, particularly in a larger school context that is not democratic.

Social studies educators looking for a practical and meaningful focus for multicultural, global, civic, and moral issues will discover the benefits of human rights instruction by reading this study. In a school day where interests place many demands on teachers' time, the integrated curriculum designed for this study will be a welcome addition.

While the study may be of most interest to those concerned with human rights education, it also provides many practical ideas and insights for the elementary teacher concerned with children's social and moral development or democratic classroom practices. This exploratory and descriptive study offers researchers and teachers involved in classroom action research both promising methods for qualitative studies and tentative hypotheses for further research.
Chapter Summary

This study grew out of an interest in developing practical ways to bring moral, global, and multicultural issues to the intermediate level classroom. A review of global education programs revealed that human rights education could be an appropriate vehicle for fostering values-based action supported by internationally approved documents.

The field of human rights education is relatively new and undeveloped. The literature indicated the need for both effective curricula for the elementary level and studies focused on curricular implementation. Thus, this qualitative case study was designed to address these two concerns.

A setting was chosen for the study based on potential for learning about the difficulties and successes in teaching human rights at the intermediate level. Consideration was also given to gaining access and being accepted by the principal, teachers, and the students' parents.

The study focused on looking at how one group of eighteen fourth graders responded to a democratic, action-oriented human rights curriculum. Data collection activities were designed to study students' thinking about themselves and others, as well as their peer relationships and involvement in social action projects.

A number of limitations in relation to the study were discussed. These included limitations in the design of the study and the curriculum, the chosen population, the data collection methods, and potential researcher bias.
Finally, the significance of the study for both elementary teachers and researchers was presented. Educators interested in furthering their understanding of human rights education, democratic education, or children's social, moral, and prosocial development will find useful ideas for classroom practice and further research in this study.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEWS OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature reviews for this study encompass three broad areas: human rights education, middle childhood social and moral development, and children's prosocial behavior. These reviews were conducted to provide a sound conceptual basis for the study. The purpose of these reviews was twofold: first, to determine key issues, problems, and needs to be considered in the design and implementation of a model human rights curriculum in the elementary school; and second, to assist in the evaluation of the curriculum and its effects in a fourth grade classroom.

The literature on human rights education includes both theory and practice. The principles of human rights education and the suitability of human rights instruction for the elementary level have been expounded upon by a number of human rights educators. It was also important to look at existing curricula and the few studies which have assessed human rights education implementation in order to build upon the successes of others and fill in the gaps between theory and practice in the design of the curriculum for this study.

Human rights education encompasses multicultural, global, civic, and moral concerns. Educational programs in each of these areas often incorporate many of the principles of human rights education (Wade, 1990). Although not reviewed here, the reader may
be interested in examining the literature in these areas as a means to further develop a human rights curriculum.

Although the human rights education literature provided the principal frame for this study, the literature on middle childhood development was also deemed important. Because the study was conducted in a class of nine to eleven year olds, it was imperative to understand the developmental characteristics and needs of this age group. A focus on the moral and social development of middle childhood is presented here.

An understanding of the literature on children's prosocial behavior was also necessary as the study sought to assess how the human rights curriculum influenced students' peer relationships and their propensity for helpful acts. Since the prosocial literature refers frequently to the related constructs of empathy, altruism, and perspective taking, these are also discussed in this review.

**The Literature on Human Rights Education**

The literature on human rights education has been organized according to the following key questions.

- Why is human rights education important?
- What are the key components of human rights education?
- Why begin human rights education at the elementary level?
- What obstacles exist to effective implementation of human rights education in public elementary school settings?
- What published curricula for human rights education at the elementary level are in existence and how well do they support the goals of the field?
What are the research findings on implementing human rights education programs in public elementary school settings?

Why Is Human Rights Education Important?

Because human rights are fundamental to our nature and universally claimed as vital to every person's health and well-being, it is essential that students are educated about their rights and related responsibilities to uphold others' rights. Tarrow (1988) defines human rights education as "the conscious effort, both through specific content as well as process, to develop in students an awareness of their rights (and responsibilities), to sensitize them to the rights of others, and to encourage responsible action to secure the rights of all" (p.1). These goals are also part of multicultural education, global education, and other curricula with social justice emphasis.

Understanding and working for human rights is important on all levels, from the individual to the global (Branson and Torney-Purta, 1982). "Human rights affect us daily--in the work place, in daily exchanges with employers, stores where we do business, workers' compensation boards, as well as before the courts" (Eliadis and Birks, 1989). The exploration of the meaning and importance of human rights in the classroom is essential for "the development of individual abilities to reshape one's personal circumstances, democratic citizenship requirements, and the understanding of domestic and international events" (Ball and Tekach-Ball, 1987, p. 130).

Explicit education for human rights in our classrooms can help to insure that people will not be denied their rights. "To deny human
beings their rights is to set the stage for political and social unrest—wars, hostility between nations and between groups within nations" (United Nations, 1980). Any teacher will note that the absence of rights and responsibilities even at the level of the classroom can only lead to conflict and ultimately chaos.

Another reason for including human rights education in the public school agenda grows out of the competing demands for time made by many social action movements in an already overcrowded curriculum. Many authors note that human rights education is closely linked with one or more of the following: peace, global, moral, civic, multicultural, anti-racist, environmental and law-related education (Branson and Torney-Purta, 1982; Butts, 1982; Shafer, 1987; Tarrow, 1991; Tucker, 1982).

Since the principles of human rights permeate each of these programs, however, a focus on the process and content of human rights education would assure attention to the critical aspects of each. Thus, human rights education can serve as the unifying factor which cuts across current efforts to produce informed and active citizens of their communities, their nations and of an interdependent world. (Tarrow, 1991, p. 12).

What Are the Key Components of Human Rights Education?

The aims of human rights education are diverse though there is much agreement about what is important. The underlying foundation of all human rights education is the equality and dignity of every human being, regardless of race, ethnicity, sex, age, religion, and physical ability. Effective human rights education teaches children to stand up for their own rights and also to work for the rights of others who are oppressed, from children of color or disability in the classroom to people in their community and world. Human rights
education, therefore, must pay attention to multicultural, global, moral, and civic concerns.

Most human rights educators stress the importance of attention to the following areas: attitudes, knowledge, action skills, classroom climate, and specific strategies for teaching human rights at the intermediate level.

**Attitudes**

Human rights educators emphasize the necessity of developing in children attitudes of respect, tolerance, and empathy for others. Heater (1984) maintains that attitudes are more important than knowledge in human rights education because

if a student emerges from a course of study with a blinkered view of my rights as an individual or our rights as a group or country, the crucial appreciation of the reciprocity and universality of rights may be totally lost (p. 2).

Anderson (1982) notes that if students are to have respect for others they must first have self-respect. Teachers can foster students' self-respect by creating a democratic classroom where students' rights and opinions are valued.

Another key attitude closely related to respect is tolerance. Human rights educators believe that tolerance for others' differences is essential if we are to support dignity and respect for all people. However, tolerance should be seen as only a first step, since it implies a lack of appreciation, connection, and viewing oneself on an equal level as the other. Also, one should not interpret tolerance as the acceptance of human rights violations.
It is also important to develop intellectual honesty in recognizing one's own prejudices (Heater, 1984; Richardson, 1982). Being aware of and being willing to work on one's biases and misconceptions is integral to a respect for truth and reasoning (Heater, 1984; Lister, 1984).

Heater (1984) asserts that in considering the attitudes to be fostered in human rights education, feelings of empathy, humaneness, and compassion are essential. Empathy may be closely connected with perspective-taking and helps to decrease ethnocentrism, egocentrism, and stereotypical thinking (Anderson, 1982).

**Knowledge**

Many human rights educators stress, first of all, that students need to understand the concept of human rights (Heater, 1984; Henry, 1985; Lister, 1981; Lister, 1984; Totten, 1986; UNESCO, 1980). This is especially important at the intermediate level as research has shown that upper elementary students do not understand the concept, despite a concern for rights in their own lives (Hahn, 1985; Starkey, 1986; Torney-Purta, 1982).

Other concepts mentioned frequently in the literature as important in human rights education are: freedom, equality, dignity, justice, power, conflict, discrimination, peace, democracy, and self-determination (Council of Europe, 1985; Heater, 1984; Lister, 1981). Both Torney-Purta (1982) and Heater (1984) caution the human rights educator to be careful in how these concepts are presented to elementary school children who are still concrete thinkers. For
example, a fourth grader might interpret "free" to mean "without payment" or "equal" as "numerically balanced" (Torney-Purta, 1982).

Balancing national human rights concerns with international human rights issues is another important aspect of the knowledge base of this field and can be fostered through the use of documents such as The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of the Child (see Appendices) (Council of Europe, 1985; Hahn, 1985; Totten, 1986; Torney, 1980; UNESCO, 1980). Lister (1984) asserts that attention should also be given to balancing violations of human rights with efforts to preserve or restore them and including both social/economic rights and political/civil rights in the curriculum.

In addition to understanding the different types of rights, students should become knowledgeable about the various forms of injustice, inequality and discrimination, including racism and sexism (Tarrow, 1991; United Nations, 1983). One means for exploring both the injustices and the successes in the history of human rights is to learn about human rights activists such as Martin Luther King and Ghandi and to examine their struggles in the context of key events in the history of human rights (Tarrow, 1991; United Nations, 1983).

The end results of acquiring knowledge in a human rights curriculum are that students should be able to know what human rights are, understand how to recognize a human rights issue, and be familiar with the major human rights documents in their nation and world (Lister, 1984).
Action Skills

For many human rights educators, knowledge is not an entirely sufficient outcome of human rights education. Henry (1985), Kohl (1985), and others assert that students should gain the skills and experiences so that they have "a heightened sense of personal and collective agency and a more apparent willingness to engage in action to solve personally meaningful social problems" (Kohl, 1985, p. 70). Hahn (1985) and Totten (1986) refer to the importance of developing social participation skills while students take part in action projects to benefit others.

Heater (1984) takes a strong stand on the importance of action projects in the human rights curriculum. "It is the duty of teachers of human rights...to bring their pupils to a responsible interest in such problems and to a realization, that, with the necessary effort, everyone can help in some small way" (p. 25). Heater maintains that teaching students to be active change makers in their world involves the teaching of skills for critical thinking and oral and written expression.

Schmidt-Sinns (1980) asserts that there are four essential skills to creating change. These are problem consciousness, the ability to analyze a situation, the ability to make a judgment about what to do, and the readiness to participate in social action. Being able to take action on an issue also involves the social skills of communicating, cooperating with others, and resolving conflicts in non-violent ways (United Nations, 1983).
**Classroom Climate**

A number of human rights educators believe that students can learn more about human rights through the classroom climate and social relations than through any presented activities or lessons (Anderson, 1982; Hines and Wood, 1969; Richardson, 1982; Shafer, 1987; Starkey, 1986; United Nations, 1983; Vandenberg, 1984; White, 1986). They assert that establishing a democratic classroom, where students make choices which influence the course of their daily lives, is essential if educators are to turn around "the common assumption that what happens in society depends on forces over which ordinary people have no control" (White, 1986, p. 13). Lister (1984) sees teaching and learning in human rights, that is, an atmosphere that reflects a concern for the ideals and practice of human rights, as a higher aim than teaching for or about human rights.

Kohl (1985) admonishes teachers to "Think about and then live human rights in the classroom before you teach them" (p. 499). He asserts that human rights cannot be discussed in a serious manner in a classroom unless students have the rights under discussion. By making the topic a part of everyday classroom life, teachers and students "will be in a decent position to enlarge their collective vision and look at human rights in the world" (Kohl, 1985, p. 499).

Richardson (1982) details the establishing of a democratic climate appropriate for the teaching of human rights into eight smaller tasks. These are the following:

- Establishing and acknowledging the knowledge and opinions which students already have.
• Getting to know and to trust each other, and to respect each other as potential resources.
• Getting a sense of initial self-confidence through the successful completion of simple tasks.
• Getting a sense of the whole.
• Adopting a problem-centred and action-oriented approach to the subject area.
• Realizing that the subject area is controversial.
• Being stimulated and challenged by their own prejudice and ignorance.
• Taking a measure of responsibility for designing and managing the rest of the course. (pp. 3-5).

**Teaching Strategies**

Establishing a supportive and respectful classroom climate also involves the use of effective teaching strategies. Teaching in a democratic classroom environment requires reform of the traditional, frontal processes of teaching. Teachers should employ a wide range of methods that actively involve the students and engage their thinking in an open and accepting way (Kohl, 1985; Lister, 1984; Pearse, 1987). One such method is conducting discussion "which takes place in an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect, and which is not opened, defined, led, redirected, and closed by the teacher" (Reid, n.d., p. 5). Lister (1984) also stresses the importance of open discussion of controversial issues where students are listened to and their contributions are valued.

Another teaching strategy of importance in human rights education is the use of interactive or cooperative learning (Reid, n.d.). Kehoe (1980) conducted a study comparing a whole class
discussion method with small group interactive learning and found the latter method to be a more effective strategy for teaching about human rights. Research on cooperative learning has revealed that working in groups contributes to increased cognitive and affective perspective taking and more frequent interactions across ethnic, social class, and other barriers (Cohen, 1986; Torney-Purta, 1982). Students learn to respect each other, appreciate each other's contributions, and hear others' perspectives while working toward a common goal.

Role play and simulations are also particularly effective for helping students take the perspectives of others (Hahn, 1985; Heater, 1984; Kehoe, 1983; Lister, 1984; Torney-Purta, 1984; UNESCO, 1980b). Simulations allow students to enter into the feelings of people in situations they often cannot directly experience. Both role play and simulations "not only make abstract issues seem more concrete, but can encourage personal involvement and empathy" (Reid, n.d.). The use of case studies also involves discussing or participating in a simulated experience and later developing concepts and generalizations about them (Richardson, 1982).

Teaching with stories and books about human rights issues can help students understand the struggles and feelings of others as well as highlight peaceful solutions to difficult problems (Fassler and Janis, 1985). Branson (1982) makes an impassioned case for the inclusion of books about human rights experiences in the curriculum.

To read books such as these is to transcend the confines of time, geography, and culture...To read them is to be one with
other human beings as they know despair, experience pain, harbor hope, struggle for justice, and, on occasion, triumph in spirit, if not in body. To read such books is to understand human rights in very personal ways, ways which no scholarly articles and no factual reports, however well-written or well-documented, can communicate (p. 83).

It is important to acknowledge the discomfort which can be raised by human rights issues and to give students an opportunity to reflect on and share their feelings. Open discussion as described above is one such strategy; journal writing is another. Students can explore their understanding of issues, share concerns, and note questions that may not have answers or conclusions (Snow, Mack, and Burt, 1985). Reading students' journals can be an important source of information for teachers as they assess what students are learning about human rights.

Many human rights educators stress the importance of providing students with the opportunity to take their thoughts, concerns, and feelings into an action project (Hahn, 1985; Lister, 1984; Mayher, 1985; Richardson, 1982; Webb, n.d.). The importance of action skills in the goals of human rights education was discussed briefly above. Student action projects at the intermediate level can involve conducting interviews and surveys, writing letters to organizations, public officials, or local newspapers, doing volunteer work, or fundraising for an organization such as Amnesty International or OXFAM. Hahn (1985) notes that students can also work on human rights projects in their schools, for example, by improving conditions for the physically challenged, protecting the rights of young children on the playground, or speaking out against racism.
Human rights educators note that the study of human rights should be integrated throughout the curriculum (Heater, 1984; Lefever, 1985; Lister, 1984; Starkey, 1986; UNESCO, 1980a; Urman, 1986). Although particularly suited to the social sciences, literature, and history, the study of human rights should pervade all subject areas as well as daily interactions in the classroom. It is especially important at the elementary level to integrate the study of human rights with concrete experiences in students' lives (Torney-Purta, 1984). Integrating human rights studies in the curriculum and in daily life helps to ground issues in reality and takes human rights education out of the realm of the abstract or grandiose (Lister, 1984).

Finally, a number of educators assert that students should be involved in designing the human rights curriculum (Branson and Torney-Purta, 1982; Richardson, 1982; UNESCO, 1980b). A study by Richter and Tjosvold (cited in Torney-Purta, 1982) compared elementary school students who were given the opportunity to choose topics and to plan major learning activities in their social studies classrooms with others who participated in teacher-designed activities. Students who participated in planning had more favorable attitudes towards school, social studies, and their peers, as well as more consistent behavior on tasks and more effective learning.

To summarize this section of the review of the human rights education literature, a list of the key components of human rights education are listed below.
The effective human rights curriculum aims to develop:

ATTITUDES: respect, tolerance, empathy, compassion

KNOWLEDGE: the concept of human rights and related concepts of freedom, dignity, equality, power, justice, conflict, discrimination, peace, democracy, and self-determination; knowledge of national and international issues, violations and preservations of rights; familiarity with major human rights documents in one's nation and world; key people and events in the history of human rights; understanding the various forms of injustice

SKILLS: action skills, critical thinking, oral and written expression ability to recognize and analyze a problem, choose a course of action, readiness to participate, social skills, conflict resolution skills

DEMOCRATIC CLASSROOM CLIMATE

TEACHING STRATEGIES: open discussion, cooperative and interactive learning, role play, simulation, case studies, reading of stories and books about human rights, journal writing, action projects, integrating human rights issues throughout the curriculum, integrating human rights issues in concrete, daily life experiences, involving students in designing the curriculum

Why Begin Human Rights Education at the Elementary Level?
The middle childhood years are considered by many human rights educators to be "a critical or optimal period for the development of attitudes towards other nations and global issues in general and toward human rights in particular" (Torney, 1980)
Middle childhood appears to be a time of important developmental changes. Torney (1980) describes the studies of ten researchers who conclude that this period is characterized by rapid growth in cognition about social events.

There are also a number of studies which indicate that the middle childhood period is a time of decreased concern for conformity and more positive attitudes towards different others than are present in adolescence (Torney, 1980). Lambert and Klineberg (cited in Torney, 1980) conducted a key study in this regard. They interviewed 6, 10, and 14 year olds from 11 parts of the world and found that American 10 year olds were particularly receptive to information about foreign peoples and were interested in people who were dissimilar as well as similar to themselves. Although Torney does not report the results of this study for students in other countries, she does cite studies conducted with Dutch and Scottish children which also revealed more positive attitudes towards other countries and foreign peoples at the ages of ten or twelve (Torney, 1980).

Schmidt-Sinns (1980), a German scholar, also concludes that the middle childhood years are the best place to begin human rights instruction. He notes that for pupils at the primary level, the issue of human rights appears to be too abstract, yet it is a mistake to wait until students are teenagers because "politically relevant attitudes, such as empathy and solidarity, a sense of freedom and a feeling for right and wrong, are implanted at an earlier age" (p. 178).
The Canadian Human Rights Foundation (1989) chose to focus their curriculum development work on the middle childhood period because children at age nine seem to have reached a level of cognitive development which enables them to understand the most important concepts of human rights. They have a keen sense of justice, a capacity for analysis and for critical judgement. (p. 23).

Branson and Torney-Purta (1982) note that aspects of the elementary school curriculum also indicate the importance of human rights education for this level. A survey of elementary school curricula revealed that attempts to make students aware of cultural differences are so pervasive, that the students may not realize that all people have common basic needs and aspirations. Also, rights are often presented in the curriculum in a national rather than global context. The authors contend that international human rights education can contribute to dissipating students' egocentric and ethnocentric views of rights and other peoples, which are fostered in part by the curriculum.

In summary, the middle childhood period appears to be a critical period for human rights instruction. The Canadian Human Rights Foundation (1989) notes after three years of work with grade 4-6 students in most of the provinces in Canada, that intermediate students are extremely motivated by the study of human rights and, according to self and teacher reports, show increases in tolerance, motivation, class participation, and "a very great capacity for empathy with those who have been denied rights" (p. 19).
What Obstacles Exist to Effective Implementation of Human Rights Education in Public Elementary School Settings?

Despite the importance of human rights education and its suitability for the elementary school level as indicated in this review thus far, the lack of human rights education taking place in public schools is well documented (Fraenkel, 1980; Hahn, 1985; Hicks, 1986; Kehoe, 1983; Lister, 1984; Torney, 1980; Urman, 1986). Human rights educators cite a number of obstacles to implementing human rights education in the schools.

The lack of effective teaching materials is a major problem (Heater, 1984; Kehoe, 1983; Lister 1984; Pettman and Gleeson, 1984; Urman, 1986). Most of the writing about human rights education has been theoretical and speculative. Although more curricula have been developed in recent years, most of it is aimed at the secondary level. The best curricula for the elementary level I have found have been from outside of the United States (notably Canada and Australia) so the availability of suitable materials seems particularly limited for teachers in this country.

But even with curricula in hand, teachers are generally hesitant to teach about human rights, in part because they see them as abstract, complex, and difficult to relate to the real life situations of students (Conley, 1984; Heater, 1984; Lister, 1984; Molnar, 1980). This is particularly true for teachers at the elementary level. Kohl (1985) maintains that the teaching of human rights is not without risks, that there are few if any "safe" rights issues to address in class, and that it is not easy for teachers to sort out their own thinking on complex rights issues, "much less
help guide young people through the moral labyrinth of rights and obligations" (p. 498).

Many teachers see human rights education as a controversial or subversive activity (Pettman and Gleeson, 1984). Lister (1984) notes that human rights education may be uncongenial to governments "who may use human rights slogans as a stick with which to beat their enemies and who may view human rights education as a stick with which their own nationals might beat them" (p. 1). This position may seem severe in regards to the United States, given the government's professed emphasis on democratic freedoms. Still, there is a controversial nature to discussing human rights issues in the classroom, particularly in regards to violations occurring in one's own community or nation. Ball and Tekach-Ball (1987) note that most "educators have a stake in preserving the present order of things, and teaching students how to change the prevailing order is not in their interest" (p. 134).

Because of potential negative ramifications, teachers who do teach about human rights in the classroom may tend to focus either exclusively on support for rights in their country or on the violations in other countries. There is the dangerous possibility with these practices that students can come to see human rights as invented by their own country and violated only in other parts of the world (Heater, 1984; Nelson, 1980; Torney, 1980). This self-centered, stereotypic thinking can lead to human rights education becoming nationalistic and doctrinaire rather than supportive of all people's rights and dignity (Nelson, 1980).
In a recent presentation at an international conference on human rights education, Norma Tarrow (1991) shared some additional reasons why implementing human rights education in schools is a complex and challenging task. On a societal level, hazy borders between federal and state responsibility for the development and dissemination of curricula may lead to ineffective human rights curricula implementation. Also, educators may perceive various social education movements—such as global, multicultural, and human rights education—as competing for time in an already overcrowded curriculum. In actuality, these movements are compatible and entail a different emphasis rather than additional time in the curriculum.

Another drawback is that most of the human rights educational materials are presented in a top-down manner, with little input from teachers. There have also been very few research studies assessing the effects of human rights instruction which is in part related to inadequate summative and formative evaluation tools and findings.

Support for teachers who do wish to bring the study of human rights into the classroom is also lacking. The field needs to focus on both pre-service and inservice training as well as establishing ongoing, supportive networks for those working in the field.

For all of these reasons, implementing human rights education in the elementary school curriculum is a challenging task which will probably proceed slowly. It is likely that this work will take place largely through the initiative of caring, interested teachers who
envision the important place of teaching about rights and responsibilities in creating a world of dignity and justice for all.

What Published Curricula for Human Rights Education at the Elementary Level Are in Existence and How Well Do They Support the Goals of the Field?

Though most of the writings on human rights education are theoretical in nature, a number of human rights curricula for the elementary level were located. Some of these curricula have been developed by state or large city education departments in the United States. Others are published outside the United States, notably in Canada and Australia. A third source of human rights curricula come from social action organizations such as Amnesty International.

There are undoubtedly many other human rights curricula developed by individual teachers and schools. There are also many related curriculum materials from other social education movements which could be used in human rights education. These materials on anti-racist, global, environmental and other issues are too numerous to include in this review, though some are described briefly in the Related Curriculum Materials section of Appendix I.

Pettman and Gleeson (1984) note that

while there are excellent kits etc. on aspects of human rights, e.g. racism, sexism, equality of opportunity, the law, there is a dearth of works that gather the diverse threads of which international human rights legislation is woven into one synoptic array (p. 43).

The curricula discussed here are those that focus on teaching about human rights as a central concept and that a teacher or researcher would find when conducting an international review of
the literature on human rights education. Thus they are influential not only in the cities, states, and countries where they are in use, but also as guides for those who are designing new curricula.

Using the list of key components for human rights education described in the earlier part of this review, a number of commercially available curricula were analyzed for their strengths and weaknesses in incorporating these curricular components. The curricula examined for this discussion were:


Although there is much to commend in these curricula in regards to including key concepts and attitudes, balancing important concerns, and employing many effective teaching strategies, there is a consistent and disturbing lack of some of the essential components of effective human rights curricula. The exception to this is the curriculum by the Canadian Human Rights Foundation, in general an exemplary curriculum for the intermediate level. At the present time, however, this curriculum is not commercially published and readily accessible in the United States. Since the other curricula mentioned here are more widely used and available
here in the United States, I feel it is important to summarize what these curricula are lacking.

None of the units focus on creating a democratic classroom environment, giving students opportunities to have input into the design of the unit, or making action projects a central aspect of the curriculum. In light of the discussion of the importance of these elements to effective human rights education, these omissions are alarming.

Indeed there seems to be an implicit assumption that curricula should be designed by experts and carried out as written. The teacher is seen as someone "who in the main is putting into practice ideas that have been developed elsewhere" (Okunrotifa, 1984, p. 169). This point of view denies the uniqueness of the teacher and the specific needs, interests, and abilities of the students (Okunrotifa, 1984).

A further assumption underlying these curricula is that while schools should prepare students to be able to function as active participants in their world, meaningful real world action is not the province of the school curriculum. This review has indicated a dire need for human rights curricula that incorporate these important aspects of human rights education, are commercially available, and are based in part on pertinent issues in the United States.

What Are the Research Findings on Implementing Human Rights Education Programs in Public Elementary School Settings?

Only two studies were located which attempted to assess the effectiveness of human rights education in the elementary
classroom. Kehoe (cited in Ray and D'Oyley, 1983) compared two approaches to teaching the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Discussion Approach involved teacher-led discussion of the articles and examples of violations of their principles. The teacher asked questions such as "Is it right?" and "Should this practice be allowed to continue?". It was hoped that this approach would encourage students to make rational and consistent value judgments.

In the Investigations Approach, students discussed the Declaration articles in small groups of three or four and then completed individual activities at learning centers analyzing newspaper and magazine articles while illustrated contraventions of the Declaration Articles. As they completed work at one station, they moved on to the next in an effort to complete as many as possible in the two day treatment.

Although both approaches were equally effective in promoting moral judgments based on the principles in the United Nations document, the Investigations Approach "was more effective at teaching students knowledge of international law on the issues" (Ray and D'Oyley, 1983, p. 78). The authors conclude therefore that the learning center approach was generally more effective in achieving the desired outcomes.

The study was conducted in sixth grade classrooms at two sites: Michie's class in an inner city, Catholic, multicultural school and Hitchcock's class in a rural/suburban public school with little racial or cultural diversity. Methods of data collection included interviews with students, field notes, students' written work, and surveys sent to parents. Also, a concerted effort was made to involve students' evaluation of their own learning through the use of feedback following specific activities as well as asking students at the end of the unit "What will you remember from our lessons on human rights?". All of these data collection methods were used in my research.

Both of the classroom teachers expressed concerns about the controversial nature of some human rights issues. Hitchcock felt that he and his students could not deal very well with the topics in a section called "Right to Live and Right to Die." These included abortion, euthanasia, suicide, and capital punishment. Both Hitchcock and Michie assert that human rights education is best suited to a democratic environment where teachers and administrators respect students and welcome their input in decision making.

Among the effects the teachers mentioned which they felt were due to the curriculum were increased mixing in activities between the sexes and increased questioning of authority. Both teachers noted that students became engaged in projects to improve their rights or rights of others in the school. Michie feels that the students must be encouraged to balance concerns for their rights with their responsibilities to others.
Henry's study draws the following tentative conclusions about the effects of the human rights curriculum, noting that there was great variability from student to student in their interests and learning.

- increased interest in human rights and issues to do with human rights
- increased understanding of human rights and human rights issues
- a heightened sense of personal and collective agency and a more apparent willingness to engage in action to solve personally meaningful social problems
- a more obvious inclination to listen to others' points of view and to refrain from shouting opponents down, interjecting and engaging in verbal aggression
- a more lively sense of how to deal with, and how not to deal with, influential opponents
- a more personally meaningful sense of what can be gained by establishing wider networks of social contacts, including those with other people interested in human rights issues
- a deeper understanding of the relationship between rights and responsibilities
- a greater awareness that education can be enjoyable and that getting the world under rational control can be a satisfying and empowering process. (Henry et al, 1985, pp. 70-71).

Although not a formal study, the evaluation of the Canadian Human Rights Foundation during the pilot testing of its curriculum also highlights some important benefits of human rights education. The Foundation concludes that while students at the intermediate level do not understand all the concepts involved with human rights education at first, "the transformation in students' attitudes and their increased tolerance quickly become apparent" (1989, p. 23).
The authors note that most teachers reported an increase in student participation and motivation during the curriculum. Student interest, motivation, and attitude change are all reflected in the following excerpt from a student evaluation of the curriculum, "I never really paid any attention to discrimination. Now I realize that I must try to stop it wherever I can" (Canadian Human Rights Foundation, 1989, p. 21).

**Conclusion**

Effective human rights education begins at the elementary level, when children are more open to appreciating differences, and includes foci on attitudes, knowledge, action skills, and a democratic classroom climate. Human rights education must be embodied in a respect for human rights in the classroom and school as well as in the inclusion of a social action component where students work to help others keep or regain their rights. Teaching strategies which will enhance human rights instruction include reading literature about human rights, journal writing, role play, cooperative learning, and other interactive methods.

The review of the human rights education literature has revealed a lack of exemplary curricula, particularly through commercial availability in the United States. Though there are many curricular materials focussing on aspects of human rights education, the only comprehensive source for the intermediate level was developed by the Canadian Human Rights Foundation. The review has also revealed that there have been very few efforts to date to assess the effects of human rights education in the elementary school.
The Literature on Social and Moral Development in Middle Childhood

Because this study focuses on assessing the affects of a curriculum on a group of nine to eleven year old children, it is imperative to have a broad understanding of the developmental characteristics of this age group. Therefore the literatures on both social and moral development in preadolescence are briefly reviewed here.

The review of the literature on social development in middle childhood focuses on peer relationships, as the study took place within the social milieu of the classroom. Even though parents, grandparents, and teachers are important and influential people in the preadolescent child's world (Buhrmester, 1990; Furman and Buhrmester, 1985), the peer relationship, with its focus on equality and reciprocity, is an important vehicle for fostering a concern for human rights and other moral issues (Damon, 1988; Piaget, 1932).

Prosocial behavior is tied closely to both social and moral aspects of children's lives. Subsequently, the literature on children's prosocial behavior will be presented.

The questions which frame this part of the literature review are the following:

• Why is peer interaction important?
• What are the characteristics of preadolescent children's relationships?
• How does gender affect children's interactions?
• What is the role of prosocial behavior in preadolescent relationships?
• How do children's peer relationships foster moral development?
• What are the moral concerns of the preadolescent child?
• How do stage theories contribute to our understanding of preadolescent social and moral development?

Why Is Peer Interaction Important?

Peer interactions, and particularly friendships, are an important basis for healthy, mature interpersonal relationships (Oppenheimer and Thijssen, 1983). With peers, children learn concern for others' well-being, a sense of connectedness to others, and responsibility to others' needs (Eisenberg, 1987). Friendship in childhood also provides companionship, stimulation, physical support, ego support, and opportunities for social comparison (Ginsburg, Gottman, and Parker, 1986). Piaget (1932) stresses the need for peer interaction in fostering moral development.

Damon and Phelps (1989) note that repeated studies have shown that peer interaction is conducive, perhaps even essential to children's understanding of fairness, their self-esteem, their tendencies toward prosocial behavior, and their acquisition of role taking and communication skills. Studies with preadolescent children have confirmed that their peer relationships are important sources of intimacy, companionship, and self-esteem (Buhrmester, 1990; Furman and Buhrmester, 1985).

In a study which compared and contrasted the social networks of fifth and sixth graders, Furman and Buhrmester (1985) found that friends were the greatest source of companionship and that friends and mothers were given the highest ratings for intimacy on the self
report questionnaire used. Also, children reported having more power in their relationships with other children than in their relationships with adults.

In a later study, Buhrmester (1990) attempted to prove that intimacy of friendship is more important in adolescence than in preadolescence. On the one hand, self-reported friendship intimacy was more strongly related to adjustment and interpersonal competence for the thirteen to sixteen year olds than for the ten to thirteen year olds. On the other hand, the age differences were not significant but merely modest. Thus, one can conclude that friendship intimacy is also important in preadolescence.

What Are the Characteristics of Preadolescent Children's Relationships?

Many researchers have noted that children's peer relationships develop from being one-sided and egocentric to becoming more reciprocal and encompassing other's perspectives by the preadolescent years (Damon, 1988; Oppenheimer and Thijssen, 1983; Piaget, 1932; Selman, 1980). LeMare and Rubin (1987) found that third grade children who were better at perspective taking were more sociable than their peers. De Brun (1981) notes that by age ten or eleven, the child can better identify with peers due to both greater intellectual capacity and increased socialization experiences. Most children at these ages are spending increasing time outside of the home, primarily interacting with peers in school, at church, in camp or scout activities, and so forth (Higgins and Parsons, 1983).
Berndt and Perry (1990) cite these common aspects of preadolescent friendships: mutual liking and assistance, talking, laughing, smiling, joking. Conflict is also present, though friendships are somewhat more stable than in earlier years and last for several months at least (Berndt and Perry, 1990). Whereas earlier friendships were chosen according to convenience, preadolescent friendships are chosen increasingly for their temperament or personal attributes (Gesell et al, 1956; Serafica, 1982), though Epstein (1989) notes that proximity is a key factor in choice of friends.

Preadolescent friendships are characterized by equality and reciprocity as well as similar interests (Piaget, 1932; Serafica, 1982). Although reciprocity is present in earlier years in a "tit for tat" fashion, during middle childhood friends' efforts to meet each others' needs can be balanced over time (Keller and Edelstein, 1990). This aspect of children's friendships contributes to their endurance.

Although friendships are more stable in middle childhood than previously, they are still subject to change (Ladd, 1989). Children tend to choose friends who are the same age, live close to them, and have many similarities, though friendship selection can be altered by conscious changes in the environment, such as using mixed-age and cooperative groups in schools (Damon and Phelps, 1989; Epstein, 1989; Hartup, 1989).

One of the most important features of friendships in middle childhood is the sharing of group norms, values, rules, and sanctions (Emmerich and Goldman, 1983; Serafica, 1982). Conformity to the peer cult is essential (de Brun, 1981). There are cliques and
hierarchical arrangements in middle childhood. "In group and out
group membership is a volatile, occasionally capricious affair"
(Parker and Gottman, 1989). Gottman and Mettetal (1986) maintain
that much preadolescent conversation has a "we against others"
quality. "The coordination of play is no longer the goal of
interaction. Not being rejected by the peer group is the goal"
(Gottman and Mettetal, 1986, p. 197).

Preadolescent children spend much more time in negative
evaluation gossip—conversations that put down other peers—than
younger or older children. Perhaps because children are insecure
about their social position, they spend much energy buttressing their
social status and guarding against rejection (Parker and Gottman,
1989). Indeed, Gottman and Mettetal (1986) maintain that gossip is
the most salient social process in middle childhood. The objectives
of gossip are to figure out the norms of the group, to project
unacceptable feelings on others, and to avoid being considered weird
by affirming that someone else is. Through shared negative
evaluation gossip, similarity and solidarity are established. Waas
and Honer (1990) found that negative bias against peers increased in
boys from the second to the sixth grade. The study did not include
girls so it is unclear whether this effect would be found for them as
well.

Both cooperation and conflict play important roles in
preadolescents' peer relationships (Hartup, 1989). Although more
research is needed, it appears that cooperation occurs more readily
between friends than non-friends throughout childhood (Hartup,
1989). "Cooperation is both a condition that contributes to the
maintenance of children's friendships and an outcome of them" (Hartup, 1989, p. 54) Cooperation and other prosocial aspects of children's relationships will be discussed in greater detail in the review on children's prosocial behavior.

Although preadolescents often feel that conflict and friendship are not compatible (Berndt and Perry, 1986; Hartup, 1989), there are numerous difficulties in their friendships. Hitting, name calling, breaking a promise, and revealing secrets are all considered violations of the norms of friendship (Serafica, 1982). "Getting mad" and "not playing" are frequent occurrences, particularly among girls (Gesell et al, 1956) and put downs, teasing, and insults are common among both boys and girls (Gottman and Mettetal, 1986). Hartup (1989) notes that school children whose conflict resolution strategies are aimed at solutions that are mutually satisfying are more successful at creating the "climate of agreement" that supports friendships.

How Does Gender Affect Children's Interactions?

Cross sex interactions in middle childhood are less frequent than same sex experiences and often engender difficulties. Gottman (1986) notes that by fourth grade there is a dramatic decline in cross sex friendships. Although cross sex friendships and attractions do exist, children who engage in cross sex interactions are in danger of being teased by peers (Gottman and Mettetal, 1986). In general, there is disdain between the sexes in preadolescence, evidenced in the well-documented phenomenon of self-selected sex segregation in friendship choices, play behavior, and work partner
preferences (Gesell, 1977; Gesell et al, 1956; Lockheed, 1986; Scott, 1985).

In a study attempting to change sex segregated behaviors and attitudes in 38 fourth and fifth grade classrooms, Lockheed (1986) found that for boys, at least, increased cross sex interactions were associated with greater preference for such interactions. However, the interventions had little if any effect on girls' preferences and sociometric ratings of either sex. Most expressed negative statements about cross sex classmates, though Lockheed speculates that this may have been due to the group norm of negative regard for the opposite sex. In Oppenheimer and Thijssen's (1983) study of children's thinking about friendships, all the fourth graders assigned the lowest popularity scores to peers of the other sex.

It is possible that the disdain for the opposite sex is due in part to the differences in boys' and girls' friendships (Scott, 1986). Girls generally like to play with one other girl or a very small group, whereas boys usually have a broader network of friends and play in larger groups (Berndt, 1983; Scott, 1986). Boys tend to be more competitive with their friends, whereas girls are generally more interested in equality and interpersonal harmony than superiority (Berndt, 1983; Berndt, Perry, and Miller, 1988; Gilligan, 1977).

What Is the Role of Prosocial Behavior in Preadolescent Relationships?

Despite the frequent problems and conflicts in preadolescent friendships in both same sex and cross sex interactions, children of this age generally behave more prosocially in their peer interactions than younger children (Bar Tal, 1976; Damon, 1988; Eisenberg and
Mussen, 1989; Higgins and Parsons, 1983; Serafica, 1982). "There is the beginning of a 'we' feeling that is more than just cooperation and involves collaboration in the sense of adjustment to others' needs in pursuit of mutual interests" (Higgins and Parsons, 1983, p. 25).

During preadolescence, trust and loyal support become defining attributes of friendship and notions of "kind" acts include helping and aiding others (Higgins and Parsons, 1983). Nine and ten year olds feel that a friend should be reliable as well as supportive (Serafica, 1982) and that sharing time, resources, and assistance are important (Ginsberg, Gottman, and Parker, 1986).

The role of prosocial behavior in friendship can only be understood in reference to specific situations however (Bemdt, 1983; Ginsberg, Gottman, and Parker, 1986). In some situations, friends are strongly motivated to compete rather than cooperate. "Competition between friends is especially likely when they are forced to compare their relative performance on tasks measuring an important ability or skill" (Bemdt, 1983, p. 183). Bemdt et al (1988) mention three studies where children who believed they were in a contest actually shared less with their friends than with their nonfriends. They interpret these results as follows.

Apparently, children view their friendships as based on equality, so they feel upset in situations in which they might end up seeming inferior to a friend. In such situations, children compete even more intensely with friends than with other classmates (Bemdt et al, 1988, p. 506).

The contextual nature of children's prosocial behavior will be elaborated further in the last section of this chapter.
How Do Children’s Peer Relationships Foster Moral Development?

Both Piaget (1932) and Damon (1988) assert that morality is social; morality develops within the social context of egalitarian peer communication (Lapsley and Quintana, 1985). "Simply by virtue of their participation in essential social relationships, children encounter the classic moral issues facing humans everywhere: issues of fairness, honesty, responsibility, kindness, and obedience" (Damon, 1988, p. 117).

As children mature and spend more time with their peers, they learn to cooperate and the nature of their respect shifts from the unilateral respect for the adult authority to a collateral respect for one's peers (Piaget, 1932). As children attempt to respect the rights, needs, and desires of their peers as well as their own, moral dilemmas result. Standards for fair and just action ensue from the struggle to balance another's perspective with one's own (Damon, 1988; Piaget, 1932). Social interactions and peer relationships in particular, then, have a special role in children's moral development.

What Are the Moral Concerns of the Preadolescent Child?

Preadolescents are beginning to develop a concern for their behavior based on social norms. Most children at this age believe that being a "good" person means being "nice" and it is important to be nice so that others will think well of you (social approval) and you can think well of yourself (self-esteem) (Lickona, 1983). Because preadolescents are beginning to understand others' perspectives, they can do good deeds for others and their growing sense of intention as an important component of behavior allows
them to be more flexible and forgiving in their moral judgments (Lickona, 1983).

The nine to eleven year old has an inherent interest in fairness and justice (Gesell et al, 1956; Gesell 1977). Middle childhood is a period of awakening morality and conscience, but this new conscience is both inner directed toward developing standards as well as outer directed because it depends on others to define what those standards should be (Lickona, 1983).

In addition to an interest in justice, some researchers have found evidence of a care orientation in children's views of morality. In a study of elementary children's moral orientations, Garrod, Beal and Shin (1990) found that children tended to adopt a care orientation as their first solution to problems in fables and to consider it as the best solution. Preadolescents are not just concerned with what is right in a given situation. Their conception of morality is strongly influenced by concerns for all those involved. The best solutions to most of the children were the ones in which everyone was happy.

Although a child's conscience is in a relative state of immaturity, adamant arguments for fair treatment are frequently forthcoming. These ethical orations may be directed at parents and teachers as well as to other children. Nucci and Nucci (1982) found that children's responses to moral transgressions in free play settings revolved around the hurtful and unjust consequences of acts upon victims. Other observational studies of children's behavior in school settings also reveal that children respond with great frequency to moral transgressions. They react to such actions with
statements of injury or loss, crying, angry outbursts, efforts to retaliate, and appeals to the transgressor to consider the effects of the act on the victim (Nucci, 1985). Boys are more likely than girls to respond with retaliatory behaviors (Nucci and Nucci, 1982).

Although they are less than perfect in living up to them, preadolescent children are beginning to develop a sense of ethical standards of conduct. Sometimes what is fair and what is wanted are not clearly separated and although children may mean to accept blame, tell the truth, and act responsibly towards others, they sometimes "miss the mark" (Gesell et al, 1956).

MacDonald (1988) asserts that the role of self-interest and rationalization in moral reasoning and behavior should not be overlooked. Children will often attempt to act in their self-interest and justify their actions to the best of their ability. As evidence for this, MacDonald (1988) cites a study by Streator and Chertkoff where children who contributed more to a task suggested a division of rewards based on equity, while children who contributed less or an average amount opted for equality.

Yet the preadolescent child is evolving out of a "what's in it for me" attitude and towards treating others in ways the child would like to be treated him or herself. As children develop empathy and perspective taking skills, their moral concerns may extend beyond their immediate situations to the plights of unfortunate peoples in other places (Damon, 1988). This aspect of the preadolescent's moral concerns, having obvious implications for human rights instruction, is discussed further in the review on prosocial behavior.
How Do Stage Theories Contribute to Our Understanding of Preadolescent Social and Moral Development?

A number of stage theories address the moral and social development of children. Although many of these have been criticized by others (Damon, 1983; Gilligan, 1977; Phillips, 1987), comparing a number of stage theories can point to the salient features of middle childhood social and moral development. Their comparison will be an effective means for summarizing the literature on preadolescent development and for critiquing the theories.

The stage theories of Piaget, Kohlberg, Erikson, and Selman will be presented briefly here. Since it would be both lengthy and irrelevant to this study to describe all of these theories in their entirety, I have chosen to focus on the stages pertinent to nine to eleven year olds. In the cases where children of these ages could fall in more than one stage, all of the relevant stages are presented. The ages associated with the stages should be considered as approximations.

Piaget (1932) identified three stages in children's development of the concept of distributive justice. Preadolescents are generally included in the second stage (years 9-12), which emphasizes reciprocity and equality. "Equalitarian justice develops with age at the expense of submission to adult authority, and in correlation with solidarity between children" (Piaget, 1932, p. 293). In the third stage (11+)--which a few preadolescents may be entering--equalitarianism is tempered by concerns for equity. For example, when asked who should get a small amount of food when
hiking with the choices being an older boy and a younger boy, most preadolescents will say the food should be shared equally and secondly, that the little boy should receive more out of concerns for equity.

Although Piaget's work has been greatly influential in the educational field, Kohlberg and Higgins (1987) criticize Piaget's notion that moral development proceeds through adult's non-interference with peer interaction. They feel that Piaget neglects the importance of the organized social group in moral development. A number of other researchers have found that some young children are capable of advanced moral thinking in some situations, thus calling into question both Piaget's and Kohlberg's stage theories (Costanzo and Dix, 1983; Damon, 1983; Pool, Shweder, and Much, 1983).

Kohlberg's (1968, 1969) stages of moral development place preadolescents predominantly at the second level (9+), conventional. This level is divided into two stages, the interpersonal "good boy-nice girl" orientation and the more advanced "law and order" orientation. At the conventional level, children believe in the importance of maintaining the expectations of one's family, group, or nation, regardless of consequences.

The "good boy-nice girl" orientation is characterized by behavior that will please and help others and receive their approval. There is much conformity at this stage to stereotypical images of what is natural or majority behavior. Judging others by their intentions becomes important for the first time at this stage.
At the next stage, the orientation is towards fixed rules and the maintenance of the social order. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the given order for its own sake. The "law and order" orientation is less self-focused than the previous stage. Individuals at this stage feel more of a sense of obligation to do what is right for the group, rather than to just gain approval for good behavior.

Although Kohlberg envisions these two stages in the framework of justice or doing what is right, Gilligan (1977; and Wiggins 1990) and other moral theorists assert that morality can also be expressed through care, or doing what is compassionate for one's self and others. Studies by Gilligan (1977) and others have shown that the care orientation may be more common among females, though the previously cited study by Garrod et al (1990) found the care orientation predominant in both elementary girls and boys.

Kohlberg has also been criticized by Phillips (1987) and others on the basis of his research program. Phillips believes that Kohlberg's scoring methods fail to prove that there are universal, invariant stages of moral development.

Erikson (1963) has identified eight psychosocial stages in the course of human development. The stages most relevant to this study are stage four (6-11), industry vs. inferiority and stage five (11-16), identity vs. role confusion. Most preadolescents are at the industry stage, where individuals are busy learning to be competent and productive by actively engaging in creative activities. While this pursuit is most important to the intermediate elementary
school child, some children are also beginning to struggle with establishing their identity. Children at the identity stage are struggling to figure out "who am I?" and are beginning to establish sexual, ethnic, and career identities. Erikson emphasizes that each stage needs to be resolved successfully for optimal development.

Although Erikson implies that one can only proceed to the next stage after successful resolution of the previous one, in fact, we are often involved with issues at a number of these stages throughout our lives. Damon (1988) notes that some of the difficulties which Erikson says must be overcome, guilt for example, may in fact be a positive motivating force in a child's life.

Selman (1980) has identified levels of perspective taking development and has extended the descriptions of these levels into other aspects of peer interaction. Levels 2 and 3 are most applicable to the preadolescent child. Level 2 is by far more common in middle childhood. Selman notes, as do many of the stage theorists, that these levels can and usually do overlap and that children gradually transition from one level to another while often displaying behaviors in both levels.

Level 2 (ages 7-12), self-reflective or reciprocal perspective-taking, is characterized by the ability to understand another's viewpoint. Reciprocal feelings of affection between peers form the basis of cooperation. However, friendship is largely self-serving at this stage. There is no sense of an enduring relationship between friends. This "fair weather" relationship can be terminated by any instance of noncooperation or conflict. The classroom group is
generally seen as sets of interlocking dyads rather than a cohesive whole.

The passage from Level 2 to Level 3 (10-15), mutual perspective taking, lies in the ability to see a situation from the perspective of a third party. Friendships at this level are defined by mutual support and understanding. There is a greater concern for the other person's well-being and conflict is seen as a challenge to be talked out and worked through as well as a means for potentially strengthening a relationship. The classroom group can envision itself as a shared community of common beliefs and interests at this level.

Selman's stages have been found to be largely consistent with studies that have used other types of scoring systems to assess children's friendships (Berndt, 1983). Though his research does not provide very specific information about any single aspect of friendship, it does present a model of stages consistent with the findings of Piaget and Kohlberg (Berndt, 1983).

There are, of course, a number of other stage theories that could be described here. The four discussed here, however, have been largely influential in the fields of social and moral development. Viewed together, they illustrate the growth of the preadolescent child towards equality, reciprocity, and concern for others in the important context of peer interaction.

**Conclusion**

Peer interaction during preadolescence is an important influence on children's social and moral development. As children in elementary school mature, their dialogues and associations with
friends and acquaintances contribute to an evolving concern with equality, reciprocity, fairness, and acceptance by the group. Many preadolescents are just beginning to understand others' perspectives and balance others' needs and desires with their own. Consequently their peer relationships, while more prosocial than younger children, involve frequent conflicts and difficulties. In optimal environments, further cognitive maturation and social interaction will contribute to increased moral development and prosocial actions.

The Literature on Children's Prosocial Behavior

Prosocial behavior, defined as positive forms of social behavior which benefit others, "is multi-determined and the determinants stand in dynamic, flexible relationship to each other" (Staub, 1978). The factors influencing whether or not one person helps another are affected by the individuals involved, the specific situation, and the norms and social aspects of the environment. The literature on children's prosocial behavior has been organized according to the following key questions.

- What personal variables affect children's prosocial behavior?
- Is there evidence for a general prosocial personality trait in some children?
- What is the connection between empathy and children's prosocial behavior?
- What is the role of moral reasoning in prosocial behavior?
- What situational variables affect children's prosocial behavior?
What educational strategies facilitate or discourage prosocial behavior?

What Personal Variables Affect Children's Prosocial Behavior?

Some personal variables strongly affect prosocial behavior; others have little if any effect. Research studies have looked at the effects of age, gender, cultural, genetic, intellectual, social class, family, and personality differences as well as differences in children's abilities to take the perspectives of others.

Age

Many researchers have found that prosocial behavior, in general, increases with the age of the child (Bar Tal, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Kelly and Kahane, 1989; Lipscomb, Bregman, and McAllister, 1983; Underwood and Moore, 1982). Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) maintain that probable reasons for this change include increased role taking and empathic abilities with greater maturity, higher levels of moral reasoning, and advanced skills in helping others. As children age their motives for behaving prosocially shift from external rewards and the fear of punishment to internalized motives and principles. Others have noted that as children mature they become less egocentric and more focused on other's needs (Flavell, 1985; Selman, 1975).

Strayer and Schroeder (1989) assert, however, that "what seems to change with age is not so much the amount of help but the kind of help proposed for different emotions" (p. 98). Older elementary children tend to value verbal helping more than younger children and respond more readily to anger and fear in others.
Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) concur that age trends vary depending on the type of prosocial behavior. Their review of over two hundred studies revealed that donations to the needy generally increase with age and that helping behavior increases only slightly. The findings are mixed for caregiving and comforting behaviors. Staub (1979) noted that upper elementary children and adolescents can be inhibited from taking action by fear of social disapproval.

Although prosocial behavior generally increases with age, it is important to remember that the type of prosocial behavior called for and other factors in the situation undoubtedly effect whether a child will help another or not.

**Gender**

Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) state that "there is no clear and consistent gender differences in prosocial responding, although girls may perform some types of prosocial behaviors more frequently than do boys" (p. 59). Rushton (1980) concurs that while some studies find females more altruistic, many note no sex differences.

In a study of the playground behavior of 76 fourth graders, Larrieu and Mussen (1986) found that for girls, prosocial responding was moderately coherent, whereas, for boys, caring, sharing, and helping were relatively independent domains. In addition, girls' predominant prosocial responses reflected expressiveness and caring, whereas boys' prosocial behaviors were more active and instrumental.

Others have also noted girls' tendency to be more empathic (Eisenberg, Fabes, Schaller, and Miller, 1989). Many researchers propose that this may be due to girls being socialized to discern and
respond to others' emotions more than boys (Bar Tal, 1976; Eisenberg et al., 1989; Larrieu and Mussen, 1986).

Boys, on the other hand, are more likely to be socialized for active, instrumental roles and behavior (Larrieu and Mussen, 1986). In the previously cited study of fourth graders' playground behavior, "boys were no less likely than girls to share possessions or to help others, but they showed significantly less caring (expressive behavior), less empathy, and less regard for prosocial goals" (Larrieu and Mussen, 1986). It seems important, then, when examining studies that do report sex differences, to look at the types of prosocial behavior examined.

**Culture**

The culture in which a child is raised is a strong force in shaping the child's disposition toward competition or cooperation and prosocial behavior (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Staub notes that "it's difficult to lead a competitive, individualistic life without devaluing others to some extent" (cited in Kohn, 1988, p. 38).

There is a consistent pattern in studies assessing children's willingness to cooperate. When group rewards are offered for cooperating, children of all cultures will cooperate. However, when individual rewards are offered, cultural differences become manifest. "Children reared in traditional rural subcultures and small, semiagricultural communal settlements cooperate more readily than do children reared in modern urban subcultures" (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). For example, schoolchildren in Mexican villages and small towns are more cooperative than their
middle-class Mexican, Mexican-American, Afro-American, or Anglo-American peers (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Children who move from the traditional cultures in which they were raised to urban settings may adopt two different cultural orientations.

Under these circumstances, the individual's motivations are apt to change in the direction of the new, dominant group's standards, that is, toward less cooperation and more competition (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989, p. 47).

This effect has been observed among Mexican-American, Canadian Indian, and Australian Aborigine children (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Synthesizing the findings of numerous studies from different cultures, Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) conclude that the following features of cultures are likely to contribute to high levels of prosocial behavior: orientation toward the group and the needs of others, simple social organization and/or traditional rural setting, assignment to women of important economic functions, living in an extended family, and early assignment of tasks and responsibilities. The first and last items in this list will be discussed further in the section of this review on educational strategies to increase prosocial behavior.

Genetics

A predisposition towards prosocial behavior may have some genetic basis, but the impact of genetics is probably much less than environmental factors (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Wilson (cited in Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989), a sociobiologist, believes that perhaps 10% of human social behavior has a genetic basis, while
others suggests that altruism evolves through social learning rather than genetic evolution.

**Intelect**

There appears to be a modest correlation between intelligence test scores and prosocial behavior (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). The correlations have generally been positive but low, or have been significant for only some types of prosocial behavior. Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) note that the relationship between intellect and prosocial behavior may be stronger when the other's needs are subtle and more intelligent children may be better able to detect the need and figure out a way to help.

**Social Class, Family Size, and Birth Order**

These three factors are linked in this review because there are no consistent correlations between them and prosocial behavior. The research findings reviewed by Eisenberg and Mussen (1989), have favored different socioeconomic classes, family sizes, and birth orders in correlation to prosocial behavior.

**Perspective Taking**

Many theorists have posited that perspective taking (or role taking)—the ability to understand and infer another's feelings, thoughts, perspectives, motives, and intentions—is a prerequisite for altruistic behavior.

A number of researchers have noted a significant correlation between prosocial behavior and children's ability to take the perspectives of others (Eisenberg, 1986; Eisenberg et al, 1989; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Underwood and Moore, 1982). Underwood and Moore (1982) conducted a meta-analysis of the
literature on altruism and various forms of perspective taking (perceptual, social, empathic, and moral). They note that the relationship between perspective taking and altruism develops only after children are old enough to have achieved a minimal facility at perspective taking.

Not all children who have advanced perspective taking abilities choose to be helpful (Barnett and Thompson, 1985; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Barnett and Thompson (1985) conducted a study with fourth and fifth graders using empathy and perspective taking scales as well as teacher report and self report measures. Their findings suggest that "the child who is particularly insightful about the feelings of others may be inclined to act in a manipulative and unhelpful manner unless that insightfulness is tempered with emotional sensitivity and compassion" (Barnett and Thompson, 1985, p. 303). Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) point out that a child with high perspective taking ability may act prosocially only if he or she is assertive, motivated, and is confident of possessing the skills required to assist.

The development of perspective taking ability is influenced by children's social relationships with their peers as well as how adults reason with them and encourage them to take others' points of view (Kurtines and Gewirtz, 1987). Although the relationship between perspective taking and prosocial behavior is not entirely consistent, the relationship is strong and therefore an important aspect of prosocial development.
**Personality**

According to a number of researchers, children who are highly prosocial are usually more emotionally stable, self-confident, gregarious, socially skilled, and expressive than their peers (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Larrieu and Mussen, 1986; Rushton, 1980). Staub (1979) notes that a positive self concept—a likely corollary to the above qualities—will also contribute to a positive orientation toward others, although it is also noted that the correlations between self-esteem and prosocial behavior are not high or consistent (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Assertiveness is also associated with some forms of prosocial behavior, notably spontaneous acts and overall frequency of prosocial actions (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Larrieu and Mussen, 1986). Eisenberg and Mussen (1989), in discussing some of the inconsistencies in research on personality and prosocial behavior, conclude that "different forms of prosocial behaviors have different psychological meanings for different persons and are likely to be performed for different reasons" (p. 63). Elementary children's reasoning for behaving prosocially may involve perspective taking and empathy, approval orientation, or wanting to behave in stereotypically "good" ways (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

**Is There Evidence for a General Prosocial Personality Trait in Some Children?**

There is some evidence for a prosocial personality trait. Some children behave prosocially in almost all situations. These children are generally emotionally stable, self-confident, gregarious, socially skilled, and expressive (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989;
Rushton, 1980; Small, Zeldin, and Savin-Williams, 1983; Staub, 1979). Although some research findings have been inconsistent, Small et al (1983) assert that most of the studies that have failed to find evidence for a prosocial personality trait tended to correlate single behavioral measures and thus did not provide for a large enough sample of behavior as required by the trait concept. Their study, which employed naturalistic observations of five types of prosocial behavior in different settings, resulted in a high degree of cross-situational consistency for prosocial behavior regardless of the situation.

In another study which looked at the relationship between sympathy and altruistic personality traits and helping, the researchers found support for an altruistic personality trait and also noted that prosocial behavior will vary "depending on the 'pull' for a given response in a particular situation and the 'push' for responses reflecting relevant enduring values or norms accessible to the individual" (Eisenberg et al, 1989). The role of situational factors in prosocial behavior will be examined in greater depth later on in this review.

Rushton (1980) posits that the generality of prosocial behavior is not limited to altruism, but is instead a general moral trait. Staub (1978) notes that some people are consistently more generous, helping, and kind and that this may be due to a positive sense of well-being that leads to less self-preoccupation and more benevolence towards others.
What Is the Connection between Empathy and Children's Prosocial Behavior?

Empathy is defined in various ways in the literature. Eisenberg and Miller (1987) distinguish empathy from sympathy in the following way. Empathy is an affective state that can include emotional matching or the vicarious experiencing of a range of emotions consistent with those of the other person. Sympathy is an emotional state not identical to the other's emotions, but rather consists of feelings of sorrow or concern for another's welfare.

Studies examining the relationship between empathy and children's prosocial behavior have yielded somewhat inconsistent findings yet indicate that the two are related (Cain and Clark, 1987; Damon, 1988; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Staub, 1988). Eisenberg et al (1989) found that the method used to assess the correlation between empathy and prosocial behavior was very important. Empathy was generally not significantly related to picture/story indexes, but was positively associated with facial, physiological, and questionnaire measures. Eisenberg and Miller (1987) propose that questionnaires are more effective than picture/story indexes because they comprise many items and reveal individual's empathic reactions over a broader range of behaviors and situations.

In a study on fourth and fifth graders, Barnett and Thompson (1985) found that highly empathic children were rated by their teachers as more helpful under certain circumstances and that these children cited more other-oriented reasons for their own helping behavior than less empathic children. The highly empathic children were less manipulative of others and were particularly more likely
to help when the need of the other was subtle. These and other researchers have found upper elementary girls to be more empathic than boys (Barnett and Thompson, 1985; Eisenberg, Shell, Pasternack, Lennon, Beller, and Mathy, 1987; Strayer and Shroeder, 1989).

However, Cain and Clark (1987) found no sex differences in their study of empathy and social relationships among fourth graders. They also found no relationship between teacher ratings of social competence and empathy scores, but did find that highly empathic children were more likely to have friendships that involved mutual liking than low empathy children.

Some researchers believe that perspective taking abilities are a prerequisite for empathic reactions and subsequent prosocial responding (Grusec, 1983; Dillard, Stiff, Somera, Kim, and Sleight, 1988; Rushton, 1980). Dillard et al (1988) found that empathic concern initiated by perspective taking led to three types of prosocial behavior: communicative responsiveness, volunteering, and comforting.

Hoffman (cited in Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989) and Damon (1988) maintain that children in the upper elementary years begin to grow beyond empathic responses restricted to another's immediate distress.

With further cognitive development the person may also be able to comprehend the plight not only of an individual but also of an entire group or class of people--such as the economically impoverished, politically oppressed, socially outcast, victims of war, or mentally retarded (p. 133).
Damon (1988) notes that this new sensitivity may lead children to engage in charitable and altruistic behavior. This capability has obvious implications for the appropriateness of teaching about international human rights to children in this age group.

Finally, it is important to note that not all prosocial behavior is motivated by empathic or sympathetic responses (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Children's motives and goals vary widely. They can feel a desire to help or an obligation to help (Staub, 1978). Motivation to help can be related to hope for self-gain, adherence to internalized values or norms, or empathy for a person in need.

What Is the Role of Moral Reasoning in Prosocial Behavior?

Children with relatively mature moral reasoning skills are more likely to help than are their peers at lower levels of moral reasoning (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Eisenberg et al, 1987; Larrieu and Mussen, 1986; Rushton, 1980; Underwood and Moore, 1982). Higher level reasoning is related to both the quantity of prosocial behavior as well as the motivational basis for acting (Eisenberg, 1990). Children who exhibit more prosocial behavior tend to give higher level justifications for their actions (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Bar Tal (1976) asserts that the learning of prosocial behavior is most effective only when the child has cognitively achieved the abilities to empathize, recognize others' needs, and make a proper moral judgment.

Eisenberg (1986) devised a sequence of levels of prosocial reasoning. Level 1 reasoning, a self-focused, hedonistic orientation, is predominant in preschoolers and young elementary children. At Level 2, a needs-oriented orientation, children express in simple
terms concern for the needs of others even when they conflict with their own needs. This is the primary mode for many elementary school children. Some upper elementary grade children begin to reflect an approval orientation and the desire to behave in stereotypically "good" ways (Level 3). A few older elementary children may progress to Level 4, a self-reflective empathic orientation. At this level "the individual's judgements include evidence of self-reflective empathic responding or role taking, concern with the other's humanness, and/or guilt or positive affect related to the consequences of one's actions" (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989, p. 125). The two levels following this one are not reached by elementary school students. The first four levels are useful in thinking about upper elementary children's moral reasoning for prosocial acts.

A number of researchers note that the relationship between moral reasoning and prosocial behavior is not entirely consistent. Eisenberg and Miller (1987) state that "spontaneous sharing is related to higher level moral reasoning, whereas requested prosocial acts and low-cost helping acts are not" (p. 95). Eisenberg et al (1987) posit that low-cost prosocial acts may be performed with little conscious, cognitive processing, moral or otherwise. Moral thinking is often induced by moral conflict which is more apt to be present in a high cost situation (Eisenberg and Shell, 1987). Thus, the relation between moral reasoning and prosocial behavior should be expected to vary as a function of the context (Eisenberg and Shell, 1987; Eisenberg et al, 1987).
What Situational Variables Affect Children's Prosocial Behavior?

Situational factors play a key role in whether an individual engages in helpful behavior or not. Staub (1978) cites numerous aspects of situations that affect prosocial behavior including: the degree of need for help, the cost of helping, the degree to which responsibility is focused on one person, positive or negative experiences concurrent with or just prior to the need for help, and characteristics about the helpee including the helper's relationship with him or her. Each of these is discussed briefly below.

Cost of Helping

Usually the greater the need for help, the more likely that help will follow. The exception to this is if the helping has a high cost or involves a degree of danger (Bar Tal, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Staub, 1978). Although children consider both the costs and the benefits associated with helping, it is likely that the costs are more important determinants of their behavior than are the advantages of such behavior for others (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). For example, when fourth graders were given the opportunity to share a most, less, or least preferred toy, they shared the disliked toy the most (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Eisenberg and her colleagues found that fifth graders' willingness to give up their recess to help others was negatively correlated with how much they liked recess (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Responsibility for Helping

An adult will be more likely to help if he or she knows that there is no one else available to help (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989;
Staub, 1978). Whether children are more likely to help if alone or with others is less clear. Research findings have varied widely on this point (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Staub (1978) has noted that older elementary children may be inhibited from acting by fear of peer disapproval. However, Rushton (1980) asserts that with older children, social approval can increase the amount of prosocial behavior. Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) conclude that the presence of others has an effect on children's prosocial behavior, but that this influence varies as a function of other aspects of the situation.

Positive and Negative Moods

Many researchers have noted that positive moods tend to enhance prosocial behavior (Bar Tal, 1976; Carlson, Charlin, and Miller, 1988; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Rushton, 1980). A variety of explanations have been offered as to why this is so. Rushton (1980) proposes that people who are happier may be less preoccupied with themselves, have a greater sense of strength, and perhaps feel more benevolent towards others. Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) note that "feelings of success or accomplishment, especially success produced by one's own efforts or ability, are especially likely to enhance children's prosocial behavior" (p. 142).

Carlson et al (1988) review a number of possible hypotheses for the positive mood/prosocial behavior correlation. They note first that when the focus of attention for good fortune is on the actor, it may generate positive thoughts that in turn promote helpfulness. Second, "in the context of a pleasant mood, a self-aware person may adhere more strongly to social responsibility ideals in an effort to maintain a positive self-conception" (p. 212).
The mood maintenance hypothesis posits that happy individuals help in order to prolong their good mood state. These and other explanations could possibly work together to produce helping acts motivated by positive moods.

The relationship between prosocial behavior and negative moods is more complicated. Negative mood states have increased or decreased helping acts in different studies. Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) conclude that while negative feelings (other than empathy or sympathy) generally increase prosocial behavior for adults, they decrease it for children. Again, there are a variety of explanations. Perhaps as children mature they learn that helping others can relieve negative moods (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). It has also been proposed that negative moods increase helpfulness when attention is directed toward the misfortunes of others, but decreases helpfulness, or doesn't affect it, when one attends to oneself (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

**Characteristics of the Helpee**

A variety of characteristics of the potential recipient of help affect children's behavior. Heider (cited in Bar Tal, 1976) asserts that the most important judgment a person makes about whether to help or not is his or her "estimate of the extent to which environmental rather than personal forces are responsible for the other person's actions or state" (p. 57). For example, in a study by Miller and Smith (cited in Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989), fifth graders donated more money to children who had no money than to children who had been careless and lost their money.
The identity and personality of the helpee are also strong influential factors. Children are generally more likely to help their friends, people who have previously helped or shared with them, or those who are similar to them (Bar Tal, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). There are exceptions to these findings however. The tendency to favor one's own sex decreases with age and is not generally present in adolescence (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Where adults tend to discriminate against potential recipients of another race, children show less discrimination (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). More research is needed to determine the age at which children start to discriminate in their prosocial behavior against people of other races.

Finally, popular children with friendly personalities are more likely to be the recipients of unsolicited helpful acts (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Clearly many characteristics of the potential recipient of prosocial actions are a strong influence in whether a child chooses to help or not.

How Can School Experiences Enhance Children's Prosocial Behavior?

Understanding the personal and situational variables that influence prosocial behavior is an important first step in developing ways to foster children's prosocial development. Socialization in schools, including the use of specific teaching strategies, can increase children's helping behaviors. Also discussed below are the effects of rewards, punishments, and self-attributions on children's prosocial behavior.
Socialization in Schools

The classroom environment is an ideal learning laboratory for prosocial behavior, as peers and teachers can be effective agents of reinforcement for the acquisition and modification of helpful acts (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Attending to prosocial values and standards in the classroom can be especially important for those children who are unpopular and isolated. Staub (1979) maintains that modifying persistent negative patterns of peer interaction may be one of the most important ways we can help children develop self-esteem and interpersonal skills.

Identification with a parent or teacher who models prosocial actions can be an important influence on children (Bar Tal, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). A potential helper will aid more if a helpful model is observed first (Bar Tal, 1976). Yarrow (cited in Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989) asserts that

the optimal condition for the development of sympathetic helpful behavior was one in which children observed an adult manifesting altruism at every level--in principle and in practice, both toward the child and toward others in distress (p. 73).

Although the actual performance of modeling may be more important than a model's verbalization (Bar Tal, 1976), Staub (1979) notes the importance of the verbal communication of models. Their discussions with children can affect children's moral reasoning and judgments. He notes that changes in children's thinking will be more likely if they are also led to engage in behavior consistent with the model's reasoning.
Staub (1979) describes the optimal classroom environment for the development of prosocial behavior.

I would expect an environment in which there is reasonable structure (and effective control) that limits harmful interactions among children and encourages positive interactions, interdependence among members of the group so that cooperation and positive behavior in response to need occur naturally, a fair amount of autonomy that children are allowed so that they can learn and develop effective modes of interaction and conflict resolution, and basically democratic and just relationships between children and adults to contribute to prosocial orientation, high self-esteem, a sense of competence, role taking, and positive social behavior (p. 254).

Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) note that there have been few concerted efforts to integrate prosocial values and behavior in American schools. Other countries, such as the Soviet Union and China, teach children from the earliest years to share, cooperate, and consider other's needs and feelings. Teachers in China often tell their students stories about altruistic heroes and when a child acts prosocially the teacher calls the attention of the class to this exemplary behavior.

One American program which has been comprehensively evaluated and has had impressive results is the Child Development Project, a longitudinal field-experimental study in a suburban middle-class community in the San Francisco Bay area. The program has five basic components: cooperative activities, developmental democratic discipline, promoting social understanding, modeling and highlighting prosocial values, and helping activities.

Researchers have found that children in the program are more supportive of each other, more spontaneously helpful and
cooperative, more concerned about others, and offer more prosocial strategies when presented with hypothetical interpersonal conflict resolution stories than students at comparison schools (Battistich and others, 1989; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Solomon, Watson, Delucchi, Schaps, and Battistich, 1988).

More recent data on the program has revealed that program students are more accepting of and accepted by their classmates, less lonely, and lower in social anxiety than students at comparison schools (Battistich and others, 1990). An additional and encouraging finding is that program students made more cross-sex friendship and work partner choices than comparison students. This effect was statistically significant for third but not for fifth graders. The researchers speculate that this result may be due to the program’s extensive use of cooperative learning groups (Battistich and others, 1990).

**Teaching Strategies**

Specific strategies that foster prosocial behavior are cross-age tutoring, cooperative learning, interpersonal problem solving, conflict resolution instruction, role playing, inductive reasoning, giving children responsibilities, and democratic classroom practices. Staub (1979) notes that cross-age tutoring, cooperative learning, and role playing provide opportunities for children to develop perspective taking skills. Three of these strategies; cooperative learning, inductive reasoning, and giving children responsibilities to help others; are described below.
Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning activities involve small groups or pairs of children working together towards a common goal. These learning tasks reduce competition and facilitate interdependence, coordination, cooperation, exchange, and helping (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). In a study involving sixth graders using the "jigsaw" technique over a period of six weeks, the researchers found that, compared with controls, the program students were more helpful, considerate of others, and cooperative (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

This same study also concluded that the program children expressed greater self-esteem and increased liking for other children of their own and other ethnic groups (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Johnson and Johnson (1975) and Schniedewind and Davidson (1987) assert that cooperative learning contributes to acceptance of cultural, ethnic, and individual differences and reduction in prejudice and bias. Cohen (1986) asserts that "cooperative groups and teams are particularly beneficial in developing harmonious interracial relations in desegregated classrooms" (p. 14). Because cooperative learning fosters prosocial behavior, perspective taking skills, and appreciation of differences, this strategy should be an integral component of any human rights curriculum.

Inductive Reasoning

The use of inductive reasoning with children helps them to understand how others feel as a result of their actions. Thinking inductively may contribute to perspective taking, empathy, and prosocial acts (Bar Tal, 1976; Hoffman, 1983; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Staub, 1979, 1988). When caregivers point out the negative
and positive consequences of children's actions for others, they inform children of acceptable standards of behavior, arouse empathic feelings, stimulate perspective taking, and communicate that children are responsible for their actions (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Inductive practices lead to the development of intrinsic evaluative standards, rather than an external, hedonistic orientation (Boehnke, Silbereisen, Eisenberg, Reykowski, and Palmonari, 1989).

**Giving Children Responsibilities**

Children who have been instructed to assist others or who have been given practice in being helpful are more helpful than other children (Bar Tal, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Kurtines and Gewirtz, 1987; Staub, 1988). In addition, if students have a sense of the significance of their efforts and personal effectiveness in a pleasant and fun helping experience they will be even more likely to continue being helpful.

One of the most effective means of requiring prosocial actions is to give children responsibilities at home and school (Bar Tal, 1976; Staub, 1979, 1988). These can be less structured, such as insisting on sharing, being nice, and helping someone who is hurt, or more structured, for example, having specific daily or weekly chores (Staub, 1979). It is reasonable to assume that children who help out frequently learn to identify themselves as helpful people and come to enjoy the praise and increased self-esteem that result from helping.
Rewards, Punishments, and Self-Attributions

Teachers reward children for prosocial behaviors and punish their aggressive acts in part because they hope children will develop internal norms for their actions. Although rewards and punishment do affect children's behavior, the effects are usually more immediate than long lasting (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). The use of external controls to induce compliance in children may undermine later intrinsic interest in prosocial behavior or the development of internal norms for helping (Fabes, Fultz, Eisenberg, May-Plumlee, and Christopher, 1989; Grusec, 1983).

When children are given material rewards they are more likely to attribute their behavior to external motives. If they receive social or no consequences for their actions, they are more likely to attribute their generosity or helpfulness to internal causes (Eisenberg, 1987; Grusec, 1983).

If children believe that their actions are intrinsically motivated, they will develop self-attributions of being kind, helpful, and so forth and engage in more prosocial behavior (Eisenberg, 1986). Teachers can contribute to students self-attributions by telling them that they are caring and helpful (Bar Tal, 1976; Staub, 1979). In some cases it may take time for students to integrate the information into their self image, but eventually most children will believe these messages and act on the basis of their own self-attributions (Eisenberg, 1987).

In a study involving self-attributions of elementary school children, the researchers found that after approximately seven years of age, when an understanding of trait stability begins to develop,
children's nonegoistic self-attributions are one important basis for their helping actions (Eisenberg, Cialdini, McCreath, and Shell, 1987). It appears that children aged seven and over frequently display behaviors consistent with others' trait descriptions of them.

**Conclusion**

Prosocial behavior is a complex phenomenon resulting from personality and situational factors as well as the total complex of a person's socialization and experience (Staub, 1979). This review has highlighted many of these components and drawn attention to those factors that are particularly salient in children's prosocial development. Though research findings are rarely entirely consistent, in general, prosocial behavior increases with age and maturation and is learned through social and environmental interactions. Both personality and situational factors play key roles in whether a child will choose to help or share. Teachers who work with upper elementary children can use a variety of strategies to influence students' prosocial actions with their peers as well as their concern for injustice and human suffering in the world.

**Chapter Summary**

The review of literature in this chapter provides an important foundation for the study. The literature on human rights education discussed the important principles and methods to be used in curriculum development, the suitability of human rights education for the elementary level, and the need for both exemplary elementary level curricula and studies which assess the effects of human rights education in the elementary classroom.
The literature on social and moral development in middle childhood further confirmed that children of this age are developmentally ready for human rights education, due to their growing concern with equality, reciprocity, and fairness, particularly in their peer relationships. This literature also points to some of the challenges in working with preadolescents as they struggle to learn to understand and respect other's points of view and feel secure in themselves and their relationships.

Finally, the literature on prosocial behavior presents many important ideas for understanding when, how, and why children choose to be helpful. The literature reviews in all these areas were essential for both the design of the human rights curriculum and the process of assessing its effects on children's thinking and behaviors in the classroom.
CHAPTER 3
DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Overall Approach of the Inquiry

The primary approach for this research is a qualitative case study. Yin (1987) defines the case study as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (p. 23). The case study approach was deemed the most suitable because a number of interrelated factors, i.e. students' thinking about human rights and themselves, their behavior towards their teachers and classmates, and their responses to the human rights activities, were examined.

Jorgensen (1989) states that "Case studies stress the holistic examination of a phenomenon, and they seek to avoid the separation of components from the larger context to which these matters may be related" (p. 19). Kennedy (1979) notes that the case study is appropriate for learning the intricate details of how a treatment, in this case the human rights curriculum, is working. Some of the purposes of case study research stated by Guba and Lincoln (1981)--to chronicle events, depict or characterize a situation, and to try out a new process--are all pertinent to this study.

This case study is primarily descriptive and exploratory. Because there have been very few studies assessing the effects of human rights curricula in the classroom, this study describes in
detail a wide variety of approaches to human rights education as they were implemented and points to many areas for further inquiry.

Designed as classroom action research, the study involved implementing planned strategies and then systematically submitting them to observation, reflection, and change. "Action research on curriculum innovation is a systematic means of learning from experience: it proceeds by changing what is taught in schools and studying the effects of that change" (Henry et al. 1985, p. 7).

The setting for this study, a fourth grade public school class in rural, southwestern New Hampshire, is described in detail in Chapter 4. The fourth grade level was chosen because many human rights educators believe that preadolescence is a critical period of growth for international awareness, role-taking abilities, and empathy for others (Branson and Torney-Purta, 1982; Heater, 1984; Hicks, 1986). The classroom setting offers a social situation in which students can develop their role-taking skills and prosocial behavior with peers, especially in a democratic environment. This particular group of students had a reputation for being an uncohesive group with many difficulties in treating each other respectfully. For all of these reasons, this fourth grade classroom was an ideal setting for assessing the influence of human rights instruction on children's thinking and behavior.

**Data Collection Methods**

**Introduction**

For the purpose of analyzing the data collected, the study was divided into an early participation period, from October 1990
through February 1991, and a late participation period, from March 1991 through June 1991. This division was chosen due to changes in my role, classroom activities, and student behaviors. In the early participation period, my role was participant observer in the classroom. I began the democratic classroom practices in January, in part, to gain a deeper understanding of students' thinking and concerns during this period. Findings from the early participation period are written up in Chapter 4.

During the late participation period, my role shifted to being more actively involved as a co-teacher during the human rights unit and an advisor/guide for students conducting social action projects. The majority of the democratic classroom practices took place during this period. Changes in students' thinking and behaviors as they participated in all of these activities are documented in the data analysis constructed in Chapter 5.

Although I spent some time observing throughout the entire study, my role shifted dramatically in March to include much more direct involvement teaching and working with students. As a result of this deliberate shift in my role, different types of data were gathered. The data reported in Chapter 4 rely primarily on observations, whereas the data from the late participation period focus substantially on students' work; taped interviews, conversations, and class events; and feedback from others. Though this variety in data collection methods creates a rich description of the students' thinking and behavior, it may also be a limitation when comparing data from the two participation periods.
Data collection methods varied depending on the aspect of the study being conducted. The five major parts of the study and the associated data collection methods are described below. During the period from late October 1990 through February 1991, I assisted in the classroom as a participant-observer. In January, the democratic classroom practices were initiated. These activities continued throughout the rest of the year. In March 1991, the human rights unit was taught. The social action projects began in late March and continued through the rest of the school year. Finally in May and June 1991, opinions and feedback from parents, specialists in the school, Sarah, and the students were gathered. The table below will assist the reader in understanding the sequencing and overlap of these activities.

Table 1 - Human Rights Curriculum Activities

| Oct. 1990 | participant |
| Nov. 1990 | observation |
| Dec. 1990 |            |
| Jan. 1991 | democratic |
| Feb. 1991 | practices  |
| Mar. 1991 | H. R. Unit | Social Action |
| Apr. 1991 | Projects   |
| May 1991  | parent/other |
| June 1991 | feedback    |
Participant Observation

My focus during this time was to learn about the students: their interactions with each other, the classroom teacher, and myself; the classroom setting; and the overall climate of the school. My observations centered on positive and negative peer interactions, both in the classroom and in other places at school, and the classroom teacher's interactions with the students.

During this period I spent 70 hours in the classroom, half of the time assisting the teacher by working with individuals or small groups of students, and the other half of the time observing and taking notes. My role as participant-observer was chosen to give me "direct experiential and observational access to the insider's world of meaning" (Jorgensen, 1989, p. 15).

The primary modes of data collection during this period were observation, writing down significant events and conversations in one of two logs, and audiotape recordings. One log contained important conversations with the classroom teacher, the principal, and other adults in the school. Classroom observations were recorded in the second log.

Audiotape recordings were made of conversations with the classroom teacher, the school librarian, and a third grade teacher many of the students had last year. I also recorded a few whole class discussions and two interviews with small groups of students about action projects they had worked on before I started coming to the school. All of these recordings were transcribed for future reference.
I also began collecting documents, notably students' papers that related to their perspective taking and empathic abilities, ways they like to learn, and their opinions of their classmates. The latter information was used to construct a sociogram of students' three most preferred classmates to work with on a project.

**Democratic Practices**

In January I initiated two democratic activities in the classroom, the class council and the class conference. The council consisted of three students each week who helped plan and run a class conference or meeting once a week. Every student was invited to write up ideas or issues they would like to bring to the weekly class meeting. These ranged from interpersonal problems to ideas for class projects and academic activities. The three children on the class council then met with me and together we organized the agenda items. These same three students facilitated the meeting which lasted about one half hour. Class council membership rotated each week so that every child had a few turns on the council between January and June. (These activities are described in greater detail in Chapter 5).

Initially, both the council meetings and the conferences were audiotaped and transcribed. Towards the end of the school year only the conferences were recorded and transcribed as the council meetings by that point became relatively brief and impertinent to the study. The last class conference was videotaped by the school librarian.
Human Rights Unit

During the month of March, Sarah, the classroom teacher, and I co-taught the human rights unit. The unit activities included learning center exercises on the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child, simulations and journal writing activities focused on having students explore their feelings and experiences with discrimination, and many other activities on human rights from the personal to the global. The unit activities are described in greater detail both in Chapters 5 and 6 as well as in Appendix F.

I was in the classroom every morning during the month of March and often one or two afternoons a week, for a total of 76 hours. During this month, my role shifted from participant-observer to co-teacher. Although there was less time to observe, I continued to keep both logs, often recording my impressions at the end of the morning's work.

Students' work became the primary data during this period. Each student kept a journal for the duration of the human rights unit which included assignments, reactions to readings and activities, and creative writing. Art projects, worksheets, and student booklets were also completed and saved as data for the study. Frequently students filled out feedback sheets on how much they felt they learned from an activity and how much they enjoyed it. A slide show was made to further document the human rights unit activities.

Audiotape recordings and subsequent transcriptions were made of many small group and whole class discussions during the unit, as
well as class council and class conference meetings and key conversations with Sarah.

Social Action Projects

Beginning in March during the last week of the human rights unit, the students began carrying out action projects. First, the whole class made the puppets and props for a play on oral rehydration therapy that was sent to India to help stem the tide of babies' frequent deaths due to diarrhea. The other action projects were a brownie sale to benefit a local soup kitchen and a Yard/Bake Sale/Bottle Return event which funded both an end-of-the-year party and a donation to the school playground fund.

During this last part of the school year, my role reverted to participant-observer as well as facilitator of the action projects described above. From April to June I spent a total of 70 hours in the classroom. Data collection on the social action projects consisted of observations and notes in the logs as well as audiotape recordings and transcriptions of small group and whole class discussions related to the projects.

Feedback from Others

Because of the possibility of bias in analyzing the effects of the human rights curriculum on student thinking and behavior, feedback was sought from parents, teachers, and the students themselves. Each student was interviewed to assess what they had learned about human rights, how the concept related to their lives, and what they thought they would remember most from the unit. These interviews were audiotape recorded and transcribed. When
students were confused about how human rights related to their lives, follow-up interviews were conducted.

Parents and other teachers and specialists in the school who worked with this class were asked to give their feedback on forms sent to them (See Appendix G). Fourteen of the sixteen parents returned the forms; but only one of the school personnel did so. Consequently, informal conversations were conducted with a number of the school personnel to get their feedback.

Together Sarah and I constructed a special form where she could record her observations of prosocial and antisocial behavior, perspective taking, and any student comments related to human rights (see Appendix G). Once a week we discussed together her notes on the form. I audiotaped and transcribed these interviews. The table on the next page summarizes the data collection activities for the study.

Data Management

The following procedures assisted me in managing the data for this study. It was helpful to separate my observations and reflections on the students from my notes on interactions with Sarah and the principal. I needed to learn how to best communicate and work with these two individuals and the use of a separate log assisted this process.

The logs were paginated in the following manner. Pages in the observation log were labeled with the date, followed by "O" for observation, and then the page numbers from one to however many pages were written for that day, for example, 4/23-O-5. Pages in the interpersonal log, a much shorter document, were labeled with
an "I" and then simply paginated, for example, 1-23. Notes in the interpersonal log were also dated.

Table 2 - Data Collection Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site visit days: 75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of hours on site: 240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the classroom - 72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>music class - 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical education class - 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>library class - 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recess - 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lunchroom - 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>art class - 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yard sale at Evan's house - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with the students - 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with Sarah - 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with other teachers - 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped classroom events:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class councils - 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class conferences - 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class discussions - 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets of student papers:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>journals - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>workbooks - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drawings - 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worksheets and other papers - 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feedback sheets - 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feedback sheets from parents and teachers - 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feedback sheets from Sarah - 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Large margins were used in both logs to allow spaces for coding themes, offering further speculations, and noting later insights. Insights and key reflections were distinguished from other entries with the symbol (*). Patton (1980) asserts that "reflection and introspection are important parts of field research. The impressions and feelings of the observer become part of the data to be used in attempting to understand a program and its effects" (pp. 125-6).

Notations were made in the observation log referring to any audiotape recording done that day for easy reference to the transcript files. Transcripts were labeled in a similar manner as the observation log pages, for example 1/22-T-6. Transcriptions were always completed within a few days of the audiotape recording to insure as much accuracy as possible. After transcriptions were completed, three copies were kept: one on the hard drive of the computer, one on a back-up disc, and one in print.

A daily sheet listing all the students' names was completed, making references to where in the data that student was mentioned. (See sample on the next page). This system insured that over time I was not overly focussed on a few children to the exclusion of others. Students' papers were filed in verticle folders and labeled in a similar manner to the observations logs and transcripts. Papers were labeled with the date, followed by "P" for papers, and then numbered from one to however many papers were completed by the class on that day, for example, 5/11-P-5. The students' human rights journals were labeled with the date, "J" for journal and the number of the journal (each student's journal was given a different
number), followed by the page numbers for how many pages were written on that day, for example. 3/24-J3-5.

Table 3 - Daily Record Sheet

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tom -</td>
<td>O-15,16</td>
<td>Mira - T-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharlene</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ky - O-2,3,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tina - T-11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mickey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary - T-1,6,8 O-3</td>
<td>Sophie - O-1,2,3 T-6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because the most intensive period of data collection took place during the teaching of the human rights unit, a site analysis form developed by Miles and Huberman (1984) was filled out at the end of each week in March. This form provided an effective way to record main themes and impressions, alternative explanations, next steps, and implications for revision and coding.

Student papers, transcriptions, correspondence with parents and the principal and any other paper data were categorized, labeled, and stored in vertical file folders. Although there was a variety of data for this study resulting in thousands of pages, these procedures allowed me to manage the data and refer back to it easily.
Data Analysis Procedures

An essential aspect of qualitative data analysis is discovering significant classes of things, persons, and events, and the properties which characterize them (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). The general approach taken has been described by Patton (1980) and others as inductive analysis. "Inductive analysis means that the patterns, themes, and categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them prior to data collection and analysis" (Patton, 1980, p. 306).

My initial ideas for codes and patterns developed during the process of data collection and through rereading the data. My initial questions (in Chapter 1), the literature reviews, and the site analysis forms used during the human rights unit were also used to develop a beginning list of codes and patterns. Re-reading the data a few times before beginning the coding helped to modify the codes used.

A number of the tactics for generating meaning discussed by Miles and Huberman (1984) were used in analyzing the data. These included counting occurrences of key events, recognizing patterns in the data, clustering events with similar patterns or characteristics, and splitting variables. For example, when coding the students' behavior before the human rights unit, the variable of "negative social interaction" was subdivided into the areas of teasing, insults, exclusion, gossip, arguing, and physical aggression.

The data was analyzed in two periods, early and late participation, according to different aspects of the study. Although in a sense it is artificial to divide the study in this way because the
classroom is an organic, whole environment. Each period revealed different findings and analyzing the data in periods provided a structure for discussing those findings.

The early period involved data collected from October 1990 through February 1991. This information was used to develop an indepth description of the students' relationships and other aspects of the setting.

The later period includes the data on most of the democratic classroom practices, the human rights unit, and the social action projects. Although these are discussed separately in parts of this report, the reader should understand that in practice they interacted with each other.

The procedure for analysis at each phase involved careful attention to both data reduction and interpretation (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). After reading, re-reading, and coding the data, a computer "cut and paste" file was created for each code. These files included a one sentence description of the event and the location of the event in the data for easy reference. These files were then used to look for further connections, patterns, and discrepancies in the data.

I agree with Yin (1987) who states that "the ultimate goal is to treat the evidence fairly, to produce compelling analytic conclusions, and to rule out alternative interpretations" (p. 100). My attempt to confirm conclusions involved a number of the procedures mentioned by Miles and Huberman (1984) and Patton (1980) including: examining for researcher effects, looking for
negative evidence and rival explanations, and getting feedback from informants, in this case, Sarah.

Finally, the findings presented here must not be seen as the only "truth" but more correctly, my perspective. "Two criteria replace exact truth as paramount: practical utility and the level of certainty" (Patton, 1980, p. 268). Where the findings have been strong, weak, or questionable I have stated so. Speculations on causal relationships have been labeled as such.

**Trustworthiness**

The trustworthiness of the study has been established through many features in the design. The study's validity is supported by its use of multiple sources of information and the establishment of a chain of evidence. Data for this study was obtained through observation, interviews, informal conversations, student products, audio and videotaped events, and feedback sheets. Also, in addition to my own thoughts and impressions, information from the classroom teacher, other teachers and specialists, parents, and the students themselves contributed to the findings. The study's validity is also grounded in my sustained engagement in the field as I was present in the classroom during different times and days of the week for more than eight months of the school year.

To assist in establishing reliability, the field notes, papers, and transcriptions of tapes were organized into a case study data base. Also, an accurate account of the events in the human rights curriculum were kept so that others could, if desired, retrace the steps leading to the conclusions presented in this report.
Triangulation of the data in this study helped to establish confirmability. Mathison (1988) asserts that "the value of triangulation lies in providing evidence—whether convergent, inconsistent, or contradictory—such that the researcher can construct good explanations of the social phenomena from which they arise" (p. 15).

Investigator triangulation also took place as Sarah and I both gathered data and discussed our findings at regular intervals, at least once and often two or three times a week. Sarah also reviewed and contributed feedback on both the weekly site analysis forms used in March as well as chapters four through seven of this report.

Special measures were taken so that researcher bias did not interfere with perceptions of changes in the students after the teaching of the human rights unit. First, Sarah and I created a form which she used during the last three months of school to gather information on students' antisocial and prosocial behaviors, perspective taking, and references to rights and fairness. Evertson and Greene (1985) support this type of focused observation.

...from research at the inclusive end of the continuum, naturally occurring variables, patterns of behavior, and events can be identified. The investigator would then be able to construct a category system or checklist to focus observation on specific aspects within the context (p. 168).

Towards the end of the study, parents and adults in the school who worked with the students were sent open-ended questionnaires asking them to comment on students' behaviors and any verbal references to rights or responsibilities (see Appendix G). The use of focused observations and other adults' opinions assisted me in

104
overcoming my biases, discussed in the biography section of this chapter, and identifying points of convergence and inconsistency.

In generalizing the results of this study, the reader should focus on analytical generalization rather than statistical generalization. In other words, the findings contribute to evolving theory about preadolescents' development and their responses to human rights education. One should not assume, however, that all fourth graders in predominantly white suburban communities will respond in a similar manner as the students in this study. Detailed description of the students, the events, and their reactions to them are given in this study so the reader can extrapolate findings that may be pertinent to other settings.

**Personal Role as Researcher**

**Biographical Statement**

Examining one's biases and assumptions is an important aspect of the qualitative researcher's work. I agree with Peshkin (1988) who states,

By monitoring myself, I can create an illuminating, empowering personal statement that attunes me to where self and subject are intertwined. I do not thereby exorcise my subjectivity. I do, rather, enable myself to manage it--to preclude it from being unwittingly burdensome--as I progress through collecting, analyzing, and writing up my data (p. 20).

I know that I entered the field and this study with many assumptions, beliefs, and hopes which I feel it is important to delineate here. The decision to pursue this study was intricately related to issues that I struggle with in my own life. I am very
concerned with global problems and often think about the difficulties I have in taking a moral stand on what is right for the earth. In my pursuit for self-healing, I see both global awareness and moral development as essential. I often wish that I had more of both in my life and that if I did my words and actions would be more aligned with my values.

I also contemplate how I would be today had I grown up in a school system that encouraged me to look at my world and its problems, to make sound moral judgments, and to take action on behalf of others. I did have one such experience in high school as a member of an after school club, Friends of the Earth. Our group petitioned the local Board of Selectman to start a recycling center at our town dump. We won our campaign and the center still operates today, some twenty years later. The sense of hope, determination, and collective empowerment my friends and I received through that experience is something I believe every child should have the opportunity to know.

In my belief in the importance of this work there lies an assumption that it will lead to positive effects. I began this study with the belief that if human rights education is carried out effectively in a democratic atmosphere with opportunities to make choices and act, the following positive outcomes are possible: increased self-esteem, caring for others, advancements in moral reasoning, less aggression and mistreatment of others, and more interest in global issues. I also believed that if this instruction is effective, it will filter into other parts of children's lives, notably in their personal relationships with others at school and at home.
Probably in part due to my own experience, I saw the action project component of the study as offering special opportunities. I had hoped that the class would work together to carry out a challenging project, and that bonding as a community and a desire to act more respectfully towards others would result.

I also believed that teaching strategies and unit content are both important in creating the positive changes described in the preceding paragraphs. I felt that democratic classroom strategies such as cooperative learning, conflict resolution, and class meetings are as integral to success as is knowledge about human rights and responsibilities.

These were the beliefs and hopes with which I began the study. Although many of these beliefs are still important to me, they have been tempered somewhat in the process of crashing my ideals on the rock of truth. This was possible through my commitment to cultivating an openness of mind, an understanding that there are many factors that influence children's thinking and behavior, that children are all different, and that behavior varies from day to day. I was always open to the distinct possibility that democratic classroom practices and human rights education might not speak to the needs of all the children in the class, and that there might be prerequisite qualities or experiences for positive effects as a result of this study to take place. There were many moments when a tolerance for ambiguity was necessary.

Another aspect of this work that I needed to be mindful of is my tendency to criticize other teacher's work. Because I have taught fourth graders on a number of occasions, I have certain ideas about
what kinds of teaching and management techniques are most effective. In my initial observations of Sarah in the classroom, I noted that she planned and taught differently than I would have. I struggled to focus on observing and working with the children in the context that she had created, bringing my own unique flavor to the classroom atmosphere, but not criticizing or attempting to change Sarah's approach to teaching. There were times when I did not feel successful and felt that I was pushing my values and teaching style on Sarah rather than working with her to develop a comfortable approach for everyone involved.

With all of these beliefs, assumptions, and hopes operating, it was a challenge to conduct the study and as much as possible see the what is rather than what I wished would be. It was important for me to conduct a parallel study, an "ethnography of the mind" (LeCompte, 1987, p. 43). Triangulation of researcher and data, debriefing with Sarah, and the use of a standardized form for focused observation assisted me in "taming" my subjectivity.

**On Being an Outsider**

I began this project as little of an outsider as I possibly could have been. I had worked at the school for three years with the principal and many of the same staff and Sarah had been a good friend for a few years.

But despite my familiarity with the place and many of the people, my awareness of being an outsider began the day I walked into the classroom. Sarah introduced me to the students in an appropriate and warm manner, but my role as researcher placed me
outside the boundaries of roles in which the students see adults at school, such as aide, teacher, or student teacher.

The students didn't know what to make of me. For some, I was "invisible" for a while. For a short time this gave me great access to students' informal conversations and joking behavior. Others immediately placed me, as an adult, in the role of authority and began asking me for permission to go to the bathroom or for help with a spelling assignment.

As a participant-observer, I was initially confused about how to respond to the students. At times I felt purposeless, especially when sitting on the sidelines and observing. The line between observing and participating was a fuzzy one at times and I was perplexed about how and when to discipline the students. If I didn't I would get better data for the study, but come March when I was to be teaching I didn't want to be seen as lacking authority. I never fully resolved this question. Clearly I did more managing of behavior when I was teaching. At other times, I let the data take precedence, though never when students were in danger of physically hurting each other.

The difficulty with not being the teacher in the class was pervasive and persistent throughout the study. As I was not at the school all day every day, it was impossible for me to be completely cognizant of students' skill levels, emotional issues, assignment requirements, and so forth. I felt frustrated at how many times I had to respond to a student's request with the words, "You'll need to ask Ms. Conley."
As time went on, my interactions with the students created a bond between us and Sarah and I worked out the tensions we encountered in working together with her class and my dissertation. Yet my feelings of exclusion persisted in the school as a whole. I was never invited to staff or team meetings, teacher breakfasts, or the Teacher Appreciation Day luncheon, nor did any adult at the school other than Sarah express any interest in my research.

Before beginning the study I had not considered the effects of being an outsider, because of my familiarity with the school, the staff, and Sarah. In reflection, I see that my role influenced the ways I interacted with students, the data I obtained, and my feelings as a researcher. Though the issue of being an outsider never completely left me, I did learn to accept my role as researcher, to not take the ensuing isolation personally, and to find small yet meaningful ways to be a part of classroom life.

**Ethical Considerations**

Ethical considerations are an important component of any study, and especially one that focuses on human rights. In a qualitative case study, ethical dilemmas are likely to emerge either during the collection of data or during the dissemination of the findings (Merriam, 1988). In regards to the former, it was important to obtain informed consent from the school as a whole as well as from the parents of the children in the classroom. I also requested permission in advance to observe the children in other classes such as music, library, art, and gym.

I did not receive permission from one child's parents to write about that child in this report. I had to be very sensitive to what
information I sent home with this child about the human rights curriculum. It was made clear to the child that even though the child would not be written about in the final report, that the activities for the human rights curriculum were part of this year’s school experience. Parents were informed of this as well and had no difficulty with it. As much as possible I tried not to exclude this child from any involvement, and even gave the child the option to be included in interviews, slides, and other data I knew I would not be able to use.

Even when parents’ consent was given, I experienced a host of ethical dilemmas in working with the children. I had to be mindful of being an observer and a teacher but not a counselor, especially with the troubled children. Conversing with students about their relationships and emotional writing assignments was a challenge which I attempted to conduct with sensitivity and respect.

At first, students were always asked for permission to tape record their conversations and class discussions. In December, I asked the class for permission to tape any event with the understanding that they could always ask to have the tape recorder turned off. They consented and no one ever asked not to be taped.

A further ethical dilemma revolved around the question: what types of human rights abuses is it appropriate to discuss with nine and ten year old children? This question was particularly acute as the human rights unit fell on the heels of the Persian Gulf War, about which many of the students were deeply concerned. Pursuing an answer to this question led to unsettling conversations with Sarah and other teacher friends and a continuing struggle to assess how
much I bring my own issues of guilt and moral concern for others' suffering into the classroom, either appropriately or inappropriately.

Guiding students towards greater empowerment in the classroom also posed ethical considerations. What about next year? How would they adjust to a classroom where they were not given the chance to address and resolve important issues with the support of their teacher and peers? At first, I contemplated presenting a workshop for the school on democratic classroom practices and hoping that the fifth grade teachers would attend. Later on, after many times observing the fifth grade teachers conversing with their students in circles, I decided to send them an article I wrote for a journal on the democratic practices we had used and offered my assistance if they wished to use some of these ideas in their teaching this year.

In writing up this report, I was constantly questioning how I could present the data in ways that were truthful and protective of the identity of those involved. I frequently thought about how different parties--such as parents, Sarah, the principal, the children--would feel as they read this report and then tried to find honest ways to present the data. I hope I have been successful and that I have not excluded any pertinent information out of fear of someone's disapproval or hurt.

Finally, although I relied on Sarah's descriptions and interpretations of the children and classroom events, I needed to also be aware that Sarah has a perspective and doesn't just share "the truth" about children or situations. Sarah has different values
about what is important in school life and children's learning than I do and her perspective is colored by these ideas. It is important to note that the authorship of the resulting narrative in this report is mine alone. Although Sarah was involved in teaching, collecting data, and giving frequent feedback and information, this final report is based primarily on my own analysis of the data.

Chapter Summary

This descriptive, exploratory case study incorporates a variety of qualitative data collection methods including observations, interviews, taped classroom events, and student works. The data has been organized through a system of pagination and the creation of a case study data base.

Data analysis involved the identification of patterns and the development of a coding system. The data was analyzed in two periods, early participation and late participation. Trustworthiness for the study was established through investigator and data triangulation, including the collection of feedback sheets from parents, students, and the classroom teacher. Finally, personal issues dealing with bias, ethical conduct, and feelings of being an outsider have been examined.
CHAPTER 4
EARLY PARTICIPATION

Introduction

The setting for this study is a fourth grade public school classroom. The description of the early participation period includes details about the school, the classroom and students, the classroom teacher's teaching style and disciplinary strategies, and the students' relationships. The last part of the chapter focuses on data about other aspects of the students important to this study: their concerns with rights/fairness and global issues as well as their perspective taking abilities.

The descriptions in this chapter are based on data collected during the early participation period between October 24, 1990 and February 15th, 1991 via observations in the classroom, gym, art, music, and on the playground; tape recorded interviews with the students, Sarah, and some of the specialists; and class discussions.

The School

Heartwood school (not its real name) is located in a predominantly White, middle class, rural town in southwestern New Hampshire. One of five elementary schools in the town, the school has two classrooms per grade and is based on an open school concept. Four classrooms, encompassing two grades, form a "unit." The entrances to each of the classrooms adjoin to a central "pod" area. This arrangement is designed to facilitate team teaching which does occur on a very limited basis.
Despite the innovative design, the relationships between principal, teachers, and students are typical of other more traditional elementary schools. The principal, Mr. Ford, is the primary decision maker, though the teachers do have input at weekly faculty meetings. The predominant mode of discipline in the school is assertive discipline, a system whereby students have their names written on the board and are given checkmarks for rule infractions that indicate different punishments. This system was used by Sarah at the beginning of the school year (11/14-T-3) and I observed the art and music teachers using it as well (11/7-0-6, 2/7-0-1).

The school day schedule is typical elementary school fare. The children have two recesses, one in the morning and one after lunch, on a large playground with climbing equipment, a basketball court, and a large sports field. In addition to the standard academic subjects, students have special classes in art, music, library, and physical education taught by specialists in those areas. Extracurricular sport, dance, and music activities are offered and this particular school is a center for a number of special education classes for the district.

The Classroom and Students

The two fourth and fifth grade classrooms form a unit in the northern part of the building. Sarah's classroom is an odd-sided roomy space which includes a sink, cabinets, computer, and a large blackboard, as well as numerous bulletin boards. The students' desks are clustered in groups of four or six and there is a large carpeted area where the children can sit in a circle for discussions (10/24-0-2).
There are eighteen students in the class, ten girls and eight boys. Cultural diversity is limited. All of the students are white, one is coded learning disabled, and one is hearing impaired. One boy is Jewish and another's father is from Australia. About half of the students come from single parent families and they range in age from nine to eleven. Most of the students have been in this school for many years and know each other well. Only two boys were new to the class this year.

Sarah's Teaching and Disciplinary Styles

This was Sarah's first year at the school and her first year teaching fourth grade, though she has more than ten years experience teaching kindergarten through second grades in New England. Both her teaching and disciplinary styles incorporated many of the elements important for effective human rights education and prosocial development.

Sarah's Teaching Style

Based on numerous observations of Sarah's teaching as well as conversations with her about what is important in her work with children, I have identified two main themes. Sarah's teaching was centered around respecting the individual child's experiences and ideas as well as fostering positive social relations.

Respect for the Individual

Most days began with a morning meeting, when students sat in a circle and heard about the plans and assignments for the day and also had a chance to ask questions or share a personal experience.
Involving students' personal experiences in the school day was an important element of Sarah's teaching style. She valued taking time for students' contributions. When Susannah was involved in a community production of "Annie", she brought in the words to one of the songs on poster board and taught the class to sing it (1/8-0-1). Comments such as "Joanne has something she wants to share before we read" were common (11/30-0-2).

Students' personal experiences were also shared in conjunction with academic learning. After reading a chapter in Henry Huggins, Sarah asked the class "Have you guys ever had the experience Henry had?" (10/24-0-10). Lively discussions on pets' deaths, being lost in the woods, and experiences with subways, trains, sleep, and dreams followed literature and science lessons (11/13-0-1, 12/21-0-2, 11/13-0-2, 1/14-0-6).

Sarah showed her valuing of students' ideas by asking them for their opinions and involving them in making some of the decisions that are part of classroom life. My field notes indicated:

Sarah begins reading, comes to a name of a Native American she is having trouble pronouncing. She writes it on the board "Attean", 3 or 4 kids share how they think it should be pronounced...The kids decide. (11/30-0-3)

When there was a problem with where to store the recycled paper, Sarah asked the students "You guys know this school better than I do. Can you think of a better storage place?" (11/13-0-1). One lesson on a December morning involved students sharing their personal strategies for how they learn to spell (12/21-0-1).

Although Sarah largely determined the academic tasks and their time allocations for a given day, the students had much
personal freedom in how to carry them out. The language arts program involved frequent self-selection of books for reading (12/17-0-2) and topics for writing time. On many days students could choose the order in which to do their morning work (12/10-0-3) or whether to work with a friend or alone on a task (10/29-0-7, 12/17-0-1). A major unit on life in the 1800's involved the class creating a web together of different aspects of life during that period and then choosing a topic to research and a form in which to present the research (mural, diorama, or charts) (11/30-0-5).

Sarah also sought to empower students to believe in the value of their ideas, feelings, and decisions. When Evan proposed that the class set up a recycling system in the school, Sarah assisted the class in planning and carrying out the project which eventually led to a district wide recycling program (10/24-0-7). As many teachers do, Sarah frequently posted students' work on the bulletin boards around the room, though she extended this to create further learning and empowerment, as indicated in the following log excerpt.

There is always lots of kids' work up in this room. Today research projects are up on the back bulletin board. Kids are sharing them this week - also Sarah has a learning plan for how they are going to go to others' projects to answer questions (12/10-0-1).

The writing program Sarah created also validated individual students' ideas. Each child chose both the topics to write about and the format, sometimes poems or letters, most often stories. Each child had a turn to be "Author of the Week" which involved having the child's picture taken and displayed along with a "book" the child had recently written and "published". Children were frequently
encouraged to read their works to the class in a format called "Author's Chair", when constructive comments and positive statements were made to the author about the work (1/2-0-1, 2/11-0-3, 2/15-0-1).

Frequent questions to the class began with the words, "What do you think about....", "What would you do if...", "What's your idea...." (10/24-0-8, 1/21-0-4). When Rich gave the following response to a question about how Whites and Native Americans should treat each other--"They should have helped each other, lived together, and learned about each other's culture"--Sarah wrote it up on chart paper, posted it on the wall, and referred to it in subsequent lessons (11/30-0-7).

**Positive Social Relations**

In addition to Sarah's focus on respect for individual student's thoughts, ideas, and classroom work, she also had a strong social component to her teaching. Her emphasis on positive social relations and understanding others' thoughts and feelings was evident in the arrangement of the classroom, choice of academic activities, and her approach to discipline.

As mentioned previously, the students' desks were clustered in groups of four or six and there was a large area on the rug for creating a meeting circle. Sarah changed the students' seats about every two months; this was always a lengthy and agonizing process as she was very concerned about who would be supportive for and positively influence the four or five students who especially needed it (1/1-T-1).
In the morning when students entered the classroom, they were given a small assignment to complete at their desks. After noticing that they were given about twenty minutes to complete about five minutes of work, I asked Sarah why. She said that she wanted the students to have time to socialize and to begin their school day in a relaxed and informal manner (10/29-0-10).

On most days the students had a spelling assignment to complete sometime during the morning. Sarah would frequently inform them that they should work on this together with the people at their cluster of desks and only come to her with a question after they had asked the others in their group (10/24-0-1, 12/19-0-6). She also encouraged students to work together by choosing the same reading book (12/17-T-1) or conferencing with a classmate about his/her writing.

Two other activities, one successful and the other not so, focused on fostering positive social relations. After we discussed ideas for creating more positive relationships in the class, Sarah set up a "Kind and Thoughtful People in our Class" chart, where students could use post-it notes to put up the names of classmates who had offered them friendship; shared a book, snack, or pencil; had helped them understand their work; and so forth. Over 50 names were posted and children would frequently cluster around the chart to see whose name had been posted where (1/17-0-2, 1/21-0-5).

The less successful activity was a "challenge" presented by Sarah to the class. The arrangement was that if they could go three days without any instance of teasing each other she would give them an extra half-hour recess. She discussed with the students how they
could give each other feedback if they heard someone begin teasing. Although a few of the students tried saying "It's not okay to do that in this class" with mixed success, the class as a whole never made it through one day without teasing (12/5-0-8).

Sarah's concerns with the students' social relations and personal well-being were also evident in her conferences and phone calls to parents. More often than not, these discussions centered around personal or social issues such as the child's unhappiness or anger, rather than their academic work. To a few parents, Sarah usually recommended that the family seek counseling for the child.

Sarah saw understanding others' perspectives as an important aspect of positive social relations. In the classroom, this is most evident in her approach to discipline described in the next part of this chapter. In a larger sphere, through activities on Native Americans, Hanukkah, and the Civil Rights Movement, as well as in discussions about the Persian Gulf War, she focused on helping children understand the perspectives of people culturally different from themselves (10/24-0-4, 11/13-0-4, 11/21-0-6, 11/30-0-1, 12/17-0-1, 1/7-0-5). Perhaps the fact that Sarah's husband is Jewish gave her greater sensitivity to issues of discrimination. During one of the discussions about the war Sarah shared.

You might want to think a little bit about the soldiers that are in the army in Iraq. They are fathers and brothers and sons of people who live there and their families feel they love them just as much as your uncles, your fathers, and grandfathers and the people that you know that have had to go to war other times, like my father was in a war, so people still have feelings just the same as we do, even the soldiers who are there. And a lot of sadness happens, terrible sadness happens, when wars start.
When I asked Sarah to reflect on her teaching style at the end of the school year, she simply asserted that she tried to help the children become "good" and "kind" people (I-41). Although she seemed unable to articulate it clearly at that time, her focus on both individual empowerment and success as well as positive social relations were the essential components of this pursuit.

Sarah's Disciplinary Style

Sarah's approach to discipline incorporated three main strategies: fostering perspective consciousness through inductive reasoning, power assertion, and positive reinforcement.

**Perspective Consciousness through Inductive Reasoning**

The first of only three rules in Sarah's class stated simply, "Be considerate" (10/24-0-1). Being aware of others and their needs, desires, and concerns was a constant theme in Sarah's approach to classroom management. She would frequently make comments such as "I'd like you to be considerate of the other people in this classroom who need a quieter space" or "Class, it's getting a little loud for work time" (11/7-0-4, 12/17-T-1). She would also share her personal concerns in statements such as "I keep being disturbed by you" or "I'm really getting annoyed by you" (10/29-0-4, 12/19-0-6).

Sarah's general strategy in working with students' interpersonal conflicts, observed on numerous occasions, was to conference with them and help them see each other's points of view (1/3-0-5, 2/11-0-2, 2/13-T-1,3). She used this approach when Jennifer and Michaela argued over how to take care of the gerbil (10/29-0-6) as well as when Andre and Rich pummelled each other.
in the classroom (11/14-T-1). The following vignette will detail this strategy for the reader.

A few of the boys had made a cardboard bus for a skit based on a book they were reading. About two weeks later, some of the girls decided to use the bus, sitting in a corner of the room, for a play Jennifer had written. When the boys entered after recess, they noticed that the girls were not only using their bus but had colored it red. One boy was furious and proceeded to kick the bus until it fell in two pieces. The girls were upset and when Ms. Conley came in she took all those involved out in the pod to discuss the issue. She first laid the ground rules: everyone has to listen, then you can talk all you want. Each child expressed their view on the matter and then each talked a second time. Sarah then turned to the girls and said "Could you understand how they felt?". They said yes, and then she asked them what they could have done if they rolled back time. The girls agreed that they should have asked the boys' permission. A similar set of questions to the boys resulted in their saying that they shouldn't have kicked and wrecked the bus (12/5-0-4,5,6,7).

**Power Assertion**

Although Sarah's dedication to fostering perspective consciousness was strong, the students did not always act considerately and often Sarah would use another strategy, power assertion, to maintain order in the classroom. In the beginning of the school year, she used the assertive discipline procedure described previously (11/14-T-3). Although she had abandoned this approach by the time I came to the classroom she still frequently had students stay in from recess (2/13-T-2) and sometimes told
them to leave the classroom and work out in the pod (10/24-0-6, 1/3-0-6, 2/11-0-1).

When students stayed in from recess it was usually for one of two reasons: to finish school work (most common) or to work on interpersonal problems. Students who stayed in for the latter would be asked to spend the recess talking with Sarah about their problems getting along with others or doing some writing about their feelings and ideas (2/13-T-2). This approach actually combined punishment with inductive reasoning.

Occasionally, out of sheer frustration, Sarah would yell at the students (1-41). This seemed to be a scary occurrence for everyone involved. Sarah would feel out of control and the students would freeze, with pained or sullen expressions on their faces. The class would generally be quiet after one of these incidents, at least for a short time.

Positive Reinforcement

Sarah also used praise and positive comments with the students. She frequently told students when she liked their work (10/24-0-9, 11/7-0-4, 11/30-0-2) and thanked students for contributing answers even if they were not right (1/7-0-6). When the students were working and Sarah wanted to get their attention, she would often thank those students who listened to her right away (12/19-0-3). Sarah also encouraged the children to appreciate each other's work. For example, after Jennifer finished sharing her research project, Sarah said to the class, "Great. Good job. Do you want to clap for her?". She then encouraged the class to ask
questions of Jennifer and concluded with "Great job, Jennifer" (12/10-0-4).

Sarah rarely used either experiential or material rewards to motivate the children to behave well. When discussing a behavior modification program one student's last year's teacher had used with him she shared. "...it worked about this much. I hate doing those programs. I'm not going to do it" (10/24-0-6). Although on rare occasions she did give the students an extra recess for good behavior she "always felt a little funny about it" (I-41). "The intrinsic reward is what I want kids to feel, I don't want them looking for the outside rewards" (I-41).

Conclusions

In many ways, Sarah's teaching and disciplinary styles created an ideal setting for human rights instruction. Her foci on respecting individual's ideas and contributions as well as fostering prosocial relations through working with peers and the use of inductive reasoning contributed to creating the attitudes important in a human rights classroom: respect, tolerance, empathy, and compassion (Anderson, 1982; Heater, 1984). In particular, Sarah was committed to helping the children understand others' perspectives, both within the classroom and with distant others. She effectively integrated human rights issues in the curriculum and in the students' relationships. Teaching strategies important in a human rights classroom that Sarah used were open discussion, interactive learning, simulation, literature, and journal writing.

Sarah incorporated many of the strategies which facilitate prosocial behavior. These included the use of inductive reasoning
and interpersonal problem solving and giving children classroom responsibilities (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989; Staub, 1979). Recognizing that giving material rewards would lead to less intrinsic motivation to behave prosocially, Sarah did not use this strategy (Eisenberg, 1987; Grusec, 1983).

Although Sarah frequently had the students work together in pairs or small groups, she did not use cooperative learning in the classroom, an important strategy for both human rights education and fostering prosocial behavior. The other major component mentioned by both literatures that would have enhanced the atmosphere in the classroom is democratic practices. Sarah was open to both of these types of strategies and they were initiated as part of the human rights curriculum.

**Concern for Rights, Perspective Taking Skills, and Interest in Global Issues**

Before beginning the human rights unit, it was important to assess the students on these three dimensions: concern for their rights, perspective taking skills, and interest in global issues. This information was key in analyzing how the human rights curriculum influenced the students' thinking and behavior in these areas.

**Concern for Rights**

Rights and fairness issues were frequent concerns for these children both in peer interactions and in how teachers treated students. A number of the topics brought up by the students in the first few class conferences—including issues around sharing the heater and people not minding their own business—involved
concerns with fairness and rights (1/8-T-1, 2/15-T-1,2,3,4,5,6). Choosing who was going to run the weekly class conference as well as who was assigned classroom jobs each week often involved concerns with fairness (1/21-0-1). When the school guidance counselor came to the class one morning and asked the students what their biggest problems were with each other, both Nicholas and John mentioned "unfairness" on the playground and in the classroom (11/30-T-5).

An unwritten code of ethics centered on equal treatment. When the boys wanted to wear hats in the classroom, many of the children argued that it was "fair" because the girls could wear barrettes, ribbons, and headbands (12/21-T-1,2,3). Equality for two girls working together on creating a graph meant splitting the work exactly in two, down to how many stars they could each stick on the graph (10/29-0-8). The implicit code also included property rights. When Cathy began to color on Joanne's picture, Joanne, ordinarily a very quiet and agreeable girl, stated emphatically, "Don't you dare draw on my picture!" (2/7-0-2).

In an activity on land rights in the 1800's, students' thinking revealed both equality and equity concerns. After simulated presentations from the homesteaders, the cattle ranchers, and the Native Americans, the eight children who wrote about who should have the land all chose the Native Americans. A common reason expressed was "they were there first" (11/19-P-17). Equity concerns were represented in a few comments such as "they will take care of the land...and they will never waste anything or an animal that they hunt" (11/19-P-21).
For some children, following the rules was an important aspect of fairness. When Andre wanted to join a basketball game during recess in the gym it was not even considered, as Evan insisted that the rules say that when the game has started no one else can join (2/7-0-9).

On the way to music one morning, Jennifer found herself stymied in her attempt to follow the rules her mother had set down. She was sitting on the floor in the classroom trying to put on her sneakers. The shoes wouldn't go over the slightly thick socks and Jennifer was almost in tears because the rest of the class had left for music and she insisted that she wasn't allowed to either walk out in her socks or to wear her sneakers without socks (2/5-0-7).

When teachers punished students for infractions of the rules, it was not uncommon to hear a "Why me?" from the accused (2/7-0-4). Some of the children especially felt that the music teacher was unfair in the way that she singled out certain children frequently to stay in at recess (11/7-0-8).

Although a concern for fairness and equal treatment pervaded students' relationships with teachers and peers, I did not hear the word "rights" used in students' conversations before the human rights unit. Students' language did not include "I have the right to..." or any other similar type statement.

Two classroom events focused on students' understanding of rights. Before Martin Luther King's birthday, Sarah asked the class to contribute their ideas on what civil rights were. Evan quickly offered, "That all people are equal no matter the color of their skin, that they all have rights" (1/7-T-1). Although Evan was clear about
what rights were all about, only a few of the other children participated in the discussion and most of them seemed confused about the concept (1/7-T-1,2,3). Only John, who shared "A civil right is a way of civil freedom...Its a way of a kind of freedom that everybody has", seemed to also have some understanding of the term (1/7-T-3).

The day before February vacation, I gave the students a worksheet to assess their beginning thoughts on human rights (See Appendix F). On the front of the paper were four short stories, two about school events and two about children in other countries, which illustrated someone being denied their rights. Students were asked to check whether they were very interested, interested, or not very interested in each of these stories. For the two school events and one of the other stories about half the students checked very interested or interested and the other half chose not very interested. For the fourth story about a South African child, more children expressed interest than disinterest. This story was the only one with an emotional element which may possibly explain the difference in response. The results show there was some, though not overwhelming, interest in human rights issues among the children (2/15-P-1).

The other side of the sheet had statements such as "People should be treated fairly whatever their race" or "Everyone should have equal pay for equal work". Students were asked to check whether they strongly agreed, agreed, or disagreed with each statement. There was also a place to check "don't know". For each statement, the vast majority of the children checked strongly agree
or agree. The one exception to this was the statement "No one should be tortured." A possible reason for this may be due to the way I presented that sentence. With all the other statements, I simply read them aloud. After I read aloud "No one should be tortured" I then added "no matter what they do." Some of the children then erased their answer from agree to disagree. The results of this part of the worksheet suggest that most of the children have a sense of the importance of different kinds of human rights, but that some children may not be secure in their ideas.

**Perspective Taking Skills**

Understanding another's point of view was a "growing edge" for many of the children in the class. There was a wide disparity of abilities to take others' perspectives among the children.

At one extreme were children who had difficulty understanding other's views at all. My second day in the classroom I worked with two of the girls as they attempted to create a graph together.

At first they each want to do the chart in their own way. Lizbeth wants to list the animals across the bottom, Michaela across the top. They each present their approach, each saying they don't understand the other's. Finally Michaela says, "But yours is backwards" (10/29-0-8).

Lack of perspective taking skills is also evident in this conversation with Cathy.

Cathy asks me, 'Do you think it would have been weird to live during that time (late 1800's)?' Me: 'No, because it would seem normal.' Cathy: 'But I wouldn't like doing so many chores and making my own toys.' I couldn't explain to her how those feelings were in comparison to now (12/10-0-7).
Most of the children, however, seemed to be able to take another's point of view, at least to a limited degree. In a discussion about White and Native American views of the land, most of the children were able to articulate the different perspectives these two groups had about owning vs. caretaking the land.

When Sarah asked me to do a lesson on something the children might have a distinct perspective on and not be able to understand another's point of view, we settled on the topic of toys. We discussed in particular children in poor areas in different parts of the world and I asked the students how they thought they would feel if they had only their natural environment and hand-made toys with which to play. A typical answer was, "Well if they didn't know about other kinds of toys they probably wouldn't miss them" (11/13-0-8). I then had each child share one word describing how they thought they would feel. At least three or four children chose each of the following: happy, sad, bored, and frustrated (because, as Thad said, "when you try to make things they fall apart") (11/13-0-8). These responses show a range of abilities with most children being able to, in part at least, understand something of other children's experiences.

Perspective taking also involves being able to empathize. The following hypothetical exercise was designed to see how much children would empathize with others' needs.
Imagine you are a white pioneer settler. This past spring you planted your first crop of corn. As you harvest it this fall you realize that you do not have much corn. Check all of the following with whom you think you would be willing to share your corn.

- your family
- travellers coming through your area
- the local Native American Indians
- friends or neighbors in your community
- only yourself

You can assume all of these people need food. Explain your choices. I would share my corn with those checked above because ________________ (11/21-P-1)

Although the students' true actions might be different than what they said they would do, the answers are interesting. Three students checked "only yourself", though their reasons for doing so were quite different. Bob, the most isolated child in the class at the time, wrote "because I don't have anyone" (11/21-P-9). Evan wrote simply "I planted it" (11/21-P-8) and Joanne thoughtfully shared "I would be hungry if I gave all of the food I might evin die" (11/21-P-7).

The largest group, nine children, checked some combination of family, friends, or neighbors (two children crossed out the neighbors part of that line). Reasons included "my family shares a lot of things with me" (11/21-P-12) and "well my family is nice and my friends they are nice too" (11/21-P-10).

A few students showed some concern for others beyond themselves and those close to them, although Julie shows some self interest in why she chose to check only "the local Native Americans." She wrote. "I would give it to the indians they need food and because you get a friend by doing that" (11/21-P-21). Rich's and Andre's
responses for why they would share with their families and the Native Americans—"They need to live all so" (11/21-P-4) and "They would starve" (11/21-P-5)—show a beginning appreciation for human rights.

Finally, Jennifer chose to share with family, Native Americans, friends, and neighbors because "My family always said that you should share. The Indians share with you. I want to help my good friends" (11/21-P-2). Jennifer's father is a minister and has taught her a strong sense of Christian morality.

There were other examples of empathy for distant others as well. When John was reading Diary of Anne Frank he stopped a third of the way through the book because he found it so depressing he didn't want to read it anymore (12/17-T-4). After Nicholas had drawn swastikas on his desk, one of the fifth grade teachers whose husband is Jewish told him all about the concentration camps during World War II. Nicholas was near tears, visibly very upset by what she shared with him (12/17-T-3).

After Sarah read a Blackfoot legend about a deaf boy to the class, she asked them to write about how they felt about his mistreatment and why they thought he was mistreated. The children answered the first question from both justice and care perspectives. Some children said the way others treated him was "bad" or "unfair" while others referred to the fact that they were "unkind" or "not nice." John, a particularly sensitive boy, wrote with righteous indignation, "They were treating him like he wasn't a human. Like he was worthless dirt. They treated him like that just because he was deaf and he can't even help that" (11/19-P-10).
Both empathy for others and awareness of global issues was fostered with the onset of the Persian Gulf war. The children understandably were most concerned about their relatives and family friends who were going to the Middle East to fight (1/21-T-6). Jennifer, however, introduced a concern for distant others which Rich, and later on Andre, followed up on, even when other children brought the conversation back to their relatives.

Jennifer: What I think about with a war going on, I think about other people being shot...People who are around Iraq, people who don't have anything to do with it could get killed very easily. They could just be all of a sudden dead and they didn't have anything to do with it.

Rich: It scares me that like innocent people who didn't do anything are gonna get killed and like people over there are gonna grow up without any parents cause their parents are ... that's really bad (1/21-T-6,7).

Further discussion focused in part on what it must be like to be a young child and have your parents go to fight or have them die (1/21-T-8,9,11).

Awareness of Global Issues

All of the references to global issues involved the war. It is difficult to assess how much the children would have brought global concerns to the classroom without the war, since the war was so overwhelmingly present during this first data collection period. I suspect however that there would have been little mention of global issues other than some other major world event.

When Sarah asked the students for "words we've been using" to create a spelling list for the week, Nicholas offered Saudi Arabia and Saddam Hussein and Evan mentioned Iraq (12/10-0-2). While
brainstorming possible names for biography studies, Evan suggested Saddam Hussein and Roger Bellman, his uncle serving in Saudi Arabia (1/7-0-1). Both Evan and John wrote up "the war" as a discussion topic for our weekly class conference (1/17-0-2). Kristin and Evan were most interested in watching newscasts during the war and they helped the school librarian put together a videotaped news show about the war with help from Susannah, Andre, and others (1/17-0-1, 1/21-0-2).

Although many of the children participated in the class discussions about the war, it should be evident from the above paragraph that certain children, notably Evan, Nicholas, John, and Kristin, were more interested in this global issue. Many of the other children were concerned for their relatives but not as intrigued by the event itself. These four students were among the brighter students in the class and also had parents who fostered their interest in the war through discussions, watching the news with them, or taking them to rallies.

Not surprisingly, the students showed naivete about global affairs. Many of their comments about the reasons for the war and possible events as the war proceeded showed both a lack of factual information and an inability to think critically about complex issues (1/14-T-1,2,3,4; 1/21-T-6,7,8,9,10,11). When Sarah taught a lesson on the beginning of civilization, she had the students guess where they thought civilized development began. After guessing many places in the world, someone finally guessed correctly, Iraq. Evan was aghast and exclaimed, "Those people?" (1/21-O-6). Rich stated, "Well I thought they were all these maniacs, I never thought
that they would think of something like civilization" (1/21-T-5). Both of these students and probably many of the others could only conceive of Iraqis as warmongering, destructive people.

Conclusions

The students in the class had many concerns about fairness in their relationships with peers and adults, yet only rudimentary understanding of the concept of rights. Although most of the children felt that all people should be guaranteed rights of many kinds, their beliefs were in the process of formation and in many cases were not secure.

Consistent with the findings of Piaget (1932), the children in this class were very concerned with equality and reciprocity in their relationships. Concerns for equity emerged less frequently and only among a few children. The class as a whole would fall in Selman's (1980) Level 2, as they are beginning to be able to see others' points of view but their relationships are still largely self-serving.

The children's justice concerns affirmed Kohlberg's (1968, 1969) findings for this age level. There were strong concerns for being "good" and "nice" and occasionally for following rules. There was also evidence of Gilligan's (1977) care orientation expressed on the part of some of the children.

Perspective taking abilities varied widely among the children. This is a "growing edge" for the middle childhood level. As noted by Damon (1988) and Hoffman (cited in Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989) some of the children were able to engage in advanced perspective taking abilities and empathy for the suffering of distant others.
However, most of the children's lack of interest in global issues and their personalized responses to the Persian Gulf War show that the majority are concerned primarily with self, family, and friends.

**Students' Relationships**

The ten girls and eight boys were chatting quietly and working together on a spelling assignment when I entered the class my first morning in October. Over the next few months, I observed a variety of positive and negative social interactions between these children. In order to assess any influences the human rights curriculum may have had on the children's behavior, it is important to paint a detailed picture here of both their positive and negative social behaviors in the early part of the school year.

**A Few Preliminary Cautions**

Before looking at the data collected on students' behaviors, particularly the charts with numbers, some caution in regards to interpretation are necessary. The data were gathered through observations and occasional conversations with Sarah. I was not present in the classroom all day, nor was I able to observe all the students all the time. I chose not to systematically focus on each child for specified periods of time, but instead to observe interesting interactions as they occurred. Though some researchers focus on each child for a specified period of time, I felt that keeping a wider lens open to the group as a whole resulted in a richer description of the range of social behaviors.

However, it is clear that certain types of behaviors and even certain children commanded more of my attention than others.
Although I tried to be aware of both positive and negative behaviors, quiet words shared as well as physical aggression, clearly some types of behaviors were probably observed more just because they were more visual. I felt that I had limited access to gossip or kind words. Also, certain behaviors such as working cooperatively on spelling or some of the girls putting their arms around each other were almost "invisible" because they happened so often. Most of these two types of behavior were not included in the data.

Sarah's reports to me were also biased towards what captured her attention. These were usually negative social behaviors or events involving certain children that she was concerned about at the time.

Most of the observations took place in the classroom, though some occurred in other settings in the school and on the playground. I had originally thought that the playground would be an excellent site for gathering this data, but because it was divided into two large areas and the children were dispersed among other third and fourth graders, this setting was minimally useful. A more profitable environment for observing both positive and negative behaviors was the students' weekly gym class which I attended three times from October through February.

Finally, it is important to note that often just a few children were accountable for a large proportion of certain behaviors. Therefore no judgments should be made about any types of behaviors taking place equally among all the children, even of a given sex.

How can these numbers be useful then? They point to broad generalizations about types of behaviors that took place in the
classroom and whether these behaviors were exhibited largely by boys, girls, or both, as well as whether they took place in same sex or cross sex interactions. However, because of the previously cited reasons, one cannot say that a certain behavior took place more than another or make any inferences about the whole class, all the boys, or all the girls.

Positive Social Interactions

The chart on the following page indicates the numbers and types of prosocial behaviors observed among peers, with a breakdown for same sex (SS) and cross sex (XS) interactions. An explanation of each type of behavior follows.

Table 4 - Positive Social Interactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF BEHAVIOR</th>
<th>TOTAL NO. OBSERVED</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>XS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>working together in class</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goofing around</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharing something</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kind words</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical affection</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Working Together in Class

Interactions coded as "working together" were often cooperative activities initiated by teacher request. Typical types of
interactions observed were helping each other with spelling (10/24-0-1, 10/29-0-4), working on research projects (12/17-0-1), listening to a tape together (11/14-T-5), playing a board game (12/17-T-6), and emptying the recycled paper boxes (11/14-T-5).

Consistent with the literature on middle childhood social interactions, most often these activities took place between same sex rather than cross sex peers (Gesell et al., 1956, 1977; Lockheed, 1986; Scott, 1985). When children had a choice of whom to work with, they almost always chose a same sex friend. When students filled out papers indicating three classmates they would most like to work with, the only students who chose a cross sex classmate were Susannah and Nicholas who chose each other (12/19-P-4, 14).

**Goofing Around**

"Goofing around" is the term I chose to characterize positive interactions that involved being silly and laughing, usually in conjunction with joking or roughhousing. The three instances of cross sex goofing around all involved Nicholas and Susannah who were a "couple" at the time (10/24-0-3, 10/24-0-11, 12/5-0-11). The other incidents all involved boys and many of them took place in gym class during unstructured time. Although the girls did get silly with each other, goofing around, as described here, was mostly the province of the boys.

**Sharing Something**

Common examples are sharing food (10/29-0-5, 12/17-0-4, 1/14-0-7), spelling lists (12/10-0-6), and gym equipment (1/10-0-2, 4, 1/24-0-1, 2.3, 1/3-0-2). During art class, Evan shared his sweatshirt to put under another boy's sore knee when he was trying
to hold a painful pose (2/7-0-2). Lizbeth and Julie making a rebus book together for the kindergarten class (1/14-0-1) and Jennifer spending twelve dollars of her own money on a birthday present for Shelley (2/11-0-2) were also noted as sharing acts. General acts benefitting the whole class were also counted in this category, such as when Andre picked up all the jump ropes and put them away in gym class (1/3-0-2).

A large proportion of the sharing behaviors observed were cross sex interactions. This may be due to observer bias; I may have noticed the cross sex interactions more than same sex sharing. The cross sex sharing incidents were primarily Nicholas sharing snack with Susannah and Claire (10/29-0-5, 12/17-0-4) and various children sharing gym equipment (1/24-0-1, 2/7-0-8). Children in gym shared freely with each other; they were not required to do so.

**Kind Words**

The main form of "kind words" observed was complementing someone on their work (1/2-0-1, 1/3-0-3, 1/7-0-2, 2/7-0-5). This occurred spontaneously, as in art class when the children showed each other their drawings, as well as in more structured ways such as giving feedback to someone in the Author's Chair. Other examples of actions involving kind words were inviting someone to join in an activity (12/21-0-1, 1/10-0-4, 2/5-0-1), helping someone who was hurt (1/10-0-1) and defending someone publicly (11/7-0-8).

Are there more kind words between children of different sexes than those of the same sex? Probably not. It is likely that as an observer I was more drawn to notice the cross sex kind interactions.
However, the data do reveal that kind words between boys and girls happen regularly, at least among certain children. Seven of the cross sex interactions involved either Thad or Joanne. Thad was one of the older boys in the class and seemed to like interacting with the girls more than many of the other boys. Joanne was a kind girl who was cousins with Bob, a needy and often isolated boy to whom Joanne and others occasionally would reach out.

Physical Affection

For boys, physical affection that did not also fall under the realm of goofing around or teasing was relatively rare it seemed. The three incidents cited here are Evan giving John pats on the back (2/7-0-8), Nicholas giving Andre a handshake (12/17-0-7), and Nicholas giving another boy "five" after a successful dismount off the uneven bars (1/10-0-3). Although all of these interactions involve boys, it should be noted that some of the girls, particularly Cathy and Jennifer, put their arms around other girls often.

Negative Social Interactions

A similar chart to the one on prosocial behaviors is presented on the following page for the different types of negative interactions observed. The same cautions with interpretation associated with the data on positive social behaviors should be taken here.

Teasing

More teasing was observed than any other type of social behavior, positive or negative. The vast majority of the teasing was cross sex interactions in which boys teased girls. In fact, three of the boys were responsible for over half of the cross sex teasing.
Typical actions were grabbing the girls' bottoms (1/3-0-1, 1/10-0-4, 1/24-0-4), bothering others in gym class (1/10-0-2, 1/24-0-2,3), and playing "cooties" where one or more peers of the opposite sex are considered to have contagious germ-like qualities (2/7-0-8, 2/13-T-1).

Table 5 - Negative Social Interactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF BEHAVIOR</th>
<th>TOTAL NO. OBSERVED</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>XS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teasing</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insults</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arguing</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gossip</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aggression</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclusion</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eight of the cross sex teasing incidents involved Susannah, usually as the victim. Susannah was the smallest girl in the class and at the time of the teasing, the most popular, partially due to the fact that she was Nicholas' girlfriend. It is possible, even likely, that many of the boys were jealous that Nicholas, the largest boy with high status in the class, was spending so much time with Susannah and not with them. Susannah was also involved in more cross sex arguing and aggression than any other girl. She was not a part of any observed same sex negative behavior. I highlight
Susannah's case in part to illustrate the complexity of understanding children's social interactions and to once again caution the reader in how the data presented here are interpreted.

**Insults**

Teasing and insults are closely related though I have chosen to distinguish them in this study in the following way. Teasing was often meant to be fun for at least some of the people involved and was often done in silly ways such as making bunny ears behind someone's head when they weren't looking (1/17-0-5) or scaring someone off the balance beam (1/24-0-2). I distinguish teasing as generally being less hurtful than insults, which were more directed at making the other person feel terrible. Of course, in reality, the line between the two can be fuzzy or both can be involved in one incident.

Probably the most predominant type of insult was name-calling (10/24-0-11, 11/7-0-5, 2/11-T-5, 2/15-0-2). "Blubber", "geek", "butt face", and "jerk" were some of the terms used. Other common forms of insults included disparaging others' ideas or work (10/24-0-7, 1/3-0-3, 1/7-0-1) and making faces at others (11/30-T-2, 1/7-T-7, 1/14-0-6).

Kristin was one of only two girls who engaged in a lot of insults. She would make faces if she had to sit near a boy she didn't like (1/14-0-6) and insulted many of the girls for wearing barrettes and headbands in their hair (1/7-T-10). When Jennifer gave me a spontaneous hug one day, Kristin stated 'they're brown-nosing. They do that a lot.' Kristin can be blunt to the point of being cruel. With Jennifer standing right there
she says, 'I really don't like her at all. I don't care if she hears it' (1/28-0-2).

Many of the insults, especially from the boys, were directed at Lizbeth, the heaviest girl in the class. The librarian, Ms. Carr, tried to read the class Judy Blume's *Blubber* to help develop their empathy for heavier people. Instead, a number of the boys began calling Lizbeth "Blubber" (11/21-T-2). There were many occasions when Lizbeth's ideas were laughed at (1/7-0-1) or she was made fun of in gym class (1/3-0-3). Shortly before February vacation, Sarah discovered that Nicholas had created a "Hellraisers Club" and had laminated membership cards for himself, Rich, and Evan. The motto of the club was "Never do anything for anyone else" and the goal of the club, to make Lizbeth mad as much as possible (2/13-T-4).

As with teasing and other behaviors cited previously, a few children engaged in many more insults than others. It is interesting to note, however, that at least one instance of teasing or insulting behavior was observed for all but three of the eighteen students.

The prevalence of this type of behavior was acknowledged by the students themselves when the guidance counselor came in one morning to help them think about and decide on the biggest problems they were having with each other. The category "teasing/put downs" received twice the score of any other problem on the list (11/30-0-6). Other frequent problems the students mentioned were name calling, "back stabbing" (talking behind someone's back, i.e. gossip), exclusion, and physical bullying (aggression).
Arguing

As children attempted to work on projects and other school tasks together, differences of opinion, limited perspective taking abilities, and lack of social skills would sometimes lead to arguments. Arguing about how to carry out a shared assignment (10/29-0-6, 10/29-0-8, 11/21-0-3,4, 12/17-0-7, 1/7-0-6, 1/17-0-4, 1/17-0-5) was a common occurrence. When Andre and Rich were trying to do some research together they ended up arguing and then Andre withdrew. Rich came up to him again to try to work it out but Andre said.

'Leave me alone. Shut up. I just want to study this.' Rich looks really sad, dejected, but is just silent and then goes away from Andre (1/7-0-6).

Working in small groups was often even more challenging than working in pairs. When four children were asked to share the task of making a balloon into a globe, Nicholas took control of the whole thing. He let the other two boys in the group do some of it but to Susannah's "Please, can I?" he just said no, since she and Nicholas had just broken up. Finally, John, who avoided conflict. withdrew from the group entirely (1/17-0-5).

As with many other types of behavior, certain children were more prone to be argumentative. Nine of the twelve observed arguments involved one of three children, two boys and a girl.

Though it is probable that many arguments also took place on the playground, it is interesting to note that most of the observed arguments resulted from teachers' asking students to work together on a map, a graph, cleaning the gerbil cage, and so forth. Asking
students to work together was also cited as a major influence on positive behavior in the previous part of this chapter. My conclusion is that having students work together can bring about positive and/or negative behaviors and therefore teachers should think carefully about how to pair or group students, effectively employ the principles of cooperative learning, and give students social skills training.

**Gossip**

Very little gossip was observed in this study but this is most likely due to the fact that gossip is generally a private act between two people. I suspect that a good deal of gossip went on, as Gottman and Mettetal (1986) note that this is a key social process in middle childhood.

One incident of gossip observed in this study dealt with a discussion around whether or not the students should be able to wear hats in the classroom. Both boys and girls in the group stated they thought people should be able to wear hats since many of the girls wore barrettes and headbands. Rapid fire gossip then ensued with many of the children stating how this girl distracts others with her headband and that girl trades head wear with others (12/21-T-1,2).

In the other gossip observed, Kristin was talking about how some of the other girls are very changeable in their friendships with each other.

But they do that...like if Cathy just says it's not fair that. I'll just say, Jennifer always gets called on, then they say, that's not true and oh, I hate you and I hate you too (she mimics them in a high voice) (1/7-T-10).

147
Both of these incidents show how gossip is used to separate oneself from an unfavorable behavior and thereby exclude oneself from the possibility of being associated with a socially unacceptable act and the resultant exposure or embarrassment (Gottman and Mettetal, 1986).

**Aggression**

Aggression is defined here to include both physically hurtful actions and harming another person's possessions. The most common examples were pushing (10/29-0-6, 1/7-0-7, 1/10-0-1, 2/7-0-7) and fighting (11/13-0-4, 12/17-T-5, 1/29-0-1, 2/5-0-5, 2/7-0-8). There were also occasions of someone's chair getting kicked (12/17-0-3) or a desk being written on (10/29-0-5).

Aggressive behavior was almost exclusively the province of the boys. In fact, there was only one girl, Susannah, who was the aggressor in any of these acts and these were both cross sex interactions. Other girls were targets but not initiators of aggression.

Again, specific children were much more likely to engage in aggression. At least one of four boys was involved in all the aggressive acts observed. There were no observed acts of aggression for ten of the children, nine girls and one boy.

**Exclusion**

Children excluded others when they wouldn't let them play (11/14-T-6, 2/11-0-1), they wouldn't work cooperatively with them on a given task (1/14-0-6) or they just shooed them away (1/10-0-3). Denying someone food was also used as a way to exclude someone (12/17-0-4, 1/14-0-7).
Among a small group of five girls someone was always being put out by the others. The following is a typical example.

Jennifer has really been on the outs, snubbed a lot by the nasty girls. Shelley can be very mean. Shelley and Jennifer were being buddy buddy for a few weeks, Jennifer going over to her house a lot, playing all day on Saturday. Shelley was having a birthday party; Jennifer was invited. Then two days before the party Shelley said, 'I hate you. You can't come to my party.' Jennifer had already spent twelve dollars of her own money on a present for Shelley and she was crushed. Sarah has had conferences with the girls, 'good conferences', but the problems still continue (2/11-0-2).

Exclusion in this particular class seemed to be more prevalent among the girls. Where some of the boys would engage in pushing or fighting, the five girls mentioned above would more often insult and/or exclude each other.

**The Sociograms**

Additional information about relationships between specific students in the class was obtained through the construction of two sociograms. The first sociogram was constructed with information the students provided by writing down three people with whom they would most want to work in a small group and why. A dark line was drawn to indicate both students choosing each other. A light line indicated that one student chose another, with an arrow pointing toward the student chosen.

I expected that the students would choose their friends and this was confirmed. Their reasons for the choices they made were predominantly, "she's nice", "he's my friend", "she is funny", "he is fun to work with", and other similar phrases.
Analysis of this sociogram reveals a number of interesting points about the students' relationships. The most popular boys, chosen by almost every other boy, are John and Nicholas. Susannah was chosen by seven of the nine other girls and Claire by five of the other girls. Four of the girls, Susannah, Claire, Julie, and Kristin, all chose each other (although Susannah chose Nicholas as well). Many of the other students were less popular, often only having one other friend who chose them as well. The only student not chosen by anyone was Bob.

The second sociogram was constructed in a similar manner with the students' choices of the three other students in the class with whom they would not want to work. The reasons why students chose not to work with someone were varied and illustrate some of the problems children of this age have in getting along with each other. Below is a selection of these responses.

We don't get along.
She talks too much.
He gets on my nerves.
She always has to have her way.
She's a whiny baby.
He fools around a lot.
She doesn't like me.
He teases people.
He is a little mean.
She does gross things.
He hurts my feelings.
She gets me mad a lot of times (12/19-P-all).

Analysis of this sociogram revealed that there were a few children, three girls and two boys, who were much more disliked than others. In particular, Lizbeth was chosen by ten of the students in the class. The only students not mentioned by anyone were Julie.
Susannah, and Bob. As discussed previously, Julie and Susannah were popular children in the class. Bob was usually ignored by the students which is reflected in the fact that he was not chosen as either liked or disliked by anyone. Of the other popular children, Claire and John were chosen once, and Nicholas twice.

Conclusions

In general, consistent with the literature on children's social development, there was more same sex positive behavior than cross sex positive behavior. However, one should not overlook that, with the exception of physical affection, there was evidence of cross sex interaction of many types of sharing, kind words, and working together in class. The boys and girls in this class were more apt to talk to each other kindly and share gym equipment than to choose to work together or be affectionate with each other. In situations where children had a choice of where to sit (meeting time, lunch, gym mats, music class), seldom did they sit with cross sex peers.

The children's expressions of physical affection seemed limited to sex-stereotyped behaviors, arms around each other for the girls, and pats, handshakes, and giving "five" for the boys. For example, at recess I observed the girls repeating rhymes and hugging each other and the boys throwing footballs, tackling each other, and rolling around in the grass (11/7-0-6).

There are two other important findings here. First, certain children were more prone to engage in cross sex positive interactions of certain types. Yet every child in the class exhibited some instance of positive social interaction and only three of the eighteen students had no observed instance of cross sex positive
social interaction. Second, teachers have a strong influence on children's prosocial behavior. About half of the observed actions came about as a result of teachers' requests or activities set up by teachers.

Although more negative than positive social behavior was observed, I would not conclude that there was more negative behavior in this class. Again, some types of acts, particularly those that were loud, involve movement, or upset some of the participants were more likely to draw attention. There are, however, a few conclusions which can be drawn from the data collected on the children's negative social behavior.

There was a great deal of observed negative behavior in this class, more often than not initiated by the boys. Verbal conflict--teasing, insults, and arguing--was by far the most common observed form of negative social interaction, consistent with the research on children's social development (Gottman and Mettetal, 1986). Much of the negative interaction was cross sex, most strikingly the teasing. Boys were much more likely than girls to engage in physically aggressive acts. Boys did most of the insults and teasing as well, although there are a few girls, Kristin for example, who were strong in these behaviors.

It is possible however that the girls engaged in as much negative behavior as the boys, but that much of this behavior fell into less visible categories such as exclusion and gossiping. When the students were asked to write down the names of three people they would not want to work with in a small group, the boys wrote almost exclusively girls' names. With the exception of Kristin, all
the girls mentioned at least one or two girls with whom they did not want to work (12/19-P-11). This suggests that there was a lot of dissension among many of the girls in the class. As cited previously, in group and out group membership is volatile during middle childhood (Parker and Gottman, 1989).

When discussing negative social interaction, it is very important to look at each student's individual profile and to avoid making generalizations about the boys or girls as a whole. Each child had his or her own interaction style. For example, there were a few girls, Joanne, Julie, and Claire, who engaged in very little observed negative interaction with others. Kristin did not engage much in arguing or aggression but frequently insulted both boys and girls in conversation. Thad liked to tease the girls but avoided physical aggression. Some children, Rich for example, engaged in much more negative than positive interaction, while others, notably Nicholas and Andre, were high in both categories.

Finally, the teacher's role in creating conditions which often lead to negative behaviors was noted. As students attempted to work together in pairs or groups, arguments would ensue, sometimes accompanied by teasing, insults, or aggression. Teachers need to carefully plan out effective groupings and teach children social skills to foster prosocial behaviors in working with peers.

**Chapter Summary**

The analysis of the data in the early participation period has revealed that teaching human rights to this group of students would be a challenge in many ways, albeit in an optimal environment.
Sarah's teaching and disciplinary styles, with foci on respect for the individual, positive social relations, and perspective consciousness through the use of inductive reasoning, created an ideal atmosphere for human rights education. In fact, Sarah also taught human rights lessons directly in units on Native Americans and civil rights, and through literature and class discussions.

Students' concerns for rights/fairness and global issues as well as their perspective taking skills were examined. Students had strong concerns for fairness, but only limited understanding of the concept of rights. The only global issue of concern was the Persian Gulf War. Perspective taking skills varied widely among the students, with some showing an ability to empathize with distant peoples and others having less ability to even comprehend the perspective of a classmate.

The examination of students' peer relations focused on a variety of positive and negative behaviors. Positive behaviors included sharing, kind words, "goofing around", physical affection, and working together. Consistent with the literature, there was more same sex positive behavior, though there was evidence of much cross sex positive behavior as well, particularly with kind words and sharing.

Negative behaviors included teasing, insults, exclusion, gossip, and physical aggression. Although the boys initiated most of the observed negative behaviors, it was suggested that the girls might participate in less observable behaviors such as exclusion and gossip more often. The most common negative behavior was some form of verbal conflict.
The sociograms revealed that there were a number of students who were more popular than others, five students who were disliked by many, and one student who was a social isolate. It was important to reconsider these relationships as the students participated in the human rights curriculum.

The exploration of all of these aspects of classroom life during the early participation period provides a basis for beginning the discussion in Chapter 5, the analysis of the findings during the greater part of the human rights curriculum.
CHAPTER 5
LATE PARTICIPATION

Introduction

This chapter details the findings during the late participation period, from March 1991 through the end of the school year in mid-June 1991. During this period the greater part of the human rights curriculum was taught including the human rights unit, the social action projects, and most of the democratic class councils and conferences. For detailed information about these activities, the reader should refer to Appendices D and F of this study.

The findings in this chapter have been organized within five sections. The first section includes information about Sarah's teaching and disciplinary style. Because these were discussed in detail in Chapter 4, this section briefly notes the continuance of pertinent behaviors and explores a few key changes.

The second part of this chapter focuses on the students' evolution in their understanding of the concept of human rights. Third, a section on "Understanding Others" includes information about perspective taking and empathy development as well as a discussion of students' experiences with stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination.

The fourth section addresses the role of empowerment in this classroom. The findings include a discussion of students' responses to the democratic processes and the social action projects. Issues involving responsible participation and speaking up are also
discussed. In the last section, the students' social interactions during this period are analyzed.

**Sarah's Teaching and Disciplinary Styles**

In this section of the chapter, Sarah's teaching style and disciplinary style during the late participation period are briefly discussed. References are made to continuing behaviors as well as a few changes in emphasis.

**Sarah's Teaching Style**

In Chapter 4, two key characteristics of Sarah's teaching style, respecting individual children's experiences and ideas and fostering positive social relations, were identified. Both of these foci continued during the rest of the school year. Often Sarah would invite the children to share about their lives outside of school (3/4-0-1, 4/15-0-1, 5/20-0-1). She continued to showcase students' work and invited them to share their stories and reports with the class (5/15-0-3). Students continued to sit together in groups and work on spelling together. They also worked on a variety of activities with partners, including astronomy projects (4/10-T-3) and maps (5/27-0-5).

There were two important changes during this period in how Sarah focused on respecting the individual and fostering positive social relations. First, she gave the students more choices during this part of the school year. Although she had always allowed the students to make many choices during the school day, as described in Chapter 4, her intention to empower children in this way became
much stronger, especially in response to ideas the students initiated.

For example, Sarah supported John's suggestions for writing letters to the editor and making picture books during writing time (3/11-T-6, 4/12-T-10) and Rich's and Nicholas' suggestion to have the students work in pairs on maps of imaginary places (5/27-0-2). When the principal was upset with disorganization in the coatroom, Sarah took the problem to the students and let them solve it (4/15-0-1). Students were also given choices about how to structure a Trivia Game on New Hampshire (4/29-0-2), when to hear the read aloud book (4/16-0-1), and whether to have the lights on or off on a hot day (5/28-T-1). Also, in April, Sarah began allowing the students to create seating arrangements with minimal teacher input (4/10-T-8).

The shift towards allowing more student choice can be attributed to a number of sources. A week after school ended, Sarah shared with me how much she wished that the students had initiated more ideas and activities for learning on their own (6/23-1-41). Although this had occurred in a few situations, Sarah was disappointed that she had failed to foster this on a regular basis. Her desire had been to support student initiated learning as much as possible.

Second, some of the human rights curriculum activities, particularly the democratic class conferences and the social action projects, called upon students to present problems and ideas for their own learning. Some of the students, John, Julie, and Evan in particular, began proposing more ideas for classroom activities.
Thus, there were more opportunities for Sarah to respond to students' desires for choices in their learning.

Third, both Sarah and I noted how adept the students were becoming in their problem solving capabilities. As Sarah observed this progress, she felt more comfortable with entrusting students with decision making opportunities.

These three contributing factors to more student choice worked together and reinforced each other. Support for student choices and decision making increased students' initiative in these areas and as students were given more opportunities to make choices and solve problems they became more capable in their thinking and behavior.

The second change in Sarah's teaching style involved having students work more in small group and whole class activities, especially during the last month and a half of school. During the New Hampshire Trivia game, students worked in teams of four or five (4/29-0-4). The class worked on whole group cooperative problem solving tasks on at least three occasions (5/20-0-1, 6/6-0-7).

This change came about as a result of some of the activities involving group work during the human rights unit and subsequent conversations between Sarah and myself about the importance of having the students work on learning to cooperate and the bonding that can come from a whole class cooperative task (4/20-0-5). In response to Sarah's request, I lent her some resources which she used for some whole group activities. The students' responses to
the increased group work will be discussed in the last section of this chapter on students' social relations.

Sarah's Disciplinary Style

In Chapter 4, three main strategies in Sarah's disciplinary style were discussed: positive reinforcement, power assertion, and fostering perspective consciousness through inductive reasoning. All three continued during the latter part of the school year.

In particular, the uses of both inductive reasoning and power assertion became more frequent. When a group of girls continued to have problems insulting and excluding each other, Sarah had some of them stay in for recess for a week and write about, draw, and discuss with her their thoughts and feelings about friendship and kindness to others (3/6-0-4). There were numerous other occasions when I observed Sarah guiding a child in understanding how the child's actions had affected someone else and how it might have felt to be the "other" (3/12-0-4, 4/3-0-6, 4/20-T-9, 5/20-T-3, 5/1-T-8, 5/9-0-1, 5/21-0-1, 5/27-0-8).

Power assertion, especially in the forms of having children leave the room or stay in for recess, continued during this period (3/25-0-6, 4/17-0-2, 4/20-T-9, 5/3-0-2, 5/29-0-1). Yelling at students, though still an occasional event, was observed four times (3/7-0-3, 3/20-0-2, 4/30-0-1, 5/27-T-5).

It is probable that during the latter part of the school year, when both Sarah and the students were becoming less enthusiastic about school, increases in both teacher impatience and student misbehavior led to the use of more power assertive techniques,
though not to the exclusion of the continued strong focus on inductive reasoning.

**Conclusions**

Although the focus of Sarah's teaching and disciplinary styles did not change considerably during the late participation period, there were some shifts in her interactions with students. There was more student choice during this time as a whole and more small group and whole class activities during May and June. Also, the use of both power assertive and inductive reasoning techniques appeared to be slightly stronger than in the early participation period.

These findings provide a context for grounding the subsequent discussions of students' responses to the human rights curriculum, and particularly students' social interactions. It is important to note that a teacher's teaching and disciplinary styles are both an influence on and are influenced by student behaviors.

**Understanding Human Rights**

This section focuses primarily on students' evolution in their understanding of human rights. First, students ongoing concerns with fairness are discussed. The remainder of this part of the chapter explores the students' initial definitions of human rights, their reactions to some of the human rights unit activities, and their responses in follow up interviews conducted in April.

**Concerns with Fairness**

Students' concerns with fairness and equal treatment were discussed in Chapter 4. These concerns continued throughout the remainder of the school year, often finding an avenue for expression
through the class conferences. For example, issues around being touched in unacceptable ways (3/7-T-6.7), being accused of something unfairly (5/15-0-3), and stealing (4/12-T-5-10) were all discussed at class conferences.

These and other fairness issues, however, were not labeled "rights" issues by the students. Although a few references to rights were expressed after the human rights unit, these were largely in reference to academic studies on New Hampshire government (5/1-0-4,5, 6/6-0-3). Occasionally some aspect of human rights would surface in spelling sentences or stories (5/6-0-6, 5/7-0-2) but in general students did not identify issues in their own lives as rights issues. One notable exception to this was the morning Cathy, a child who received special reading and spelling help in the resource room, referred to her conflict with Lizbeth as "another example of world discrimination" (3/19-0-1). Students' difficulties in connecting human rights with their own lives will be discussed later on in this section.

Initial Thoughts - What Are Human Rights?

On the first day of the human rights unit, after a week's school vacation, I asked the students to answer the following questions in their blank journals: "What are human rights?", "What rights do adults have?", "What rights should children have?". In response to the first question, five of the students wrote something like "rights that all people have" (3/4-J3-1). Seven of the students mentioned doing what you want (3/4-J8-1) or some other reference to freedom (3/4-J5-1). Only two students referred to the aspect of rights as protection. One wrote "laws to protect yourself" (3/4-J1-1) and
another wrote "Humans have to do what they want to do in a
civilized way" (3/4-J17-1).

Students' answers to the questions about adults' rights fell
into two categories. One type of response dealt with legal rights,
such as the right to vote, marry, drink, and drive (3/4-J12-1, for
example). The second type of answer illustrated the freedom theme.
Shelley's response, typical of many of the students, stated. "Adults
also can do whatever they want to do and (go) where ever they want
to go" (3/4-J9-1).

Almost all of the responses to the question about what rights
children should have dealt with freedom to do what you want. Some
of the specific ideas mentioned were "they should go to bed when
they want to" (3/4-J13-1), "be able to go to camp or play any sport"
(3/4-J5-1), and "the rights to run their own life" (3/4-J10-1). A
few children also mentioned that children should have the right to
vote (3/4-J1-1, 3/4-J11-1). Only Shelley's response stood in stark
contrast to the others. "Children should do what their parents want
them to do and follow their parents' rules" (3/4-J9-1).

After this writing exercise and a brief sharing of what they
had written, the students were asked to jot down some examples of
rights they have in empty spaces on a worksheet that also listed the
following rights: the right to a free education, the right to play, the
right to think what I want, the right to walk down the street, and
the right to not be hurt (see Appendix F, pg. 319). A variety of ideas
were mentioned. Many of these expanded upon the theme of doing
what they want, identified in their definitions. Some of these were
"to pick out my own social life" (3/5-P-4). "We should have a right
to go to school only if I want" (3/5-P-2), and "the right to ride a bike as far as you want" (3/5-P-7).

Other rights mentioned dealt with protection. Three students wrote "the right to an attorney" (3/5-P-6,9,10) and one mentioned "the right to go to court to testify against someone" (3/5-P-1). Three other students mentioned the right to choose the religion or church of your own choice (3/5-P-4, 11,15).

Overall, these findings indicate two key themes in the children's initial understanding of human rights. The predominant theme is rights as freedom in the sense of doing what you want to do. These children had heard the word "freedom" associated with rights in their study of civil rights in February. I believe that because of their stage of development, as preadolescents who would like more freedom in their school and home lives, they readily interpret "freedom" as doing what you want.

The second theme evident is human rights as legalized privileges or protections. There is not as much evidence for this way of thinking about human rights, which is closer to the true meaning of the term, but it is present in some of the children's thinking. This understanding of human rights may have been learned through school activities and/or experiences at home, watching the news or in conversations with their parents.

Making Human Rights Real

Many of the activities in the human rights curriculum were designed to expand the children's beginning understandings of human rights and to build bridges between the abstract notion of rights and these children's culturally limited life experiences. Some of these
activities, which dealt with exploring prejudice, stereotyping, and discrimination, are discussed in the next major section of this chapter, "Understanding 'Others'." In this section the activities which focused on students' understanding of human rights in their lives are discussed.

After introducing the students to a simplified version of the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child (see Appendix E), the children were asked to choose and depict rights that were important to them in their own lives. Nine children chose to create skits and present them to the rest of the class. The skit created by three boys revolved around child abuse by a father who was eventually arrested and taken to trial (3/5-0-1). This group included Evan, who had previously written about human rights as "laws to protect yourself" (3/4-J1-1). Two groups of girls also presented skits, one dealing with racial discrimination and one dealing with discrimination of a person with a disability.

A student who was partially deaf was in the latter group. She begged the other two girls to let her be deaf in the skit. "Please let me, cause I am" (3/5-0-2). The other two girls wouldn't let her and insisted she be blind instead because otherwise she wouldn't be able to hear what they were saying in the skit.

Thinking about the skits and the students involved in them pointed to a finding that will be elaborated upon in this report in other contexts. Students' personal experiences and understandings strongly influenced their expressions, interests, and subsequent learnings.
Students also created collages and drawings of rights important to them. These works showed that the students, for the most part, were capable of taking a right from the The Declaration of the Rights of the Child and providing a concrete illustration of it. For example, a few of the boys chose "the right to be cared for when hurt" and drew pictures of children being treated in hospitals and rescued from car accidents (3/7-P-2,4,13). Lizbeth's illustration of "the right to nourishing food, a home, proper clothes, a safe place to play, and good medical care" pictured an Asian child surrounded by food, a home, and toys (3/7-P-5).

Some of the children also continued the "rights as getting or doing what you want" theme in their artwork. For example, Jennifer, who is very musical, illustrated "the right to sing when I want to" (3/7-P-3) and Bob cut out a picture to show "the right to have pets."

As part of the human rights learning center, the children were invited to write mini-stories and draw pictures to illustrate a right and then post them on the board. John chose the same right he had picked for his collage, helping a child in danger. He wrote, in his compassionate yet naive understanding of the world, "That is one of the 10 children's rights which I feel is one of the most important rights and luckily is hardly ever disobeyed" (3/8-P-1).

A number of the other boys chose to write and draw about the right to be taken care of and the right to be treated kindly (3/8-P-3, 4.5). Their illustrations and stories of children being mistreated by parents and peers stand in contrast to Jennifer's illustration of two children growing up in an environment of love and care and
Susannah's picture of children from two different ethnic groups playing together happily (3/8-P-7,8).

Claire and Cathy focused on racial equality in their written and art work (3/7-P-8,10,12; 3/8-P-9). Claire wrote "All children have the same rights, whether they are rich or poor, black or white, brown or yellow. Because everyone has feelings and it's not fair for people to tease them... People have no right to make fun of people who have different color skin than them" (3/8-P-9).

Clearly, in these open-ended activities, children were drawn to focus on different rights. Some children were fascinated with the potential violence and abuse issues, whereas others were interested in harmony and quality of life issues or the notion of racial equality.

An activity called "Yes, No, Sometimes, Not Sure" showed that these nine to eleven year olds had the capability to think critically about human rights issues (3/5-P-1). Four cards, each with one of the options above, were placed in different parts of the room. Students were asked to move to the answer they agreed with in response to statements such as "The right to a free education is more important than the right to be safe from danger" and "All children should have the right to be treated kindly by their classmates" (see complete list in Appendix F. p. 328).

Many of the children were willing to stand alone or with a small group and explain why they had chosen a less popular response to a statement. Many of their reasons indicated the complexity of understanding human rights issues. For example, in response to the first statement above, Thad stood with one other person by "Unsure"
and offered "You might take chances so you can get an education" (3/5-P-1).

A few of the statements dealt with understanding human rights conditions in the United States compared with the rest of the world. The class was almost evenly split between "Yes" and "No" in their responses to a statement about White people in the United States having more rights than others and many children in the world not receiving a good education. A vast majority said they thought that people in the United States cared more about their rights than people in other parts of the world. These and other responses in this activity indicated ethnocentrism and lack of information on the part of many students.

When I read the statement "Some children in the United States do not get enough to eat" the students were bursting with comments about the "bums" they had seen in big cities and people their parents knew who didn't have enough to eat. Here was a statement that touched on personal experiences and consequently was of great interest to the students.

Finally, the students were confused about a statement relating rights to responsibilities to support other's rights. Even with some further explanation, this idea was abstract and confusing to at least six of the children.

Three of the class meetings in March focused on working out the details for a class Bill of Rights (3/12-T-all, 3/21-T-1,2,3, 3/26-T-all). This activity generated a lot of interest and enthusiasm on the part of most of the children. They began by looking at the United States Bill of Rights and bills of rights
developed by other school children. After each small group suggested three or four possible rights, we voted to see which rights had the most support in the group as a whole. The top vote getters were the following:

- Students have the right to physical safety and protection of personal property.
- Students have the right to respect from teachers and administrators which would exclude our being subjected to cruel and unusual punishment.
- The right to a hearing by a jury if you are accused of breaking a rule.
- The right to wear hats and chew gum if you want to.

Most of these were from the lists of rights from other schools. The one on wearing hats and chewing gum was the only completely new one and the one that the students were most excited about. Even Bob, who rarely spoke in front of the whole class, expressed his desire for this right (3/8-0-4).

There is a story behind these two concerns. The students had begun the process of petitioning the principal for the right to wear hats in the classroom in September, but had dropped the effort when they received a letter from the principal which they felt was discouraging. Chewing gum, normally against the school rules, was a privilege given to last year's fifth grade class when they had requested it from the principal.

The students spent a considerable amount of time discussing both of these issues and drafting proposals to the principal about them. The fact that the students were so much more interested and concerned with wearing hats and chewing gum than with respect, protection of property, or physical safety again illustrates the
importance to the students of freedom, conceived of as doing what they want to do. Also because gum chewing had been allowed for fifth graders, it is likely that there was status associated with this privilege in the fourth graders' minds.

The end result was a denial of the right to chew gum on the grounds that this was a fifth grade privilege. However, permission to wear hats in the classroom was granted. The students were thrilled as they had expected rapid dismissal on both counts. It is interesting to note that while the class bill of rights was rarely referred to for the rest of the year, even when issues such as stealing surfaced in class, the students did wear hats frequently. On the average, three or four children wore hats each day.

When the students completed their Bill of Rights, I carefully lettered them on a poster and each child signed them. Evan was standing nearby when we began to sign the document. He carefully read it, explaining "I have to know what I'm signing first" (3/28-0-2). For most of the children this was a serious task. They signed both their first and last names in their best handwriting. The fact that this labored over document was not referred to more often during the last months of school may have been a reflection of both the children's difficulties with seeing connections between human rights in their own lives as well as the students' general lack of taking initiative in the classroom. The latter aspect is discussed further in the section of this chapter on empowerment.

The Human Rights Interviews

In April I interviewed each child privately to find out how they defined human rights at this point as well as how they saw the
connection between human rights and their own lives. The students were not told that I was going to be interviewing them and thus had not prepared or reviewed any material for the interviews.

It is clear that for eleven of the seventeen students, their ideas about human rights expanded since the beginning of the human rights unit. For example, Thad had written on the first day of the unit that human rights were the "right to do things freely" (3/4-J14-1). During the interview he responded to the same question by stating "Being equal to everybody and not discriminating anyone from playing a game or anything, being fair and not unfair" (4/15-T-3).

While the importance of equality for all people had been expressed in four of the students' initial journal entries, this was a much stronger emphasis in the interviews. Seven of the students stressed that human rights were for all people and three of the students specifically mentioned that this was regardless of skin color.

In general, the students who had a relatively clear sense of what human rights were initially seemed to build upon their knowledge more effectively than students who were confused or identified rights as simply doing what they want to do. For example, Kristin wrote "Human rights are that every one has equal amount of rights" (3/4-J13-1) and then stated in the interview "It's when every person, no matter what color they are or if they're like boy or girl, have the same rights" (4/15-T-1).

The students who initially seemed unclear or interpreted rights solely as doing what they want went in one of two directions
with their learning. Three of the students simply stayed with their original ideas. Both Lizbeth and Shelley had written a "doing what you want" response (3/4-J8-1, 3/4-J9-1). In their interviews Lizbeth said "People have rights to live where they want and have what they want" and Shelley responded "Well I think everybody should have human rights and it's good to have human rights because you can do whatever you want" (4/15-T-4).

The other direction that some of the students took was to latch on to some meaningful piece of the human rights studies and talk about that. Joanne had originally written "Human rights are that everyone does almost anything they want (3/4-J10-1)," but during the interview stated the following.

- What I think human rights are are rights that some people have and some people don't have. A lot of people are still trying to gain rights so they can do certain things. (Like what?) Like poor people are trying to gain money and some people want to keep them poor so they're still trying to gain their rights (4/15-T-8).

Although she did not make a general statement about what human rights are, this is a quite sophisticated understanding, especially in comparison with her initial journal entry. Why would Joanne center on this information about poor people? I think that it has to do with her life situation. Joanne is one of six children in a family that is best described as lower middle class socioeconomically. In the skit Joanne took part in, she chose to play a rich White girl (3/5-0-1). Her collage of a right important to me was a page filled with magazine cut-outs depicting "the right to have toys" (3/7-P-1).
Another girl in the class shared in the interview. "Human rights are rights. (What kind of rights?) Civil rights. I don't know. it's just like rights that you make of your own self and other people make" (4/29-T-5). It is essential in attempting to understand this statement to know that this student, in the process of learning about discrimination during the unit, disclosed for the first time an incident of sexual abuse that happened when she was three. Further discussion revealed that "rights that you make of your own self and other people make" referred to "human rights of what you do to your own body and tell people what not to do to your body" (4/29-T-5).

My conclusions about the children's evolution in understanding human rights are the following. For children who began the unit with some adequate understanding of what human rights were, subsequent learning experiences built upon their original ideas. Changes were mainly in adding details to their original definition or emphasizing some key aspect such as equality, discrimination, or rights regardless of skin color. It is important to note that the more intellectually advanced students in the class are almost all included in this category.

For children who began the unit with a confused or largely inadequate definition of human rights, subsequent learning went in one of the two directions discussed above. For students like Lizbeth and Shelley, it seems that much of the human rights instruction, in not pertaining to "doing what you want", did not make an impression on their thinking about rights. For others, such as Joanne and the girl who disclosed sexual abuse, human rights became interpreted in ways that were personally meaningful to them.

173
Students responses to how human rights were connected to their personal lives at home, school, or with friends varied from "nothing" (4/15-T-2) to "They're important because if I didn't have human rights I couldn't do anything" (4/15-T-7). This was a difficult question for some of the students; four of them could not think of a connection.

Most of the students, however, were able to draw upon some aspect of their life experience or interest to answer the question. Kristin related how she feels her dad is prejudiced against kids and how she gets "on his case" for that (4/15-T-1). Andre, who has difficulty getting along with others, talked about how kids should treat each other fairly and choose them for teams or classroom responsibilities, even if they don't want to (4/29-T-6).

A few of the students' answers followed from their definition of human rights as doing what they want. For example, Lizbeth mentioned, "The right to play on the playground if we want to or like if we want to play on the swings we could play on the swings" (4/15-T-4).

Rich's response to the question was interesting. "If I had any black friends I might not be able to have them as friends if we didn't have human rights" (4/15-T-6). Rich also focused on equality regardless of skin color in the first question. He continued that focus in his response to the second question even though it did not specifically relate to his life. Jennifer reacted in a similar manner, talking at length about the Cosby show and how wonderful the Black and Hispanic actors were (4/15-T-7).
I was especially curious about the thinking behind the "nothing" responses. Three of the students who answered in this way were some of the brightest children in the class. Follow up interviews with a number of students revealed that this answer was given for two very different reasons.

Both John and Thad felt that human rights had nothing to do with their lives because they already had their rights (4/30-T-2). Other students simply could not remember what human rights were specifically. When I showed three students the list of rights from the Declaration of the Rights of the Child they were able to identify many connections between human rights and their lives (4/30-T-3. 5/1-T-3.4). Because the notion of human rights is a somewhat abstract concept, it was easier for the students to work from a list of rights rather than to think of them on their own.

This finding was reinforced during a small group activity toward the end of the year. Students were asked to match issues that had been presented at class conferences with a list of rights such as "the right to be safe from harm" (see Appendix G. p. 370). This was not a difficult task for the students, even though these issues had not been identified as human rights issues when they came up. At the bottom of the page they were asked to write in a "problem or situation that happened to YOU this year that involved your rights in the class or school." Three of the five groups were unable to come up with an appropriate idea that had not already been listed on the sheet (6/6-P-2.3.4).

Feedback from parents confirmed these different abilities in relating to human rights. Some parents wrote that their child had
spoken frequently about different rights (5/3-P-1.3.4.9) or that the child was now more respectful of the rights of others in the family (5/3-P-1.3). However, another parent wrote, "I feel he has learned some 'facts'...He can verbalize some information but I'm not sure there has been any behavior change" (5/3-P-10)

**Conclusions**

Although the children did not use the language of rights, they had strong concerns for fairness and equal treatment. These concerns involved relationships with peers, teachers, and parents, and were expressed through class conferences as well as art and written work.

Most of the children in this class were able to build upon their initial ideas of human rights. Before the unit, two key themes in students' definitions of rights were freedom as doing what you want and legal privilege or protection. Students with stronger initial ideas were able to build upon them more effectively than students who were initially confused or thought of human rights purely as doing what you want. Students in the latter category either did not alter their concept of human rights at all or focused on some aspect that was personally meaningful to them.

The findings of some researchers, that upper elementary students may not understand the concept of human rights but are nonetheless concerned about rights in their own lives, gains some support in this study (Hahn, 1985; Starkey, 1986; Torney-Purta, 1982). Torney-Purta's (1982) caution to be careful how concepts are presented to elementary school children is also pertinent here in relation to the way some of the children interpreted "freedom" as
"doing what you want to do." However, this study also supports the assertion by the Canadian Human Rights Foundation (1989) that most upper elementary children have the cognitive capabilities to understand the critical concepts of human rights.

The role played by personal experience in students' learning was primary. Students' personal experiences and understandings strongly influenced their expressions, interests, and subsequent learnings. Children were interested in different human rights issues based on their intellect, moral development, and life experiences. Both the students and their parents confirmed some of the major findings in the study by Henry et al (1985), notably increased interest in and understanding of human rights issues as well as more willingness to engage in action to solve personally meaningful social problems.

Most of the children made some beginning connections between human rights and their own lives. This task was greatly facilitated by giving children a list of rights to think about rather than asking them to think of connections on their own.

A few students saw human rights as only important for those who do not have many rights. My sense is that some White, middle class children don't easily relate to rights as experiences to be protected and not taken away. They tend to take for granted the rights that they have and want the "freedoms" they see older children and adults enjoying.
Understanding "Others"

In this part of the chapter, children's perspective taking and empathy for others will be discussed. This discussion will include a look at students' relationships with their peers as well as their feelings and ideas about people from different cultures and far away places. Activities from the human rights unit that focused on stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination and the students' responses to them will be highlighted.

The fact that there was a wide disparity of abilities in perspective taking for the students and that this was a "growing edge" for them was discussed briefly in Chapter 4. Many of the children seemed to develop their perspective taking and empathic capabilities during the school year.

This is at least in part due to maturation. Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) note that perspective taking and empathy increase with age. There were also a variety of classroom activities which probably contributed to the change, including the use of inductive reasoning and academic activities which asked the students to think about other's experiences and feelings. Many of these activities will be discussed in this section of the chapter.

Perspective Taking and Empathy with Peers

The changes in children's empathic and perspective taking abilities were less clear in their peer relationships than in their thoughts or feelings about distant or different others. As the examination of students' social relations later in this chapter will reveal, the students did not become substantially kinder to each
other in the last few months of school. All of the negative behaviors cited in Chapter 4 continued to some degree throughout the year.

However, with certain children, growth in their understanding of peers' feelings was observed. In mid-April, Shelley, Cathy, and Jennifer were caught writing insulting notes about Lizbeth in library class. For Shelley and Cathy, this behavior was nothing new. Prior punishments and inductive reasoning sessions had made little impression on these girls.

Sarah talked with the three girls and gave them written assignments to encourage their empathy for Lizbeth and their understanding of their actions. Although Cathy held onto the notion that you don't have to be nice to people who aren't nice to you, both Shelley and Jennifer shifted in their thinking. Jennifer wrote,

When I was the one being picked on I was sad. It was not very much fun. I know how Lizbeth feels.... I realize that other people have feelings too and that lots of times those feelings might get too full of insults and just blow up sort of. Lots of times when we made fun of people I wanted to make sure that I never got left out. But it has to happen to everybody sometime and everyone is mean sometimes. I know that now (4/20-P-1).

Although Jennifer's writing shows some insight into the situation, Shelley went a step further and showed sincere remorse for her actions. Sarah related to me the following interaction between herself and Shelley.

...Shelley took full responsibility. She said that she felt bad about herself for doing it and that she knew what it felt like and that had happened to her and I said, 'What do you think would help?'....She said, it was her idea. she would promise that she wouldn't do it anymore and that she would write it down.... Then when she went to her desk she wrote, I'll never
do it. I won't do it in school. I won't do it in class. I won't do it anywhere in school, in fact. I won't even do it at home... and I said, you know this is a lot to say. I think maybe you want to just think about making sure it doesn't happen at school. are you sure you want to do all that? She said, yes. I feel bad and she signed it (4/20-T-9).

It is significant that both Jennifer and Shelley related personally to Lizbeth's feelings through their own experience. It is also notable that while Cathy continued to have difficulties with Lizbeth at points throughout the rest of the year (5/3-0-3, 5/7-0-4), there were no observed problems between Lizbeth and either Jennifer or Shelley. Both Sarah and I felt that the problems among this group of girls, in general, decreased towards the end of the year (5/24-0-1). Jennifer's and Shelley's thinking and behaviors seem to support the relationship between perspective taking and prosocial behavior (Kurtines and Gewirtz, 1987).

Some of the children's expressions of empathy and perspective taking were not profound shifts in their thinking, but rather examples of further development. Both Claire and Rich showed the ability to understand other students' feelings in a discussion about the lack of agenda items written on the list for class conferences (3/4-T-3,4). Claire speculated, "They might have something to say but they don't want us to know that" (3/4-T-3) while Rich thought that some of the students might be embarrassed to write up a problem or issue (3/4-T-4).

When the students were brainstorming ideas for the reward for the winning team in the New Hampshire Trivia game. Andre shared, "There should be a reward for everybody because the teams that don't win will feel bad" (4/29-0-2). A letter writing assignment
also generated a number of empathic comments such as Evan's P.S. to the new boy in the class. "I know how hard it is being the new kid. Stay the way you (are) now" (5/10-T-2).

While a few children showed marked changes in their perspective taking abilities and others developed their skills slowly over time, there were also children who retained difficulties throughout the year in understanding their classmates.

**Stereotypes and Prejudice**

A few of the early human rights unit activities were designed to assess stereotypes and prejudices the students had about people who were different from them in some way. In a cooperative journal writing exercise, the students were asked to imagine themselves as children of color in their almost completely all-White school. (See Appendix F for a full description of this activity). I wrote some questions on the board to get them thinking, such as "How are you treated?", "What do you think about the other kids?", and "What is different about you?".

Given that most of the students had very limited experience with people from other cultures, it was not surprising that there were very few journal entries that reflected depth of understanding about the lives of the children they wrote about. Some of the students used their own names or obviously English names. There were Native Americans named Meg and Danny and Asian children named Shelley and David. Of course children from different cultures have a variety of names but the choice of a name seemed to symbolize a lack of understanding about the differences between cultures. Rich explicitly expressed this idea when he wrote, "We
don't have many things different except for the color of our skin and that does not matter" (3/6-J12-2).

Some of the children wrote about being treated unkindly by others because of being different, though the differences were in appearance and language rather than values, lifestyle, or beliefs. A notable exception to this was John's entry.

My name is Fighting Bull. I am a 10 year old Native American child. I feel that I am mistreated from people because of my Indian ways. I would like to be treated with respect. I like the other kids except I think they are trying to make it so I don't like them. I am different from them because of my name and ways but I am still a human being (3/6-J5-1).

John was one of the oldest students in the class as well as being very empathic towards others. Claire's and Jennifer's entries were both thoughtful as well (3/6-J11-1, 3/6-J3-1,2,3,4).

The influence of students' personal experiences and issues were quite evident in this exercise. About half of the children chose the culture they were reading about in reading groups. Bob, a very isolated child, used his own name and said he was treated very badly (3/6-J16-1). Thad wrote about being a Black child but related his own experience making friends when he moved to the school in the second grade (3/6-J14-1).

Lizbeth, the most unpopular and mistreated child in the class, painted the rosiest picture she could, perhaps in finding the idea of writing about her mistreatment in even an imaginary format too painful. She wrote,

My name is Lizbeth. I am a ten and a half year old japanese child. I feel happy about who I am. People treat me fine. I like being a Japanese child cause of who I am, not cause of what color I am. I like my school (3/6-J8-1).
A few days later the students were asked to fold a piece of drawing paper in half and draw a White child on one side and a child of color on the other, each engaged in an activity. All of the children drew a Black child and a White child. This assignment did not reveal strong prejudicial attitudes, but did reflect limited knowledge of others and an expressed assertion in cultural equality. Many of the boys depicted sports players (3/12-P-25, 30, 31, 35). Most of the other children showed Black and White people reading, riding in cars, sewing, cooking, camping, and walking the dog (3/12-P-26, 27, 29, 32, 34, 37). Limited knowledge and assertion of cultural equality are taken to the extreme in Cathy's drawing depicting two girls playing volleyball, identical in hairstyles and clothing, the only difference being skin color (3/12-P-24).

Two of the drawings showed some stereotypical thinking. Andre drew a "Black man doing work" and a White "man at the beach" (3/12-P-33). The Black man had a broom in his hand, was clothed in dirty and tattered garments, and had no shoes. The White man was laying on a towel under an umbrella with a drink and food nearby. Claire's picture showed a White girl happily playing baseball on one side and on the other, a White girl saying "Stay away" to a Black child, again in bare feet. Both of these students are strongly empathic and on other occasions, expressed their concern with the unfairness of treating others differently because of skin color. I think that they were expressing their concerns rather than showing evidence of prejudicial attitudes.

I surmise that both of these students were influenced by the notion of all Black people as poor and discriminated against.
Because the children in this school study both slavery and the civil rights period, but not usually examples of successful Black people in the present day, these stereotypes are often enforced by well-meaning "multicultural" curricular efforts.

A further problem with teaching solely about the past is that children often find the concept of time confusing and will frequently conclude that an injustice which took place in the past is nonexistent in the present or conversely that it continues to this day. For example, Joanne wrote about being a slave in the cooperative journal writing exercise and consistently mixed up slavery with the civil rights movement (3/6-J10-1).

A third activity on stereotyping was a worksheet for children to write down the stereotypes they had heard about different groups, including girls, boys, Native Americans, Blacks, Latinos, Asians, Whites, and the elderly (see Appendix F, p. 339). Not surprisingly, the students offered many more stereotypes for girls, boys, and the elderly than for cultural groups with which they were largely unfamiliar.

The list of descriptors for the elderly was particularly fascinating. Students wrote they were "old", "poor", "slow and wrinkled", "old farts", "wise", "helpless", "stubborn", and "boring" ((3/12-P-8, 9, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21). Thad wrote that elderly people are "old fogies and they smoke to get lung cancer" (3/12-P-11). In contrast with these largely negative descriptions was Nicholas' entry, "nice, tender, pleasant, cheerful, generous, and they give you money" (3/12-P-20).
Compared to this compendium of thoughts, the comments about people from other cultures are decidedly sparse. Almost half the class left at least one of the lines next to a cultural group completely blank. Many of the children resisted writing down negative stereotypes by filling in words such as "smart" and "nice" next to many of the groups (3/12-P-8, 9, 10, 13, 16, 18, 19, 20, 23). It is also probable that many of these same children simply were unfamiliar with existing stereotypes for these groups.

The only stereotypes offered for Blacks were "some blacks are rappers" (3/12-P-11), "athletic" (3/12-P-14, 18), "good basketball players" (3/12-P-20), and "the people who don't get to have lots of money" (3/12-P-22). The children were the least familiar with Latinos. They labeled this group in the following ways: "good animal tamers" (3/12-P-11), "poor" (3/12-P-13,14), "good at picking bananas" (3/12-P-20), and "the ones who can't speak much English" (3/12-P-22).

It was also difficult for many of the students to think about their own category, Whites. Lizbeth and Cathy wrote simple, "Whites are us" (3/12-P-8,9). A few children showed some ethnocentrism in their entries of "special" (3/12-P-13) and "smarter" (3/12-P-16,22,23). Both Jennifer and John commented that Whites enjoy more rights than others (3/12-P-19, 21) and Andre wrote, "all mean" because of how they used to treat Black people (3/12-P-10).

Although some of the boys occasionally would make stereotypical comments such as "old fart" (3/4-0-1), "chicks" and "broads" (4/17-0-1), and "homos" (5/8-0-2), I was confused about
whether these comments were made in attempts to be humorous or if they reflected deeper beliefs. Although Nicholas used the term "old fart" in class one day, he also pointed out to the rest of the class when he saw older people being stereotyped unfairly (3/21-5). When Evan used the word "homo" in my presence and I told him I didn't appreciate that because many of my friends were gay, he looked surprised but not disgusted or put off in any way and quickly altered his behavior (5/8-0-2).

Due to limited experiences, the students may have had relatively little familiarity with stereotypes for other cultures or perhaps they were more reluctant to write down stereotypes for these groups. Many of the students in both their writing and drawing focused on presenting the idea of all people as equal. Yet, as White children growing up in a racist and oppressive culture, they probably have prejudices that were not readily revealed in these assignments or with all White classmates. It was difficult to assess how much students were expressing their true beliefs and how much they were masking in attempts to be nice or please the teachers. Understanding the students' prejudices toward others is a complex issue that will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

Interest in and Empathy for Different 'Others'

The students' attitudes toward different others were more often characterized by openness, interest, and curiosity than by prejudice. This was evident in both their thinking and their interactions with others. In small groups students read a story about Renee Ramos, a Filipino-American child, and then discussed the story and answered some questions (See Appendix F, p. 341). The
the story and answered some questions (See Appendix F, p. 341). The students easily identified the stereotypes, prejudices, and mistreatment that Renee was subjected to you. In answer to the question, "Would you like to be her friend?", all of the groups said they would and identified qualities they liked about her (3/12-P-1,2,3,4,5,6,7).

The children showed even more interest in a visit from the local high school's English as a Second Language class. The ten ESL students who came to the fourth grade were from the Soviet Union, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, Brazil, and Vietnam. Only the Vietnamese-American student was staying in the community; the others were exchange students.

For days before their visit, students would come up to me and ask me when they were coming (3/18-0-1). The students generated a list of questions to ask them, such as, "Do you like the high school?", "What customs do you have?", and "Will you teach us to say something in your language?". After the visit where they chatted in small groups, the fourth graders wrote in their journals and then discussed their thoughts and reactions to the experience.

Many of the students wrote that this was "fun", "neat", "nice", a "good time", or a "cool" experience. Everyone indicated that they enjoyed the visit (3/19-T-6). Kristin wrote in her journal.

The people that came today were very nice. All of the ones we talked to liked pizza! They said going to (the high school) was good. They didn't mind all the traveling they had to do. And they could teach us something in the way they talk (3/19-J13-1).
As Kristin's entry indicates, the children were fascinated by the similarities as well as the differences between themselves and the ESL students. Many of the children asked the teenagers to teach them some words in their native language. These were both written in the journals and shared with the class in a discussion afterwards (3/19-T-1-6). Some of the students were surprised that "they all looked like Americans" and that most of them could speak English fairly well (3/19-T-2). When I asked the students what this experience made them think about people from all over the world, Cathy concluded that "they're pretty much the same" (3/19-T-3).

A good portion of the follow up discussion focused on Thich, the Vietnamese-American young man. Rich mentioned, "When Thich spoke about his country he looked kind of sad" (3/19-T-3). Many of Thich's family still live in Vietnam. Thich's language was also an issue for some of the children. Evan stated, "I didn't really like the Vietnamese guy cause you couldn't understand what he was saying" (3/19-T-1). However, this was one of very few dissatisfactions expressed with the visit.

The children's overwhelming response to this experience supports the findings of Torney (1980), Lambert and Klineberg (cited in Torney, 1980) and others who have noted the receptiveness of children in middle childhood to learning about different others. This particular group of children may have been especially excited about this experience as most of them have grown up in a small town with limited exposure to other cultures.

Children's literature also proved to be an effective vehicle for capturing children's interest in different cultures as well as
fostering their empathic and perspective taking abilities. As part of the human rights unit, the students chose and read one of three books, all of which focused on the experiences of a child of color in the United States. (See Appendix H for annotated list). The students met in groups to discuss the books and also wrote about them in their journals.

Most of the children enjoyed the books. A number of the journal entries included empathic responses such as "It is very good. But I feel bad for her cause she gets treated like junk" (3/8-J13-1). Some students commented on specific parts of the book that were sad. Claire shared,

I like the book A Jar of Dreams. Because I like reading about people of a different culture. It is kind of sad how Wilber Starr is trying to get them to stop their home laundry by shooting Maxwell and taking the bundles and slashing papa's tires. But I am glad papa knew what to do about it (3/7-J11-1).

Julie shared not only her feelings about the book, which parts she liked and didn't, and why, but also commented on her own evolution in developing empathy for others.

The part that made me think was when the two mans said kind of bad words to the littlest person name Little Man. Why that made me think was because I can care even more to the black than I do now (3/7-J2-1).

In part, the books were successful in maintaining children's interest and engaging their feelings because the central characters were all children their age and many of their experiences were ones to which the children could relate. In the discussion groups, Sarah and I would often ask questions designed to foster these connections (See Appendix F for lists of questions).
In one part of *A Jar of Dreams*, the Japanese-American girl, Rinko, comes across her mother's trunk in the attic which includes all of the things her mother brought to America from Japan. "her Japanese self." Jennifer in relating to this idea shared.

My mom says that kind of thing about me cause I have a lot of my old toys from when I was really little up on a shelf downstairs and my mom says thats a whole other side of me that's just put up on the shelf (3/5-T-3).

Another book which was read aloud to the class by Sarah and myself was *Journey to Jo'Burg*, a story of two Black South African children and their efforts to save their sister's life. This book included many of the harsh realities of life in South Africa and evoked many empathic responses from the students. Kristin wrote, "It made you feel like it was happening to you" (3/24-J13-1). Shelley shared that even though the book was sad it was "neat to see what black people have to go through" (3/24-J9-1). John found the book fascinating and was able to think beyond the characters to what life in South Africa might be like.

If I lived in South Africa my life would be miserable no matter if I was black or not. This book tells you about how bad life is for blacks and it lets you know that blacks have such a bad life in South Africa that they can be more desperate than the kids in this book (3/24-J5-2,3).

Before reading this book I had presented some factual information on South Africa to the students and they had completed some worksheets of math problems that used content about people's lives in South Africa. Both of these lessons left many of the students unenthused (3/21-0-9). Clearly, the human element and the connections children created between themselves and the lives of
the children they read about were instrumental in the interest and empathy generated.

The children's empathic responses were evoked even more strongly by the book, Hiroshima No Pika, which Sarah brought to school one day. John had brought in a factual book about the bombing of Hiroshima the previous day in response to some of the boys' comments in favor of bombing Iraq in the early days of the Persian Gulf War.

One of the common reactions to the book—a response also evident in regards to some of the passages in the previously mentioned books as well—was outrage and confusion about why people act in certain ways. For example, Thad wrote,

I don't see why they dropped a bomb on Hiroshima just to show how powerful we are. That is so dumb. What's the point on dropping a bomb on a helpless city and 50 years later and not regretting it and saying that it was an accident or something (1/21-P-5).

Even though preadolescent children have limited understanding about the political and social complexity of world events, they are capable of feeling deeply for others. This combination can lead to being very troubled and confused, as it did for Julie in the following situation.

While Sarah was reading Journey to Jo'Burg, Julie interrupted and said, 'I have something to say.' (She often uses that phrase in a quiet but definitive way). Sarah asked her to wait until she was done reading. Then Julie said, 'I don't understand why they treat Blacks so badly. They're not animals! They're people too!' (3/25-0-6).

Many of the parents wrote on feedback sheets about the increased interest and empathy their child developed for people of
different cultures (5/3-P-1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11). Some of the
children were particularly impressed by the discriminatory
conditions of many people's lives (5/3-P-1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8) and
subsequently had shown increased interest in watching newscasts
about human rights issues (5/3-P-1, 3, 7). Susannah's mother
wrote,

I think Susannah has shown a greater interest in the fair
treatment of minorities. I know she was surprised at a lot
of the examples she was told about in class. She couldn't
believe that some of them were true. She realizes that not
all people are treated fairly and discrimination still exists
(5/3-P-6).

Exploring Discrimination

While children's empathic and perspective taking abilities
were fostered by reading about others who suffered from
discrimination, I felt that the children also needed to explore
discrimination experientially and reflect about their own life
experiences. During the human rights unit we focused on
discrimination as the principal means by which people are denied
their rights. Two types of activities, simulations and story writing,
were carried out in an effort to make discrimination real for the
students.

In the first simulation, Purple People, some of the students
were given purple armbands to wear to identify them as people of
color. The rest of the students in the class were labeled White. We
then spent an hour in different types of activities where I, as the
teacher, discriminated against the "purple" children. They were
instructed to sit by themselves, were given limited freedom to move
about the room, received an additional assignment, and were given limited resources for an art project.

The students responded in a variety of ways. Some of the "White" boys really enjoyed putting down a small group of "purple" girls, calling them "purple niggers" (3/13-0-1). Bob, a "White" student, overheard "purple" Rich wanting some tape and sneaked him some (3/13-0-2). The rest of the students spoke only with members of their own group and followed the rules of the game.

It is important to note that many of the students' interactions were greatly influenced by their prior relationships. The boys who put down the "purple" girls probably did so more because they disliked the girls to begin with, than because they were trying to play their parts in the simulation. Many of the students interactions were mediated by their relationships. This effect will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

The students easily identified the ways I had discriminated against the "purple" children and some had very strong feelings about the experience. Julie felt that "it was awful being White" because it wasn't fair to the other students (3/13-T-2). Kristin shared, "I was thinking about how that would feel to have that happen to you all the time...Terrible" (3/13-T-1). Susannah was also struck with how unfair the whole experience had been (3/13-T-1).

Subsequent discussions relating the simulation with real life issues for people of color about being denied resources and opportunities to excel due to discrimination were understandable to the children (3/13-T-3). Students most likely would have labeled these facts "boring" if they had been presented in a lecture format.
rather than experientially. With the exception of three students, the class felt this was a fun activity (3/13-P-1 to 16). Two of these three students were "purple" in the activity, the third was generally negative about school (3/13-0-1).

The second simulation dealt with experiencing the inequality of resources in our society. The students were randomly divided into three groups, approximately proportionate to the numbers of people in these groups in our society. Two "rich" people received two different kinds of cookies to eat at a table with nice placemats. A large group of "middle class" children received two crackers each and a slightly smaller group of "poor" people received two raisins each.

This was a very emotional activity for many of the children. A few students were very angry and tried to steal the cookies or threw their crackers on the floor (3/15-T-3). Thad was genuinely upset and felt that the whole simulation was unfair, though Evan responded to him, "That's what it's like in the real world" (3/15-T-4). Julie was the only person who chose to share her snack. She felt badly as a middle class person until she gave some of her crackers to the poor people (3/15-T-4). Susannah felt badly about being poor, especially because she had been "purple" in the other simulation. Both of the boys who ended up being "rich" said they had no desire to share and were just happy to end up in the privileged group.

The learning in simulations comes largely through the debriefing which follows the game. The children were able to identify their feelings and reactions and to relate them to real life events. However, one cannot say that they actually experienced
what it would be like to be discriminated against. As Rich shared, "It was unfair but you really didn't feel too bad cause you knew it was like a game" (3/13-T-1).

It was important, therefore, to help the children recognize the circumstances in their lives when they had personally felt discriminated against. First we discussed the many ways that White children can experience discrimination. Our list included the following: age, sex, size, appearance, and disability. The students were asked to write a story about such a real event from their past.

This was a powerful exercise for some of the children. Lizbeth, the most mistreated by her peers, at first could not think of anything to write about. Bob, the social isolate, had a similar response. It became clear that it was too emotionally laden for these children to write about their own experiences, so we altered the assignment and said that they could also write about someone else they knew or they could make up a story based on some type of discrimination.

One student began her story and then turned to me visibly upset. Over the next two days, the event behind the tears was revealed (3/13-0-4, 5, 6, 7). She had been sexually abused when she was three by a teacher's aide at her preschool. She had never told anyone before about this event. Fortunately, her parents were able to set up counseling for her right away and by the end of the year she was a happy, assertive little girl who could talk in a calm and matter-of-fact way about the importance of deciding who does what to your body. A teacher who knew this student well wrote, "Much has come to surface with (name) that may never have come out or
been dealt with if the rights issues were not discussed" (4/14-P-1).
The child herself commented about the human rights studies, "I don't
always like it but I'm learning a lot about myself" (3/15-0-3).

Other smaller "healings" also took place in conjunction with
this assignment. Students wrote about events that had troubled
them, shared their stories with the class, and received empathic
responses from some of their classmates as well as the teacher and
myself. Jennifer wrote and shared a story, which she insisted had
taken place at her former school, about when she had cut her own
hair and students had ridiculed her. When Jennifer finished reading
"The Haircut" aloud, Cathy said, "Sorry, Jennifer." Jennifer admitted,
"Well, it happened twice" (3/29-0-2).

The true stories all dealt with relationships in their families
or with their friends. A number of them focused on being excluded
from involvement in a game because of sex or age. Three students
wrote stories about racial discrimination. The only true one of
these three was about Amy, a Black girl who had been at the school
in second grade (3/20-J13-1). Andre wrote a moving story about
Leah, a mentally disabled girl who was always being teased at his
former school (3/13-J4-2). Three of the students chose to write
fiction stories and three others wrote about an event where someone
they knew was discriminated against.

The results of the discrimination story writing activity
indicate that many of these White preadolescents had powerful,
personal experiences with discrimination. Although some of them
chose not to share, those who did were supported in their sharing
and a few were able to "heal" painful feelings left over from past events.

Conclusions

Most of the children in this class developed their perspective taking and empathic skills during the latter part of the school year. In regards to their peer relationships, a few children had profound shifts in their thinking, many developed these skills gradually, and for a few no changes were noticeable.

These students have had limited experiences with other than White people. Class activities evoked assertions of cultural equality, though it is likely that the students were masking or unaware of deeper prejudices. Most students were unaware of many cultural differences and would sometimes assert that we are all the same except for skin color.

Students had many more stereotypes for groups they were familiar with, such as boys, girls, and the elderly. It appears that most of the stereotypes were learned and used unconsciously, often to be funny. It was unclear how many students believed in the stereotypes or, in an attempt to act appropriately, would not share the stereotypes they knew. Often the same students who used stereotypes would at other times point out their injustice.

Students' attitudes toward people from different cultures were characterized largely by interest and curiosity rather than by prejudice. Through the use of children's literature, simulations, and personal story writing, students developed empathy for others and deeper understanding about both the feelings and realities of discrimination.
In all of these activities and at the core of perspective taking development lies the importance of personal, human connections. Students were more interested in and learned more from activities, books, and experiences where they could see connections between their own feelings and life experiences and those of "others". Many of the strategies that were most successful with the fourth graders were those mentioned in the human rights education literature (Branson, 1982; Heater, 1984; Lister, 1984; Snow, Mack, and Burt, 1985).

Finally, a number of problems surfaced in my attempts to help these children understand and empathize with others. Stereotypes can actually be reinforced when dealing with past issues and limited knowledge about a culture. Also, because students at this age have limited capabilities for understanding the complexity of political and social events, deep feelings for others can become sources of confusion about why people are treated in unkind ways.

**The Role of Empowerment**

In this section, the role of empowerment in the human rights curriculum is discussed. Empowerment is defined here as students taking initiative on behalf of themselves and/or others. The section begins with a look at responsible participation among the students. Then students' initiatives and opportunities for speaking up and taking leadership roles in the context of the democratic classroom process and the social action projects are explored. Finally, the deterrents to empowerment in this classroom are considered.
Responsible Participation

There were many opportunities for children to participate as responsible members of the classroom community. At the beginning of each week, students volunteered for classroom responsibilities such as feeding the hamster, passing out papers, or collecting the recycled paper boxes. Other occasions would arise when students would be asked to help out as well. Every now and then Sarah would need someone to neaten the library book shelves or clean up the art supplies (5/1-0-1). The fourth graders as a whole were asked if they wanted to be on patrol (4/30-0-2) and to help with the school spring fair (5/6-0-2).

Many of the children were enthusiastic about helping, though a few children consistently participated in almost any opportunity. Whenever a request was made it seemed that Kristin's hand went up (3/15-0-2, 3/25-0-1, 3/27-0-6, 4/1-0-3, 4/17-0-4, 4/30-0-1, 5/6-0-2, 5/28-0-1). Other very frequent volunteers were Claire, Susannah, Andre, Cathy, and Evan.

There were also a few students who rarely volunteered for anything. I was curious to see how the new opportunities for volunteering that the human rights curriculum presented would be responded to by the students. Would the same students volunteer or would enthusiasm emerge among some of the other students as well?

I also noted that the students responded to requests for help but rarely initiated helpful class or school activities beyond their personal relationships (5/8-0-1). The human rights curriculum was designed to support students' taking the initiative for proposing
academic activities, topics for discussion, and social action projects. If the curriculum was effective, students would not only be responding to requests but would be offering ideas on their own as well.

**The Democratic Process**

The democratic aspect of the human rights curriculum was centered around a weekly class conference where we discussed issues of importance to the students and items presented by the teacher or myself. A sheet was posted near the blackboard where students could write up agenda items. Each week, three children were assigned to be on the class council, a group who met with me to plan and then facilitate the class conference.

Agenda items were written on the list and also came up in conversation with the class councils each week. During the late participation period, items were proposed by Kristin (3/7), Evan (4/12, 4/19), and Andre (4/12), and also John (4/12, 5/14), Jennifer (5/9), Rich (3/7), Thad (5/21), and Nicholas (4/19). For half of the conferences, no issues were presented by the students and I chose some aspect of the human rights curriculum to be the focus (3/12, 3/21, 3/26, 4/30, 5/28, 6/10).

Students generally saw the class conferences as a place to work on interpersonal problems. Of the nine issues proposed by students from March through June, five of them dealt with problems such as pencils being stolen (4/19), being touched in ways people don't like (3/7), and being accused of something unfairly (5/21).

Two of the other ideas focused on student's ideas for classroom activities. Jennifer proposed playing a laughing game at a
class conference (5/9) and John presented the idea that anyone who wanted to could create picture books of topics they had enjoyed studying during the school year (4/12).

Although students did not often use the class conference as a vehicle for initiating ideas for their learning, these ideas did occasionally emerge outside of the democratic process. For example, Julie thought we should make a video about human rights (5/22-0-2) and Nicholas and Rich proposed a project about creating and making maps for imaginary states (5/27-0-5).

Often a decision made at a class conference would require an individual or a small group to volunteer to carry it out. For example, when the students worked out the details on the design of a bathroom sign out sheet. Kristin and Claire offered to make it (3/26-0-1). Also, when the students decided to present a proposal to the principal about wearing hats and chewing gum. Kristin, Claire, and Evan volunteered to write it (3/15-0-2). Other students who volunteered for tasks associated with the class conferences were Lizbeth (3/18-0-1, 3/25-0-7), Bob (3/18-0-1, 5/27-0-5), Cathy (3/25-0-7), Shelley (3/25-0-7), Andre (3/25-0-7), Kristin again (3/25-0-7), Evan again (4/10-0-2, 5/29-0-1) and Susannah (4/17-0-2).

The findings reveal that there were many opportunities within the democratic process for students to volunteer and take initiative for proposing ideas. A few children proposed ideas for conference topics or classroom activities; many more responded to requests for assistance. The students who usually volunteered in the classroom also participated enthusiastically in tasks associated with the
democratic process. However, many of the other students were involved as well. In fact, there were only two of the seventeen students who did not volunteer for a task or propose an agenda item or idea for a classroom activity.

Students also had many opportunities for assuming leadership roles in facilitating the class conferences. Although occasionally a child would be absent or choose not to participate, every child was involved at least once in running a conference.

This role was exciting for almost all the students. They would look forward to their week on the council. When Evan was absent for his turn, he asked if he could be on the council the next week (4/10-0-2). When Rich didn't want his turn on one occasion, Susannah quickly offered, "Oh, I will! I'll take his place!" (4/17-0-2). Even Bob, who rarely spoke up in front of the whole group, chose twice to participate in this leadership role (3/21, 5/14). This changed for a few students towards the end of the year. For example, Thad had been very excited about being on the council initially but complained about not having enough time to do school work when it was his turn at the end of the year (6/10-0-2).

Every student participated in the conferences in some way. When the class voted on a proposal, usually everyone would vote. Even Joanne, the one girl who did not volunteer for or initiate any conference related task, spoke four times at class conferences (3/12, 4/12, 4/30, 5/28). Bob, the shy boy mentioned above, spoke six times (3/8-0-4, 3/8-0-8, 5/22-0-3, 5/28-T-3,4). On the average, eleven or twelve of the eighteen students spoke at any given meeting.
However there were two meetings when only eight and four students spoke respectively (4/19, 4/30). At the meeting on April 19th, six students chose not to attend while four students chose not to come to the conference on April 30th. These students were all boys, a few of whom had already missed a meeting or two.

The class had decided early in March that we should try giving students the option to not attend the conference and do work at their seats instead (3/7). Eventually, this type of initiative proved counterproductive to providing a safe place where students could bring their issues and concerns to the group, and Sarah and I told the students we were returning to mandatory participation.

During the meetings which followed this verdict, participation was back to the previous level. Some of the children who had been more interested in sitting out, John and Thad, also proposed conference agenda items during the last few weeks of school (5/14, 5/21).

Two students made marked changes in their willingness to speak up and share their thoughts and ideas during the last few months of the year. This growth may have been due to their involvement with class conferences, the human rights unit, or the supportive and respectful classroom environment, as well as possible changes at home and in their peer relationships. But whatever the antecedents, both of these children found a voice for themselves in classroom life.

Bob began the year new to the school and, as noted in Chapter 4, was the only completely isolated child in the class. The children did not really dislike him, they just were uninterested in him. Early
in March, Nicholas, one of the most popular children in the classroom, reached out to Bob and talked him to coming into the class when he started to run away (3/7-0-4). Nicholas also wrote two stories during human rights unit activities about his actions to defend other children's rights (3/8-P-10, 3/18-J7-2).

After this incident on the playground, there were numerous interactions between Bob and Nicholas: talking together (3/20-0-4), sitting together (4/10-T-9), and working on a story and illustrations together (4/1-0-6, 4/3-0-3). Within the supportive context of his relationship with Nicholas, Bob began interacting with other boys too (3/13-0-2, 3/18-0-6, 3/20-0-4, 3/22-0-2, 3, 4, 5) and speaking up in the class conferences as mentioned above as well as occasionally in other whole group situations (4/10-T-9). Bob also chose to share a story he had written with the whole class that featured Nicholas as the "hero" (4/3-0-4).

The other student who found her voice in the classroom was a hearing impaired child. She had begun the year in a quiet manner (4/14-P-1) but began asserting herself more after February vacation. She spoke during every class conference but one and was vocal about her concerns for Black people during the human rights unit (3/15-T-1). Often she would begin her sharing with "I have something to say" (3/25-0-6) in a quiet but firm way.

Incidents of her assertiveness with both teachers and students were observed. Significantly, for the first time she began to tell her teachers when she was having difficulty hearing (3/26-0-1, 4/29-0-3). She would bring to my attention when I had forgotten to follow through on a task (3/11-0-2, 6/6-0-2) and would also let her
classmates know when their behavior was bothering her (3/13-0-8, 4/10-0-6, 6/3-0-7).

Although there were a few other students, notably Joanne, who remained quiet and unassertive throughout the year, many other students grew in their willingness to volunteer and speak up for themselves. The democratic process, while not the only cause of this growth, certainly played a key role in giving children opportunities to discuss and take action on issues of importance to them.

Social Action Projects

Another avenue for fostering students' empowerment was the social action projects that took place as part of the human rights curriculum. I began the projects by creating a bulletin board display with six of the students (3/22-0-4). Large colored letters across the top proclaimed "We Can Make A Difference." Below were listed a variety of social action projects that students could choose to work on if they wanted.

I also decided to have the whole class participate in a project together to start. I introduced the idea of making puppets that would be sent to India to teach villagers to make a simple solution for curing diarrhea, a common killer of young children. Most of the students were enthusiastic about the idea of making the puppets though few initially understood the potential impact or importance of the project (3/22-0-2).

There were many opportunities to volunteer to help with special parts of this project. When I needed help during recess to finish up the puppets, Kristin, Thad, Claire, and Susannah offered to
help (4/1-0-2). When I needed volunteers to help write the letter that would be sent to India with the puppets, the hands of Kristin, Claire, Susannah, and Andre went up (4/30-0-1).

Partly due to the interest of the students, we decided to perform the puppet show for the children's families before shipping them off. Kristin and Susannah were especially attracted to the idea (4/1-0-3). "When I asked Kristin if she could think of a fair way to pick who should be in the puppet show she said, 'Me!' with a big smile" (4/1-0-3). Although eleven of the seventeen children were interested and took home permission slips, only seven brought them back and performed the play: Kristin, Claire, Susannah, Andre, Cathy, Jennifer, and Lizbeth (4/4-0-1).

There were two other social action projects that were carried out, and one that was derailed early. After the puppet project was completed I had hoped the children would initiate others based on the bulletin board ideas, but no one did. The three projects, described below, were largely teacher initiated. The fact that the human rights unit was followed by a week of school vacation and then a week of standardized testing certainly did not help, but the lack of initiative was likely also due to the fact that the students largely still responded to requests rather than came up with ideas for projects on their own (5/8-0-1).

One of the projects was a brownie sale to benefit a local soup kitchen. One of the options for the projects associated with the People Reports (see Appendix F, p. 361) was a social action project. Andre had written his report about Mother Theresa and decided he wanted to do a social action project "to help the poor." Although he
needed considerable guidance in the design and follow through of the project, he did have the original impulse to do something.

Andre invited Susannah, Evan, and Julie to help with making and selling the brownies (4/17-0-3). Many other children wanted to help as well. Kristin offered to make a poster (4/17-0-3) and both Thad and Cathy asked to help sell brownies (5/6-0-7, 5/8-0-2). On the second day of the sale, more children wanted to help as well (5/9-0-2) including Nicholas who rarely volunteered for anything. My sense is that the empowering feelings engendered by handling money and going around to the other classrooms were the motivating factors for most of the students, rather than concerns for the fundraising aspect of the event.

With the children being enthusiastic about social action projects but still not proposing any on their own, I decided to initiate another one. I showed the class a video of a project in which they would raise money to buy a goat for a poor family in Haiti. Though the class voted for buying a goat (4/30-0-2) only three children came to a meeting to plan the project.

I abandoned the goat project when I realized that it wasn't interesting to most of the students for a couple of reasons (5/1-T-2). First, they had no connection to these people or the goats in a far away place. Second, with the other projects it was the activity that was most interesting to them, not the potential benefits for others.

At first I didn't announce to the students that we wouldn't do the goat project because I wanted to see who would mention it. Only Cathy continued to express interest and ask me when we would be
working on it (5/6-0-7). When I decided to change the project to one closer to home no one seemed to mind.

The third project, a combination yard and bake sale and can/bottle return "event" was held on a Saturday morning at Evan's house (6/8-0-all). We had previously brainstormed ideas for fundraising and ended up combining these three into one.

Almost everyone was involved, either by being on one of three committees--planning, publicity, and day of the sale--or by working at the sale or bringing items to sell (5/13-0-3, 5/22-0-4). There were just three boys in the class who chose not to be involved. All of them lived with their mothers during the week and went to their father's homes on the weekends and Sarah felt that this was probably why they didn't participate (5/13-0-1).

We also brainstormed possible ideas for spending the money at a class conference (5/28-T-all). We had previously discussed that some of the money could go towards an end of the year party and that the rest should go to a good cause. These ideas represented a range of interests that would benefit the children themselves, the school, the community, or distant others.

Susannah immediately offered, "Well my sister is going down to Haiti and if we have extra money we could send it down there and she could give the money to the poor" (5/28-T-3). The other ideas included: buying basketballs for the school, donating to the soup kitchen, giving money to people in Asia, supporting a family in Ethiopia, buying playground equipment, buying atlases, donating to schools that have no playground, buying pencils for everyone in the
school, donating to the lunch room, and donating to the school playground fund (5/28-T-3.4).

After the yard sale, the class ended up with forty dollars to donate to a good cause. We addressed this decision in the last class conference which was videotaped. Following a spirited discussion about how to spend the money, including whether to split it between two or three causes, about twelve of the students voted to donate all of it to the school playground fund.

I wondered if this idea passed because it had been vocally supported by the strongest personalities in the class. After the conference, I gave students a worksheet to assess their personal feelings about spending the money and also to get some feedback from them in terms of their involvement with all of the social action projects (see Appendix G).

While fourteen of the eighteen students wrote that they would have given some portion of the money to the playground fund, only six of the children would have given all of it to that cause (6/11-P-all). Ten of the others chose to split the money between two ideas: one that would benefit themselves—such as the playground fund, the pencils, or the atlases—and one that would benefit others, such as the soup kitchen or distant others.

Only two students chose to give the money completely to causes that would benefit others. Andre wanted to split the money between the soup kitchen and a school that has no playground (6/11-P-4) and the new boy in class chose the latter as well as sending the money to Haiti (6/11-P-5).
Students' responses to questions about how they felt about having helped others through the social action projects and what they learned about themselves in the process revealed that almost all the students developed positive associations for social action.

Many of the children wrote that it felt good to help others (6/11-P-5,7,9,12,13,15,16,18). Susannah and Shelley wrote that they felt proud of themselves (6/11-P-10,14) and Jennifer shared, "I'm glad to know that I have made a difference in the world" (6/11-P-11).

Some of the students comments indicate improved self-esteem. Evan and Jennifer noted that they learned they are "good" people (6/11-P-1,11). Others noted "I have learned that I am smarter than I thought I was" (6/11-P-7), "I learned that I can do more stuff than I thought I could" (6/11-P-15), and "I learned how much fun I can have doing something helpful" (6/11-P-17).

Shelley experienced gratitude for what she has. "I feel lucky for what my parents have gave me," she wrote (6/11-P-14). Finally, Susannah's comment is perhaps the best summary, "that if you put your mind to it you can do it, and help people at the same time" (6/11-P-10).

Although there were also two children who felt negatively about the projects and two children who were confused by the questions, the comments above indicate that there were many important benefits for most of the children. They learned to associate happiness, fun, being a good person, making a difference for others, and doing more than they thought they were capable of with projects to help others.
Deterrents to Empowerment

Examining the steps taken and not taken by these children towards being empowered, initiating learners would not be complete without a discussion of the classroom context. Although there were two teachers, Sarah and myself, in the classroom who were interested in supporting children's ideas, there were also a number of limitations to this pursuit.

First of all, this school in general does not support student initiative. These children had already had four years of schooling where the teachers were the primary decision makers and curriculum planners. Even in this classroom, where the teacher was far less traditional than most, she was almost completely in charge of curriculum planning. To ask children to shift into these roles after this previous "training" is a large request.

Often when an idea was initiated, it was not followed up on by the other students. For example, although many children originally said they would write a letter to American soldiers in Saudi Arabia (1/8-T-3), none of the children followed through on this task. John's idea of creating picture books based on interesting topics was not completed by anyone either (4/12-T-9). It seemed that only when the teacher followed up on the proposed idea did the project take off. For example, when Rich and Nicholas proposed the "Create-A-State" map making activity, Sarah made this an assignment for all the students (5/27-0-5).

Even when students proposed ideas, their personal capability to carry them out was limited and they required lots of adult support. This was evident with all the social action projects. A
simple idea can easily take many hours of work and time is a
limiting factor in the school day. Had more students chosen to
initiate more projects, I probably would have had to say no to some.
Given these limitations, I feel that the curriculum was
moderately successful in fostering students' interest in helping
others and participating as decision makers in classroom life. With
more time in a continuing supportive atmosphere, I suspect that the
students would initiate more of their own learning.

Conclusions

Empowerment among these students was encouraged through
the democratic process, social action projects, and in other
opportunities for students to help out and to voice their concerns.
Students' reactions to the democratic process were generally
positive. They especially enjoyed the empowering role of being on
the class council. Although only a few children proposed agenda
items, every student participated in some way in the process. The
marked shifts of two students who developed a voice for themselves
in the classroom may also have been related to their participation in
the democratic process.

The social action projects, while not initiated by the students
themselves, were successful in a number of ways. Many students
were involved. Although the students who consistently volunteered
in class were very involved in the projects, other students
participated as well. Students' responses to the social action
projects were generally positive; they cited feelings and learnings
which evidenced improved self-esteem and positive associations
with the notion of helping others.
In general, students were more interested in the empowerment of being personally involved in an action project than the importance of the work in terms of who would benefit. When brainstorming ideas for donating money, a variety of suggestions were offered. They ranged from ideas to benefit the children themselves to efforts to help others. Most of the students were interested in dividing the money between these two types of benefits.

The students' responses to the social action projects support a number of the findings in the prosocial literature. The cost of helping was an important factor: the more fun a project seemed, the more likely students were to engage in it (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Also, the children had a variety of motives for helping, from self to other oriented (Staub, 1978).

Finally, the deterrents to empowerment in the classroom were discussed. These included the students "training" in traditional, authoritarian teaching as well as the great amount of time it took to guide students in completing a project.

**Positive and Negative Social Relations**

In this section of the chapter, the children's positive and negative social interactions are reviewed and analyzed. Extensive descriptions of different types of observed behaviors were given in Chapter 4, all of which continued to some extent during the late participation period as well. Therefore, rather than describing the behaviors in depth, an analysis of both positive and negative behavior is explored as a whole, within the context of the human rights curriculum and other concurrent classroom activities. While
in certain cases behaviors will be described, the focus will remain on analysis and comparison of positive and negative behaviors.

First, charts of the numbers and types of behaviors observed are presented. A month by month breakdown is included in an effort to assess whether behaviors changed during the human rights unit, after it, or at the end of the school year. The analysis follows, concluding with a discussion about possible reasons for these findings.

The reader is requested to review once again the cautions cited in Chapter 4 to be kept in mind while examining these charts. Only limited comparisons should be made between the numbers of behaviors observed within the two periods. One of the primary reasons for this is that my time in the classroom was not consistent, month to month. I was in the classroom for 171 hours during the late participation period in contrast to 69 hours during the early participation period. Thus I had more frequent opportunities to observe students' interactions during the last few months and particularly during the human rights unit in March. I was in the classroom for 76 hours during March alone.

There are a few new categories of behaviors included in the following tables. "Helping someone" includes behaviors in response to someone being hurt. During the last few months there were a number of injuries among the students. Both Susannah and Jennifer sprained their ankles, Claire hurt her foot, and John injured his knee.

The category "arguing" in Chapter 4 was expanded to include other types of behaviors under the heading of "not working well together." Both this and the other new category, "complaining" were
included because of the increase of small and whole group work discussed in the first section of this chapter. "Complaining" refers solely to students' negative comments about peers with whom they were working in class.

When looking at the tables, a few points of information will be helpful. In April, there was one week of school vacation and one week of standardized testing when students had to sit and work on their tests almost exclusively. In June, there were only two weeks before the end of the school year. Second, the reader should know that the majority of small and large group work took place during the months of March, during the human rights unit, as well as May and June. In April students were involved in working primarily on individual projects.

Analysis of Students' Interactions

First, the findings reported in these charts make it clear that learning about human rights and developing perspective taking and empathy for others did not eliminate negative behavior in this classroom. In a broad sense, negative and positive behaviors continued in a similar manner as before the human rights unit. Possible reasons for this effect will be discussed towards the end of this section.

There are however a few differences worth exploring. During the early participation period, teasing was the most commonly observed negative behavior. There appears to be less teasing among the children during the late participation period. However, insults and not working well together are frequent.
Table 6 - Comparing Positive and Negative Social Interactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Social Interactions</th>
<th>March</th>
<th>April</th>
<th>May</th>
<th>June</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>working playing together</td>
<td>SS</td>
<td>XS</td>
<td>SS</td>
<td>XS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharing things</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kind words</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical affection</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helping someone</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goofing around</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total nos. of positive behaviors observed during late participation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working/playing together</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharing things</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kind words</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical affection</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helping someone</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goofing around</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative Social Interactions</th>
<th>March</th>
<th>April</th>
<th>May</th>
<th>June</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teasing</td>
<td>SS</td>
<td>XS</td>
<td>SS</td>
<td>XS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insults</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not working well</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gossip</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aggression</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclude</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complain</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total nos. of negative behaviors observed during late participation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teasing</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insults</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not working well together</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gossip</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aggression</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclusion</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complaining</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

216
There also appears to be less aggression than in the beginning of the year. Sarah and I both noticed this change during the four month period (3/4-0-1, 5/24-0-1). In particular, three of the boys who had been involved in much fighting in the early part of the year were restraining themselves and often sharing the problem with a teacher rather than striking out (5/24-0-1).

Sarah and I also felt that there was less exclusion among the group of girls previously discussed (5/24-0-1). In particular, Shelley and Jennifer seemed to have developed some understanding about the harmfulness of what they were doing and changed their behavior accordingly. Cautiously then, one might conclude that there was somewhat less negative behavior during the latter part of the school year.

A number of the categories are connected with the increase in small and whole group work in March, May, and June. Group work seems to engender both more negative and more positive behaviors of certain types. Rather obviously, the amounts of both "working/playing together" and "not working well together" behaviors increased with the time the children spent working in groups.

However, a significant point about these incidents cannot be gleaned from numbers. A coded list was developed of all the behaviors enumerated in the charts. Each instance of either a pair, a small group, or the whole class working well together was counted as one event. However, I believe that a whole class working well together is more of an accomplishment than a single pair of students
doing so. The challenges in the number of relationships involved are that much greater.

Examining the descriptions of the events listed under "working/playing together" reveals that there was one whole group incident in March, one in April, four in May, and six in June. Although some of this effect may be due to more whole class activities towards the end of the year, some of these events are whole class in the sense of all the small groups working well together during the same activity (5/6-0-6, 5/29-0-1, 6/6-0-4, 6/6-0-5).

This analysis confirms the impression that Sarah and I both shared that the students were getting better at working in groups (5/24-0-1). It also appears that the complaining associated with group work decreases over time with five incidents in March, two in May, and no observed complaining in June.

Yet even though students learned to work more cooperatively and with less complaining, in general it does not appear that they came to like each other more. A closer look at the students' personal relationships in the class reveals that there were both negative and positive shifts in students' personal relationships.

For example, at the beginning of the year Susannah was one of the most popular students in the class. She, Claire, Kristin, and Julie all liked and associated with each other (See Chapter 4 on sociograms). Gradually through work and play, Claire and Kristin became closer friends and they chose to cement their friendship by rejecting both Julie and Susannah (5/22-0-1, 6/6-0-10, 6/8-0-3).

On the positive side, Bob, originally quite isolated, became involved in many friendly interactions in the classroom. These
included playing and working with Thad (3/18-0-5.6, 3/20-0-4, 3/22-0-2, 4/3-0-4) as well as the previously mentioned alliance between him and Nicholas (4/1-0-6, 4/3-0-3, 4/10-T-9). Whereas Bob had refused to participate at all in gym class earlier in the year, by the end of year he and Rich were congratulating each other on having the lengthiest long jumps (6/6-0-14). Although Bob had many other problems, largely in terms of doing his school work, he did become a relatively well accepted member of the class.

The incidents included in the category of "helping someone" also illustrate the differences in how students related to each other. When Jennifer hurt her foot, she was subjected to cruel insults and teasing by some of the boys (3/21-0-1) but when Susannah had a similar accident, both boys and girls were anxious to help her (4/10-T-5.6). These behaviors support Eisenberg and Mussen's (1989) assertion that popular children are more likely to be the recipients of helpful acts.

These are just a few of the many stories that could be shared, ripples in the ebb and flow of the classroom dynamics. Partly this is due to the nature of social relationships in middle childhood. As noted in the review on children's social development, there are cliques, in and out groups, and frequent gossip and rejection among preadolescents (Gottman and Mettetal, 1986; Parker and Gottman, 1989). Distaste for members of the opposite sex and limited skills in perspective taking and conflict resolution also contribute to the difficulties in fostering positive relationships in a classroom.

I surmise that the few positive shifts in children's behavior toward each other had more to do with maturation, the use of
inductive reasoning and power assertive techniques. and possibly the
group work experiences. Some of the class conferences where
students worked on issues in their relationships with each other
may also have been influential. Certainly children's friendships and
personality conflicts were strong influences on how they responded
to each other.

It is unlikely, though, that the students' behavior was
influenced much by the human rights unit activities. Difficulties
with students connecting the abstract notion of human rights to
their daily lives were previously cited. Also, the idea of taking
responsibility for others' rights was not a strong learning for many
of the children.

Conclusions

Although in a broad sense, students' behaviors were similar
between the two participation periods, there are some notable
changes. There appears to be slightly less teasing, physical
aggression, complaining, and exclusion towards the end of the school
year. However, there was still much negative behavior, particularly
incidents involving insults and not working well together.

Students did learn to work better in small and large groups
towards the end of the year and to complain less about who they
were assigned to work with. An examination of their personal
relationships shows that there were many fluctuations both positive
and negative. In general, students did not come to like each other
better. There was still more cross sex negative behavior, though
much cross sex positive behavior was observed as well, particularly
around working in groups.
It is likely that the changes in students' behavior were due to maturation, the use of inductive reasoning and power assertive techniques, and possibly whole class experiences. It is less likely that students' behavior towards each other was influenced by the abstract notion of human rights. The analysis of students' behavior over the school year is a complex matter and the source of the least conclusive findings in this report.

**Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the findings during the late participation period, from March through June 1991, were discussed. First a few changes in Sarah's teaching and disciplinary style were presented. These included giving students more choices, using more small and whole group teaching experiences, and emphasizing power assertion and inductive reasoning more in her relationships with students.

Second, the students' evolutions in understanding human rights were explored. The importance of creating meaningful, personal connections between the students and the subject matter was highlighted. Students varied in the degrees to which they came to understand human rights, yet most had a basic understanding of the concept and could apply the notion of human rights to their lives in simple ways.

Although only a few of the students made substantial growth in their abilities to empathize with their peers in the classroom, most of the students developed their perspective taking skills in regards to different "others". Strategies which fostered this development were children's literature, a visit from foreign
students, and other activities which focused on students' understanding of prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination.

The students had minimal knowledge and understanding about others' cultures and life experiences. Although few stereotypes and prejudices were revealed in the class activities, it is likely that the students have prejudices there were either unaware of or unwilling to reveal. Many asserted that all people should be seen as equal, regardless of the color of their skin.

The students had many opportunities to respond to requests and initiate their own learning in conjunction with the democratic process and the social action projects. Responding to requests for help was much more prevalent than initiating and this finding was discussed in the context of the deterrents to empowerment in the classroom. Students' reactions to both the democratic process and the social action projects were generally positive. Many of the students developed positive associations with helping others.

Finally, the students' positive and negative interactions with each other were explored. Although many of the same behaviors continued throughout the year, students did improve in some areas and learned how to cooperate better in small and large group activities. It was speculated that these changes were due to maturation, the classroom climate, teacher-student interactions, and possibly the group experiences.

The analysis of the findings during the late participation period reveal a number of important issues about bringing human rights instruction into the intermediate classroom. These issues and their implications will be further discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.
CHAPTER 6

JENNIFER AND EVAN:
PROFILES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMPATHY AND
EMPOWERMENT

Introduction

Although the findings for the class as a whole were discussed in Chapter 5, it is important to look at how the development of empathy and empowerment take place in the individual child as well. The cumulative effect of the curriculum on students' thinking and behaviors is best seen by looking at the development of individual children.

Jennifer and Evan were chosen for this discussion because of their growth in empathy and empowerment during the school year. Although these two children are different in many ways, their profiles illustrate how empathy and empowerment can develop in the preadolescent and how the different aspects of the human rights curriculum worked together to bring about changes in thinking and behavior. In addition, their stories highlight key issues in fostering these skills at the middle childhood level.

Jennifer - The Minister's Daughter

Jennifer was one of the youngest students in the class, having turned ten on May 6, 1991. She was a bubbly, talkative girl who loved animals and singing. Whether planning a play for her friends to act out (12/5-0-4), offering to help out with a class activity (1/21-
or sharing a written report with the class (12/10-0-4).

Jennifer was often an active participant in the classroom.

When the students chose adjectives to describe themselves for self-esteem posters. Jennifer wrote "colorful, unique, helpful, musical" (3/4-0-2). Her optimistic outlook is also expressed through the following poem written after reading On the Shores of Silver Lake by Laura Ingalls Wilder.

Graceful snowflakes fall
On that lovely Silver Lake
Pretty place of all.
We will slip and slide
On that lovely Silver Lake
On a joyful ride.
By that far side shore
Of that lovely Silver Lake
We will live much more. (12/10-0-7)

Jennifer's writing generally revealed an optimistic, if naive, philosophy: that the world is good and that it is right to be caring, kind, and helpful to others. The description on her poster about the underground railroad is a case in point.

Step one-go into the underground railroad. Step two-Stay with the people and try to be thankful. Step three-Go to the next house and be nice. Step four-Eat nicely at the table. Step five-After a while you'll finally be in the north and you will be free. (1/21-0-4)

Although Jennifer's optimism and simplistic, loving outlook on life were refreshing, I found her most interesting quality to be her feeling life. Her warmth and sensitivity were undoubtedly due in part to the nurturing of her parents. When Jennifer wanted to sing in a music class talent show but was reluctant to do so by herself, her mother came in and they sang a duet together (3/27-0-1). Although
she complained about his yelling, Jennifer proudly introduced her father, a Christian minister in the community, to me at the Human Rights Parent Night (4/9-0-1). She also spoke of how her mother helped her and her brother to get along better by playing a laughing game with them (5/7-0-8).

Jennifer's parents clearly felt that expressing one's feelings is important. She was one of only a few children who had talked with her parents about the Persian Gulf War during the initial phase (1/21-0-5). On another occasion, Jennifer shared that she felt like she could be more herself at home than at school. When I asked, "How?" she replied simply, "I can share more of my feelings" (3/8-0-2).

I focus here on familial support for Jennifer's feeling life because I think that it was critical in her development of empathic abilities. More than any of the other children, Jennifer seemed to ascribe a legitimacy to her feelings, including both joyful and painful emotions. The following two vignettes illustrate the range of her expressions of feeling in the classroom.

On the last day of the human rights unit, I presented each child with a tiny, scrolled diploma listing three things I appreciated about them as individuals. Many of the children opened them and said nothing to me. Four of the children made a single statement to me and a few gave me a hug. Jennifer was exuberant. "You know why I'm so cooperative," she shared. "because you are." A minute later she hugged me and then expounded, "I won't lose it. I'm going to cherish it forever! I don't have to come to school tomorrow. I graduated!!" (3/29-0-1).
Though Jennifer was easily enthusiastic about happy events, she was also open to feelings of despair. When John brought in a book about the bombing of Hiroshima and shared it with the class, Jennifer wrote the following entry in her response journal.

I think about if someone dropped a bomb on us. I think it would really be sad if that happened to us. I would just go someplace and just cry cry cry cry cry! I don't like to think about the fact that someone could be so cruel. It's just really sad. One time I dreamt that it happened to us and I mean it was like nothing, nothing was there any more. It was all gone. Nothing remained. Everything was gone!!........ (1/28-P-6).

Associated with Jennifer's ability to express a wide range of feelings was her skill in taking other's perspectives. I surmise that her ability to be in touch with and be willing to express her own feelings helped her to identify with other's emotions as well.

In a discussion on the way Native Americans and Whites used the land, Jennifer, more than any of the other students, was able to understand and articulate the Native American's perspective (11/13-0-7). Whereas the other children referred to the "Indians", Jennifer spoke of the Native American's and their connection to the land as well as their ecological use of it. During writing time, she wrote an insightful story from a gerbil's point of view (1/21-0-1). When we brainstormed all the things that effective leaders of class conferences should do, Jennifer shared, "they would think about what the people down here was thinking about, not only what they're thinking about" (2/5-T-4).

Jennifer easily related her own life experiences to those of others and this also contributed to her perspective taking abilities.
When we were discussing the Persian Gulf War one day many of the children were talking about their personal fears and people they knew who were fighting in the Middle East. Jennifer's thoughts, however, were on distant and unrelated others.

What I think about with a war going on. I think about people being shot....People who are around Iraq, people who don't have anything to do with it could get killed very easily. They could just be all of a sudden be dead and they didn't have anything to do with it (1/21-T-6.7).

Thus far I have painted a portrait of Jennifer as a kind, energetic girl who expressed her feelings and easily related to other's perspectives. It is important to note as well that Jennifer was not well liked by the children in the class. On numerous occasions she was teased, insulted, or excluded by the other children (1/1-T-2, 1/17-0-5, 1/28-0-2, 2/11-0-1, 3/6-0-4, 3/19-0-4, 3/21-0-1, 5/7-0-10, 5/27-T-5, 5/29-0-1), though seldom was she the perpetrator of such behaviors (4/15-0-3, 4/20-T-8).

I was at first puzzled by why both boys and girls in the class chose Jennifer as one of their frequent victims. Watching the children's relationships change over the course of a year sometimes led me to believe that there was little logic as to why one child was popular and another was not.

In Jennifer's case, however, I suspect that there were two factors contributing to her mistreatment. One is that she was very talkative, almost hyperactive at times, and I think this irritated some of the other children. Secondly, Jennifer's sensitivity may have tagged her as an effective target for ridicule. When Jennifer was teased or excluded, she generally showed her sadness and was
not able to hide it the way some of the other children might have (2/11-0-1, 5/27-T-5, 6/3-0-9).

Given the way Jennifer was mistreated by many of the children, her kindness towards them most of the time was all the more impressive. I observed her working well with both boys and girls in the class (2/15-0-1, 3/14-0-2, 3/18-0-2, 5/6-0-5, 5/20-T-5), complementing others on their work (2/7-0-5), and eagerly sharing her ideas and school work (12/10-0-4, 3/7-T-4, 5, 6, 7, 4/12-T-all, 5/9-T-5, 5/20-T-7). When Sarah put up a "Kind People" Chart on which the students could post classmate's names who had been helpful to them or had shared something, Jennifer put up Shelley's name seven times (1/17-0-3).

Yet Jennifer was not a saint. When students insulted her she would sometimes insult them back. For example, when Jennifer put my name up on the Kind People chart and then hugged me, Kristin declared, "They're brown nosing. They do that a lot." With Jennifer standing beside her she then said to me, "I really don't like her at all. I don't care if she hears it." Jennifer replied, "Well I really don't like you either" (1/28-0-2).

During January and February, Sarah and I talked frequently about how Jennifer was "on the outs" of a small group of girls in the class (1/1-T-2, 1/17-0-5, 2/11-0-1, 2/13-T-1, 2). In April, Jennifer joined two of the other girls in verbally insulting and writing unkind notes about Lizbeth (4/15-0-3, 4/20-T-8, 9). (This incident was discussed in Chapter 5 as well). Jennifer saw putting down someone else as a way to insure that she would stay in the group and not be excluded herself. "Lots of times when we made fun
of people I wanted to make sure that I never got left out," wrote Jennifer. In further exploring the issue, Jennifer identified with Lizbeth's feelings. This seemed to bring about a change in Jennifer, who was not observed engaging in this type of behavior for the rest of the year.

The description of Jennifer thus far sets the stage for looking at her responses to the human rights curriculum activities. Many of the activities gave Jennifer opportunities to further her development in ways that she was already inclined. The discussion which follows illustrates how Jennifer became more empathic, more empowered, and developed advanced perspective taking abilities in conjunction with human rights activities. Through her identification with and interest in others, Jennifer also deepened her understanding of human rights issues and her interest in working for change in the world.

Jennifer began the human rights unit with a vague sense of what human rights are. In her journal she defined the concept as "rights that all people have" yet when asked to write about the rights all children should have she wrote, "I don't know" (3/4-J3-1). A bit later - that same day, when asked to list human rights she had, Jennifer included, "the right to learn, the right to eat food, the right to an attorney, and the right to have a shelter" (3/5-P-3). Some of these ideas resulted from a small group discussion on human rights in our lives. Presented with an art assignment on depicting a right important in your life, Jennifer created a collage entitled, "the right to sing when I want to" (3/7-P-3).
These responses indicate that Jennifer had some sense of what human rights are, though her choice for the collage shows that she also saw human rights in the framework of doing what you want to do. In the interview I had with Jennifer following the human rights unit, her answer to "What are human rights?" was not very much different in thought but decidedly stronger in feeling. She answered, "the rights of every human in the world, things that they all should be able to do or get to do" (4/15-T-7). Some of Jennifer's responses to the human rights activities reveal how she developed this strong concern for others.

Jennifer used her abilities to empathize and take other's perspectives frequently in human rights activities. In a discussion about life in South Africa, Jennifer related the crowded living conditions for some Blacks to her own experience one summer when six of her relatives came to live with her family (3/18-T-1). At one point during this discussion I asked the students to think about why some people would prefer to live around only people of their own culture. None of the children were even close to understanding this idea until Jennifer shared. "Maybe you'd be happy because it would be only your kind around you" (3/18-T-3).

When Jennifer read A Jar of Dreams, a novel about a Japanese American girl who is discriminated against by Whites, she found it easy to relate to Rinko's experiences. When we discussed how it must have felt to have the other students "talk right through you". Jennifer shared,

Well I have never had that experience but at my old school there were a lot of Black students, a lot of Indian students.
a lot of Japanese students...in Acton, Mass. All the groups always stayed together. If they happened to bump into each other they just pretended like they weren't there...It even happened to me even though I was White cause there were so many different kinds of people (3/5-T-1)

This passage reveals an additional reason why Jennifer was able to empathize with culturally different others. Her experience with people from other ethnic groups, while still limited, was broader than most of the other students in the class.

Jennifer was typical of students her age in her interest in learning about different others. When the high school ESL class came to visit, Jennifer was enthralled and wrote at length in her journal about how much she enjoyed the experience and what she had learned (3/19-J3-1.2.3.4,5).

Although she was more able to identify stereotypes for different groups than many of the other students (3/12-P-21), probably due to her experiences in the Acton school, she did not hold many prejudices herself. In discussing the stereotypes she had written down, she used disclaimers such as "well boys say.." and "this is kind of mean but..." (3/12-T-9,10). Her drawing of a Black and a White person doing something showed two similar looking figures, one cooking and the other sewing (3/12-P-34).

In further discussions about A Jar of Dreams, Jennifer frequently offered connections between Rinko's life and her own (3/5-T-2,3). She drew upon both the understanding deepened through this book and her experiences in Acton in an assignment to write a journal entry as though she were a child of color in an almost all White school. While many of the children could only carry out this
task in a superficial way. Jennifer's entry below shows that she had some insight into the feelings associated with this experience.

My name is Jennifer. I am a 10 year old Japanese child. The children at my school don't treat me very nice. Sometimes they call me a foreigner. I don't like that, but some of them do treat me nice, well not really treat me nice, they just don't call me names like the other kids do. I don't feel very happy being here. I think the kids that don't treat me mean are ok but I don't talk to them. I'm not much like the other kids. I can't speak their language very well. I look a lot different too... (3/6-J3-1,2,3,4).

Because Jennifer was in tune with her feelings and could empathize with others, she responded with emotion and righteous indignation to the two simulation activities. In the first of these two activities, Jennifer was one of the "purple" people. "It made me feel like, when you put us out in the pod, it made me feel like all the teachers felt like we weren't good enough to be working close to White people," she shared (3/13-T-2). When asked what human rights activity she thought she would remember most in the future, Jennifer referred to the food simulation.

The combination of empathy for others with limited understanding of the social and political complexities of life led Jennifer, and a few other students, to feelings of bewilderment. Jennifer wrote in her response journal about a passage from A Jar of Dreams,

The part of the book that I just read is really sad. A very mean man killed a boy's dog, popped their tires, and stole the laundry. I don't understand how a man can be so mean. I don't think that it's fair for that man to be so mean. I wonder why? (3/7-J3-2,3).
Jennifer had previously expressed this kind of concern and confusion in regards to the bombing of Hiroshima. It is also echoed in her response to the question, "How does human rights relate to your life?" in the interview following the unit.

A lot of times I think about how a lot of people think that Blacks are like, really bad and my favorite television show is The Cosby Show and most of the people on there are all Black and it makes me think. I don't understand why people would think they're really bad because all of these people made a really great show and a lot of people like to watch it...

(4/15-T-7).

Not surprisingly, Jennifer was an enthusiastic participant in the social action projects, particularly the Yard/Bake Sale/Bottle Return event. She was the only student who offered to participate in every part of the project, from bringing all three kinds of items to planning beforehand, working on Saturday, and cleaning up afterwards (5/20-0-6, 5/22-0-4). Jennifer had also wanted to be involved in selling the brownies. Because this was a smaller project, she did not have this opportunity. However, she spent five dollars of her own money on brownies for herself, her friends, and even a boy in the class who often annoyed her (5/9-0-2).

Jennifer also was involved in both the videotaped news show on the Middle East (1/21-0-2) and the puppet show at the Human Rights Parent Night (4/4-0-1). Her personal choice about how to spend the "good cause" portion of the yard/bake sale money was to donate thirty dollars to the playground fund and ten dollars to the community kitchen (6/11-P-11).

Jennifer participated wholeheartedly in the activities associated with the democratic process. She spoke out frequently in
class conferences (1/17-T-3,5, 2/5-T-5,6, 2/15-T-1,2,3,4, 3/7-T-4,5,6,7, 4/12-T-all) and offered to be on several committees to work out issues around the class pet (1/17-0-4) and the end of the year party (6/11-0-2).

Jennifer believed that we all have responsibilities to each other. This was evident in her comments at a class conference where she pointed out two reasons why it might not work to have class conference attendance optional. These included problems with having people come and go in the middle of meetings and the potential outcome that people who sat out might not like the decisions made for them by others (3/7-T-4,5). For Jennifer, it was more important that we work together on issues.

Jennifer was often looking for ways to make her world a better place. One could count on her to clean up (3/18-0-1), help carry books (4/10-0-6), or assist in class when needed (4/10-0-6). The democratic process gave Jennifer opportunities not only to respond to requests for assistance, but to initiate helpful behaviors as well. For example, when Jennifer was on the class council one week, she raised two issues that we subsequently dealt with in a class conference. She had noticed that Sarah did not always get the attendance down to the office first thing in the morning and she wanted the class to develop a plan to help her do that. She also initiated a discussion to solve the problem of how to share the heater in the room after cold or rainy recesses (2/11-T-all). Although Jennifer was subject to the same deterrents to empowerment that the other children were, her strong prosocial
orientation and the opportunities presented by the human rights curriculum led to her initiating these helpful ideas.

Because of Jennifer's abilities to empathize, express her feelings, and act prosocially, she was very interested in and learned from most of the human rights curriculum activities. In response to the question, "What has your child mentioned to you about the Human Rights Unit?". Jennifer's mother commented "She has mentioned it frequently. She's very interested in people's needs and their rights for acceptance and respect" (5/3-P-3). Although she also mentioned that Jennifer seemed to be more attuned to her family's and friend's needs and that she became more aware of news stories about human rights issues, the most important benefits of Jennifer's involvement in the human rights curriculum were mentioned by Jennifer herself. "I'm glad to know that I have made a difference in the world," she concluded. When asked, "What have you learned about yourself through these (social action) projects?," she wrote, "I know that I'm a good person."

Conclusions

A number of factors contributed to Jennifer's learning and personal development during the human rights curriculum. Her family's support for prosocial values and sharing her feelings were important, as were her skills in empathizing and expressing her emotions. Jennifer was already an involved and thoughtful person before the human rights curriculum.

The human rights activities gave Jennifer additional opportunities to further her interest in and empathy for others as well as her desire to create changes in her world. Through the
readings, story writing, democratic processes, and social action projects. Jennifer developed a deeper concern for others and a stronger sense of herself as a "good" person who could make a difference in her world.

The fact that some children in middle childhood can respond to human rights issues with the deep concern that Jennifer does makes opportunities for their involvement in social action work critical. I believe that it is irresponsible for educators to open children's eyes to oppressive conditions in the world without also giving them the chance to create changes.

Evan - The Media Child

Evan turned eleven on the same birthday as Jennifer, May 6, 1991. A tall boy with bright eyes and dark hair, Evan was a child who often presented ideas for his own and others' learning. Although Evan was not very interested in most of his school work, he was an avid learner about the world with strong interests in astronomy, history, and current events. His preoccupation with the latter was fostered by his frequent watching of television news shows.

Evan was easily the most empowered student in the class. From starting a school recycling project (11/7-0-3) to presenting a math challenge to the class (12/5-0-8), Evan was often coming up with ideas for projects and activities. Although Evan vacillated between being his own person and following the advice of his best friend, Nicholas (11/30-0-4), he often enjoyed taking a leadership position in class discussions and group tasks (1/7-T-5, 1/8-0-1, 3/28-0-3, 4/10-0-2, 5/20-T-1, 5/29-0-1).
One limitation to Evan's initiating projects was his lack of follow through (1/17-0-3, 4/3-0-1). He would sometimes have great ideas but not complete working on them. For example, he said he wanted to be in the puppet show at the Human Rights Parent Night but then forgot to bring in the permission slip (4/3-0-1) and mixed up in his mind which night the event took place so that he missed it completely (4/9-0-1). If a project involved any writing, this further hampered his efforts as his writing and spelling skills were below average for a student his age.

Socially, Evan was a typical preadolescent boy. Most of the time he got along well with the boys, but he frequently teased or insulted the girls (12/10-0-6, 1/14-0-6, 2/7-0-8, 2/13-T-4, 3/19-0-4, 3/21-0-6, 4/29-0-3, 5/1-0-3, 5/13-0-2, 6/6-0-13). Within a thirty second period, I observed Evan snarl at Lizbeth and then offer to get John a paper and sharpen his pencil because John's knee was hurt (5/1-0-3, 4).

Although Evan could be empathic toward others, he could just as easily be insensitive to their feelings. Evan reached out to a new boy who joined the class in May and concluded in a letter to him "P.S. I know how hard it is being the new kid. Stay the way you (are) now" (5/10-0-2). Playing in the gym, Evan might either cheer his classmates on (1/3-0-3) or exclude them from the game (2/7-0-9).

I conclude that Evan did not have a particularly strong prosocial orientation or empathic capability motivating his empowering actions. Though many of his projects were helpful to others, Evan was more interested in empowerment and activity for
the pleasure they gave him personally than for the benefits to others.

The most striking aspect about Evan to me was his interest in and knowledge about world events and history. Most mornings he watched Good Morning America on television with his mother before school (6/3-0-9). Thus, when Sarah asked the class to come up with a list of spelling words based on words they had been using in class, Evan offered "Iraq" (12/10-0-2). Before the human rights unit began, Evan shared clear ideas about civil rights in the United States and in South Africa as well as accurate information about Rosa Parks (1/7-0-4.5.6).

Evan was very concerned in the days before the Persian Gulf war. He had been attentive to the events leading up to the war and had proposed that the class write letters to American soldiers in the Middle East (1/7-T-9). Although his information about the war was not always accurate, Evan contributed many ideas and concerns in a class discussion on the topic (1/14-T-1. 2. 3. 4).

When the Persian Gulf war began in mid January, it became an obsession for Evan. He came in the morning after the war started and wrote "The War!" on the agenda for our class conference that day (1/17-0-1). All morning he and Kristin kept asking when the President was going to be on television. He put up the war as a topic for discussion at two other class conferences as well.

Evan and a few others worked on a videotaped "news" show about the Middle East with the school librarian. During a discussion in the library, Evan got up out of his seat and walked over to the
television. Flipping channels until he found the news. "When we watch the news, it's basically all we watch," he shared (1/21-0-2).

When asked what colors the war brought to mind, both Kristin and Andre said red and black. Evan, in his factual approach to the issue, said he thought of peach for the sand and green for the army outfits (1/21-0-2). In response to Andre saying that the news is depressing and Kristin sharing how the television showed "a guy's head crushed by a tank," Evan stated, "Unofficially there are twenty eight nations involved" (1/21-0-3).

At times though, Evan gave up his role as "expert" on the war, and was more emotional about the event. On the morning when the television reports said that Saddam Hussein might be giving the order to pull out of Kuwait, Evan came rushing into the classroom and excitedly asked, "Do you think it's going to happen? Do you think it's going to happen?" (2/15-0-1).

Evan's views of people were definitely affected by his exposure to the media. He had a strong pro-American and pro-White orientation even before the war, though it was strengthened by the news he watched during the crisis in the Middle East. Much earlier in the school year, when Shelley had been searching for a word that was the opposite of Indian, Evan offered with conviction, "human, regular people" (11/21-0-5). When Sarah did a history lesson on the Middle East and one of the students finally correctly guessed Iraq as where civilization began, Evan was aghast. "Those people!?.." he cried in disbelief (1/21-0-6).

The human rights unit followed on the heels of the Persian Gulf War. Evan provided a special challenge in my objective to help the
students empathize with others. In response to one of the first assignments in the human rights unit, to write a letter as though you were a child of color, Evan was still immersed in his pro-White/American/War perspective. His entry began, "My name is Stormin Norman, a 12 year old white child. I like playing sports. My best friend is Nicholas. I am treated well since we won the war. I like playing squirt guns..." (3/6-J1-1).

A number of other events further revealed that Evan felt being a White American was superior to any other cultural group. In a discussion about the meaning of the pledge of allegiance, Sarah asked a small group of students what they thought indivisible meant. Evan responded. "We're the best?" (3/11-T-5). Occasionally Evan would use stereotypes to put down different others, such as "old farts" (3/4-0-1) and "homos" (5/8-0-2). In an activity on identifying stereotypes, Evan said that his image of Indians was "feathers and a bow and arrow" (3/12-T-9). Placed in the context of the other children's remarks--"very serious," "geniuses, because of all the things they made to survive," "they liked to hunt," and "smart and intelligent"--his comment seems out of place, especially since the class had studied Native Americans in the fall.

Evan had a great deal of knowledge about human rights when we started the unit, though this information was also placed in a pro-American frame of mind. He was the only student who thought of human rights as legal protection initially. "They're laws you have to protect yourself," he wrote (3/4-J1-1). The notion of rights as legalized protection of property or privileges is more prevalent in western, democratic countries than in other parts of the world.
Two of Evan's responses in an activity called "Yes. No. Sometimes. Not Sure" revealed his pro-American position in regards to rights. Given the four answers in the title of the game, Evan answered "yes" to both of the following statements. "White people in the United States have more rights than many people in other parts of the world" and "People in the United States care more about their rights than people in other parts of the world" (3/5-P-2). In explaining his choices, he referred to both the Bill of Rights and that "the Revolutionary War protected our rights" (3/5-P-2). Although Evan had learned some history lessons, his responses reveal the drawbacks of focusing on human rights solely within the context of the United States.

As Evan participated in the human rights unit activities, he slowly started to change his attitude towards others. The following three events illustrate the tentative and transitory nature of this shift in Evan's thinking.

John, a sensitive boy in the class, was upset by all the pro-War talk among Evan and many of the other boys and brought in a book to share about the bombing of Hiroshima. After listening to the book, Evan wrote in his response journal,

I think it stinks about what happened back then. I thought we should drop a bomb like that on Iraq but after I saw what would happen if we did I changed my mind. I would hate if that happened to us (1/28-P-2).

Two weeks later, Sarah shared with me a discussion she had with the class. One of the boys had proposed that he was going to invent a nuclear bomb that would kill everyone but Americans. She shared,
Evan got into his bravado thing saying ya, ya, that would be great, a bomb that wouldn't kill Americans, that's great and then he could see that I was disturbed by that idea. He said that, well, don't you think that it's better for some innocent civilians in Iraq to be killed than for American soldiers to be killed? At which point I said, some people might say that. I want you to think about it...take one of those ten year old boys that live in Iraq and put him next to you. Would one of you be worth more than the other? (2/13-T-5,6)

Although at that point the boy who had said he was going to invent the bomb replied, "ya, ya, you're an American. Kill em." Evan just said, "well..."

The third related event took place towards the end of the human rights unit. Half of the class, including Evan, was working on an activity to identify examples of discrimination in the media. Sarah shared with me the following.

Then we talked about what's the media and he (Evan) said 'Well would bumper stickers be the media?' and I said 'sure' and he said, 'Well, here's a discriminating bumper sticker. It said Iraqis and then it had a circle with a slash across it so like, no Iraqis.' He said, 'But that is discriminating against all the Iraqis who are good people, not everybody was bad like Hussein.' Now this is a total turn around for Evan. (3/24-T-1).

Sarah went on to share that she felt that Evan's shift in thinking may have been due to the book on Hiroshima John brought in as well as the human rights unit activities.

Other activities which had a positive influence on Evan were the books we read and the visit from the high school ESL class. Evan was in a small group that read In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson. Evan enjoyed the book and wrote in his response journal, "I thought about how different life is for the people in China. I like Shirley Temple Wong a lot. I think she is unique because she is from
a different culture" (3/14-J1-1). Writing about a book on South African life that Sarah and I read aloud Evan wrote that he really liked one of the Black characters in the story. "She is the kind of person I would like to meet!," he concluded (3/19-J1-2).

Evan was also intrigued by some of the high school students, particularly a young man named Eugene.

I liked the guy who came from the Netherlands. He was cool. I thought he was funny and neat. He talked about how different it is in Holland, like there is no speed limit and no drinking age. He also said that people go 100 miles per hour (3/19-J1-1).

However, Evan's prejudices also were evident. In regards to a student with limited English speaking ability, Evan said, "I didn't really like the Vietnamese guy cause you couldn't understand what he was saying. He talked his own language" (3/19-T-1). Also, shortly after the high school students, including a young German woman, left, I overheard Evan say to another student, "I just hate the Germans. I just hate all Germans" (3/24-T-1).

Given where Evan started from in his thinking before the human rights unit, I think that he made some progress towards being more open and accepting of different others. The findings shared here illustrate how changing attitudes is not an easily completed task, but rather a process that includes both advances and setbacks.

Evan's development in understanding the concept of human rights was more successful. When I asked him what human rights are in his interview following the unit, he replied.
Oh, that's easy. It's just things that you have to protect you and that all people should have the same laws that you know, like the children's rights and that and just certain things you have, the right to be treated fairly and that (4/15-T-2).

Although this monologue is disjointed, there are many ideas about rights contained within it, going far beyond his initial idea of rights as personal protection. His response to the question "What will you most remember from the human rights unit?" also showed development in his understanding and valuing of human rights. "I think I'll remember that all children have the right to live in a safe and clean environment in love and peace." he answered.

Evan was one of very few children who referred back to the human rights work from time to time. When we were making lists one day of the similarities and differences among people the world over, it was Evan who said, "We all have rights" (3/11-J1-2). During a unit on New Hampshire, Sarah asked the class what rights the New Hampshire Constitution guaranteed them. Evan pointed to the list of rights I had posted on the wall during the unit and began reading them aloud (5/1-0-5).

Even Evan's spelling sentences revealed the impression the human rights unit had made on him. When asked to make up sentences for the words "should" and "equal" he wrote "All kids should have good parents" and "White and black people are equal" (5/7-0-2).

Finally, the human rights curriculum was most successful for Evan in providing opportunities for him to strengthen his sense of personal empowerment. As mentioned previously, this was already a strong area for Evan. Through both the democratic processes and the
social action projects. Evan enthusiastically offered ideas and initiated activities.

Although Evan was one of the boys who chose to opt out of a few class conferences because they were "boring," he was also one of the most enthusiastic participants in the democratic process. He wrote up six agenda items, was on class council three times, and when he was absent during a week he was on the council, pleaded to be able to have his turn the following week (4/10-0-2). Evan spoke at every meeting he attended and often it was his projects, ideas, or perceptions of problems in the class that were instrumental to those meetings' successes.

Evan was responsible for many of the activities initiated by students, including the school recycling project (11/7-0-3), letter writing to soldiers in the Middle East (1/7-T-9), developing a class bill of rights (3/5-0-2), and revising the reward for a game in the New Hampshire unit (4/29-0-2). It was Evan’s idea to propose the right to wear hats and chew gum, a popular idea that engendered further discussions, proposal writing, and petitions to the principal. He also copied mazes for the class (5/227-0-4) and took a leadership role in whole group cooperative activities (5/20-T-1, 6/6-T-1).

Although Evan was out sick during the puppet project, he was the most ardent participant in both the brownie sale and the Yard/Bake Sale/Bottle Return event. During the interview following the human rights unit, I asked Evan which activity he thought he would best remember. He referred to the brownie sale, which at that point had not even happened yet. "When are we gonna do that?"
Are we gonna stay in for this recess?" he implored. When I said we could he responded, "Ya. Could we? Could we? Ya!" (4/15-T-3).

Evan was so excited about the Yard/Bake Sale/Bottle Return event that he insisted it be at his house (5/29-0-1). He attended planning meetings (5/13-0-1, 6/3-0-1), contributed items to sell, spent a good deal of his own money at the sale (6/8-0-5) and although he was obviously bored for some of it, stayed and helped clean up at the end (6/8-0-3). He also facilitated a class conference on brainstorming ways to spend the yard sale money (5/28-T-all).

It was Evan's suggestion to donate some of the money to a family in Ethiopia (5/28-T-3). On the sheet indicating his personal choice for how to spend the money, he divided it between atlases, pencils, and the local community kitchen. When asked what he learned about himself through the social action projects, Evan wrote, "I learned that I am a good person" (6/11-P-1).

Conclusions

Evan's profile illustrates both the potential and the limitations of instruction in human rights with a child who is prejudiced against different others. Although many of the human rights activities contributed to a shift in Evan's thinking about some others, his prejudices did not completely disappear.

Exploring the development of both human rights understanding and the personal empowerment in Evan's life revealed greater success. Evan was able to greatly expand his ideas about human rights as well as strengthen his natural inclination towards initiating and participating in helpful projects. Although Evan was mostly interested in the action projects because he liked to be
involved and active, it is important to note that he also furthered his self-esteem as a result of his participation.

Chapter Summary

Although Evan and Jennifer are very different people, their stories highlight some key points in regards to human rights instruction. First, children build upon their existing knowledge, experiences, and personality characteristics. Though as teachers we may wish that they come to our classrooms as blank slates, ready to absorb all that we have to offer, this is clearly not the case. Jennifer developed greater empathy in part because she was already very empathic. The same can be said about Evan in regards to his development of personal empowerment.

Second, there are important influences on children's personalities and learning that take place outside of the classroom. For Jennifer, family support for sharing her feelings and a strong, Christian, prosocial orientation were key factors in her responses to the human rights unit. For Evan, the television news shows he watched fostered a strong pro-White and pro-American point of view. Certainly these are not the only outside influences on these children; there were probably many others.

The findings in this chapter indicate that instruction in the classroom--through simulations, literature, democratic processes, social action projects, and other activities--can make a difference in children's learning about critical issues such as human rights. Classroom activities can bring about changes in attitudes, knowledge, skills, behavior, and self identity. Although these
effects are tempered by the other factors cited above and do not always proceed in a linear manner. They do occur, even in difficult situations such as working against a strong prejudice.

Jennifer and Evan each have a distinctive style in their prosocial behavior that is referred to in the literature. Larrieu and Mussen (1986) observed fourth graders' playground behavior and found the girls' prosocial behaviors to be more expressive and caring, whereas the boys' behaviors were more active and instrumental. This difference can be seen in Jennifer and Evan.

Both Jennifer and Evan wrote that they learned from their social action involvements that they were "good" people. It is likely that both of the children are at the stage where they believe that being nice so that others will think well of you is equated with being a "good" person (Kohlberg, 1968, 1969; Lickona, 1983).

The profiles of Jennifer and Evan have contributed to further understanding of the critical issues involved in teaching human rights at the intermediate level. These issues and their implications, along with those from Chapter 5, will be discussed in the final chapter of this study.
CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Restatement of the Problem

This dissertation focuses on the design and implementation of a human rights curriculum in a fourth grade, public school classroom. Human rights education was chosen as an effective means for combining multicultural, moral, global, and civic concerns at the intermediate level. The study examines students' responses to the democratic, action oriented curriculum in terms of their thinking about human rights, themselves, and others: their peer relations; and their involvement in social action projects.

A model human rights curriculum was designed based on a review of the few existing human rights programs for the elementary level and in consideration of the essential elements of a human rights curriculum as determined by scholars in the field. Two studies exploring students' responses to human rights education were also instrumental in the design of the curriculum. The curriculum is detailed in Appendix F. The limitations of the curriculum are discussed later in this chapter.

A site for the study was chosen based on my familiarity with the teacher, principal, and school, as well as the suitability of the student group. Access negotiations with both the principal and the classroom teacher proceeded without problems. Parental permission for participation in the study was obtained from all but one of the students' parents.
The study was divided into two periods, early participation (October 1990 through February 1991) and late participation (March 1991 through June 1991) for purposes of analysis. The findings were considered in light of the reviews of the literatures on human rights education, preadolescents' social and moral development, and children's prosocial behavior. The findings during the early and late participation periods were reported in Chapters 4 and 5 respectively and are discussed further in this chapter. In Chapter 6, profiles of two children were presented to highlight findings from the class as a whole as well as to raise new issues pertinent to teaching human rights with intermediate level students.

Data collection methods during the two periods included participant observation, interviews, audiotaping key discussions and classroom events, videotaping, and document analysis. Feedback sheets from the students, parents, the classroom teacher, and other teachers in the school were helpful in establishing reliability and confirmability.

This qualitative case study reveals many key issues in regards to teaching human rights education to preadolescent children. The findings may be helpful to upper elementary level educators who wish to incorporate a human rights focus in their curriculum. They also point to the potential problems and limitations of this pursuit.

**Findings**

This part of the chapter briefly reviews the major findings from chapters four, five, and six and explores the issues inherent in these analyses. The findings of this study, as a whole, point to one
primary ideas. First, students' personal experiences, developmental levels, and family and cultural backgrounds strongly influence their ideas, interests, and subsequent learning concerning human rights. Second, the curriculum and classroom context are also powerful influences on students' learning. Thus, the students' backgrounds, their relationships, and the curriculum dynamically interact with each other as students learn. These points will be addressed in the discussions in the following sections on understanding human rights, understanding others, empowerment, and peer relations.

Understanding Human Rights

Students' backgrounds and personal experiences strongly affected their definitions of human rights and their reactions to rights activities in the curriculum. The students began the human rights unit with varying definitions. A few saw rights as legalized protection. This understanding of human rights was most likely a product of learning about rights in the context of being White, middle class, and from the United States. The notion of human rights in many other countries and cultures focuses on social rights in addition to the political rights with which these students were more familiar.

The predominant definition of human rights was "doing what you want to do." For preadolescents, who are developing great interest in having more independence in their lives, the freedom inherent in human rights was easily interpreted as being able to do things they saw adults doing. Although this included legal rights such as voting and getting a driver's license, the students seemed even more interested in going to bed when they wanted to, choosing
their own social lives, riding their bikes as far as they wanted to, or "the rights to run their own life" (3/4-J10-1).

Students' development in their understanding of human rights during the human rights unit was intricately linked with their personal experiences, personalities, and family and cultural backgrounds. Yet despite these differences, most students' definitions of human rights were expanded as a result of the unit studies. Students who began the unit with clearer ideas about the nature of human rights were more successful in furthering their learning. This is due to the fact that these students had a mental framework about human rights with which to integrate their subsequent learning.

A few students did not expand their definitions of human rights at all. These students, both before and after the unit, defined human rights as "doing what you want to do." It appears as though they adapted the human rights activities to fit their original conception and perhaps ignored learnings that did not relate to their first definition.

A third type of response from some of the students was to focus on a specific aspect of human rights, related in some meaningful way to their personal lives. For example, Joanne, a child from a large family who wanted to be rich and have more possessions, focused on the economic inequalities associated with the denial of human rights. Another girl, a victim of sexual abuse during her early school years, developed her definition of rights around telling people what they can and can't do to your body.
Some students, such as Claire, Andre, Julie, and Jennifer, were more empathic and their interest in and responses to many of the human rights unit activities were more emotional than many of the other students. Empowering activities, such as developing the Class Bill of Rights, while interesting to many of the children, were most appealing to children such as Evan and Kristin, who had strong needs to be active and powerful in their lives.

The students were strong influences on each other's thinking and behavior, particularly in some of the more interactive activities, such as the Class Bill of Rights and the Purple People simulation. Students with stronger personalities influenced the voting on which rights to include, for example.

Because human rights is such a broad and diverse field, the students had opportunities to relate to different aspects of the study. Some children were fascinated with the potential violence and abuse issues; others were interested in quality of life concerns or the idea of racial equality. Many of the students who spoke of their deep concern for the mistreatment of people from other cultural groups were students who had had more personal experiences with people from other cultures. The connections between learning and personal experience became more evident as I came to know the children and then looked at their journal entries, drawings, and discussion comments.

The fact that almost all of the these students were from White, middle class, United States backgrounds also was key in their responses to the curriculum. Having grown up with plenty of food, clothing, and medical care, some of the children found it difficult to
relate to these social rights. Both John and Thad felt that human rights had nothing to do with their lives because they already had their rights. A few other students saw human rights as an issue largely in regards to people of color. However, a few children expressed gratitude for the rights they had and a few others acknowledged the importance of human rights in their lives.

Understanding Others

Again, the role of personal experience and background was critical in students' thinking about distant and different others. In exploring prejudice and stereotyping, the students' limited experiences with people from different cultures contributed to perspectives based largely on the media and impressions shared by others, rather than through personal experience. The students were more familiar with stereotypes for groups with which they had frequent contact, such as boys, girls, and the elderly.

Many of the children strongly supported the principle of cultural equality. Support for the equality of all human beings, while largely positive, also had a negative aspect. Most of the students asserted that we are all equal and that therefore cultural differences do not matter.

When the students were asked to write a journal entry from the perspective of a child of color, most of the entries were very superficial, again due to their limited experiences. Children with limited cultural experiences need to be challenged to learn about, appreciate, and see the importance of cultural differences in people's lives while at the same time honoring the equality of all people.
Although the students did not reveal deep prejudices in the human rights activities, it is unclear whether they in fact had few prejudices or whether these were not readily apparent. Students' prejudices might have been revealed if they were in a multicultural school environment or if the classroom activities were structured differently. Also, it is probable that the students' were concerned with giving appropriate and kind responses. Understanding the prejudices of White children in a largely monocultural community is a complex endeavor that deserves greater research efforts.

The curriculum strengthened students' tendencies towards interest and curiosity in "others." Activities involving simulated oppressive experiences, children's literature about children from different cultures, and a visit to the classroom from ESL students were successful to the extent that they touched on some aspect of the preadolescents' feelings or previous life experiences.

The simulations, often mentioned as the aspect of the human rights unit that would be most remembered later on, made an impression on the students because they experienced, albeit in simulated form, oppressive conditions. Their feelings were engaged and their direct experience in the simulations gave them a framework with which to relate discussions about others who are oppressed in the world.

In the children's literature books read by and to the students, the children were able to relate to the characters in the stories through our common human emotions and experiences. Themes in the book such as fear, embarrassment, pride, love, and courage were ones that the children could identify in their own lives. Although
the times, places, and cultures were different, the children used these connections to develop further understanding of the children in the stories and their life conditions.

The ESL students' visit to the fourth grade classroom captivated students' interests because it was a real experience. They were no longer reading about others or even engaging in simulations. Meeting and talking to people from other cultures, asking them questions about their lives, and then comparing what they heard and saw with their previously held stereotypes was an effective learning experience for developing cultural understanding and perspective taking. Although this experience was largely a positive one for the students, it is important to note that interaction alone will not eliminate prejudice and stereotyping. Students need to dialogue before and after the experience, and critically examine their feelings and attitudes.

**Empowerment**

Students' interests in engaging in empowering activities—helping out with classroom tasks and participating in the democratic practices and social action projects—were related to their personalities and previous experiences with empowerment. Some of the children, such as Kristin, Evan, and Susannah, were "doers" who looked for any and every opportunity to be involved. Not surprisingly, these students were some of the strongest participants in the aforementioned activities.

However, there seemed to be a slight "contagion" effect with the democratic practices and social action projects. Many of the other students who were not frequent helpers or initiators in the
classroom became enthusiastically involved in these projects. There were only a few children who seemed not to be motivated by these activities.

The students' reactions to the social action projects were strongly connected with their interests. For the students who just wanted to be active, it didn't matter what the specific cause was. A few other students, such as Andre, were motivated to be involved because of wanting to do something helpful for others. It was important for many of the students that the project be fun. It is significant to note, however, that regardless of the students' initial motivations for being involved in a social action project, their images of themselves as helpful, caring, and "good" people were fostered.

In general, the students were more interested in projects that benefitted themselves or those in their school or community, though a few children expressed interest in working to change the lives of those in far away places. Again, this finding supports the fact that empathy and perspective taking for distant others is slowly developing during preadolescence.

Finally, when discussing issues of empowerment with White public school children, one cannot overlook the important influence of the larger societal context. White, middle class culture in this country promotes competition and individualism more than cooperation and responsibility to others. As the public school system in this town is a product of this culture, the former values are more evident in the children's school life as well. Sometimes this difference is subtle to detect. For example, in this classroom
students were asked to volunteer for class jobs each week but there was no expressed expectation that as members of the class community everyone should participate. In actuality, a few of the students did not help out much while others frequently had weekly jobs.

Bricker (1989) notes that most schools teach students "to believe that to be a good citizen one must simply stay within one's own morally protected space—that space prescribed by the idea of possession—and never to serve others and join with others" (p. 3). Partly because of this climate in the school and community, students were not as open to recognizing their responsibilities to others as they were to understanding their own rights.

Peer Relations

The findings on peer relations in chapters four and five reveal that there were only a few changes in students' interactions with each other during the school year. These included less teasing, aggression, and exclusion, and more incidents of working well together without complaints. However, insults remained at a high level throughout the year and all types of both negative and positive behaviors were evident in both periods. The fact that students' friendships were very changeable was also discussed.

It is likely that the few positive changes in peer relations were due to maturation, the use of inductive reasoning, and more frequent use of group tasks towards the end of the year. It is less likely that any of these changes were due to human rights instruction.
This is largely due to the students' developmental levels. Most preadolescents are concrete thinkers and are not yet capable of abstract thought. Thus, most of the students did not identify events in their lives in the context of human rights. Some students could connect the abstract notion of human rights with their lives when requested to do so or when given a list of rights to think about, but there were only rare instances of students making these connections on their own.

In general, the students had much less success with developing their perspective taking and empathy for their peers than for distant and different others. As noted in the literature review, development of these abilities is a "growing edge" for preadolescent children. Many are still primarily acting largely out of self interest and with limited understanding of another's point of view. Others, however, begin to develop a deep concern for the suffering of others at this stage of development.

I surmise that the development of empathy in peer relations was less prevalent than I had hoped because of their limited skills in perspective taking as well as other key factors in preadolescent social relations. Cross sex distaste and preservation of one's position in a group through gossiping about or excluding others are common at this age. In addition, many of the children in this classroom had low self-esteem, including two of the boys with the most influential personalities in the class.

Some of the children in this class had annoying personality traits and behaviors. Because most of the children had already spent four years of schooling together and had developed relationships
with each other over those years, changing students' attitudes about and behaviors towards each other was a more difficult task than modifying their perspectives towards distant others.

**Conclusions**

The findings discussed here illustrate the importance of the dynamic between children's personal experiences and backgrounds and the classroom context and activities in their subsequent learning. While the students' interests and ideas were influenced by their personalities, their family backgrounds, their cultural backgrounds, and their experiences both in and outside of school, they were also strongly affected by the social relationships in the classroom and the curriculum activities. The implications of these findings will be discussed later on in this chapter.

**Issues and Problems in Conducting the Study**

There were a number of issues and problems associated with the study. Some of these were evident during the process of data collection while others were revealed in the analysis phase. They include my questioning about the appropriateness of teaching human rights, unpredictable events, and limitations in the data collection methods and the curriculum. Issues about being an outsider were discussed in Chapter 3.

**Questions about Teaching Human Rights**

Throughout the study I have had questions about the appropriateness of teaching human rights in the elementary school. I still continue to ponder how much I am bringing my own issues into the school setting, what aspects of human rights are suitable for
upper elementary students, and how to teach about human rights in ways that are meaningful and inspiring rather than ineffective or depressing. At times during the study I felt that I was taking the innocence of childhood away from the children with whom I was working and that teaching them too much about the problems in the world was unfair to them.

Surprisingly, this concern was not shared by the children's parents. They were overwhelmingly supportive of their children's involvement in human rights studies. Although the principal had expressed to me early on that he thought some of the parents would have questions or hesitations about the human rights study, none of them presented any to me or the classroom teacher. In the feedback sheets, many parents wrote about their child's new awareness of world conditions and interest in human rights issues (5/3-P-2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9). A number of parents expressed their appreciation for the human rights study (5/3-P-1,5,12). "I feel it was a valuable and enriching experience," wrote Kristin's mother (5/3-P-5).

Despite this positive feedback, I was and am still concerned about how to best teach about human rights issues to elementary children. My questions and thoughts led me to interview a colleague, Hannah, who teaches about using children's literature on the Holocaust at the elementary level. I interviewed her and asked her to tell me why she teaches about human rights issues and how she sees this work as appropriate educationally for preadolescents. Our conversation helped to further my perspective on these issues and to consider new ideas as well.
Hannah shared that she felt human rights education should begin very early in children's schooling. "I think individual human rights are a beginning point no matter how old you are," she asserted (5/29-T-2). She quickly added, though, that human rights instruction must be age appropriate.

In the literature that I'm dealing with the very detailed descriptions of the atrocities don't occur. Not until they're like way into junior high or high school and then it becomes something you can deal with. You can deal with the concepts or the idea of having one's rights violated without getting really descriptive (5/29-T-2).

Hannah shared that she felt that children are not living in a bubble and that because of the media they are already exposed to many human rights issues in the world. "We've got Kurdish refugees in our living room, we've got Bangladesh cyclone victims at the dinner table with us, the world is too small" (5/29-T-4).

She continued that children need to be given the skills to cope with these issues and, I added, the opportunities to effect change in them in some small way. We both agreed that it was important to balance learning about problems in the world with fostering a sense of appreciation for the wonder and beauty in life. Finally, we acknowledged that every child is different, that some children will not relate to human rights issues and that others may become deeply concerned about other's misfortunes.

My exploration of how, when, and why to teach human rights will continue within myself and in conversation with other educators, including those who may feel that human rights is an inappropriate topic for the elementary level. Discussing these
issues with Hannah helped me to feel more confidence about the importance of finding developmentally appropriate and balanced ways to deal with human rights issues with children.

**Unpredictable Events**

A number of events occurred during the study that could not be controlled and possibly had major effects on the findings. The most important of these was the Persian Gulf War. Many of the students were so preoccupied during January and February with the war in general and their relatives and family friends who were fighting in the Persian Gulf that it became a constant topic for discussion.

I had not planned to have the human rights unit fall on the heels of this war. Early in the fall, the classroom teacher and I had chosen the month of March as the only workable time for the unit. Teaching about human rights after the war had both advantages and disadvantages. On the plus side, the students had a real issue in the world to think about in regards to human rights. However, I think it was hard emotionally for some students to deal with both the war and the human rights study during a short amount of time. By the end of the unit, Sarah and I both felt that the students needed to spend some time studying something light and fun.

The second unpredictable event occurred during the week after the human rights unit. Originally I had hoped that during this period of time, students would begin proposing social action project ideas and we would begin working on them. However, I learned in March that the first week in April would be consumed entirely by standardized testing. The students spent most of each day sitting quietly in their seats taking reading, math, and spelling tests.
Although other reasons have been cited as to why the students did not initiate many social action projects. I question to what extent this week of testing might have further deterred this pursuit.

There were also many smaller events that took place. I had anticipated that it would be relatively simple to get permission from all the students' parents to include them in the study. One parent decided not to give permission and this influenced how I could write about my findings. Also, children were absent on occasion, sometimes for lengthy periods of time. For example, Susannah was in Florida for the entire first week of the human rights unit and Evan was out sick when we did the puppet project.

Life is not entirely predictable, and therefore, neither are the events that occur during a research study. These unforeseen incidents did effect the study in significant to subtle ways.

Limitations in Data Collection Methods

Not surprisingly, the data collection methods did not always work out as planned. I was disappointed with lack of follow through on the part of some of the adults from whom I had hoped to get feedback. There were also difficulties at times with audiovisual equipment and the children's reactions to the data collection methods. Finally, as a researcher, my biases, moods, and perspectives effected the data collection process in key ways described later in this section.

In order to triangulate the data and gather more opinions about the changes, or lack of them, that the students had experienced, I asked Sarah, other teachers in the school who had worked with the group, and the students' parents to share their impressions via
feedback sheets. (See Appendix G). Fifteen of the seventeen students' parents returned their sheets. Only one of the teachers in the school did so. With some of the teachers I was able to have brief conversations or informal interviews to obtain their impressions but I was not able to do this with everyone I had wanted to.

Sarah was given a special sheet to record key events that occurred when I was not in the classroom. She filled out this sheet for a few weeks and then stopped as she was not committed to the process. We did, however, continue to have at least bi-weekly taped conversations where she shared her impressions of events in the classroom with me.

The lack of follow through on the part of these adults taught me something important about research. One should either expect that others will not always comply with outside requests for help or the researcher should try to get a commitment from all the people who will be involved in the research at the beginning of the study. If I had met with the staff and explained the importance of their feedback, this might have helped. I know I was reluctant to be assertive in obtaining their and Sarah's feedback, partly because this effort took place at the end of the school year when everyone was low on energy.

A second issue in the data collection process was less significant but worthy of mention. Occasionally my tape recorder was not working or the batteries ran low. Sometimes, due to the open school arrangement, I was not able to hear voices on the tape as clearly as I would have liked. However, most of the time this was not a problem and I quickly learned how to identify all eighteen
voices easily. I found that transcribing the tapes within a day or two, a self-imposed rule I adhered to almost religiously, greatly assisted me in the transcription process.

Third, I was aware that some of the children responded quite differently, depending on what data collection method was being used. For example, Claire wrote eloquently in her journal but was very shy when interviewed one on one. Evan, with his limited writing skills, was adept in verbal expression of any sort. Some of the children were reluctant to speak in the large group or to express their opinions when their friends had shared an opposite point of view. There may have been frequent occurrences of children responding in ways they thought Sarah or I wanted them to, rather than how they truly thought or felt.

Although I was not able to be fully aware of all these effects, I did try to vary the data collection methods to offer different avenues of expression. Often I would have children both write in their journals and discuss their reactions to an activity. Small and large group discussions, one on one interviews, and artwork were also used.

Although I tried to be aware of my biases as the study progressed, I know that I was not a neutral participant-observer and that there were many ways my moods and perspectives effected the data collection process. Some days I was simply tired or less enthusiastic about being in the classroom. On these days my observations were probably less detailed or perceptive.

As mentioned previously, I was not present in the classroom all day every day so I often needed to rely on Sarah's interpretations
of events relevant to the study. Also, although I tried to pay attention to all the children, there were certain students I found more interesting and I focused on them more at times. However, the process of keeping daily record sheets that listed the pages of my logs and transcripts that mentioned each child helped me to make sure I was not ignoring or overly focusing on any one child for a even a few days at a time.

Finally, I often had to make a choice about whether to observe and collect data or interact with the children, including intervening in their conflicts. At times I chose the former in order to record detailed observations. At other times I felt it was more important to be the authority, redirect students' behavior, or stop a potentially negative situation from escalating. Each of these "research moments" presented me with a choice of different types of data and different types of outcomes, all of which had their strengths and limitations.

Limitations in the Curriculum

Although I began the study with an extensive review of theory and practice in human rights education and attempted to create a "model" curriculum based on this literature, in practice, the curriculum was less than perfect.

First, there is only so much that can be addressed in one month long unit. Given that the four week unit was aimed at effecting changes in students' thinking and behaviors over nine to eleven years of life and four plus years of schooling, small changes must be seen as measures of success. Undoubtedly there will be "gaps" in what is presented. No one human rights unit can focus on all the key
learnings in this important field from which students of this age could benefit.

Some of the curricular limitations came about through conscious choice. For example, I wanted to try a variety of strategies and touch on many issues to see how children would respond. Although I learned a lot through this approach, I also felt that this "smorgasbord" treatment of human rights issues did not allow the class to go into great depth with any one topic.

I realize now that part of my choice to cover many topics briefly was prompted unconsciously by my own discomfort in looking at issues around prejudice and discrimination. I now see many ways that I could have encouraged the students and myself to go "deeper." in analyzing our own prejudices, in interacting directly with different others in the school and the community, and in exploring the connections between rights and responsibilities.

One of the negative side effects of covering many topics in a short time was that I unconsciously reinforced some stereotypical thinking. Students' thinking and attitudes towards Blacks were a case in point. We read two books about Blacks, one about poor South African children and one about poor southern Black children in this country in the early 1900's. We also discussed the oppressive conditions in many inner city schools where there are large Black and Hispanic populations.

I realized in horror towards the end of the study that many of the students had developed the belief that all Blacks are poor. This is one of just a few deep regrets I have about the study. If I could go back in time, I would make sure that students also were exposed to
information about rich Blacks, middle class Blacks, professional Blacks, and so forth. I now feel strongly about the importance of teaching about topics, and especially cultural groups and related issues, comprehensively enough to eliminate stereotypes and prejudices rather than unwittingly reinforce them.

There were other realizations that made me aware that my own perspective on multicultural issues is still evolving. When I had the students draw pictures to assess their prejudices I asked them to draw a white child and a child of color, each engaged in an activity. I realized later on that I was essentially lumping all people of color in one category, that there were White people and then there were other people.

This perspective was also evident in the "Purple" People simulation. Dividing the children into two groups, I labeled them either White or Purple, a color chosen to represent any person of color. While it is not surprising to me that as a White person, I tend to see the world from a White/Other perspective. I do find it limiting and embarrassing to write about. I take heart, however, in the fact that now that I am aware of this issue: I can work on it and change it.

There were also limitations in my initial understanding of human rights that effected my work with the students. I am still developing more clarity about human rights and exploring various perspectives on what rights are, including the personal freedom to "do what you want," legal protections, individual privileges, and actions and conditions which contribute to a just and humane world. I am also thinking about cultural and developmental biases about the
definition of human rights in ways that I was not capable of before this study.

Another limitation of the curriculum that related to a more conscious choice on my part concerns the relationship between rights and responsible behavior. I focused on this connection in many of the social action projects and the democratic process. but I intentionally decided to see if the children would cognitively connect these experiences as well as their behavior towards each other in the context of responsibility to uphold other's rights. For the most part they did not. Although I learned a valuable lesson through this choice. I now want to conduct a study where this connection is stressed both in actions and words and see how the children respond.

**Conclusions**

These issues and problems have taught me that qualitative research, even with the best laid plans, is at times a "messy" and unpredictable endeavor. It is also a source for exploring and evolving my understanding of the research process and the issues I am studying. Conducting this study has left me with questions, a few new insights, and a strong sense that though research is never perfect, it can contribute to both my own personal growth and useful findings for others.

**Implications**

There are several implications indicated by the findings of this study. The problems and successes in teaching human rights in this fourth grade class suggest important directions for curriculum
development in any subject area at the upper elementary level and for teaching about prejudice, stereotyping, and cultural awareness in particular.

Because children come to the learning environment with a personality, a family and cultural background, and a wealth of personal experiences, educators cannot assume that they are “blank slates” that will simply record objectively what is taught. This study has revealed often that students made personal meaning of classroom lessons by connecting the information with an idea, experience, or quality with which they were already familiar.

This simple fact has two specific implications for teaching. The first is that educators must find out what students think about a topic in order to meet them where they are and guide them effectively in taking the next step in their learning. Often students will have developed misconceptions which need to be discussed and explored. For example, students in this study who thought that human rights were just “doing what you want” needed to discuss and expand their conception beyond this developmental interpretation.

Having students share their knowledge about a topic with each other can serve a number of useful purposes. It can help the teacher learn about the children, their knowledge base on an issue, and the aspects of the topic that they have been most attracted to in the past and have therefore retained. Sharing with each other can also be an activity which contributes to expanding students’ knowledge as they listen to each other and think about new ideas.

The second implication is that educators need to focus on activities that will touch students personally and expand both their
knowledge and their experience with a topic. In the human rights curriculum developed for this study, many of the activities successfully met these objectives. The simulations and the children's literature touched children's feelings and thus made an impression on them. The visit from the high school ESL class and the social action projects are two examples of activities which contributed to the store of experiences students were developing on rights, responsibilities, and people from other cultures.

Although children come to the learning situation with pre-existing attitudes, values, experiences, and personalities, education which touches them personally can make a difference. Many of the activities were effective in helping children further develop their ideas and attitudes about themselves and others. Thus there are both limitations and exciting possibilities in teaching children about almost any subject matter.

Educators must also be aware of and work with the social dynamic in the classroom. Particularly in large group activities, leaders in the class may influence the opinions of other students. This was perhaps most evident in the students' decision to donate the Yard/Bake Sale money to the school playground fund. When asked individually, many of the students indicated they would have given at least some of the money to a cause which would benefit others in the community or world.

There are also implications from this study for teaching about prejudice, discrimination, and cultural issues in particular. I have been somewhat humbled in my attempt to design a "model" curriculum in realizing how difficult that task is. Teaching
multicultural issues calls upon educators to become as aware as possible of their own perspectives and biases as well as to get in touch with those of their students. Through the implementation of this curriculum I saw how easily stereotypes can be reinforced if one does not maintain a high level of awareness about what messages the students are creating based on the curriculum and their own prior thinking.

It is important for educators to teach comprehensively enough about cultural groups and issues of oppression so that stereotypes and prejudices are reduced rather than strengthened. This may mean teaching more indepth information about specific cultural groups or referring to oppression issues throughout the school year in a variety of contexts. Although teaching a month long unit was suitable for this exploratory study, I think that integrating human rights issues throughout the school year in a variety of subjects may be a better approach at the elementary level.

Part of this comprehensive approach should be to challenge children to honor the equality of all people while seeing the importance of cultural differences in people's lives. Some of the children in this study became "color blind" and felt simply that color or culture did not matter in any way.

Despite these limitations, the curriculum was successful in many ways and educators can take heart in the fact that educational instruction can make a difference. Although not all of the students developed a thorough understanding of human rights, most of them built upon their previous ideas and seemed to strengthen initially tentative beliefs in the equality of all human beings. For the most
part, the students were open to learning about and appreciating cultural differences and were excited about working on social action projects, even if for self-centered reasons. All of these findings affirm that the upper elementary level is a suitable and important time to include a human rights focus in the curriculum. If the activities are presented in ways that are enjoyable and meaningful to the children, interest in human rights and social action work can be effectively fostered in preadolescence.

This study also points to the difficulties in working to change students' attitudes and behaviors towards their peers. According to the literature on preadolescent social relations, this group of students evidenced many typical difficulties in getting along with each other.

Methods such as the use of inductive reasoning, cooperative learning, democratic class meetings, and large group tasks appear to be more effective means of developing positive relationships than a cognitive approach which refers to principles which may appear abstract and which children are unlikely to apply to their daily lives. Changing peer relations that have been negative for many years takes time and cross sex hostility may be particularly resistant to educators' influences at this age.

Conclusions

Teaching about human rights and cultural issues at the elementary level is a worthy, yet challenging task. Educators who wish to succeed in this endeavor need to learn about the pre-existing ideas with which students enter the classroom and be aware of their own perspectives and biases as well. An integrated,
comprehensive, and developmentally appropriate approach to these issues will most likely maximize student learning.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

This exploratory study opens up numerous possibilities for further inquiry. Each aspect of the curriculum--direct teaching of human rights issues, democratic processes, and social action projects--could be topics of study on their own. Varying the settings and populations of these studies would reveal interesting findings. In addition, studies focused on teachers who bring a human rights focus to their work might guide human rights curriculum developers and pre- and inservice trainers in their work.

Some of the variations would be pertinent to learning about how to most effectively teach human rights. For example, human rights curricula could be implemented in fifth and sixth grade classrooms, in settings with diverse populations, and in student groups outside of public schools. Each of these variations might reveal important aspects of human rights teaching for certain ages or groups or critical elements in human rights instruction in any setting or population.

It would be interesting to conduct a study where there was stronger emphasis on the connection between rights and responsibilities. I suspect that students would make stronger connections between their actions and their understanding of human rights if the teacher consistently highlighted the importance of acting responsibly to support others' rights in the classroom and in the world.
Clearly, much more research on human rights education is needed for conclusive findings about the most effective approaches, settings, and activities. Some of the questions that might spur further research studies are the following:

- How does human rights education differ when it is taught in a traditional versus a democratic setting?
- At what age do students begin to make stronger connections between human rights instruction and their own daily behavior toward others?
- What are the differences in teaching human rights in multicultural versus monocultural settings?
- How do students respond to the idea of social action projects in a school setting which encourages student initiated learning?
- How do children from different cultural backgrounds and different types of communities vary in their openness towards others and their prejudices about those who are different from themselves?

These are just a few of the many possible questions that could be explored through qualitative and/or quantitative methods.

Although this study does not address human rights education from the teacher's point of view, this would also be a useful avenue of research. Teachers who already teach with a human rights focus could be interviewed about how and why they do this. Pilot approaches to pre- and inservice human rights education could be implemented and assessed. Also, a case study on an entire school or school district that has adopted a human rights emphasis might provide an important new model or highlight the importance of supportive networking.
Conclusions

These are just a few of the many possible research projects which could follow this exploratory study. In part because so few studies on human rights education have been conducted thus far, educators who wish to learn more about human rights instruction in the elementary classroom can create a full agenda of possible studies to increase their knowledge of this important field.

Chapter Summary

The findings, implications, and recommendations for further research related to this study were presented in this final chapter. Students' backgrounds and personalities, in conjunction with the classroom context and activities, were dynamic influences on their learning. This finding was revealed in all aspects of the study, including students responses to human rights instruction, democratic processes, and social action projects. The students' beliefs about themselves and others and their evolving definitions of human rights were influenced by their backgrounds and classroom instruction.

A number of problems and issues in the study were cited, including limitations in the data collection methods and the curriculum as well as unpredicted events and lack of follow-through by some informants. These issues led to important learnings about myself, the research process, and the challenging nature of teaching human rights effectively.

Some of the implications discussed are relevant for teaching any subject to elementary students. These include becoming aware
of children’s pre-existing knowledge and attitudes and providing them with meaningful experiences to build upon or change their thinking. Other implications, specific to teaching about human rights and cultural issues, are for educators to be aware of their own biases and to teach in ways that reduce rather than increase stereotypes and prejudice.

Finally, this exploratory study points the way to many viable research studies in various settings, with different populations of children, and with varying emphases on rights, responsibilities, cultural groups, and behavior towards others. Clearly, the present study has merely scratched the surface of a research agenda which could intrigue many scholars for a lifetime.

In Closing

This study, though small in scope, was guided by a much larger vision of a world in which all people respect each other and everyone is guaranteed basic human rights. Admittedly, we are a long way from realizing this goal. Yet we cannot know the long term effects of the "seed planting" of ideals and values for justice in the hearts of young people. Perhaps some of the children in this class will develop their concerns for others and grow up to be participatory citizens who make a difference in their world. I sincerely hope that this is so, and I strengthen my hope with the following words of Margaret Meade:

"Never doubt that a small group of concerned citizens can change the world; indeed, it's the only thing that ever has."
Why Study Human Rights in the Middle Childhood Years?

Middle childhood is a critical period for education about human rights because:

a. children at this age have reached a level of moral development where they are concerned with fairness and rules
b. their attitudes and concepts about themselves and others are not fixed and rigid, but still open to influence
c. there is much growth in role taking and interpersonal perspective taking during this period
d. there is a necessary degree of cognitive complexity and as well as a receptiveness to learning about different others (as opposed to the conformist adolescent)
e. empathy for victims of human rights violations is possible because the desire to preserve in-group solidarity is not yet as strong as in older adolescents

Goals of Human Rights Education

Human rights education is aimed at developing:

KNOWLEDGE

• of the basic concepts of human rights
• of the similarities and differences among human beings
• of one's own rights
• of one's responsibilities to uphold others' rights

SKILLS

• in critical and creative thinking
• in problem solving and decision making
• in moral reasoning
• in empathizing and being able to understand others' perspectives
• in planning and organizing for action projects

VALUES

• respect for self and others
• appreciation of diversity
• personal valuing of freedom, equality, and justice
• citizenship

Human rights education, when taught in an integrated day curriculum, is also aimed at developing skills in reading, writing, social studies, and other chosen subject areas.
Activities in a Human Rights Unit

1. What are basic human rights? Reading and discussing the Universal Declaration for Human Rights (simple version) and the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. View the UNICEF film, "What Rights has a Child?" and draw or paint illustrations depicting the ideal for each article in the Declaration. (The film shows children's illustrations from all over the world).

2. Make a large paper chain with the articles from the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. Students could hang news articles relating to each section from the related part of the chain, as well as stories, poems, or incidents from their lives that relate to that right.

3. Have upper elementary children promote younger children's rights by keeping a log of the personal actions they take and relating them to the articles in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. For example, "helped my little sister with her homework" (Principle 7).

4. List the similarities and differences between the UN Declarations and the US Bill of Rights (1991 is the Bicentennial of the Bill of Rights). Discussion questions: Are people everywhere interested in human rights? Do you think the US played a major role in promoting the UN declarations?

5. Take advantage of classroom, playground, lunch room, and other school locations to discuss the needs for both rights and responsibilities to uphold others rights. Employ class meetings and other democratic classroom strategies to support making the study of human rights real and concrete for fourth graders.

6. In small groups, have students read novels that explore human rights from the perspective of a child their age in another country. (See attached list). Questions and activities related to the novels would be developed to emphasize learning about human rights as well as reading and writing skills.

7. Drama, role-play, games, and simulations would be used to foster perspective taking and empathy for those whose rights have been violated. The gruesome details of torture would not be shared with this age level. Violations would focus on the fact that many
children do not have enough food to eat, are not able to attend school, or have access to adequate medical care.

8. The unit would culminate in an action project so that the students could have the opportunity to learn that human rights is something that they can value and have the capability to work for (at least in a small way). The specific project(s) would be decided upon by the children. Possibilities exist on both the local level (for example, helping at the Keene Community Kitchen or doing a project with Cedarcrest) as well as in the larger world (UNICEF, Amnesty International, and Oxfam America are three non-political organizations which have specific programs for children's participation). A fundraising activity could also work with this age group with the proceeds being donated to one of numerous groups working for children's rights.

These are just a few of many possible activities. More could be developed to teach and reinforce reading, writing, social studies, and other subject matter skills from the skills continuums.
To: Lou Ford  
From: Rahima Wade  
Date: 10/16/90  
Re: Proposal for Dissertation Research - Human Rights Education in Sarah Conley's 4th grade classroom

1. Description of the Study

This case study of a single fourth grade classroom will look at how students respond to a human rights unit. The focus of the study will be to describe how students' thinking and behavior changes as a result of the unit activities. Human rights is a developmentally appropriate topic of study for the intermediate level, offers many opportunities for integrating academic and social skills, and is particularly timely in 1991, the bicentennial of the Bill of Rights and the first year of the Decade for Human Rights Education. Also, the unit will be taught in March and will focus in part on Heartwood birthday.

The unit will be designed according to the integrated day approach, addressing the following areas in the fourth grade skills continuum:

a. reading and language arts skills - Students will read novels written from the perspective of children their age in other countries. They will also keep journals as part of the human rights unit and complete written assignments.

b. social studies skills - The unit will incorporate map and globe skills, research skills, problem solving skills and citizenship skills. Students will complete a research project on a person who has made a difference for others and identify the important qualities and actions in that person's life (i.e. courage, honesty, good deeds, etc.).

An additional focus of the unit will be the inclusion of teaching strategies that foster respect and responsibility. These strategies are cooperative learning, conflict resolution, group decision making and class meetings.

The culminating activity for the unit will be an action project that the students decide upon and carry out. This project might be designed to support the rights of people in the Keene community or in the larger world. Possibilities for this project include learning
about and helping out in the community, writing letters or making presentations to educate others about some human rights issue, etc. The specific project will be designed by the class, Sarah, and myself with your consultation.

2. Timeline and data collection procedures

Phase 1 - During the months preceding the teaching of the unit, I will spend 70 hours in the classroom at varied times and days of the week. These times will be prearranged with Sarah. During each visit I will spend half the time observing and taking notes and half the time working with children as an assistant to Sarah. My observations and interactions with children will be focused on learning about their behavior, their relationships with each other, their thinking, and their academic performance. When I am at the school I would like to be able to move with the children to recess, the playground, the lunchroom, special classes, etc.

Phase 2 - During March 1991, the human rights unit will be taught. During this period I will be at the school all day on Mondays, as well as Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday mornings. During this period I will spend more time teaching and working with children, less time just observing. Informal conversations with children may be taped and I will take notes on the daily events in the classroom. During times when I am at school and lessons on other topics are being conducted, I will serve as an assistant teacher.

Phase 3 - From April 1991 until the end of the school year I will spend 80 hours in the classroom, again at times prearranged with Sarah. This phase is similar to phase 1 in that I will spend approximately half the time observing and half the time working with children. During this period a videotape will be made of the students discussing their action project and their feelings about their role in making a difference for others.

3. Protection of children's rights

A research project in the schools should not "use" children for its own purposes in any way that would limit their educational experience. This project is designed to enhance children's learning, and is based on non-intrusive data collection methods (observing, interacting, tape recording informal conversations) that do not take children away from their educational activities. The project is also
designed to benefit the children both in the content and strategies used in teaching the unit as well as by the addition of another professional in the classroom to work with students. The individual identities of students will be protected in the final report. Parents will be asked to sign a consent form for their child’s participation. If some parents do not wish to sign such a form, their child will be included in the study only as a member of the group and not focused on or written about as an individual.

4. Benefits to the school

There are additional benefits to the school from participating in this project. The model being used is classroom action research, an approach that any classroom teacher can use in exploring teaching and learning issues. I would like to present the research plan to the staff either in written form or at a staff meeting and would be happy to consult with any teachers who wish to design a classroom research project themselves. Also, the school can share with parents and the larger community, if desired, the results of the action project and the video. There is also the benefit of making a contribution to the understanding of teaching and learning in the field of elementary education. Finally, this unit will provide a model for the integrated day approach. I would be willing to consult with teachers who wish to design integrated units for their classrooms.

5. Additional information

My resume is attached to this proposal. If you would like any additional information about the unit, research methods, or other aspects of the study, please call me at 357-4683. I would like to come in to observe Sarah’s class and talk with you further about this project soon.
"Hello" to familiar faces and new ones too. I am excited about being back at Heartwood intermittently to work on my doctoral dissertation research with the students in Sarah Conley's class. I'll be developing and co-teaching with Sarah a human rights integrated curriculum next March. Until then I'll be coming in once or twice a week to get to know the students and assist in teaching them.

I would like to be able to accompany the students to music, art, library, P.E., lunch, recess, etc. If this is a problem for any of the teachers involved, please let me know soon. Also, I'll be happy to answer any questions you may have about my research. I'm excited about being back with young people in such a wonderful learning environment.

Rahima Wade
APPENDIX B
PARENTAL CONSENT FORM
January 8, 1991

To: The parents of ________________, fourth grade student


Re: Your child's participation in a research study on human rights education and children's relationships

Ms. Rahima Wade taught the Excel program for gifted and talented students at Heartwood a few years ago. She has returned to the school this year in a different role. Ms. Wade is in the process of completing her doctoral degree in Education. Her dissertation will be a study of fourth graders' relationships with each other and how human rights education influences their interactions with each other and their thinking about themselves and others.

Ms. Wade would like to conduct this research in Ms. Conley's class. She will be in the class one or two mornings a week until March, observing the children and assisting with writing and reading instruction. In March 1991, they will co-teach the human rights unit. The focus of this unit, which incorporates reading, writing, and other skills from the curriculum, will be on understanding the rights that are due every human being and the responsibilities that we all share in upholding each other's rights. The unit will combine learning about human rights activists, the U.S. Bill of Rights, and the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child, along with practical applications in children's relationships with others.

Following the unit, Ms. Wade will continue to assist in the class one or two mornings a week throughout the rest of the school year. Besides observing and working with students, Ms. Wade will be audio taping conversations with the students about their work and relationships with each other and possibly videotaping the class on one or two occasions.

We feel fortunate to have Ms. Wade's expertise in our school again and know that her interaction with the students will be beneficial. In the past few years she has taught courses for teachers at Antioch New England and Keene State College and the social studies
curriculum in the fourth grade at Westmoreland School. She has also recently published a book on friendship in the elementary school classroom.

In order for your child to be included in this project, we must have the written consent form signed by a legal parent or guardian and returned to the school. In signing the form below, you are agreeing to your child's participation in the study under the conditions set forth in this letter. You are also assuring that you will make no financial claims on Ms. Wade or the school now or in the future for your child's participation.

From Ms. Rahima Wade:
"I am hoping that you will agree to have your child included in this project. Your child's participation will consist of typical school learning experiences: reading and writing assignments, conversations with me about his/her learning, and other whole groups learning activities. Your child will not be administered any psychological or other kinds of tests.

I will analyze the information gathered in the study for presentation in my doctoral dissertation, as well as for use in journal articles, teacher workshops, and possibly another book. However, I will not under any circumstances use your child's name or the name of any other student in the study. I will refer to the school only as "a public elementary school in New Hampshire".

I certainly want to encourage your child's participation in the study. Also, I want you to understand that your child will not be placed at a disadvantage now or in the future if you choose for him/her to not be included. Furthermore, you can agree now to participate and then later change your mind at any time and withdraw.

If your child is not included in the study, he or she will still participate in the unit activities but his or her work and conversations with me will not be included in my dissertation. Participation is voluntary and whether or not your child participates will in no way affect his or her progress in the class. If you have any questions about my work in Ms. Conley's class, please call me at 357-4683.
Thank you for your considering your child's participation in my study. I look forward to the possibility of working with your child on this project."

___________________________  ___________________________
R. Louis Ford                   Ms. Sarah Conley

___________________________
Ms. Rahima Wade

I, ________________________ , have read the statement above and agree to my child, ____________________'s, participation in the study under the conditions stated therein.

___________________________  ___________________________
Signature of parent or guardian  Date
APPENDIX C

COMMUNICATION WITH PARENTS
March 4, 1991

Dear Parents of Ms. Conley's fourth graders:

A few of you have expressed interest in knowing more about the human rights curriculum Ms. Conley and I will be teaching this month so I am sending you this letter. The children have been involved contributing their ideas for book selections, teaching strategies, and topics of interest and will continue to do so throughout the unit.

In this first week, we'll be learning about major human rights documents with a focus on The Declaration of the Rights of the Child. The students will be encouraged to think about not only the rights that are due all human beings but also the responsibilities. We will conclude this first week with developing a class "Bill of Rights and Responsibilities."

Next week we will look at one of the major reasons why people are denied their rights, discrimination. We will discuss, write, and read about prejudice and discrimination in the United States and the world. We will also develop our understanding of what discrimination feels like through a few games and simulations.

In the third and fourth weeks the students will begin to identify possible ways to work for human rights and design and carry out action projects of their own choosing. I can't say what these will be but this part of the curriculum will be exciting!

If you would like more information about any of these activities, please feel free to call me at 357-4683. Finally, I have one request. For an art project on Wednesday this week the students will be creating collages of rights that are meaningful to them. If you have any fabric scraps or trims, buttons, or old magazines we could cut up they would be appreciated.

Sincerely,

Ms. Rahima Wade
PUPPETEER PERMISSION INFORMATION

Your child has expressed interest in being a puppeteer in our puppet show for the Human Rights Parent Night. In order for your child to be considered for a part in the play, the following information must be read and the permission slip returned to school by tomorrow, Thursday, April 4th.

Responsibilities as a puppeteer include:

- taking home the script and working on learning lines (they do not have to be memorized but the student should be very familiar with them)

- attending the rehearsal on Tuesday, April 9th from 3 pm to 5 pm after school (Parents are responsible for picking students up at the school at 5 pm).

- attending the Human Rights Parent Night for the performance also on Tuesday, April 9th from 7 pm to 7:45 pm

If you have any questions, please call Ms. Rahima Wade at 357-4683.

I have read the information above and give permission for my child to be considered for a part in the puppet play for the Human Rights Parent Night.

Parent signature_________________________
HUMAN RIGHTS PARENT NIGHT

TUESDAY, APRIL 9TH  7 PM TO 7:45 PM

in Ms. Conley's classroom

Please join us for a fun presentation of our work on the human rights unit. Families and friends are invited.

The evening will include:

a slide show
a puppet show
a videotape of a few "famous" human rights activists
student projects on display

We hope you will be able to join us. If you have any questions please call Ms. Rahima Wade at 357-4683 or Ms. Sarah Conley at 357-0773.
YARD AND BAKE SALE NEWS!

Dear Parents;

Your attention to the details included here will help our yard and bake sale event run smoothly. The students are excited and we appreciate your assistance.

1. The Yard and Bake Sale will take place at Evan Lockwood's house at 14 Snohomish Drive from 9 am to 12 noon this Saturday, June 8th. There is NO rain date for the event. If it is raining we will not have the sale. If the weather is questionable, please call Ms. Wade at 357-4683 between 7 am and 8 am on Saturday morning.

2. If you have items for the yard and bake sale, the easiest procedure will be for you to bring them on the day of the sale to the Lockwood's at around 8 am. If you are unable to do that, items can be brought to school on Friday, June 7th or call Ms. Wade to arrange a time when she can come pick them up.

3. It would be most helpful if you can price the items beforehand (either individually or with a small sign such as "all clothes 50 cents each"). Also, if you have either a card table or a blanket on which you can set up the items at the Lockwood's house, that would be appreciated.

4. We are concerned that we will have perhaps too many baked goods since many people volunteered to bring them. If you did, please bring just one batch of something.

5. We have developed a schedule for the yard sale workers. If your child volunteered for this, his/her name and work time appears below. Any additional parent or student workers will be most appreciated, especially before and after the sale for setting up and packing up.

6. It is likely that some of the bake and yard sale items will not be sold. Please come to 14 Snohomish Drive at noon to pick up your "leftovers" or call Ms. Wade at 357-4683 to make other arrangements.

7. We will supervise students at the yard and bake sale but we cannot be responsible for students who choose to come and go. Please discuss with your child where they can go, when and where you will pick them up, etc.
The class had a brainstorming session last week on how to spend the money. Some of the ideas for the money (after our end of the year party expenses) were: to send money to people in Haiti, Asia, or Ethiopia; buying playground equipment, pencils, or atlases for the school; contributing to the Heartwood playground fund; donating to the Community Kitchen; or giving some to other schools that have small playgrounds. We hope to have a successful event on a sunny day so that we may contribute to some of these worthy causes.

Ms. Wade and Ms. Conley
APPENDIX D
DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES HANDOUTS
The class council of the week is responsible for organizing and running the class conference. There are three jobs, one for each of the people on the council.

1. Organizing and presenting the agenda - You need to look at the agenda items on the list and plan how much time will be spent on each item. At the beginning of the conference you present the agenda to the group, review the rules for the conference, and keep track of the time during the meeting.

2. Running the meeting - You keep the discussion going by calling on people or using the talking stick. You also try to be aware of the time and keep the group moving towards its goals. You let people know when they are not following the rules and carry out any needed consequences.

3. Ending the meeting - Five minutes before the end of the conference you summarize what has happened and then ask the group the following questions:

   How do you think the meeting went today? What went well?

   You call on a few people to respond to these questions. After the meeting you write up what happened briefly in the conference log.

   * * * * * * *

Here is a suggested procedure for working on an issue in a conference.

1. Have the person who wrote the item on the agenda briefly describe it.
2. Encourage other people to give their thoughts about it (talking stick for everyone to share, raising hands for some people).
3. Ask for ideas to solve the problem. Write them on the board.
4. Hold a discussion on the pros and cons of the ideas (talking stick or raising hands).
5. Have people vote or try to reach consensus (everyone agrees).

Remember to call on anyone, not just your friends.
Agenda
1. Read the whole agenda at the beginning.
2. Keep track of the time and tell the person running the meeting when time is up on each item.

Leader
Do this with each agenda item.
1. Ask the person who wrote it on the list to explain it.
2. Ask other people to share their thoughts about it.
   (You can use talking stick or call on people).
3. Ask for solutions to the problem.
4. Write them on the blackboard.
5. See if the class can agree on one or vote on one.
6. Work out the details so it will happen. When? Who? How? What help is needed?

Ending
1. Restate what happened at the conference. "Today we discussed ....... and decided........"
2. Ask "How did the meeting go? What went well?" Call on people to answer those questions.
APPENDIX E
HUMAN RIGHTS DOCUMENTS AND HANDOUTS
Universal Declaration of Human Rights
Adopted and proclaimed by General Assembly resolution 217 A (III)
of 10 December 1948

Preamble

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal
and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the
foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have
resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of
mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall
enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want
has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have
recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and
oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly
relations between nations,

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter
reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity
and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and
women and have determined to promote social progress and better
standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in
cooperation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal
respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental
freedoms,

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms
is of the greatest importance of the full realization of this pledge,

Now, therefore,
The General Assembly

Proclaims this Universal Declaration of Human Rights 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 constantly 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.
Article 1
     All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2
     Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

     Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3
     Everyone has the right to life, liberty and the security of person.

Article 4
     No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5
     No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6
     Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7
     All are equal before the law and entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of the Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8
     Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.
Article 9  
No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10  
Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11  
1. Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.

2. No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence under national or international law at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12  
No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13  
1. Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each State.

2. Everyone has the right to leave any country including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14  
1. Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.

2. This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15  
1. Everyone has the right to a nationality.

2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.
Article 16

1. Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

2. Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

3. The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17

1. Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.

2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion: this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression: this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.

2. No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21

1. Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.

2. Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.

3. The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government this shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.
Article 22
Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international cooperation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23
1. Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
2. Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
3. Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social production.
4. Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24
Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitations of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25
1. Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.
2. Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26
1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional educations shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
2. Educations shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. Its shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27

1. Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

2. Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28

Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29

1. Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

2. In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

3. These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30

Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.
Universal Declaration of Human Rights
(abbreviated version)

1. All human beings are free and equal in dignity and rights.

2. No one should be discriminated against because of their race, color, sex, religion, or political opinions.

3. Everyone has the right to life and safety.

4. You can neither be, nor make others a slave.

5. You cannot be tortured or treated cruelly or inhumanely if put in prison.

6. You have the right to be regarded as a person everywhere before the law, and the right to be treated as anyone else before the law.

7. You have the right to the nationality of your choice.

8. You have the right to have your own beliefs, to express your opinions and to gather peacefully with others.

9. All adults have the right to vote, to take part in the government, and to have equal access to public services.

10. You have the right to move within your own country and between countries without interference. You have the right to seek protection from another country if you are being persecuted.

11. Men and women of full age have the right to marry and have children.

12. You have the right to participate in the cultural life of your community: arts, music, and science.

13. You have the right to a decent job and decent working conditions, decent housing, and medical care.

14. You have the right to an education and free education before college.
Declaration of the Rights of the Child
unanimously adopted in 1959 by the United Nations General Assembly

Preamble

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have, in the Charter, reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, and in the dignity and worth of the human person, and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas the United Nations has, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth, or other status,

Whereas the need for such special safeguards has been stated in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924, and recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the statutes of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children,

Whereas mankind owes to the child the best it has to give.

Now therefore,

The General Assembly

Proclaims this Declaration of the Rights of the Child to the end that he may have a happy childhood and enjoy his own good and for the good of society the rights and freedoms herein set forth, and calls upon parents, upon men and women as individuals and upon voluntary organizations, local authorities and national governments to recognize these rights and strive for their observance by legislative and other measures progressively taken in accordance with the following principles:

Principle 1

The child shall enjoy all the rights set forth in this Declaration. All children, without any exception whatsoever, shall be entitled to these rights, without distinction or discrimination on account of race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, whether of himself or of his family.
Principle 2
The child shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration.

Principle 3
The child shall be entitled from his birth to a name and a nationality.

Principle 4
The child shall enjoy the benefits of social security. He shall be entitled to grow and develop in health; to this end special care and protection shall be provided both to him and to his mother, including adequate pre-natal and post-natal care. The child shall have the right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation and medical services.

Principle 5
The child who is physically, mentally or socially handicapped shall be given special treatment, education and care required by his special condition.

Principle 6
The child, for the full and harmonious development of his personality, needs love and understanding. He shall, whenever possible, grow up in the care and under the responsibility of his parents, and in any case in an atmosphere of affection and moral and material security; a child of tender years shall not, save in exceptional circumstances, be separated from his mother. Society and the public authorities shall have the duty to extend particular care to children without a family and to those without adequate means of support. Payment of state and other assistance toward the maintenance of children of large families is desirable.

Principle 7
The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him on a basis of equal opportunity to develop his abilities.
individual judgment, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society.

The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and guidance; that responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.

The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavor to promote the enjoyment of this right.

Principle 8

The child shall in all circumstances be among the first to receive protection and relief.

Principle 9

The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty, and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic, in any form.

The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education, or interfere with his physical, mental, or moral judgment.

Principle 10

The child shall be protected from practices which may foster racial, religious, and any other form of discrimination. He shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship among peoples, peace and universal brotherhood and in full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the services of his fellow men.
The United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child
(abbreviated version)

1. All children have the same rights, whether they are rich or poor, boy or girl, black, brown, white or yellow skinned.

2. All children should have the chance to grow up healthy and safe and in a good place to live.

3. All children have the right to a name and a country of their own.

4. All children have the right to nourishing food, a decent home, proper clothing, a safe place to play, and good medical care.

5. Children who are blind, deaf, crippled, sick, or have a learning disability should be given special care and attention.

6. All children need to grow up in an environment of love and care.

7. All children should have good schools to go to which help them learn and play.

8. When a child is in danger, he or she should be quickly cared for.

9. Children should not be treated harshly or cruelly or made to work outside the home before they are old enough.

10. Children have the right to be brought up in the spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship, and peace.
APPENDIX F
HUMAN RIGHTS UNIT DESCRIPTION AND HANDOUTS
Student Questionnaire - Initial Thoughts on Human Rights

The questionnaire on the following two pages was given to the students on February 15, 1991, two weeks before the beginning of the human rights unit. The information from this questionnaire was used to develop an understanding of students' beliefs, attitudes, and interests in regards to human rights before the unit was taught.
1. The secret police has wanted to get hold of me for some time. I was known to disagree with the government, so when I wrote to the President to complain about some people who were unfairly arrested, I was arrested too. The trial was very short. I was never allowed to choose a lawyer and none of my family were allowed to watch. The judge said "Guilty" and I was sentenced to ten years in prison.

I am [ ] very interested [ ] interested [ ] not very interested

2. I am not very popular with the teachers. I know my own mind and I am sometimes outspoken. Whenever anyone is messing around I always seem to get caught and I often get blamed for things I don't do. Last Monday, Angela Litchfield - who does not like me - threw a piece of paper, and unfortunately it hit the teacher. He did not see who threw it and Angela did not own up to it. The teacher blamed me and gave me a detention. No one in the class dared to tell on Angela.

I am [ ] very interested [ ] interested [ ] not very interested

3. My name is Sonny. I am a black South African. It's no joke to be treated as a second class person in your own country. I am not allowed to vote. However good I am at my job I will never be promoted because all the top jobs are reserved for white people. I am a miner and I need a special pass to be able to work in the mine. My wife and children are not allowed to have a pass, so they have to live far away. I don't see them very often and I miss them alot.

I am [ ] very interested [ ] interested [ ] not very interested

4. Our names are Susan Downs and John Andrews and we edit the school magazine. When the last issue of the magazine came out there was quite a fuss. We had written an article about how hitting children should not be allowed in school and how old fashioned and unnecessary the school uniform is. When the principal saw it, she was angry and ordered all the copies of the magazine to be returned and destroyed. She yelled at us and we had to resign from working on the magazine.

I am [ ] very interested [ ] interested [ ] not very interested
5. Everyone should be allowed to have free education if they want.
   _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

6. Everyone should be allowed to leave their country and return to it if they want.
   _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

7. People should be treated fairly whatever their race.
   _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

8. Every family should have medical care if they need it.
   _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

9. Everyone should have equal pay for equal work.
   _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

10. Everyone should be allowed to believe what they want.
    _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

11. People should be treated fairly whatever their religion.
    _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

12. No one should be tortured.
    _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

13. Everyone should be allowed to say what they think as long as it does not seriously hurt other people.
    _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know

14. No one should be forced to do a particular kind of work.
    _strongly agree _agree _disagree _don't know
Description of Human Rights Unit Activities - Week 1

The following information explains the activities, worksheets, and journal exercises during March 4 through 8, 1991. The list below indicates the titles of the subsequent pages in this part of Appendix F.

1. Schedule for the week
2. Notebook exercises for the week
3. Human Rights in Our Lives worksheet
4. Reading group questions for The Friendship and The Gold Cadillac
5. Reading group questions for A Jar of Dreams
6. Reading group questions for In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson
7. Yes, No, Sometimes, Not sure exercise
8. Learning Center Record Keeping sheet
9. Similarities in People Everywhere worksheet
10. Activity Feedback sheet
11. Descriptions of remaining activities during Week 1 - People Scavenger Hunt, Human Rights Skits, Attribute Linking, Collage Art project, Rights Documents Matching exercise, and Class Bill of Rights and Responsibilities, Human Rights Learning Center
### Table 7 - Activities During Week of March 4 - 8, 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MONDAY</th>
<th>TUESDAY</th>
<th>WEDNESDAY</th>
<th>THURSDAY</th>
<th>FRIDAY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>answering HR questions in notebooks</td>
<td>Yes, No. Sometimes, Not Sure</td>
<td>attribute linking</td>
<td>class conference</td>
<td>class bill of rights and responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people scavenger hunt</td>
<td>HR skits</td>
<td>collage art</td>
<td>cooperative journal writing</td>
<td>thinks, acts, looks feels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning center</td>
<td>learning center</td>
<td>learning center</td>
<td>matching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/R 10:20 TO 10:45</td>
<td>silent reading and reading groups</td>
<td>silent reading and reading groups</td>
<td>Art until 10:20</td>
<td>silent reading and reading groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library 10:45 to 11:30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Music 9:25 to 10:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>silent reading and reading groups: Friendship A Jar of Dreams Year of Boar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>rights documents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lunch/R 12:40 to 1:30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>matching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Human Rights Notebook Assignments - Week 1

What Are Human Rights?
On March 4th, the students were asked the answer the following questions before they began the human rights unit.

1. What are human rights?

2. What special rights do adults have?

3. What rights do you think kids should have?

Cooperative Writing
On March 6th, the students were asked to pretend that they were a Native American, Latino, or Black child and write a notebook entry about who they were and how it felt to be in almost all white school. Students were encouraged to include the following.

• Name, age, cultural group
• how you feel in this school
• how other children treat you in this school
• how you feel about yourself and your relationships with the other children

The students then traded notebooks with each other based on a name drawn from a hat. After the other student had read the notebook entry, a question was written. The notebook was then given back to its owner, the question answered and the notebook returned to the partner. This sequence was completed twice.

Reading Responses
On March 7th, the students were asked to write about the human rights novel they were reading and to share their thoughts and feelings about the characters and the story.
Human Rights in Our Lives worksheet

Name__________________________

What human rights do you have? Read the ones here and write other rights in the boxes below.

the right to think what I want

the right to a free education

the right to walk down the street in safety

the right to receive medical care when I'm hurt

the right to play during part of the school day
Vocabulary and Questions for The Friendship and The Gold Cadillac

The Friendship

Vocabulary

1. Who is telling the story? pp. 5-6
2. How old is Cassie? p. 7
3. Why don't the children usually go to the Wallace's store? p. 6
4. Why are they there today? p. 7
5. Why do the kids get candy only at Christmas? p. 8

(Activity: Draw a picture of the Wallace's store. pp. 7-8).

6. What happened on page 9? Do you think Little Man's hands were dirty?
7. Are Dewberry and Thurston serious? Why do they say these things to Little Man? p. 10
8. What kind of fish does Mr. Tom Bee love?
10. What is Little Man's reaction to being teased? pp. 15-16
11. Have you ever seen teasing really hurt someone's feelings?
12. Why do you think Jeremy talks to the kids? Why is Stacey reluctant to talk with Jeremy? p. 17
13. Why won't Stacey and his siblings be doing much fishing? p. 19

Vocabulary
riled p. 31, judgment day p. 45

1. Why do you think white and black people follow rules about the names they use to talk to each other? pp. 21 and 23.
2. Why does John Wallace feel that he can't let Mr. Tom Bee call him by his first name anymore? p. 26
4. Why does the author call him MR. Tom Bee?
5. Why do you think Jeremy is fearful about taking candy from Mr. Tom Bee? p. 30
6. What happened between Mr. Tom Bee and John Wallace when they were younger? pp. 32-36.
7. Why did John Wallace shoot Mr. Tom Bee in the leg? Do you think
that what John Wallace says is true, that "you made me do that.
Tom"? p. 44

The Gold Cadillac

Vocabulary
rural p. 67, lynch p. 68. ignorance, caravan, p. 81

1. Why is everyone so excited about the gold cadillac? pp. 53-56.
2. Guess why Dee doesn't like the cadillac. pp. 59-60.
3. Were you right? p. 62

(Activity: Draw a map of the neighborhood. p. 66)

4. Why does Lois like the cadillac? p. 66
5. Why do you think it might be dangerous for a black man from the
north to drive an expensive car into the rural south? p. 67
6. What does Lois' dad have in common with Mr. Tom Bee? p. 68
7. Why do you think Lois' mom decided to ride in the cadillac? pp. 68-
71.
8. Why are there signs like this? What do they mean? pp. 71-73
9. Why do the white policemen stop the cadillac? What do you think
about the way they treat Lois' father? pp. 73-76
10. Why does Lois' dad sell the cadillac? Do you think his change of
mind had anything to do with what happened to them in the South?
11. In what ways is Lois' life a "rich" one? pp. 88-89
Vocabulary and Questions for *A Jar of Dreams*

Chapter 1
1. Discuss the story of discrimination by Wilbur Starr. p. 5
2. Do you understand Rinko's feelings? Have you ever had an experience like this? How did you feel? pp. 5-6

Chapter 2
1. What do you think about Rinko's relationship with her brother?

Chapter 3
1. Why do you think the barbershop is way behind in rent? What do you think of the home laundry idea? What other ideas do you have for Rinko's family to make/save more money?

Chapter 4
1. Why does Mama keep her "Japanese me" in the trunk? What does she mean?

Chapter 5
1. Discuss the feelings on pages 38-40.
2. Why do you think Rinko feels like this at school? p. 41

Chapter 6
1. Why do you think Rinko wanted to put the kimono in her mother's trunk? Why do you think Aunt Waka gave her a kimono? p. 53
2. Why couldn't Tami and Rinko swim at the Crystal Plunge? p. 58
3. Why does Aunt Waka seem like a stranger to Rinko?

Chapter 7
1. How does the Starr Laundry try to drive Rinko's family out of business? Why do you think Wilbur Starr acts these ways?
2. What are Rinko's and her father's reactions?

Chapter 8
1. Why is it so important to Cal's family that he go to college?

Chapter 9
1. What do you think about Aunt Waka's idea? Why did she propose it?
Chapter 10
1. What happened at the Starr laundry? Why do you think it went the way it did?

Chapter 11
1. Why does Rinko feel so differently after their visit to the Starr Laundry?
2. What "rights" did Papa speak up for? p. 96
3. How did the people in this chapter make a difference in each other's lives?

Chapter 12
1. Why didn't they care about being rich? What was important to them? p. 102
2. Why does the Tsujimura family want to find an isolated spot for their picnic? p. 104
3. Why does Aunt Waka feel like she can be her "true self" in Japan and not in California? p. 106

Chapter 13
1. Why does Rinko want to take a paper bag instead of a furoshiki? p. 114
2. Why did Rinko have a strong feeling in her? p. 118

Chapter 14
1. What are Rinko's feelings about the kimono? Why?
2. The main messages of the book are on pages 124 and 125. What are they?
3. How did Aunt Waka change Rinko's life? p. 130
Vocabulary and Questions for *In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson*

Chapter 1 - January

Vocabulary:
- p. 1 Year of the Dog
- p. 2 Confucian, Elders, Patriarch/Matriarch
- p. 4 brazier
- p. 7 dictums
- p. 10 threshold
- p. 13 exile
- p. 13 clan

1. How is Chinese culture like yours? How is it different?
2. Discuss the Chinese names (the book gives English translations).
3. What images does Bandit's family have of America? Is there any truth to these ideas? Where do you think they got them? Why those particular ideas?
4. Compare the Chinese New Year and American New Year celebrations.

Chapter 2 - February

1. What writing technique is the author using in the following passages?
   "writhed like a fierce, black dragon" p. 21
   "the ship hiccupped to a halt in the harbor" p. 22
   "she snaked her way through the crowd" p. 23
   "to tame a den of tigers and jump at the sound of a kitten's meow" p. 23

2. How is their reunion with father similar to how you might have experienced a similar event? p. 25-26.
3. Why did Shirley try to see if the roofs were curved or straw? p. 26.
4. How does Shirley continue to judge the new based on the familiar? p. 28 to 33.
Chapter 3 - March

Vocabulary
reputation p. 43
ambassador p. 44
previous life p. 45
trifle p. 45

1. How old is Shirley the way we count? p. 43
2. Why does mother say that? bottom of p. 43
3. What did the principal do? p. 44
4. How does Shirley see the other children? Why? p. 44
5. What are cards of men with stick...? p. 46
6. Read the paragraph in the middle of p. 47 and discuss.

Chapter 4 - April

Vocabulary
hoary, odious  p. 58

1. Why do you think the class is ignoring her? p. 51-52.
2. Relate Shirley's and the team's feelings to one of your experiences. p. 54-55.
3. What does "like a hungry ghost" mean? p. 55
4. What does "right" mean in "had to do something right"? p. 56
5. Why is Shirley so pained by the laughter? What words does the author use to tell you this? p. 57
6. How does having a friend help being in school? What would it be like to be in school and not have a friend? p. 63
7. Shirley faces many disappointments in this chapter? How does she handle them?

Chapter 5 - May

Vocabulary
stickball

1. Do you think Mabel would have treated another child the way she treated Shirley? pp. 71-73.
2. Why didn't Shirley tell on Mabel? pp.74-75.
3. How does Mabel persuade the others to let Shirley play? p. 79
4. How do the other kids tease Shirley about her differences? How have you been teased or seen someone tease? p. 78

325
5. Can you think of a time when something that seemed at first to be bad turned out to be good? p. 83

Chapter 6 - June

1. Look at the title. What do you think this chapter is going to be about? p. 85
2. Why did Shirley end up memorizing the pledge like that? p. 86
3. "teacher's dog" is what? p. 88
4. What ethnic group is Maria from? p. 89
5. Write other phrases beginning with these words: quieted her with .........., thrilled her like ............., the power of ................., as tall as the ................. pp. 92 - 93
6. Discuss the bottom of the page. Does everyone have that chance? p. 92

Chapter 7 - July

Vocabulary
beset p. 95

1. What does this mean: "they welcomed the mayhem that emanated from the talking box as if it were a plague of locusts at harvest time"? p. 98
2. How does Shirley feel about the summer vacation? How do you feel? p. 96

Chapter 8 - August

Vocabulary
gourd, talisman p. 114

1. How do you think it feels to go from being a stepsister's foot in Cinderella's shoe to a fish tossed back into the sea? p. 106 and 108
2. Make a list of all the imagery on pages 113-115.

Chapter 9 - September

1. What does Shirley's dream mean? pp. 120-122
2. What do you think about Tommy's interaction with Shirley? p. 122
3. Why do you think Shirley decided to be friends with Emily? p. 123
4. Discuss the Chinese and American differences on pp. 138 and 139.
5. What do you think about Shirley’s solution to her deception with the buttons? What else could she have done? What would you have done? pp. 139-140.

Chapter 10 - October - The World Series

Chapter 11 - November

1. Why do you think the Wong family forgot to celebrate Mid-Autumn Festival? p. 150
2. What would the celebration in China have been like? pp. 151-152

Chapter 12 - December

1. How do Shirley and Emily show their friendship in this chapter? p. 159-160 and 162.
2. Why does Shirley feel it is so important to teach her brother about her Chinese heritage? p. 164
3. Which dreams of Shirley's come true? p. 169
Yes, No, Sometimes, Not Sure

Signs with these four titles were placed in different corners of the room. Each statement below was read aloud and students moved to the response with which they agreed.

If a family can't pay for a child's important operation, the government should pay.

The right to grow up with someone who loves you is more important than the right to a good house.

Adults should have some kinds of rights that children don't have.

All children should have the right to be treated kindly by their classmates.

The right to a free education is more important than the right to be safe from danger.

White people in the United States have more rights than many people in other parts of the world.

Many children in the world do not receive a good education.

People in the United States care more about their rights than people in other parts of the world.

Some children in the United States do not get enough food to eat.

If you have a right to something then you also have a responsibility to support someone else's right.

If a family can't pay for a child's important operation, the government should pay.

The right to grow up with someone who loves you is more important than the right to a good house.

Adults should have some kinds of rights that children don't have.

All children should have the right to be treated kindly by their classmates.
The right to a free education is more important than the right to be safe from danger.

White people in the United States have more rights than many people in other parts of the world.

Many children in the world do not receive a good education.

People in the United States care more about their rights than people in other parts of the world.

Some children in the United States do not get enough food to eat.

If you have a right to something then you also have a responsibility to support someone else's right.
Learning Center Record Keeping Sheet

NAME _________________________________________

You are responsible for recording here which activities you have chosen and completed. Place an "X" next to each item you complete. Remember that there are three required activities. You should do those first.

MUST DO

Human Rights Handbook
Read and answer questions ___

2 of the Children's Rights and Responsibilities Cards
1_ 2_ 3_ 4_ 5_
6_ 7_ 8_ 9_ 10_

YOUR CHOICE

(more of the R and R cards - check above)

A Voice for Kids article and questions___

Mini-Novels
1_ 2_ 3_ 4_ 5_
6_ 7_ 8_ 9_ 10_

Rights Drawings
1_ 2_ 3_ 4_ 5_
6_ 7_ 8_ 9_ 10_

Your idea - talk to me first.

______________________________

Try to do activities for different rights. For example, if you do the Rights and Responsibilities cards for Rights #2 and #4, you might want to do a Rights Drawing for #7 and a mini-novel for #9.

330
Similarities in People Everywhere

Name(s) ____________________________ Date___________

In what ways are almost all people the same? Make a list of the ways in which most people look, think, feel, and act alike. For example, almost all people have two eyes, feel sad at times, and sleep.

LOOKS

THINKS

FEELS

ACTS
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>This was</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>I learned</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a lot of fun</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not much fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>many new things</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>This was</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>I learned</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a lot of fun</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not much fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>many new things</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>This was</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>I learned</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a lot of fun</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not much fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>many new things</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity Descriptions

1. People Scavenger Hunt - This is a large group mixer activity designed to build community in the classroom. The students were given a list of descriptions such as "likes popcorn," "saw a good movie recently," "loves to read" and so forth. Each child must try to go up to every other child in the classroom and write each child's name on a line next to a suitable phrase. (From Open Minds to Equality)

2. Human Rights Skits - In groups of three or four, the students designed short skits depicting one of the rights in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. The rest of the children watched the skits and tried to guess which right was being illustrated.

3. Attribute Linking - The teacher calls out attributes such as "color of socks," "favorite season," and "favorite school subject." Students then group themselves with others who share a similar attribute. (From Open Minds to Equality)

4. Collage Art - The students created collages using magazine pictures, fabric scraps, and drawing to illustrate a right important in their lives.

5. Rights Documents Matching Exercise - The students were given the abbreviated versions of both the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of the Child (in Appendix E). In pairs, they discussed the similarities and differences between the two lists and created a "cut and paste" list of the rights that were similar between the two.

6. Class Bill of Rights and Responsibilities - The students were given sample ideas of possible rights that could be included in a class bill of rights. In groups of three or four, they read these and brainstormed other ideas. Each student then wrote out one right he or she would like to have included. This project took about three weeks. There were many discussions, votes on which rights to include, petitions to the principal for the rights to wear hats and chew gum, and finally the creation and signing of the final document.

7. Human Rights Learning Center - Throughout the first two weeks of the unit, students were given time to do learning center activities.
A large bulletin board displayed the ten rights from the abbreviated version of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child in Appendix E. The display also featured photos and artwork depicting children from many cultures engaged in a variety of activities. The learning center activities included writing stories or creating artwork depicting one of the children's rights, a word search using human rights words, and rights and responsibility cards that described a familiar situation and asked the students to answer questions about how they would react. There were also other materials to read and write about in their human rights notebooks.
Description of Human Rights Unit Activities - Week 2

The following information explains the activities, worksheets, and journal exercises during March 11 through 15, 1991. The list below indicates the titles of the subsequent pages in this part of Appendix F.

1. Schedule for the week
2. Notebook exercises for the week
3. Finding Commonalties
4. Stereotypes worksheet
5. Discrimination worksheet
6. Descriptions of remaining activities for Week 2 - Renee Ramos worksheet, Prejudice Pictures, Morning without Rights, Values Auction, The Food Experience
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MONDAY</th>
<th>TUESDAY</th>
<th>WEDNESDAY</th>
<th>THURSDAY</th>
<th>FRIDAY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>notebook - are people more the same or more different?</td>
<td>class conference</td>
<td>morning without rights</td>
<td>Art until 10:20</td>
<td>values auction and discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discussion</td>
<td>Music 9:25 to 10:00</td>
<td>debriefing</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
<td>learning center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finding commonalities</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
<td>learning center</td>
<td>working on discrimination stories</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/R 10:20 TO 10:45</td>
<td>stereotypes paper</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
<td>silent reading</td>
<td>sharing discrimination stories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library 10:45 to 11:30</td>
<td>Renee Ramos</td>
<td>Music 10:45 to 11:25</td>
<td>writing about books in response journals</td>
<td>silent reading and reading groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning center</td>
<td>prejudice pictures</td>
<td>discussion on discrimination beginning discrimination stories</td>
<td></td>
<td>the food experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lunch/R 12:40 to 1:30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Handwriting Lesson
On March 11th, the students were asked to write the following in their best handwriting.

People have many differences and many similarities. Some people try to deny others their rights because of differences but all people deserve human rights. We are all thinking and feeling beings who want happy and healthy lives!

Vocabulary Definitions
On March 13th, the student copied the following two definitions in their human rights notebooks.

1. Prejudice is judging people before you know them.

2. A stereotype is believing that something is true about everyone in a certain group.

Discrimination Stories
On March 13th, students began working on stories about when they personally had been discriminated against. We began this activity with discussing many differences that could be the focus of discrimination. We discussed discrimination based on race, religion, and culture and also included age, sex, size, height, weight, who your friends are, clothes, and other specific physical characteristics including skin color, hair color and type, visual or hearing impairment, etc.

Students were encouraged to write about a true event that had involved themselves as the subjects of discriminatory acts. A few students chose not to do this and instead wrote true stories about others they knew or created imaginative stories.
Talk to each person in the class and find out something you have in common with him or her. Write it in the blank. You should have different things written on each line.

Jennifer
Susannah
Nicholas
Thad
Evan
Bob
Joanne
John
Shelley
Andre
Julie
Rich
Kristin
Cathy
Betsey
Claire
STEREOTYPES

A stereotype is the belief that all people of a certain group will be the same and behave in the same way.

Write what you have heard people say or what you think about the following groups.

Girls are ______________________________________

Boys are ______________________________________

Native Americans are ____________________________

Blacks are ______________________________________

Latinos are _____________________________________

Asians are ______________________________________

Whites are _____________________________________

Elderly people are ________________________________

Where did you learn these things? From television? Adults? How much are your thoughts based on real experiences with the group of people?
**Discrimination**

**Name__________________________**

DISCRIMINATION happens when someone is denied a right because of his or her color, age, sex, size or other factor.

Each of the following is an example of discrimination. As you read each example, think about and then write down the number of the right(s) from the Declaration of the Rights of the Child that is/are being denied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>RIGHT(S) DENIED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A child who needs glasses and cannot afford them has trouble reading the blackboard.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Native American child must attend the Reservation school which has little money for supplies or equipment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A poor child must live in a one room city apartment with his mother and three sisters.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A child in Iraq must try to live with a war going on around her.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A black child is teased or ignored by the white children in the school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A child is beaten by the uncle he has been living with for a few years.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A black South African child's father has to work in a far away city and doesn't get to be with his family very often.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A white American child is taught that she is better than other children in the world.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five girls ask to join the softball team. The boys laugh at them and refuse to let them play.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity Descriptions

1. Renee Ramos worksheet - The students read a short story about a Filipino child who is discriminated against by other in her school and has high self-esteem. In small groups, the students answered questions on the story. (From Open Minds to Equality)

2. Prejudice Pictures - Students were asked to fold a piece of drawing paper in half. On one side they were asked to draw a White child engaged in an activity. On the other side they were asked to draw a child of color engaged in an activity. These pictures were used to assess the children's prejudicial attitudes towards children of color.

3. Purple People exercise - The students were divided into two groups. One group was White and the other were given purple armbands to symbolize that they were children of color. The teacher then discriminated against the Purple children by giving them more work, requiring them to stay in their seats, being unkind to them, and giving them very few materials for an art project. After the simulation, the students discussed how it felt to be in the groups and examined how they treated each other. Further discussion connected this experience with real world oppressive situations.

4. Values Auction - The students were given a list of valuable items they might want to buy, if possible. The list included such items as "good health," "the chance for adventure," and "success in your career." After indicating on the sheet which items they wished they could have, they then received play money according to roles of die. With the teacher serving as auctioneer, the students bid for and "bought" desired items. Discussion at the end of the activity centered on what they perceived as most valuable and the real world connections to the unequal amounts of money they received and how that affected their "purchases." (From Open Minds to Equality)

5. The Food Experience - Students were randomly assigned to three groups: upper class, middle class, and lower class in rough proportions to the real United States population. The two upper class children were given cookies to eat. The middle class children were given two crackers each while the lower class students were given only one raisin each. Debriefing after the simulation focused on their feelings and actions during the experience as well as the real world connections to economic inequalities in the United States and the world. (From Open Minds to Equality)
Description of Human Rights Unit Activities - Week 3

The following information explains the activities, worksheets, and journal exercises during March 18 through 22, 1991. The list below indicates the titles of the subsequent pages in this part of Appendix F.

1. Schedule for the week
2. Notebook exercises for the week
3. Human Rights Spelling Words
4. World Map
5. Map Activity
6. Questions to ask the High School ESL Class Visitors
7. Songs from Human Rights School Assembly
8. Looking for Bias in Textbooks - Age
9. Looking for Bias in Textbooks - Gender
10. Looking for Bias in Textbooks - Ethnicity
11. Human Rights Sentence Mixer Activity
12. Descriptions of remaining activities for week 3 - Journey to Jo'burg, ESL students visit, South African workbooks, Social Action Bulletin Board, Discrimination in Advertising, Puppet Project Video
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MONDAY</th>
<th>TUESDAY</th>
<th>WEDNESDAY</th>
<th>THURSDAY</th>
<th>FRIDAY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South African workbooks</td>
<td>Journey to Jo'Burg</td>
<td>Journey to Jo'Burg</td>
<td>class conference</td>
<td>HR spelling test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR spelling</td>
<td>high school ESL group visit</td>
<td>HR spelling</td>
<td>Music 9:25 to 10:00</td>
<td>puppet project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/R 10:20 TO 10:45</td>
<td>notebook writing and discussion</td>
<td>all school HR assembly</td>
<td>South African workbooks</td>
<td>video and discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library 10:45 to 11:30</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
<td>South African workbooks</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
<td>HR sentence mixer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning center</td>
<td>map activity</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
<td>looking at bias (gender, age, ethnicity) in school books</td>
<td>S/R 10:20 to 10:45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journey to Jo'Burg</td>
<td>silent reading</td>
<td>Music 10:45 to 11:25</td>
<td>making social action bulletin board</td>
<td>getting library books for people reports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lunch/R 12:40 to 1:30</td>
<td>response journals</td>
<td>silent reading</td>
<td>creating display on sexism and racism in advertising</td>
<td>making social action bulletin board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Journey to Jo'Burg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

343
Impressions of the ESL class visit
On March 19th, after the high school ESL students had visited with our class, the students were asked to write their thoughts and feelings about the people they had met, how it felt to meet a person from another culture, and anything that made a strong impression on them, either positively or negatively, during the visit.

Reading Response
On March 22nd, the students were asked to write their thoughts and feelings about the book that was read to the class, *Journey to Jo'Burg*. They were also asked, in particular, to comment on the actions of two of the children in the story, who had undertaken a dangerous journey to try to save the life of their baby sister. The students were asked the following.

- Do you think Tiro and Naledi did the right thing?
- What would you have done if you were in their situation?
- What do you think your life would be like living as a black South African child?

Human Rights Spelling Study Sheet

1. Many Latino people have to deal with discrimination.

2. If someone is racist they have no tolerance for differences in people.

3. When you have a right you also have a responsibility.

4. A stereotype about boys is that they all like sports.

5. Some people are prejudiced against people who speak differently from them.

Africa

segregation

integration
Human Rights Spelling Words

1. discrimination
2. prejudice
3. stereotype
4. rights
5. racist
6. Latino
7. Africa
8. responsibility
9. difference
10. tolerance
11. segregation
12. integration
Map Key by

☐ Ohio - where Lois and her family are from in The Gold Cadillac

☐ China - where Shirley Temple Wong is from in The Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson

☐ Japan - where Aunt Waka is from in The Jar of Dreams

☐ South Africa - where Naledi and Tiro are from in Journey to Jo'burg

☐ Soviet Union - where ___________ is from

☐ Germany - where ___________ is from

☐ Cambodia - where ___________ is from

Pick 3 other places where YOU have connections. write them on the blanks, and find them on the map. They could be places you have visited, places you have relatives, the country of another ESL student with whom you spoke, or any another connection.

☐ ___________________________________________________________________

☐ ___________________________________________________________________

☐ ___________________________________________________________________
Questions to ask the High School ESL class visitors

1. What is your name?
2. Was it hard to learn English?
3. How do you greet people in your country? Is it different here?
4. How did you get to the United States?
5. Why did you come here?
6. What does money look like from your country?
7. For Cambodians - What did it feel like during the Vietnam War?
8. How long have you been living here?
9. How old were you when you came here?
10. How old are you?
11. Do you have an opinion of Gorbachev?
12. Were you poor before you moved to the United States?
13. What was your school like before you moved here?
14. Do people here make fun of you because of the way you look and talk?
15. Is the High School better or worse than your old school?
16. Was it scary to cross the ocean?
17. Has anyone crossed the Bermuda Triangle?
18. What holidays do you celebrate?
19. What animals are in your country?
20. How do you say any of the following in your native language?
   Hi, how are you doing?
   Goodnight.
   Happy Easter.
   Good afternoon.
   Good luck.
   the alphabet
We Who Believe in Freedom  
words by Bernice Johnson Reagan

We who believe in freedom cannot rest  
We who believe in freedom cannot rest until it comes

Until the killing of black men, black mother’s sons  
Is as important as the killing of white men, white mother’s sons.

That which touches me most is  
That I had a chance to work with people  
Passing on to others, that which was passed on to me.

To me young people come first  
They have the courage where we fail  
If I can but shed some light  
They carry us through the gale.

We who believe in freedom cannot rest  
We who believe in freedom cannot rest until it comes.

The older I get, the better I know,  
that the secret to my going on  
Is when the reins are in the hands of the young  
Who dare to run against the storm

Not needing to clutch for power  
Not needing the light to just shine on me  
I want to be one in the number,  
as we stand against tyranny.

Struggling myself don’t mean a whole lot,  
I’ve come to realize.  
Teaching others to stand up and fight  
Is the only way my struggle survives.

We who believe in freedom cannot rest  
We who believe in freedom cannot rest until it comes.
Other songs:

It's a Small World - words and music by Richard M. Sherman and Robert B. Sherman - copyright 1963 by Wonderland Music Company, Inc., Glendale, CA

Blowin' in the Wind - words and music by Bob Dylan - copyright 1962 by Warner Bros. Inc.

Let My People Go

When Israel was in Egypt land.
Let my people go.
Oppressed so hard they could not stand.
Let my people go.
Go down, Moses, way down in Egypt land.
Tell ol' Pharoah to let my people go.
Looking for Bias in Textbooks - Age

Name_________________________ Date________________

Look carefully at your spelling book.

Count the number of children. _____

Count the number of adults. _____

List the activities the children are doing.

List the activities the adults are doing?
Looking for Bias in Textbooks - Gender

Name____________________________ Date______________

Count the number of boys. _____

Count the number of girls. _____

List the activities the boys are doing.

List the activities the girls are doing.
Looking for Bias in Textbooks - Ethnicity

Name_______________________________________  Date__________________

Look carefully at your spelling book.

Count the number of people in these groups.

White  Asian  Black  Latino

What are the Black people doing?

What are the Asian people doing?

What are the Latino people doing?

What are the white people doing?
Human Rights Sentences Mixer Activity

Another word for Hispanic....

....is Latino. Both of these refer to a native or inhabitant of a Latin American country or someone of Latin American descent.

There are many stereotypes of Native Americans....

....Some of these stereotypes are warlike, savage, wild, and uncivilized.

Native Americans are discriminated against by being driven to live on reservations.....

.....They are still working on preventing further loss of land and treaty rights.

Many inner city Americans live in.....

.....substandard housing, go to inferior schools, and have low paying or no jobs.

The numbers of black and Latino children in the United States are growing rapidly.....

.....In California, white children are already a minority.
Many Latino families want to raise their children to speak Spanish and English.

Learning two languages in school is called bilingual education.

Asian Americans are sometimes resented by others for being successful.

Some people are jealous of their success.

Discrimination is treating someone unfairly because of skin color, age, size, or other difference.

There is much prejudice against many groups of people.

in the United States and all over the world.
Activity Descriptions

1. **Journey to Jo'Burg** - This book was read aloud and discussed with the class. Students also wrote down their thoughts about the book in their human rights notebooks.

2. High School ESL class visit - Ten students from eight countries visited and talked with the fourth graders.

3. South African workbooks - The students completed some of the pages of math activities using information on South Africa from *The Struggle for Human Rights*. The workbook also included pictures and factual information about life in South Africa, including a recent news article describing some positive changes.

4. Social Action Bulletin Board - To "kick off" the social action project component of the curriculum, some of the students helped design and create a bulletin board showing many possible ideas for projects. The board also had a large giraffe on it with the words "Stick Your Neck Out For Others" nearby and "We Can Make a Better World" in large letters across the top.

5. Discrimination in Advertising Display - Students looked at food containers, catalogs, and magazines to find both positive and negative examples of advertising, focusing on the issues of racism and sexism. Their findings were posted and labeled on charts that were then put up in the classroom.

6. Puppet Project Video - This project took place during the fourth week of the unit and is described in more detail in that section. On Friday of this week, a video was shown about the project to the group and they expressed interest in doing the project.
Description of Human Rights Unit Activities - Week 4

The following information explains the activities, worksheets, and journal exercises during March 25 through 29, 1991. The list below indicates the titles of the subsequent pages in this part of Appendix F.

1. Schedule for the week
2. A List of Human Rights Activists for Research Reports
3. People Who Made a Difference Reports and Projects
4. People Who Made a Difference Report Form
5. Description of remaining activity for week 4 - Puppet Project
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MONDAY</th>
<th>TUESDAY</th>
<th>WEDNESDAY</th>
<th>THURSDAY</th>
<th>FRIDAY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HR people</td>
<td>class conference</td>
<td>HR people</td>
<td>Art until 10:20</td>
<td>finishing HR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reports</td>
<td></td>
<td>reports</td>
<td></td>
<td>projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Music 9:25 to 10:00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>finishing puppet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library 10:45 to 11:30</td>
<td>puppet project</td>
<td>HR projects</td>
<td></td>
<td>videogaping HR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puppet project</td>
<td>HR people reports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>activist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lunch/R 12:40 to 1:30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>presentations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A List of Human Rights Activists for Research Projects

Nelson Mandela
Martin Luther King
Mohandas Gandhi
Corazon Aquino
Eleanor Roosevelt
Dag Hammarskjold
Jeffrey Carter
Cesar Chavez
Chief Joseph
Mary McLeod Bethune
Frederick Douglass
Mother Theresa of Calcutta
Bishop Desmond Tutu
The Dalai Lama
Oscar Arias
Chico Mendez
People Who Made A Difference Reports and Projects

People Reports
1. Read about the human rights activist you chose.
2. Fill in the report form. A finished copy is due on Thursday morning.

People Projects
Choose one of the following:

• a timeline of important events in the person's life (see Ms. Wade for details)

• prepare a one to two minute speech as your character for a short videotaped interview on Friday

• make a diorama of an important event in the person's life

• plan and begin an action project to carry on this person's work
"People Who Made a Difference" Report Form

Your Name ___________________________ Date __________________________

Name of Person who made a difference __________________________

Date of Birth __________________________

Place of Birth __________________________

Childhood Events __________________________

What childhood event(s) may have led to the person's work for human rights? __________________________
How has this person worked for the human rights of others?

Which of the following qualities have helped this person in his or her human rights work? Circle all that apply.

- brave
- patient
- caring
- dedicated
- outspoken
- intelligent
- persistent
- organized
- a leader

362
Activity Description

Puppet Project - The plan for the following project comes from the following organization:

INSA Development Education Project
(International Service Association for Health)
P.O. Box 15086
Atlanta, Georgia 30333

After watching a video on the project provided by INSA, the class made a set of hand puppets to go along with a play on oral rehydration therapy (ORT). ORT is a simple remedy for diarrhea, a chronic killer of children in third world countries. The students performed the play at a parent night and then we sent the puppets to India where they are being used by Indian Girl Guides in the villages.
APPENDIX G
FEEDBACK FORMS
Feedback Forms

The forms listed below were designed to obtain feedback from parents, teachers, and the students themselves about their ideas and learning in regards to the human rights curriculum.

1. Parent Feedback Form
2. Staff Feedback Form
3. Classroom Teacher Feedback Form
4. Student Social Action Feedback Form
5. Rights in Class Conferences Feedback Form (Students)
May 3, 1991

Dear Parent(s) of ____________________:

I would appreciate your taking a few moments to respond to this letter and return it to school with your child soon. There are two reasons for this letter. First, I am interested in any feedback you may have for me on your child's involvement with the human rights unit. Second, I need your signature on the release form below so that I may use pictures of your child along with any publications I may write or presentations I may give based on my research. Thank you for your time. If you have any questions, please call me at 357-4683.

Ms. Rahima Wade

1. What has your child mentioned to you about the Human Rights Unit?

2. What changes have you noticed in your child over the past few months which you think may be school related?

I give permission for pictures of my child _________ to be used in publications or presentations associated with Ms. Rahima Wade’s research. I understand that neither my child’s name or the name of the school will be mentioned.

_________________________ (parent)
April 14, 1991

Dear [Name],

As part of my research in Ms. Conley's classroom, I am interested in learning about the perceptions you have of her fourth grade students. I would appreciate your answering the questions below soon and returning this letter to me via Sarah's mailbox in the office. If you would find a short interview easier than filling out this form, I would be happy to talk with you. Thank you.

How would you characterize this particular group of children in comparison with other fourth grade children you have worked with during this or other year(s)?

What changes have you noticed in individuals or the group during the last few months?

Have any of the students voiced concerns with fairness, unfairness, or their rights recently? Is this behavior different from earlier in the school year?

Feel free to note any other event which you think I may find of interest. Thank you for your time!
Table 11 - Classroom Teacher Feedback Form

Week of _________________
any mention of rights or fairness or other related to h.r. unit prosocial behaviors physical aggression teasing and name calling empathy or perspective taking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

368
If just YOU had the chance to decide how to spend the $40 dollars from the yard sale, how would you spend it? You can divide it in any way you want. Write the amounts you would spend in the blanks below.

- send money to poor people in Haiti, Asia, or Ethiopia
- buy playground equipment
- buy atlases
- buy pencils
- contribute to the Heartwood playground fund
- donate to the Community Kitchen
- give the money to a school that has no playground

We have done a number of projects that have benefitted others this year (recycling, brownie sale, puppets, yard sale). Please answer in complete sentences the following two questions.

How do you feel about having helped others through these projects?

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

What have you learned about yourself through these projects?

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------

369
June 6, 1991

Names

Speaking up for our own rights and being responsible for helping other people have their rights are parts of everyday life. Below you will find a list of issues that the class conferences have dealt with this year on the left and a list of rights on the right. Put the letter of the right that you think matches the class conference issue in the blank space. You may use a right more than once or not at all, so THINK CAREFULLY!

___ choosing a class pet

___ pencils being stolen

___ giving Ms. Wade ideas about the Human Rights Unit

___ touching in ways people don't like

___ wearing hats

___ chewing gum

___ problems with who sits on the heater

___ developing a class Bill of Rights

___ library passes

Write here about one other problem or situation that happened to YOU this year that involved your rights in the class or school.

A. the right to be safe from harm

B. the right to be treated equally and fairly

C. the right to be healthy

D. the right to protection of one's personal property

E. the right to make choices about one's life
Selected Resources for Social Action Projects

INSA Development Education Project
(International Service Association for Health)
P.O. Box 15086
Atlanta, Georgia 30333
phone: 404-634-5748

INSA sponsors a number of international action projects suitable for upper elementary students, including the puppet project and the goat project described in this article. Other fundraising projects include buying bricks and books for an elementary school in Burkina Faso and making first aid kits for health workers in Haiti. Videotapes which explain the projects are free to rent and supplementary written materials on the projects as well as fact sheets on the countries are available at minimal cost.

The Giraffe Project
P.O. box 759
Langley, Washington 98260
phone: 206-221-7989

The Giraffe Project publishes an intermediate level teaching kit for use in guiding children to "stick their necks out for the common good." The materials include readings on children who have helped their communities as well as handouts and lessons for assisting children in spotting giraffes in their own schools and designing action projects so that they can be giraffes too. The kit is available at minimal cost and all materials can be reproduced in the classroom only.

Amnesty International
Urgent Action Program Office
P.O. Box 1270
Nederland, Colorado 80466-1270

Amnesty International USA Educators' Network
322 8th Avenue
New York, New York 10001
Amnesty International works on behalf of human rights around the world. By writing to the Colorado office, educators can obtain children's editions of Amnesty's letter writing project to help free political prisoners. Other teaching suggestions, including the newsletter, "Human Rights Education: The Fourth R", are available from the New York address.

Oxfam America
115 Broadway
Boston, Massachusetts 02116
phone: 617-482-1211

Oxfam America publishes a variety of films, videos, and curriculum materials for educating children about the causes and solutions of hunger and poverty. The curriculum materials include ideas for fundraisers and other action projects.

Chamber of Commerce
or United Way
Your Town

Some of the best ideas for action projects are right in your own community! Contact your local Chamber of Commerce, United Way headquarters, or other community service agencies to find out about problems, needs, and possible project ideas.

This is an autobiographical novel. The title refers to the fact that Hitler's soldiers confiscated all of the Jewish family's possessions, including nine year old Anna's pink rabbit.


This book teaches that we all have perspectives based on our own personal experiences.


This book supports both acceptance of diversity and the joy in sharing warmly with others, as well as problems with discrimination.


A young Chinese girl moves to New York with her parents. She is discriminated against by her classmates until, through persistence, she wins their admiration.


Two South African children leave their rural home and journey to find their mother in Johannesburg in order to save the life of their baby sister.


This book explores the following topics: political rights, freedom of expression, racial discrimination, religious freedom, and the rights of women, children, and the disabled.
Selected Elementary Children's Books on Human Rights
(P= primary level, I= intermediate level)


A poor man speaks to the king out of concern for the human rights of the villagers.


Sadako was two years old when the atomic bomb fell on her city, Hiroshima. Ten years later she fell ill with leukemia. Although she believed she would become well again if she could fold one thousand paper cranes, she died after completing 644. Her classmates folded the rest.


Stories of women from different cultures doing a variety of types of work are presented.


This book explores what prejudice is, how it affects our lives, and what we can do about it.


The book depicts a twenty five foot mural about the history of Japanese Americans.


Young South African children wait for their fathers to come home from working in the mines to their shanty village.

Two stories reveal powerful experiences with racism. Other books by Mildred Taylor are also valuable reading: *Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry* and *Song of the Trees*.


Yuki and her family meet with prejudice and violence when they are released from an internment camp near the end of World War II and attempt to begin a new life.


Eleven year old Rinko suffers from discrimination growing up in California during the depression. When her Aunt Waka from Japan comes to visit, Rinko learns to appreciate being Japanese.


This is the story of a refugee family who leave their small village in Vietnam and become "boat people" who eventually are given permission to land and begin a new life.

There are also numerous nonfiction books that describe the lives of children from many cultures, illustrating both our common humanity and the struggles and prejudice that exist in our world. Also useful are biographical accounts of human rights activists such as Martin Luther King, Susan B. Anthony, Cesar Chavez, Mother Theresa, Nelson Mandela, Mohandas Gandhi, Sojourner Truth, The Dalai Lama, Eleanor Roosevelt, Dag Hammarskjold, Chief Joseph, Frederick Douglas, Desmond Tutu, and many others.
APPENDIX I

HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION CURRICULA
Human Rights Curricula

Justice Around the World: A Student Packet for Elementary Schools

This curriculum, written by Anne O’Brien Carelli (1981) and published by the Center for International Programs and Comparative Studies of the New York State Education Department, is a learning packet of ten activities developed to foster awareness of international human rights issues.

The first lessons focus on understanding human rights and related concepts. Students look at human rights in their own lives and then discuss case studies from other countries. Both the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights and other human rights documents around the world form the basis of some of the lessons. Although not stated explicitly, appreciating diversity, respecting others, and developing empathy and perspective-taking abilities are fostered in these lessons. Many of the effective teaching strategies for human rights education are included.

A weakness of the curriculum is that violations of human rights are presented as being the province of countries other than the United States. Also, there are no provisions in this curriculum for involving students in the design of the activities or in creating a democratic classroom environment.

Action projects are not included and, in fact, are somewhat discouraged. For example, students are instructed to write mock newspaper articles and pretend letters on behalf of political prisoners. The curriculum states that "Actual letters cannot be written unless you are a member of an (Amnesty International)
Adoption Group" (p. 15). The address for Amnesty International is not included in the packet.

Elementary School Guide for Teaching About Human Rights

This curriculum was written by Louise Frazier and others (1981) and published by the Detroit Public Schools, Michigan Department of Curriculum Development Services. The 38 lessons are developed around ten goals that focus on interdependence, human dignity, self-esteem, and the elimination of oppression.

A strong focus on respect, tolerance, and appreciation for others is evident in this curriculum. The first lesson deals with understanding the concept of human rights. Students are involved in learning about both United Nations human rights documents as well as national, state, and local efforts that affect one's human rights. The introduction to the curriculum recommends that teachers integrate these lessons throughout the curriculum.

Learning about human rights violations is balanced with lessons on self-esteem and making the world a better place for everyone. Effective teaching strategies used in this unit include role play, group work, discussions, and varied opportunities for critical thinking and oral and written expression. A unique feature of this unit is a number of lessons that involve writing to city government officials and agencies for information and to invite guest speakers.

A shortcoming of this curriculum is that the lessons are presented in a teacher-directed format and, despite the focus on making the world a better place, offer no opportunities to participate in action projects to effect change. Students are not
involved in designing the curriculum nor in making any significant
decisions or choices in the lessons.

The Struggle for Human Rights

This curriculum was written by Eileen Neeson and Burt
Schuman (n.d.) and is published by the Division of Curriculum and
Instruction of the New York City Board of Education. The unit is
divided into two parts, the first focusing on human rights in
student's lives and in the United States, and the second, a series of
lessons presented as a case study on South Africa. Resources for
this unit were contributed by Amnesty International, the New York
Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, and Educators Against
Apartheid.

Developing respect, empathy, and compassion for others are
goals of this unit. The concept of human rights and related concepts
such as discrimination, prejudice, and freedom are explored in
personal, national, and international contexts. There is a balance
between national and international human rights issues and between
violations and preservation efforts, including violations in the
United States. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is
highlighted in a few of the lessons.

Critical thinking and oral expression are encouraged in open
discussions in many of the lessons. Other teaching strategies used
are role play, simulation, case study, and small group work. The
lessons are unique in their focus on bringing international human
rights issues into meaning through relating the concepts and ideas
to students' personal lives.
Despite these strengths, the unit relies heavily on the use of worksheets and there is little opportunity for social action projects. There is no mention of teaching this unit in a democratic classroom environment and little indication of opportunities for student choice or input in planning the unit.

Model Curriculum for Human Rights and Genocide

This curriculum was developed and published by the California State Board of Education (1987) in alignment with the History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve. This curriculum is not a collection of lessons, but rather a set of broad recommendations and suggested foci for the different grade levels. The analysis of this curriculum cannot be directly compared with the previous ones because the specificity of lessons, teaching strategies, and so forth is not included.

Rights, responsibilities, respect, dignity, empathy, and conflict are the core concepts of this curriculum at the elementary level. There is a strong focus on learning about and appreciating cultural diversity. There is a balance between looking at violations and efforts to preserve human rights (though only in the United States). Democratic values and "good citizenship" are promoted, especially at the elementary level. Recommended teaching strategies include extensive use of stories and folk tales from many cultures and participating in local issues.

The foci for the elementary grades is tied to the expanding environments model in social studies education. Thus, third graders focus on the community, fourth graders on the state, and fifth
graders on the nation. Because of this arrangement, there is no inclusion of international human rights issues before the sixth grade level. Also, the curriculum is largely history oriented and except for the use of children's literature is not integrated in other subject areas.

The picture of "good citizenship" presented in this curriculum centers around cooperative behaviors such as sharing, taking turns, being a good sport, and respecting the rights and opinions of others (p. 3). The aspect of democratic participation of working to change oppressive conditions in active and meaningful ways is not presented.

**What are Human Rights? Let's Talk...**

This curriculum was printed by the Canadian Human Rights Foundation (1989) after three years of pilot testing in six provinces with nearly 8,000 students. The curriculum is designed for grades 4-6 and consists of four units covering fundamental rights: economic, social, and cultural rights; the right to justice; and the right to equality; with a supplemental section on theatre activities.

This curriculum is the most comprehensive I have seen for the middle childhood years. The developers obviously have taken into account the recommendations of many human rights educators and have also refined their work based on the input of many teachers and students. The focus on key attitudes and concepts for human rights education is evident. Both national and international issues are addressed and the point is made that human rights violations can be found in Canada as well as the rest of the world.
The curriculum is also noteworthy in the range of teaching strategies it incorporates. Simulations, writing projects, case studies, stories, theatre and role play, a simulation, a song, and action projects are all included. There is also ample opportunity for frontal teaching and class discussion which invites and respects student opinions. Student input in the design of the curriculum and the development of a democratic classroom are fostered through both the action projects on poverty and discrimination as well as the development of a Class Charter (Bill of Rights).

The developers of the curriculum have also been responsive to the needs of teachers to become informed of and feel more comfortable in teaching about human rights. Every unit has additional Teacher's Documentation sections which provide teachers with extensive background information on the issues addressed in the lessons.

Indeed it is hard to find fault with the curriculum. The main weaknesses I note are preferential; there is too much emphasis on frontal teaching and the sharing of facts. Although the developers profess that the curriculum can be integrated with the existing subject matter in the elementary school curriculum, the addition of a few charts which emphasize what subject areas, academic skills, or social skills are addressed in each unit or lesson would be a helpful addition.

Related Curricular Materials

A teacher who wants to bring human rights education into the classroom should not overlook the many curricular materials published by different social action movements. Although these are
far too numerous to mention here, those below are excellent examples.

Amnesty International's materials for educators are quite extensive and include videos, a newsletter and curriculum units developed by the British Section (1983). Action projects for human rights, notably letter writing on behalf of prisoners of conscience, are a strong focus of Amnesty's materials.

The Giraffe Project, so named because of its recommendation to "stick your neck out" for the common good, also focuses on social action work. Although their intermediate curriculum does not address the concepts of human rights and learning about human rights documents; the democratic classroom approach, student empowerment, and social action projects on behalf of others in need are at the core of human rights education.

The Center for Peace and Conflict Studies at Wayne State University in Indiana has printed two study guides for upper elementary students to develop an understanding of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. Both of these guides present the Declarations in simplified language along with discussion questions which invite students to reflect on moral rights issues and relate the articles to their own personal experiences.

As was mentioned previously, Australia has produced a number of excellent, though difficult to obtain, materials for human rights education. Ralph Pettman's Teaching for Human Rights (now out of print) contains many excellent activities for upper elementary students, particularly in exploring prejudice and discrimination. A
more recent publication by the Australian Human Rights Commission, *Teaching For Human Rights: Pre-school and Grades 1-4* (1986), provides thorough recommendations on building a human rights focus into daily classroom life and typical primary level activities centered on studies of friendship and the self.

An inspiring compendium of activities can be found in *Open Minds to Equality: A Sourcebook of Learning Activities to Promote Race, Sex, Class, and Age Equity* (1983) by Nancy Schniedewind and Ellen Davidson. The activities in this book are designed for grades 3-9, so some are a bit complex for upper elementary students. Although the content does not include a specific focus on human rights, the activities foster learning about different types of discrimination and actively creating change in the school and community.

*Winning "Justice for All"* is an excellent curriculum on stereotyping, sexism, and racism published by the Council on Interracial Books for Children (1980). Background reading for the teacher, a student workbook, and filmstrips are included in this elementary level program.

This brief list is indicative of the types of materials one can find that could be used in human rights education at the elementary level. There are many other organizations which publish pertinent curriculum materials, such as OXFAM, UNICEF, and the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith.

385


392


Kohn, Alfie (March 1991). Teaching Children to Care. Phi Delta Kappan, 72(7), 496-506.


Molnar, Alex (May 1986). We Hold These Truths To Be Self-Evident...Human Rights as an Educational Problem. *Educational Leadership*, 43(8), 71-72.


