EDC/HRE Volume III

Rolf Gollob and Peter Krapf (editors)

Living in democracy

EDC/HRE lesson plans for lower secondary level

Council of Europe Publishing
Editions du Conseil de l'Europe

Living in democracy

EDC/HRE lesson plans for lower secondary level

Edited by Rolf Gollob and Peter Krapf
Authors: Rolf Gollob, Ted Huddleston, Peter Krapf, Don Rowe, Wim Taelman

Volume III
of
EDC/HRE Volumes I–VI
Education for Democratic Citizenship
and Human Rights in school practice
Teaching sequences, concepts, methods and models

Council of Europe Publishing

The opinions expressed in this work are the responsibility of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the official policy of the Council of Europe.

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be translated, reproduced or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic (CD-Rom, Internet, etc.) or mechanical, including photocopying, recording or any information storage or retrieval system, without prior permission in writing from the Public Information and Publications Division, Directorate of Communication (F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex or publishing@coe.int).

Co-ordination for production, design and editing of this volume by IPE (International Projects in Education; www.phzh.ch/ipe) transfer center of the Zurich University of Teacher Education (PHZH).

Co-financing by SDC – Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation.

Text proofread by the Documents and Publications Production Department (DPPD),
Council of Europe

Illustrations: Peti Wiskemann
Cover: Graphic Design Workshop, Council of Europe
Layout: Ogham/Mourreau

Council of Europe Publishing
F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex
http://book.coe.int

ISBN: 978-92-871-6332-5
© Council of Europe, April 2008
Printed at the Council of Europe

Contents

Page

Introduction 5

The conceptual framework of the manual: key concepts 10

Part 1 – Individual and community 17

Unit 1: Stereotypes and prejudices. What is identity?
How do I perceive others, how do they see me? 19

Unit 2: Equality. Are you more equal than me? 39

Unit 3: Diversity and pluralism. How can people live together peacefully? 61

Unit 4: Conflict. What to do if we disagree? 87

Part 2 – Taking responsibility 109

Unit 5: Rights, liberties and responsibilities. What are our rights and how are they protected? . . 111

Unit 6: Responsibility. What kind of responsibilities do people have? 139

Part 3 – Participation 157

Unit 7: A class newspaper. Understanding media by producing media 159

Part 4 – Power and authority 173

Unit 8: Rules and law. What sort of rules does a society need? 175

Unit 9: Government and politics. How should society be governed? 195

Introduction

What does this book offer?

This manual addresses teachers, teacher trainers, curriculum developers, textbook editors and translators in the member states of the Council of Europe. It may be translated and adapted to meet the specific requirements within their education systems.

This book contains nine teaching units in Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) and Human Rights Education (HRE). The units, consisting of four lessons each, are intended for students in their final year at lower secondary level (8th or 9th grade, depending on the school system). Each unit focuses on a key concept related to EDC or HRE: identity – freedom – responsibility – conflict – communication – pluralism – rules and law – equality – government.

For each lesson, a sequence of suggested teaching steps is described in detail, as far as this is reasonably possible. Student handouts are included as appendices to each unit, so that the teacher receives as much support as a manual can give. This book therefore addresses teachers, not students. Our experience in teacher training has shown that trainees and beginners in the teaching profession appreciate detailed lesson descriptions, but perhaps experienced teachers will also find some ideas and materials useful for their classes. Teacher trainers may use this book as a manual in training EDC and human rights teachers.

This is a revised version of the manual. The first edition was developed in Bosnia and Herzegovina to support a new school subject, democracy and human rights, that was introduced in 2002. Since 1996, the Council of Europe has been engaged in training teachers and teacher trainers of EDC and HRE to support the peace-building process after the war. The editors and authors of the first edition were members of the international team of trainers participating in this project. We delivered in-service training of teachers and teacher trainers, and developed materials, including the first draft of this manual, both for teacher training and for use in the classroom.[1]

What is the approach of EDC/HRE?

The basic principles of EDC may be best illustrated by an example. Freedom of opinion and expression[2] is a basic right of democratic participation. In EDC/HRE, students should know, understand and appreciate the right to free opinion and expression and they should know how it is protected by their national constitution (the learning dimension of knowledge and understanding). Precisely because the active use of this right is essential for participation in a democratic community, students must also learn and practise how to argue in public (the learning dimension of skills development and competence building). Finally, freedom of expression and opinion lays the foundation for an open, pluralist society. Controversy and competition of interests and opinions are the norm, not the exception. Conflicts will arise, and they need to be resolved by non-violent means, that is, through the spoken word (arguing, bargaining, negotiating – both in public and behind closed doors). An open pluralist society relies on a set of binding rules and strong institutions to enforce these rules, but perhaps even more on a shared set of values among the citizens. These values include tolerance, mutual respect, appreciation of fair compromise, non-violence, and the ability to deal with open situations of disagreement and controversy in which issues have not yet been decided. If political decision making is supported and framed by a strong consensus of order and democratic values, a society can handle a high degree of disagreement on concrete issues. Freedom of opinion is then far from becoming a danger to effective government, but rather supports it as a means of finding fair and efficient solutions to problems and conflicts.

1. For a more detailed account of this project, see Volume I of this series.
2. See UDHR, 10 December 1948, Article 19; ECHR, 4 November 1950, Article 10.

Democracy has a cultural dimension and in political theory this has been conceived as an unwritten social contract entered into by every citizen. Every new generation must therefore understand and support this unwritten social contract (the acquisition of values).

This example shows that EDC/HRE follows a holistic approach, integrating learning processes in three dimensions:

- knowledge and understanding (cognitive dimension);
- skills training and competence building;
- acquisition of values and attitudes.

This model of learning dimensions applies to education in general, and therefore will be familiar to many readers. Every teacher knows how strong the bias is towards cognitive learning, particularly in the higher grades. How does EDC/HRE therefore respond to the challenge that this holistic model of learning presents? In other words, if this is what students should learn, what must teachers do?

What are the basic principles of EDC/HRE?

Broadly speaking, EDC and HRE integrate these dimensions of learning by creating a setting that includes learning in class and learning from real life experience. EDC and HRE are based on a set of three didactic approaches:

- learning "about" democracy and human rights;
- learning "through" democracy and human rights;
- learning "for" democracy and human rights.

These three didactic approaches of EDC/HRE form an integrated whole. In everything teachers do, all three didactic approaches are involved, serving all three dimensions of learning. The balance of deliberate emphasis should vary. We will look at each of these approaches in somewhat more detail.

Learning "about"

This involves civic education as a regular school subject. Learning "about" refers to the cognitive dimension of learning. The standards of the cognitive EDC/HRE curriculum include the following: the students can explain how democracy works, in contrast to other forms of state (dictatorship, oligarchy); the students can describe the tradition and history of human rights; and they can demonstrate how some of these human rights have been integrated into their national constitutions, thereby giving them the status of civil rights that are more strongly protected. The curriculum must therefore include courses in EDC/HRE and closely linked subjects, such as history, social studies and economics.

Learning "through"

Students should not only know their rights regarding participation, they must also be able to use them. Students therefore need practical experience and training opportunities within school life through participation in decision making, where this is possible and useful. For example, teachers must give students the opportunity to state their opinions, both on topics in class and on issues related to teaching and the running of the school. When understood in this way, EDC and HRE provide a pedagogical guideline rather than a curriculum, and involve the whole school, not only specially trained EDC/HRE teachers. Values such as tolerance and responsibility are learnt through experience, and a lot may depend on the teachers – all teachers, in all subjects – to provide convincing role models. On the other hand, democratic values as a non-verbal mode of behaviour will not suffice either. Experience in school life needs to be reflected in and linked to categories and systematic ways of understanding (learning "about"). EDC/HRE depends on both dimensions, and the debate whether EDC/HRE or civic education as a subject could be substituted in the curriculum by EDC/HRE as a generalised pedagogical principle is misleading.

Learning "for"

This didactic perspective refers to the links between school experience and later life. EDC/HRE takes the view that experience in school life matters in terms of general and political socialisation. It is true that education, including life in school, is a subsystem that is governed by specific needs and rules, and experiences from this subsystem are not directly transferable. But, on the other hand, life in school is essentially a part of real life. Many experiences that students encounter in school will recur in adult life, for example, issues of gender equality, integration of community members with different ethnic or social backgrounds, dealing with violence, taking responsibility, experiencing unequal distribution of power and scarcity of key resources (such as money and time), obeying rules and laws, and accepting compromise. Learning "for" refers to the importance of education for later life. It is the task of teachers in all subjects to train students in the skills of active participation, for example, the ability to state one's view briefly and clearly in public.

EDC conceives school as a place where students can learn from real life experience. School is life, rather than a place of isolated academic learning for later life. School is a micro-community that serves as a model of society as a whole.[3] To a certain extent, school may even become a model of a better or more democratic society, as the members of a school community can participate in decision making to a larger extent within the school environment than would be possible outside of it. Learning "for" democracy and human rights means learning how to participate in a community, while learning "through" democracy and human rights means that this community is governed by democratic principles, where human rights and children's rights are observed as pedagogical guidelines. Democracy relies on a political culture that students must learn through experience in schools, and by reflecting on this experience (learning "about").

EDC/HRE carries implications for educational reform that address the whole school, involving all teachers and head teachers, school administrators and supervisors. The focus of this manual, on the other hand, is education for democratic citizenship and human rights education as a school subject. Reform consists of many small steps, and the process and outcome will vary by country and context. The first steps to be taken are in the classroom, where teachers can decide what they wish to change. From this point of view, the question of method and content is important.

How is content linked to method in EDC/HRE?

Generally speaking, learning is an activity carried out by the learner. Learning is an active process that differs from one individual learner to another (the constructivist concept of learning). To resume the example given above, students can only learn how to enjoy the freedom of expression through frequent practice – "use it or lose it". Teachers – not only in EDC/HRE, but in other subjects too – have the task of providing their students with the learning opportunities and tasks that support this process of learning, for example through presentations, discussions, debates, essays, posters, works of art or video clips.

EDC/HRE therefore emphasises methods that support task-based, interactive and co-operative learning. By discovering the problems linked to a certain task and finding the solutions themselves, students learn more than they would in a setting of frontal instruction alone, and there is more flexibility to take account of their individual learning needs. The units in this book demonstrate how task-based learning can be linked to specific topics and subject matter, including learning through projects, critical thinking, debating and discussion, reflection and feedback. On the other hand, frontal instruction versus interactive teaching is a false alternative. Good teaching will always be a combination of both forms, as the lesson descriptions in this manual will show.

3. This concept has been inspired by thinkers like Dewey (school as an "embryonic society") and von Henting ("school as polis").

Key objective of EDC/HRE: Participation in democracy			
Learning	**Teaching**	**Methods**	**School**
Knowledge and understanding Skills Attitudes and values	Teaching – about – through – for democracy and human rights	– Task-based, – interactive, – co-operative learning combined with – instruction – guidance – training – demonstration by the teacher	"School as a micro-society" Real life experience in school

Task-based learning has implications for the time budget in class. Generally speaking, if teachers want students to do more, they must talk less and take up less time in class. At the same time, they must be more flexible in responding to their students' learning needs. Task-based and interactive learning requires careful planning and preparation and is generally more time-consuming than frontal instruction. This is probably the reason why the latter prevails, although it is now widely acknowledged that a shift to interactive teaching is necessary.

It may therefore appear paradoxical to produce a book for teachers rather than students. However, precisely because interactive teaching and task-based learning pose more difficult tasks for teachers, requiring them to perform a wider range of roles and to respond flexibly to the learning needs of students, this book is intended to support teachers as the key figures – for it is the teacher who has to provide the opportunity, the tasks and the media for the students to become more active.

What is the key objective of EDC/HRE?

Democratic systems depend on active democrats. How to take part in democracy can and must be learnt. The complexity of the institutional framework and of the issues under discussion requires a minimum level of knowledge and understanding. Taking part in public debate, that is, in the competition of ideas and organised interests, requires skills such as the ability to speak in public and to negotiate. Understanding and appreciating the unwritten social contract underlying the political culture of democratic communities depends on the values and attitudes that a young person has adhered to. The key objective of EDC/HRE is to keep democracy alive by supporting the young generation in becoming active citizens. Democracy cannot function without an institutional framework protected by a constitution. But that is not enough. It needs to be rooted in society. It is this cultural dimension of democracy that EDC/HRE strives to strengthen and support. This is precisely why the Council of Europe focused on in-service teacher training in EDC/HRE to support the peace process in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

This manual addresses teachers of students in the 8th or 9th grade. Learning heavily depends on what the learner already knows and what he or she has experienced in life. The units in this book therefore emphasise the cultural dimension of democracy, while the manual for secondary level (EDC/HRE, Volume IV) shifts the focus to the political and institutional dimension of democracy in the community and in political decision-making processes.[4]

4. EDC/HRE can be taught to any age group, provided that the level of expertise and experience of the learners is taken into account. The "Manual for children's rights education" (EDC/HRE, Volume V) shows the span of didactic approaches from kindergarten level up to the 8th grade.

The "European approach" to EDC/HRE

This manual reflects a shared European approach to EDC/HRE by benefiting from contributions emanating from a wide variety of backgrounds. We developed the idea and the first version of this book in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and many educators and teachers took part in both review and discussion. The authors and editors of this manual represent teaching approaches and traditions in the UK, Belgium, Switzerland and Germany. When preparing the revised version, we were supported by Ms Ólöf Ólafsdóttir and Ms Sarah Keating-Chetwynd at the Council of Europe, and by Ms Sabrina Marruncheddu and Dr Wiltrud Weidinger (International Projects in Education (IPE), Zurich). Ms Angela Doul, Council of Europe, read our final drafts. Mr Peti Wiskemann's illustrations add meaning to the text that cannot by expressed in words. We wish to thank the authors, illustrator, reviewers and proofreader for their contributions and support. We are particularly grateful to Mr Emir Adzovic, the co-ordinator of the Council of Europe in Sarajevo, who has taken care of us throughout the EDC/HRE projects. Without his engagement from the very beginning of the project this book would never have been written. We also thank Ms Heather Courant for her patience in preparing our journeys, obtaining visas or arranging meetings. We are grateful to all our partners in this truly European project.

Strasbourg, April 2008

Rolf Gollob (Zurich, Switzerland)

Peter Krapf (Weingarten, Germany)

The conceptual framework of the manual: key concepts

Key concepts in EDC/HRE – tools for the active citizen

By focusing on concepts, this book follows a classic didactic approach to civic and other fields of education. Concepts are drawn from theory, but in teaching and learning they do not create a systematic theoretical framework. Rather, they are selected because they are useful tools for the learner.

Concepts provide cognitive structures that enable learners to integrate new information into a meaningful context and to remember it more easily (constructivist learning). This applies particularly to facts and figures that learners would otherwise have to learn by heart. Concepts also help when reading a newspaper or listening to the news, as an issue becomes significant when linked to a concept such as democracy, power, conflict or responsibility. Concepts are therefore essential in the education of the informed citizen. But they do not only give structure to cognitive learning; they also have implications for the development of values and skills training. These links are demonstrated by all units in this book, as will be shown in more detail below.

Students who have learnt to ask questions guided by key concepts in EDC/HRE will be better equipped to work with new information and new problems in the future (lifelong learning). Concept-based learning also prepares students for more advanced studies at an academic level where they may arrive at the theories that deliver concepts.

How do learners understand and use key concepts?

Thinking and learning has a lot to do with linking the concrete with the abstract. Concepts are abstract, generalised products of analysis and reasoning. Learners can grasp concepts using two approaches, the deductive or the inductive. The deductive approach begins with the concept, presented by a lecture or a text, and then applies it to something concrete, for example, an issue or an experience. The inductive approach moves the other way, beginning with the concrete and proceeding to the abstract. The reader will find that the units in this book generally follow the inductive path.

The key concepts in this book are therefore developed from concrete examples – often stories or case reports. When the students discuss what an example stands for in general, they are asking for a concept that can sum up these generalised aspects. The teacher decides when and how to introduce the concept.

Concepts are tools of understanding that learners can apply to new topics. The more often they use a concept, the better they will understand it, and the closer the links and cross-connections (cognitive structures) will become. Rather than learning isolated facts by heart, learners may link new information to the framework of understanding that they have already developed.

How can this manual be adapted?

The units describe the first of two important steps of learning, moving from the concrete to the abstract. They supply the tools and leave it to the teachers and students to decide how to use them. This is the second step from the abstract back to the concrete. It is not only the needs and interests of learners that vary – the issues and materials, the institutional framework and the educational traditions also vary from country to country. This is the starting point for adaptation of this manual.

The units in this book offer tools that support political literacy, skills training and the development of attitudes. They do not refer to issues in any particular country at any particular time, but the reader will frequently find suggestions for the teacher or students to collect materials that link the

units to the context in their countries. Editors and translators as well as teachers should be aware of this gap, which has been left deliberately. Just as each country develops its own tradition of democracy, rooted in its cultural tradition and social development, each country must also develop its equivalent version of EDC/HRE, by adding references to its educational and school system, the institutional framework of its political system, political issues and decision-making processes.

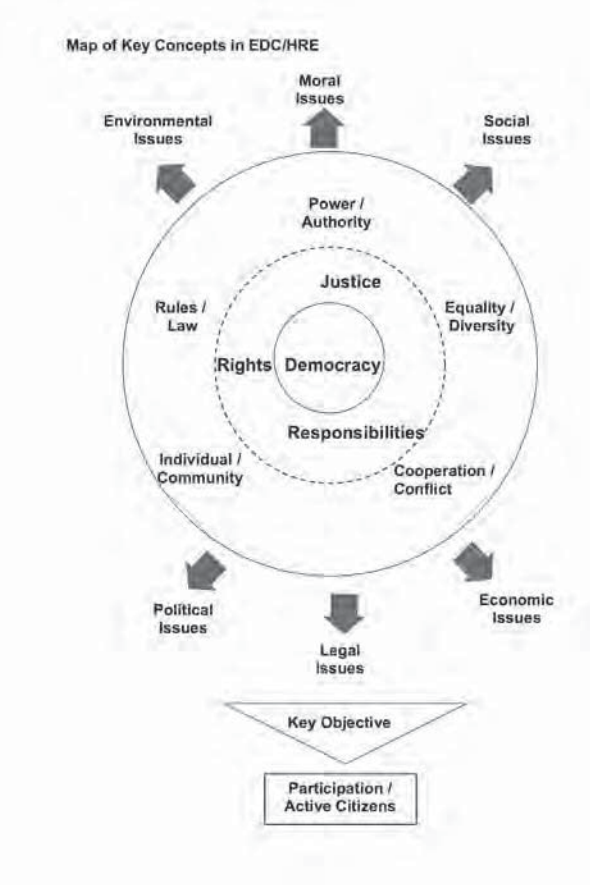
Which key concepts are included in this manual?

The concept map below, designed in concentric circles, shows which key concepts have been included by the units in this manual.

Democracy is in the centre of the map to indicate that this concept is present in every context of EDC/HRE. Participation in the democratic community by active citizens is the key objective of EDC/HRE, and this is reflected by the focal position of this concept.

In the next circle, three key elements of democracy are addressed: rights, responsibility and justice. They refer to three interdependent and important conditions that are necessary if democracies are to succeed.

Citizens must be granted, and make active use of, basic human rights that enable them to participate in decision-making processes – for example the right to vote, freedom of expression, freedom of the press, equality before the law, and the right to majority rule. Democracy is competitive – there is competition between interests, ideas and values – and valuable goods are scarce. However, the opportunities to influence decision making, particularly in competitive market economies, are unequally distributed, and in society there is unequal distribution of welfare and opportunities. It is a political issue whether and to what extent the results of economic and social distribution need to be corrected (social justice). Citizens may and should use their rights to protect their interests, but no community can survive if its members are unwilling to care for each other or their common interests (responsibility). This brief sketch shows that the concepts do not stand alone, but are linked to one another by tensions that need to be balanced, and therefore understood.



The other concepts, arranged in the outer circle, are linked with these core concepts and with each other in many ways.

The arrows pointing outwards indicate that all these concepts may be used in dealing with issues of different kinds – moral, social, economic, legal, political or environmental.

Key concepts and learning dimensions in EDC/HRE

The key concepts are linked both to the subject matter of the units and the three learning dimensions in EDC/HRE that were already outlined in the introduction. The following table shows what the units contribute to teaching about, through and for democracy and human rights. The table also shows how and why the units have been grouped under four headings that refer to key aspects of EDC/HRE:

1. Individual and community;
2. Taking responsibility;

3. Participation;

4. Power and authority.

Arranged under these four headings, the units form a course. Part 1 begins with the individual and then focuses on society – social interaction, stereotyping, diversity and pluralism, pluralism and conflict. Part 2 raises the issue of who should take responsibility in the community. In Part 3, Unit 5 (Newspaper production) stands on its own, as this unit comes closest to taking action in the community – in this case, the school community. Finally, Part 4 looks at the law, legislation and politics, both on a general level and in the context of a school parliament.

Unit No.	Title	Key concept in EDC/HRE	Teaching about – through – for democracy and human rights		
			"about"	*"through"*	*"for"*
Part 1: Individual and community					
1	Stereotypes and prejudices. What is identity? How do I perceive others, how do they see me?	Identity Individual and community	Mutual perception Stereotypes Prejudice Individual and group identity	Switching perspectives	Recognising and questioning stereotypes and prejudices
2	Equality. Are you more equal than me?	Equality Discrimination Social justice	Discrimination in society Equality as a fundamental human right	Appreciation of difference and similarity Switching to the perspective of victims of discrimination	Challenging situations of discrimination Moral reasoning
3	Diversity and pluralism. How can people live together peacefully?	Diversity Pluralism Democracy	Pluralism and its limits Equal rights and education Protection of vulnerable persons or groups by human rights treaties	Tolerance Focus on issues rather than people	Democratic discussion Exploratory debate Negotiation
4	Conflict. What to do if we disagree?	Conflict Peace	Win-win situation Wants, needs, compromise	Non-violence	Six-stage model of conflict resolution
Part 2: Taking responsibility					
5	Rights, liberties and responsibilities. What are our rights and how are they protected?	Rights Liberties Responsibility	Basic needs Wishes Human dignity Responsibilities and human rights protection	Awareness of personal responsibility	Identifying and challenging human rights violations
6	Responsibility. What kind of responsibilities do people have?	Responsibility	Legal, social, moral responsibilities Role of NGOs in civil society	Moral reasoning Solving dilemmas (conflicts of responsibility)	Taking personal responsibility

Unit No.	Title	Key concept in EDC/HRE	Teaching about – through – for democracy and human rights		
			"about"	*"through"*	*"for"*
Part 3: Participation					
7	A class newspaper. Understanding media by producing media	Democracy Public opinion	Types of print media Purpose of news sections	Freedom of information and expression Planning Joint decision making	Taking personal responsibility for a project
Part 4: Power and authority					
8	Rules and law. What sort of rules does a society need?	Rules and law Rule of law	Purpose of law Civil law, criminal law Laws for young people Criteria for a good law	Identifying fair laws	Respecting the law
9	Government and politics. How should society be governed?	Power and authority Democracy Politics	Forms of government (democracy, monarchy, dictatorship, theocracy, anarchy). Responsibilities of a government	Freedom of thought and expression Critical thinking	Debating

Grouping the units under key aspects gives the teacher more flexibility in lesson planning. Questions raised by the students in one unit often anticipate the switch of perspective in a subsequent unit, which allows the teacher to respond better to the learners' needs.

As described above, all units in this manual follow an inductive approach. The table shows categories linked to these key concepts within the units (learning about democracy and human rights). The second learning dimension of EDC/HRE, development of democratic attitudes and values, is directly addressed in Part 2, Taking responsibility. There is, however, a values dimension in every unit, as the column "Teaching through democracy and human rights" shows. The third learning dimension of EDC/HRE, learning how to participate in the community (learning for democracy and human rights), is also addressed in every unit, with Unit 5 focusing most strongly on this dimension.

The lesson plans include boxes on conceptual learning. Here, not only the key concepts are explained, but other concepts that are important in the context of the lesson are also introduced.

The concept puzzle – a model of constructivist learning

The concept puzzle runs through the book like a leitmotif. It reappears on the title page of each unit, with the piece related to the key concept of that particular unit shown in the foreground. Here, the nine illustrations have been put together to form the complete puzzle. This image may be read in various ways.

First of all, the text in each picture makes clear which concept of EDC/HRE the artist, Peti Wiskemann, had in mind. Then, by connecting the nine pictures, the puzzle indicates that the nine concepts are linked in many ways and form one meaningful whole.

However, the puzzle gives us the impression that the set of key concepts in this book is complete in itself, and that no element may be omitted or added. Viewed from this angle, the puzzle might seem to convey a misleading message, suggesting that no didactic choice was made in the conceptual framework of this manual.

Of course, these nine concepts do not form a closed system of theory or understanding. Rather, they were chosen because we felt them to be particularly important or useful. Others would have been interesting too, for example money, power, or ideology. The manual provides a toolbox rather than a theory, and is open to adaptation and additions.

On the other hand, the attempt to understand is a search for meaning, and constructivism conceives the process of learning as an effort to create meaning. Learners link new information to what they already know and what they have already understood. The puzzle may thus be read as a symbol of how meaning is created by a learner. Students will try to link the key concepts of EDC/HRE to one another. In doing so, they will create their own puzzle in their minds, with different links and their own individual arrangement of the elements. Perhaps they will discover gaps or missing links and ask questions that go beyond the aim of the handful of key concepts in this book. Their results will differ, and the puzzle will reflect this by showing the concepts in a different order than the diagram and table above. Students may make mistakes when they create their own puzzles and so they should share their results in class. If necessary, a student or teacher should correct them (deconstruction).

When the teacher uses this manual and prepares lessons, he or she will have an idea in mind as to how these concepts are linked and how the students may, or should, understand them.

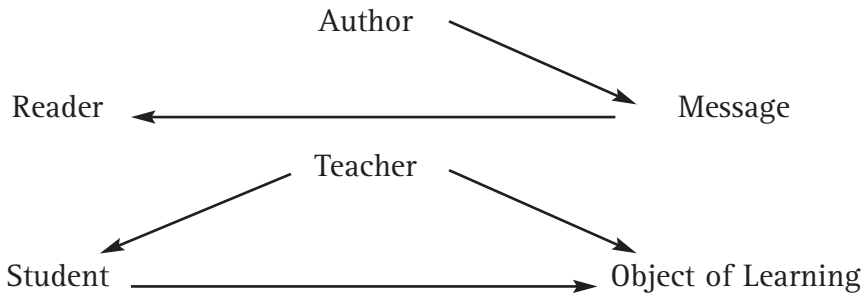
As the proverb says, a picture says more than a thousand words. Thus, this puzzle can tell the reader a lot about the key concepts in this book, about the implications of making didactic choices and about constructivist learning.

Images support the active reader (metareflection)

This chapter has dealt with an abstract idea – concepts. The author has a difficult task in making his message clear and the reader has a difficult task in understanding it. This shared experience of author and reader has a lot in common with the interaction between teachers and students. It is therefore worthwhile reflecting on the communication between author and reader in this chapter. In doing so, we are once more using an inductive approach, drawing on a concrete, shared experience in order to gain a general insight that may be applied in other fields, particularly teaching and learning.

Research has shown that many users of books look at pictures and diagrams first before studying the text. The strength of pictures lies in their aesthetic appeal to our imagination and in their concentration of information. Their weakness is that this information is transmitted non-verbally. The viewer may construct an idea in his or her mind that runs contrary to the author's intention.

Author, reader and message form a triangular relationship. In this structure, one element is always absent from the relationship of the other two. This means that the author has no complete control over the message that the reader forms in his or her mind, just as no teacher can decide what a student finally remembers or forgets. However, if the reader is interested and willing to find out whether his or her understanding of the image is correct – whether it corresponds to the author's intended message – then the author should provide a text that comments on or explains the image.



It is interesting to compare the structure of communication between author and reader with that of the teacher and students in the model of the didactic triangle. There are structural analogies, and significant differences.

In both cases, there is a triangular structure, which means that no one element or player dominates the whole. Authors communicate with their readers through a medium such as this manual. It is usually a one-way communication. Author and reader rarely meet in person, and the author receives no regular feedback. The author has no complete control over the message that emerges in the reader's mind.

In class, the teacher has no complete control over the student's processes of learning. However, the personal relationship between students and teacher provides permanent feedback, and the teacher's personality is the most powerful medium in the process of teaching.

While looking at an image, the reader constructs a message in her or his mind and anticipates what to expect when reading the text that the author has provided. Perhaps the reader will find that his or her understanding of the image is confirmed, or perhaps he or she will experience deconstruction of some elements. Images help to create a dialogue between author and reader that takes place in the reader's mind. The combination of image and text supports the active reader – and thinker.

Reading images is a key skill in the so-called information society and students should be trained in this skill. We therefore suggest that the teacher share this puzzle with students. Explaining the picture is a task that rests either with the teacher or with the students. The teacher could use it to introduce the students to the curriculum that this manual offers, or perhaps as a summary at the end of the school year. The students could cut up the puzzle into nine pieces and reconstruct it according to the actual curriculum that has emerged in their minds. By sharing their personal combinations and links of the puzzle pieces and the concepts they stand for, the students will become aware of their own ways of learning and understanding. Reflecting on this experience at the level of conceptual learning, they may come to understand that freedom of thought and expression are not only conditions of democratic decision making, but also of reading and learning.

Part 1

Individual and community

Unit 1

Stereotypes and prejudices. What is identity? How do I perceive others, how do they see me?

Unit 2

Equality. Are you more equal than me?

Unit 3

Diversity and pluralism. How can people live together peacefully?

Unit 4

Conflict. What to do if we disagree?

UNIT 1
Stereotypes and prejudices

What is identity?
How do I perceive others, how do they see me?

1.1. How others see a person...

There is more to a person than one might think

1.2. How differently a person can be described...

How to get a better picture of a person

1.3. Stereotypes and prejudices

Our ideas about other people, groups or countries

1.4. Stereotypes about me!

How do I see myself – how do others see me?

UNIT 1: Stereotypes and prejudices
What is identity? How do I perceive others, how do they see me?

Who am I really? Every day, students experience a wide variety of values and ways of living together. In order to find their own position, they need to develop the ability to make choices. What may I do, what mustn't I do? What is right and what is wrong? Children and adolescents soon realise that these questions are not easy to answer. What may be right in one case may be wrong in another. How can I decide? What guidelines do I have?

Two important tools for personal guidance are a country's constitution and its approach to human rights. These are two points of reference which demonstrate the pluralism of values in a society. The most important principle is personal liberty, which allows every individual the right to develop his or her personality, against a background of mutual tolerance and responsibility, thus bringing benefits both for the community in which he or she lives and for mankind as a whole. We may differ widely in our views and interests, provided that we have agreed the rules on how to discuss our disagreements peacefully.

Children and adolescents should know that adults also wrestle with the challenges and demands that they encounter. They should also realise that teachers do not possess the key to absolute truth, but make mistakes and try to learn from them.

This teaching unit deals with some of the questions about the development of a person's identity and how people and groups perceive themselves and others. The students should understand that their identity is defined both by themselves and by their interaction with others. Identity is defined by marking both the differences between individuals and the need to belong to and be protected by the family or a peer group. Young people will understand themselves better if they explore their personal feelings and needs, their personal development and their wishes for the future. They need to experiment with different forms of behaviour, thus expanding their repertoire of interaction with others. They will learn this if they constructively contribute to situations of social interaction.

The social and political history of our country has a strong impact on our lives today. Students should become aware of this influence by regularly collecting information about current issues and discussing them, forming their personal opinions and listening to the opinions of others. They must pay careful attention to views, prejudices and stereotypes that are part of public opinion. A person needs to be aware of these subtle forms of influence in order to counteract them, and to critically reflect on his or her own choices and change them if necessary.

Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights

Through this series of lessons students will:

- be introduced to concepts of stereotyping and how prejudices are produced;
- realise that we are all constantly ascribing certain qualities to individuals and groups;
- understand that such ascription helps us to cope with the complexity of our daily lives;
- realise that ascription may be harmful and unfair;
- learn that ascription supports the formation of individual and group identities;
- learn that identity is a complex thing, and this means that each person can and must be understood and described differently.

UNIT 1: Stereotypes and prejudices
What is identity? How do I perceive others, how do they see me?

Lesson title	Learning objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: How others see a person	The students experience the complexity of views and make their own choices.	The students are assigned specific roles and form their views. They learn how to switch perspectives.	Role descriptions, student handout 1.1 (groups 1-3), large sheets of paper, markers.	Group work
Lesson 2: How differently a person can be described	The students realise that different descriptions may refer to one and the same identity.	The students rehearse and act scenes and present their written work. They discuss the scenes they have seen.	The results of the first lesson become the basic material of the second. The students realise that without their participation and their input, the unit cannot be continued.	Role play, presentations and guided plenary discussion
Lesson 3: Stereotypes and prejudices	The students understand how stereotypes and prejudices are linked and how they may lead to simplified but also unfair views of individuals, groups of people and whole countries.	The students think about their views of others and discuss them in groups.	Blank sheets of paper and markers.	Group work, plenary discussion
Lesson 4: Stereotypes about me!	The students become aware of how they are perceived by others and learn to accept this. They understand better how others perceive their identity and react to it.	The students describe themselves and each other and they compare their results.	Student handout 1.2.	Work in pairs, plenary discussion

Lesson 1
How others see a person
There is more to a person than one might think

Learning objective	The students experience the complexity of views and make their own choices.
Student tasks	The students are assigned specific roles and form their views. They learn how to switch perspective.
Resources	Role descriptions, handouts 1.1 (groups 1-3), large sheets of paper, markers.
Method	Group work.

The lesson

The students form three groups and receive student handout 1.1 (in three different versions for different groups), a large sheet of paper and a marker. (In big classes more groups can be set up and the teacher then provides more scenes to be acted, or the same task is given to different groups. The latter might be an interesting scenario, as it will show how very different descriptions and understanding can be.) The teacher then tells the story about the boy who has moved house and is exploring his new environment. He tells the class about the boy's diary but does not read it aloud to the class, as each group only has only received part of the text.

Background information for teachers

The complete text runs as follows:

"It is my first day in my new class. My family has moved here from another region and I still feel like a stranger. Dear diary, a lot has happened to me in the last few days. I will tell you about some of it.

We now live in an apartment near the river. One of the boys in my class lives a few doors away. He already came up to me on the third day to ask me to go fishing with him. I said no because my fishing rod is still packed in one of the boxes.

There is a big football pitch in front of our school building. I was happy about this because I like playing football. So I brought along my ball and wanted to start training. I had just started shooting a goal or two when the school warden stopped me. He was angry and asked me if I couldn't read. I hadn't seen the sign saying that the pitch was closed after it had rained. I was so shocked that I went home without saying a word.

An old man lives alone in the apartment above ours. When I came home yesterday, I met him at the front door with his shopping. He was carrying a bag with food and he was breathing heavily. I felt sorry for him. I asked if I could help him, and carried his bag up to his door."

The three versions of the handouts for the groups contain different parts of the diary. The groups' perception will differ depending on the information that they have received. Therefore, each group sees only part of the boy's identity and reflects this view in the role play. As required in the tasks, the groups first present their sets of adjectives. One member of each group collects the results from the group discussion on the large sheet for the presentation in the next lesson.

Now each group decides on a short role play that represents their interpretation. These role plays should first be explained and discussed in class and then rehearsed. This could take place in different corners of the classroom, or perhaps in conference rooms in the school building, in external buildings or, if the weather allows, in the playground. Even if the role play takes some time at the beginning, the effort will be worthwhile. For many students, what is often difficult to express in words may now be stated simply and clearly.

The objective for the students in this lesson is to have written the lists of adjectives on the posters and to have rehearsed the scene.

At the end of the lesson the teacher collects the posters (he will redistribute them at the beginning of the next lesson) and carries out a short debriefing. He gives positive feedback and looks at the topic of the following lesson.

Lesson 2
How differently a person can be described...
How to get a better picture of a person

Learning objective	The students realise that different descriptions may refer to one and the same identity.
Student tasks	The students rehearse and act scenes and present their written work. They discuss the scenes they have seen.
Resources	The results of the first lesson (the rehearsed role play and the lists of adjectives on posters) become the basic material of the second. The students realise that without their participation and their products, the unit cannot be continued.
Method	Role play, presentations and guided plenary discussion.

The lesson

Part 1

The teacher explains the procedure of the lesson. He gives the groups another five minutes to rehearse their scenes. The scenes are then presented.

First, one member of the group reads the entry from the diary to the class using the poster from the first lesson. Then the group acts the scene. It is recommended that all the scenes should be presented without interruption. If more than one group has received the same diary entry, they should act these scenes, with slight variations, one after the other.

After the groups have finished, the teacher gives positive feedback and again sums up the goal of this sequence of scenes. If the class is used to this form of teaching then the students can move on to the next step. If not, it is advisable to give the students the opportunity to review and reflect on the sequence of scenes, looking at aspects of content and form.

Here are some examples of how the teacher may prompt reflection on the role play:

– What was our experience as a group?

– Have I discovered something new about myself?

– How did we manage to show the characters as they were?

Part 2

During the second part of the lesson, the students arrange their chairs in one or two semicircles around the blackboard. Then the teacher displays the posters side by side on the blackboard. The students watch how the presentation unfolds:

This is how the others see him:

The classmates	The teachers	The neighbours

In the follow-up discussion, the students should understand that it is perfectly normal for a person to be viewed differently by different people or groups. They should realise that they cannot use categories such as “true” and “false” to describe the viewpoints. In fact, in order to do justice to the boy, it would be wrong to allow only one point of view to describe him.

Possible prompts for the teacher to support critical thinking in class:

– When I see these different descriptions I feel a bit confused.

– So what’s true now?

– Who is Max really?

The teacher waits until a number of students have raised their hands and then lets them give different answers. He notes these answers in a list on the blackboard or, preferably, a flip chart:

What can we say about the boy?

- How can we describe him appropriately?
- Statement 1
- Statement 2
- Statement 3
- Statement 4
- Statement 5

At the end of the lesson the teacher sums up the insights gained by the students during the first two lessons. It is an advantage if a flip chart is available on which to note down these points so that they can be presented in the following lessons. The following points may prove useful:

Identity

- There are many sides to a person's identity.
- Often other people (neighbours, friends, teachers, strangers) have very different views of the same person.
- We must listen to different views if we want to know more about a person.
- ...
- ...

At the end of the lesson, the teacher asks the students for feedback, taking care not to comment on the students' remarks.

There are different ways in which this can be done. Asking the class as a whole is not always the best solution, as more often than not, the same few students will answer and the feedback will remain unspecific. The dartboard model is therefore recommended here. This is a method of getting quick feedback that allows each student to specify his or her answers. The appendix gives a detailed description of this form of feedback.

The teacher then gives a preview of the next two lessons, in which the class will not look at individual people, but at groups within society and at whole countries.

Lesson 3
Stereotypes and prejudices
Our ideas about other people, groups or countries

Learning objective	The students understand how stereotypes and prejudices are linked and how they may lead to simplified but also unfair views of individuals, groups of people and whole countries.
Student tasks	The students think about their views of others and discuss them in groups.
Resources	Blank sheets of paper and markers.
Method	Group work, plenary discussion.

Key terms

Stereotypes: These are opinions that groups have about themselves or other groups.

Prejudices: These are emotionally charged opinions about social groups (often minorities) or certain people (often from minority groups).

The lesson

The objective of this lesson is to enable the students to transfer their understanding of how others are viewed on an individual level, to a more general one, that is, how larger groups, religious communities, ethnic groups or countries are judged.

The teacher prepares a brief, clearly structured lecture on the difference between stereotypes and prejudices to be given at the beginning of the lesson.

By summarising the processes of learning and the results and insights gained from the last two lessons, the teacher helps the students to understand the difference between stereotypes and prejudices. The teacher introduces the two concepts by referring to the different views of the boy who was studied in the previous two lessons. He/she tries to present these views as stereotypes and prejudices (see the background material for teachers at the end of this chapter, where a model for this brief key lecture has been included). In the next step, the students form small groups. They work on descriptions of social groups, for example:

- boys and girls;
- professions;
- ethnic groups;
- countries;
- continents.

It is important not to ask the students to give their personal views of others. Rather, they should imagine what society, the neighbours or the media might say or think about the groups that have been assigned to them in this task.

The students try to distinguish between stereotypes and prejudices, thus applying what they have heard from the teacher at the beginning of the lesson.

The teacher may give some hints on the blackboard and the students prepare their presentation of results in the form of a list by themselves. Experience has shown that a list prepared beforehand (see example below) will help the students to note ideas for use later in the discussion.

After the teacher's initial lecture about stereotypes and prejudices, the students work in groups of three or four for about 15 minutes to reflect on the above task. The teacher should consider carefully which of the above examples to offer. Depending on the political situation in the country concerned, it may be possible to choose examples close to the students' own experience. On the other hand, the teacher should only mention ethnic groups living in the country or the community if no one is hurt by such a choice and only if no discussions and disputes that might get out of hand are likely to be triggered off.

The groups' discussions and results should be presented in a plenary session. Each group agrees on a spokesperson, who will present the group's results following a pattern of criteria such as the following:

- our country, our group, our ethnic entity, our profession;
- stereotypes expressed by the group;
- prejudices expressed by the group;
- our assumptions why groups have such views;
- our opinions, including possible differences of opinion.

The teacher will help the students by recording each group's results (in note form) on a flip chart.

Example of how to record results to support the students:

Group	Country/profession/group	Stereotypes	Prejudices	Comments
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

Finally, the teacher sums up the lesson, referring both to the procedure and the results, and informs the class about the next steps.

Lesson 4
Identity: Stereotypes about me!
How do I see myself – how do others see me?

Learning objectives	The students become aware of how they are perceived by others and learn to accept this. They understand better how others view and react to their identity. They explore the effect their identity has on others.
Student tasks	The students describe themselves and each other and compare their results.
Resources	Student handout 1.2.
Method	Work in pairs. Plenary discussion.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by summarising the results of the two previous lessons and explaining the schedule for today's lesson.

The teacher then reminds the class that they had started by looking at an individual (the personal situation of a boy) and that they had then moved on to study how larger groups, such as professions, ethnic groups and whole countries, are viewed. Now they will again focus on the individual, but this time the students themselves – everyone in the classroom – will be the focus. They will concentrate on the question:

Who am I?	
How would I describe myself?	**self-perception**
How would a student in class describe me?	**perception by others**

The teacher supports his introduction to the lesson by drawing this table on the blackboard or on a flip chart. He or she may also ask the students to repeat what they have learnt in the last two lessons about the difference between self-perception and perception by others. In addition, or as an alternative, he may repeat the key concepts of stereotypes and prejudices.

The teacher now takes the handouts showing the students' descriptions of Max. These should help the students to think of as many qualities and characteristics of people as possible. The students are given the task of listing as many adjectives as possible that may be used to describe a person. The teacher will certainly have to give some ideas and suggestions at this point. For example, the students can be guided by categories which give descriptive adjectives meaning and focus. Such categories could include the following:

How would we describe people:

- if they are in a good mood?
- if they are in a bad mood or even furious?
- if they are good friends?
- if we want to describe what they look like?
- if we want to describe them as students?
- ...

Rather than asking a few students to give some ideas in a frontal teaching situation, the whole class should be involved. This can be achieved by the following exercise,[5] in which the students work alone to produce a variety of ideas. In the corners of the classroom, or on separate tables, large sheets of paper should have been hung up or laid out. On these sheets, different keywords or categories have been given as headings. The students move about the room in silence and write down their ideas on the posters (ideally with markers provided with each poster). As they can read what other students have written, the students should not repeat one another, but may respond with comments and new ideas.

5. The exercise suggested here is a variant of "The Wall of Silence" (see EDC/HRE Volume VI, *Developing New Ideas in EDC/HRE*).

The result of such an exercise might look like this:

What is a person like when he is in a good mood?

– cheerful
– joking
– relaxed
– communicative
– singing
– charming
– ...
– ...

No follow-up in the plenary discussion is necessary, as the purpose of this exercise is to give the students ideas to work with in the following step. The teacher should have already considered which students could work together in pairs at this stage. This is important, as the topic the students will deal with is a delicate one. The teacher should therefore avoid putting students together who dislike each other, and should make sure nobody's feelings get hurt.

The teams receive the following task:

You will now explore how you perceive yourselves and each other. Do this in the following way:

- First, work by yourselves.
- Look at the many descriptions on the posters in the classroom and choose words that, in your opinion, describe you well. Write them on the handout.
- Add your qualities and the descriptions of yourself in certain situations that you have not found on the posters. Write them on the handout.
- Then describe your partner in the same way.
- When you have both finished, share your results. It will be interesting to see which descriptions and judgments match and which differ or even contradict each other. Express your thoughts and feelings:
  - What surprises me?
  - What makes me happy?
  - What annoys me?
  - What hurts me?
  - Can you back up your judgment with some examples?
  - Which descriptions are (positive or negative) stereotypes?

The teacher should decide whether to arrange a final plenary debriefing at the end of this lesson (which is also the end of this unit, although continuations are possible) or whether to summarise the process of learning over the past four lessons. Whichever method he chooses, the teacher will notice that the working atmosphere in the class has improved during the course of this unit. The

students will have developed closer relationships to one another and will have made interesting discoveries and shared them with each other. They can now distinguish between:

– stereotypes and prejudices;

– self-perception and perception by others.

They have made progress in developing their social competence, which will benefit them in their daily lives, both in class and school as a whole. The students will often come across the themes raised by these four lessons, thus consolidating what they have learnt.

Student handout 1.1
(Group 1)
Role play

Agree on a representative of your group who will read aloud the short entry from the diary and the task for your group.

Appoint another member of your group who will take notes of your results and present them to the class.

Entry from Max's diary:

"It is my first day in my new class. My family has moved here from another region and I still feel I am a stranger. Dear diary, a lot has happened to me in the last few days. I will tell you about some of it.

We now live in an apartment near the river. One of the boys in my class lives a few doors away. He already came up to me on the third day to ask me to go fishing with him. I said no because my fishing rod is still packed in one of the boxes."

Tasks:

1. Collect a list of adjectives that you think Max's fellow students in class would use to describe him (brainstorming in your group).

2. What do you think a student in Max's class will tell the other students about him? Rehearse a short scene that you can act in class.

Student handout 1.1
(Group 2)
Role play

Agree on a representative of your group who will read aloud the short entry from the diary and the task for your group.

Appoint another member of your group who will take notes of your results and present them to the class.

Entry from Max's diary:

"There is a big football pitch in front of our school building. I was happy about this because I like playing football. So I brought along my ball and wanted to start training. I had just started shooting a goal or two when the school warden stopped me. He was angry and asked me if I couldn't read. I hadn't seen the sign saying that the pitch was closed after it had rained. I was so shocked that I went home without saying a word."

Tasks:

1. Collect a list of adjectives that you think Max's fellow students in class would use to describe him (brainstorming in your group).

2. What do you think a student in Max's class will tell the other students about him? Rehearse a short scene that you can act in class.

Student handout 1.1
(Group 3)
Role play

Agree on a representative of your group who will read aloud the short entry from the diary and the task for your group.

Appoint another member of your group who will take notes of your results and present them to the class.

Entry from Max's diary:

"It is my first day in my new class. My family has moved here from another region and I still feel I am a stranger. Dear diary, a lot has happened to me in the last few days. I will tell you about some of it.

An old man lives alone in the apartment above ours. When I came home yesterday I met him at the front door with his shopping. He was carrying a bag with food and he was breathing heavily. I felt sorry for him. I asked if I could help him, and carried his bag up to his door."

Tasks:

1. Collect a list of adjectives that you think Max's fellow students in class would use to describe him (brainstorming in your group).

2. What do you think a student in Max's class will tell the other students about him? Rehearse a short scene that you can act in class.

Background material for teachers
Stereotypes and prejudices

What is a stereotype?

People are often defined as members of groups, depending on their culture, their religious beliefs, their origin or external features such as the colour of their skin, their size, hairstyle or clothing.

Often this definition of groups goes together with assigning specific qualities to people, so that specific images are associated with certain groups. If these images are exaggerated to the extent that they hardly correspond to reality any longer, we call them stereotypes.

Stereotypes can also be found in books (even school textbooks), comics, advertisements or movies. You almost certainly have come across such stereotypes yourself. Think, for example, about the image of African women wearing skirts made of palm leaves, having thick lips and little bones stuck in their noses.

From a stereotype to a prejudice

If a person or a group is judged based only on stereotypes and not as an individual or group of individuals, we are dealing with a prejudice. An opinion has been formed about a person or a group without actually knowing them. Such views and ideas most often have nothing to do with reality and they are also often unfavourable or hostile.

"Positive" stereotypes

However, there are also positive stereotypes. For example if someone says that black people are fast runners, we can call this a positive stereotype. "Well, what's wrong with that?" you might think. But in this case people are also being wrongly lumped together. Just think: is it really true that all black people can run fast?

What are stereotypes good for?

Prejudices seem to make the world simpler and less complicated. If people meet others who seem to be strange it often gives them a feeling of uneasiness. In such situations, prejudices allow people to conceal their uneasiness – I can pretend that I know everything about the other/s and need not ask any questions. But as a result, from the very beginning, a meaningful encounter and a real understanding have become impossible.

What is the effect of prejudices?

Prejudices are offensive. Primarily, they are used to treat someone unfairly. Prejudices deprive people of the opportunity to show who they are and what they are capable of achieving. For example, an employer may not give Turkish applicants a job because he has heard that "they" always come to work late. Some people will cling on to prejudices and populist ideas although they know no one who could confirm these negative views.

What can we do against prejudices?

Prejudices die hard and are therefore hard to deal with. But there is no need to lose hope: no one is born with prejudices. They have been learnt and can therefore be unlearnt. Before judging a person, ask him or her to explain why he or she has done whatever is under discussion. Remember that you surely would not like being judged without being listened to.

Student handout 1.2
Self-perception – perception by others

Work in pairs

Comments after the discussion - Where our views match - Where our views differ - Remarks	How I describe myself (my self-perception)	How I describe my fellow student (My perception of someone else, written by me)	Comments after the discussion - Where our views match - Where our views differ - Remarks

UNIT 2
Equality

Are you more equal than me?

2.1. Differences and similarities

Am I equal? Am I different?

2.2. Vesna's story

How would we react if this should happen to us?

2.3. Equality between men and women

How should we treat men and women?

2.4. Social justice

How should we cope with inequalities?

UNIT 2: Equality
Are you more equal than me?

Equality as a concept recognises that everyone, regardless of age, sex, gender, religion, ethnicity, etc., is entitled to the same rights.

The preamble to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights starts with the words "recognition of the inherent dignity and the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world". The concept of citizenship cannot be divorced from equality issues. The existence of inequalities within or between societies obstructs effective citizenship. The idea of equality is therefore at the heart of education for democratic citizenship. As such, it must concern itself with the issue of equality and should empower individuals to act against all forms of discrimination.[6]

Diversity implies moving beyond the idea of tolerance to a genuine respect for and appreciation of difference. It is central to the idea of pluralism and multiculturalism and, as such, is a cornerstone of EDC. EDC must therefore include opportunities to examine perceptions and challenge bias and stereotyping. It must also aim at ensuring that difference is celebrated and embraced within the local, national, regional and international communities.[7]

In many ways, solidarity can be seen as the capacity of individuals to move beyond their own space and to recognise and be willing to act in the defence and promotion of the rights of others. It is also a key aim of EDC in that it seeks to provide individuals with the knowledge, skills and values they need in order to live fully within their communities. As outlined earlier, acts of solidarity are closely related to the idea of action. However, solidarity is as much a mind-set as it is a set of behaviours.[8]

A prejudice is a judgment we make about another person or other people without really knowing them. Prejudices can be negative or positive in character. They are learned as part of our socialisation process and are very difficult to modify or eradicate. It is therefore important that we are aware of their existence.

Discrimination may be practised in a direct or indirect way. Direct discrimination is characterised by the intent to discriminate against a person or a group, such as an employment office that rejects a Roma job applicant or a housing company that does not let flats to immigrants. Indirect discrimination focuses on the effect of a policy or measure. It occurs when an apparently neutral provision, criterion or practice puts a person or a particular minority at a de facto disadvantage compared with others. Examples may range from a minimum height requirement for firefighters (which may exclude many more female than male applicants), to the department store which does not hire people with long skirts, or the government office or school regulation which prohibits entry or attendance by people wearing headscarves. These rules, apparently neutral with regard to ethnicity or religion, may disproportionately disadvantage members of certain minority or religious groups who wear long skirts or headscarves.[9]

The term "gender" refers to the socially constructed roles of men and women that are attributed to them on the basis of their sex. Gender roles therefore depend on a particular socio-economic, political and cultural context and are affected by other factors including race, ethnicity, class, sexual orientation and age. Gender roles are learned, and vary widely within and between cultures. Unlike a person's biological sex, gender roles can change.[10]

6. From "A glossary of terms for education for democratic citizenship", Karen O'Shea, Council of Europe, DGIV/EDU/CIT (2003) 29.
7. *Idem.*
8. *Idem.*
9. *Idem.*
10. *Idem.*

Economic and social rights are mainly concerned with the conditions necessary for the full development of the individual and the provision of an adequate standard of living. Often termed the "second generation" of human rights, these rights are more difficult to enforce, as they are considered to be dependent on resources available. They include rights such as the right to work, the right to education, the right to leisure and the right to an adequate standard of living. These rights are internationally outlined in the Covenant on Economic and Social Rights, which was adopted by the United Nations Assembly in 1966.[11]

Different people have different opinions and attitudes when it comes to how our society should deal with issues of social justice. These opinions and attitudes can be broadly divided into three categories:

– Darwinists, who feel that individuals are entirely responsible for their own problems and should be left alone to deal with them. They believe that people need incentives so that they will try harder. Darwinists tend to stay out of the social policy arena.

– Sympathisers, who feel sympathy for those suffering and want to do something to ease their pain. They view social and economic rights as desired policy objectives rather than human rights. This often results in a patronising approach towards people experiencing difficult social conditions.

– Justice seekers, who are concerned that people are being treated unfairly, largely as a result of government decisions. They believe that they must change the political and economic systems so that people are not forced to live in poverty.[12]

11. From "A glossary of terms for education for democratic citizenship', Karen O'Shea, Council of Europe, DGIV/EDU/CIT (2003) 29".
12. Taken from "Duties sans Frontières. Human rights and global social justice", International Council of Human Rights Policy.

UNIT 2: Equality
Are you more equal than me?

Lesson title	Learning objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: Differences and similarities	The students can explain equalities and differences between people. The students appreciate both equality and difference.	The students discover differences and similarities between people. The students discuss some consequences of being different.	Copybooks or sheets of paper and pens for individual work. Extension activity is optional but groups will need large sheets of paper and markers if the teacher makes use of it.	Individual and small group work.
Lesson 2: Vesna's story	The students become aware of prejudice and discrimination in society. The students are able to understand the viewpoint of victims of discrimination.	The students discuss a case of discrimination and compare it with the situation in their country.	Optional, a copy of student handout 2.1.	Text-based group work.
Lesson 3: Equality between men and women	The students are able to react to situations of discrimination.	The students consider how they, and society in general, treat women.	A copy of one story from student handout 2.2 for each group of four or five students.	Small group work.
Lesson 4: Social justice	The students become aware of gender-related discrimination in society.	The students discuss issues of distributive justice. The students rethink the whole unit.	Copies of student handout 2.3, divided into sections for each pair of students (optional).	Pair work, critical thinking.

Lesson 1
Differences and similarities
Am I equal? Am I different?

Learning objectives	The students can explain equalities and differences between people. The students appreciate both equality and difference.
Student tasks	The students discover differences and similarities between people. The students discuss some consequences of being different.
Resources	Copybooks or sheets of paper and pen for individual work. Extension activity is optional but groups will need large sheets of paper and markers if the teacher makes use of it.
Methods	Individual and small group work. Plenary discussion

The lesson

Students form groups of four or five. Each group needs a piece of paper and a pen.

The teacher explains that he/she is going to ask a number of questions to which the students must respond yes or no. In preparation for this, the students are asked to write down the letters A to R horizontally, in alphabetical order, leaving enough room underneath. The teacher can do the same on the blackboard.

Example

Questions: A B C D E F .....

Answers: 1 0 1 0 1 .....

The teacher then asks a series of questions (from A to R) from List A, and the students note their answers individually in the form of 1 ("yes") or 0 ("no"). The teacher tells the students that even if they have doubts about any of their answers, they are still expected to write down the answer they then think is most correct.

List A	List B
A. Are you a woman?	A. Do you always feel happy?
B. Have you visited more than one foreign country?	B. Do you have nails on your fingers?
C. Do you like playing some sports?	C. Are you able to think a little bit?
D. Do you play a musical instrument?	D. Did a mother give birth to you?
E. Do you have brown eyes?	E. Can you fly without using any equipment (like a bird can)?
F. Are both your grandmothers still alive?	F. Can you live without drinking anything?
G. Do you wear glasses?	G. Do you breathe?
H. Do you like being out in the countryside?	H. Do you live constantly under water?
I. Are you a rather quiet person?	I. Do you have feelings of any kind?
J. Are you rather tall (more than average)?	J. Is your blood green?
K. Are you a rather sad person (more than average)?	K. Have you ever fallen down?
L. Do you easily get cold?	L. Can you look through walls?
M. Do you like travelling?	M. Can you communicate with others?
N. Do you like going to the hairdresser's?	N. Do you like nice weather?
O. Do you like working with computers?	O. Would you prefer not having to meet people?
P. Are you afraid of heights?	P. Do you have a tongue?
Q. Do you prefer brown to blue?	Q. Can you walk on water (as some insects do)?
R. Do you like drawing/painting?	R. Do you sometimes feel tired?

The teacher asks one representative from each group to write their answers to List A on the blackboard. The teacher then asks the students to look at the answers given and to compare them briefly with their own. Do they see differences between the responses? Can they sum up some of the differences between them?

The teacher then asks the students to respond to the next series of questions, this time taken from List B. Again, a representative from each group is asked to write their answers on the blackboard, underneath the letters of the alphabet.

Why is there is almost no difference between the groups this time? The teacher asks the students if they can add more things that most of them have in common.

For the extension activity, the teacher gives each group a large sheet of paper and a marker. Their task is the following:

1. Find three examples each of situations in which it is pleasant to be similar to other people. Give reasons why you think being similar is pleasant.
2. Find three examples each of situations in which it is pleasant to be different from other people. Give reasons why you think being different is pleasant.

If necessary, the teacher demonstrates how a thinking frame gives structure to the students' results.

Situations where it is pleasant to be similar	**Why?**
a)	a)
b)	b)
c)	c)

Situations where it is pleasant to be different	**Why?**
a)	a)
b)	b)
c)	c)

Then the teacher asks the groups to find three examples of situations in which it is unpleasant to be different from others. And again, they should give reasons why they think this could be the case. What kind of feelings does it create?

Situations where it is unpleasant to be different	**Why?**
a)	a)
b)	b)
c)	c)

Then the teacher asks the students which groups of "different" people are sometimes badly treated and by whom.

Groups of people who are sometimes badly treated	By whom?
a)	a)
b)	b)
c)	c)

The teacher asks each group to present their answers. The class will further explore which rights might be violated in the cases presented. For this purpose, the groups are given a copy of student handout 5.2: List of human rights.

Lesson 2
Vesna's story
How would we react if this should happen to us?

Learning objectives	The students become aware of prejudice and discrimination in society. The students are able to understand the viewpoint of victims of discrimination. The students are able to react to situations of discrimination.
Student tasks	The students discuss a case of discrimination and compare it with the situation in their country.
Resources	Copies of student handout 2.1 (with questions) for each student.
Method	Text-based group work.

Conceptual learning

Discrimination is a widespread form of behaviour in society. Not only are authorities involved in discrimination, but many other bodies and individuals are too. By starting with a true story of discrimination, the lesson gives the students the opportunity to reflect on their own behaviour.

The lesson

The teacher can either read aloud a copy of student handout 2.1 or give students a copy to read for themselves.

Vesna's story

Vesna, a Roma woman, tells what happened to her:

"I saw a job for a sales assistant advertised in the window of a clothes shop. They wanted someone between 18 and 23. I'm 19, so I went in and asked the manager about the job. She told me to come back in two days because not enough people had applied.

I returned twice and was always told the same thing. Nearly a week later I went back to the shop. The job advertisement was still in the window. The manager was too busy to see me, but I was told that the vacancy had been filled.

After I left the shop, I was so upset that I asked a non-Roma friend if she would go in and ask about the job. When she came out she said that she had been asked to come for an interview on Monday."

Once all students have heard or read the story, the teacher divides the students into groups of four or five and asks them to discuss the following questions (the handout includes these questions; if the teacher has presented the story orally, he or she should write the questions on the blackboard or a flip chart):

1. How would you feel if what happened to Vesna happened to you? How would you react if your friend told you that she was invited for an interview?
2. Why, do you think, did the shop manager behave in this way? Do you consider this a form of discrimination? Why (or why not)?
3. What could Vesna do about it? Do you think that she could change the situation? What could other people have done on her behalf?
4. Do you expect the law to do anything about such a situation? What should the law say?
5. Could this also happen in your own country? If so, which groups would be affected?

The teacher asks the groups for their initial response to the questions. This can be done by asking each group one question or asking groups for brief responses to more than one question.

The teacher then tells the students that Vesna's story actually happened, more than a decade ago, and that later, when asked for the reason for her behaviour, the manager of the shop said:

The manager's response

"I felt that Vesna would find it difficult to work here, because of the distance that she would have to travel in to work each day. It would be an eight-mile journey on two buses. It makes it very difficult to run the shop if staff are always late. I'd much prefer to appoint someone from this area. The person to whom I gave the job seemed just right."

The teacher tells the students that the European Convention on Human Rights (Article 14) states that: "The enjoyment of the rights and freedoms set forth in this Convention shall be secured without discrimination on any ground such as sex, race, colour, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, association with a national minority, property, birth or other status"; and that Article 2 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights says: "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."

The teacher then asks the students what these texts mean in relation to Vesna's situation. To end the class, the teacher tells the students how Vesna's story ended in reality.

The conclusion to Vesna's story

"Vesna took her case to a special European court, which enforces the law about discrimination. The court agreed that she had been discriminated against. Several other people who lived far away from the shop had been interviewed. The girl who got the job was only 16, white, and lived the same distance from the shop as Vesna. The shop had to give Vesna some money for the injury to her feelings."

As a follow-up, the teacher asks the students to write a letter to the manager of the shop or to the mayor of the town. He/she should help them to write both from their personal point of view and from the point of view of the European Court of Human Rights. It is important that the whole class should see these letters, so a discussion could also take place outside the normal school hours.

Lesson 3
Equality between men and women
How should we treat men and women?

Learning objectives	The students become aware of gender-related discrimination in society. The students are able to understand the viewpoint of victims of discrimination related to gender. The students are able to react to situations of discrimination.
Student tasks	The students consider how they, and society in general, treat women in their country.
Resources	A copy of one story from student handout 2.2 for each group. A large sheet of paper and marker for each group.
Method	Small groups, discussion and presentations.

Information box

There is still a long way to go before men and women will be treated as equal human beings by the law and in daily life. Different situations in the family, at school and at work offer opportunities to increase one's empathy for these issues and one's insight into how to deal with them. This lesson is also an invitation to change some practices in class or at school.

The lesson

The class is divided into groups of four or five students. Each group is given one of the three stories given in student handout 2.2. Once the students have finished reading they are invited to discuss the questions given with each story.

The teacher then leads a short follow-up discussion about each story, asking a reporter from each group to give a brief summary of their story and to present the results of the group discussion.

Once this has been done, the teacher asks the students to read the table and the text on the blackboard carefully and then to give two examples of differences in sex, and another two of differences in gender, in order to ensure that all students understand the definitions given.

Sex	**Gender**
Biologically determined	Socially defined
Static, cannot change	Dynamic, possibility of change
"Sex refers to natural distinguishing variables based on the biological characteristics of being a woman or a man."	*"Gender is a concept that refers to the social differences, as opposed to the biological ones, between men and women that have been learned, are changeable over time and that vary widely according to historical, cultural, traditional, geographic, religious, social, and economic factors."*

Once back in their groups, the students are given a large sheet of paper and a marker. Now they discuss whether or not they think their school promotes gender equality. If they agree that it does, they have to present five examples which support the opinion of their groups. If the answer is "no", however, they have to list up to five things that could be done to promote gender equality in their school.

Each group is asked to present their findings.

Should the teacher wish to extend this activity into project work, he or she should invite the students to choose one or two ideas and to set up a plan to implement these in the school. The plan should include the overall objective, the different steps to be taken, the people responsible and a time plan.

Example of a plan

Overall objective:		
What has to be done?	**Who will do it?**	**When does it have to be ready?**

Lesson 4
Social justice
How should we cope with inequalities?

Learning objective	The students become aware of problems related to social justice.
Student tasks	The students discuss issues of distributive justice. The students rethink the whole unit.
Resources	(optional) Copies of student handout 2.3 and the questions.
Method	Text-based discussion, pair work, critical thinking.

Information box

In our society, there is no consensus about what social justice really means. The story used in this lesson is intended to help the students to reflect on the basic principles in which social justice should be rooted, while at the same time showing the complexity of the issue.

The lesson

The teacher explains to the students that he/she will give them a story in four parts and after reading each part there will be a discussion. Alternatively, the teacher could read the story aloud.

The teacher then divides the class into pairs and gives each pair part one of student handout 2.3. The teacher can either read it aloud, ask another student to read it, or the students can read it in silence.

Teacher's copy: part one

"More than an hour elapsed between the first alarm and the sinking of the cruise ship 'The Queen Maddy'. Thus the passengers were able to organise themselves a little before entering the rescue vessels. A heavy storm had caused the ship to crash into an oil tanker, resulting in the shipwreck.

About half a day later, some of the rescue vessels landed on a small rocky island. It was oval-shaped, about 1.5 km long and half as wide and partly covered by lush woods. There was no other island within reasonable distance. This rather sunny island was not inhabited, apart from the family Richalone, who lived in a luxurious villa on the top of the hill and owned the whole island.

Years ago, this family had settled on the island, hardly keeping contact with the outside world; they merely arranged the monthly delivery of fresh food, petrol and all sorts of other goods that they needed. Their life was well organised: they produced their own electricity, could afford to buy enough food and drink, and had all the modern comforts they wished for. In the past, the owner had been a very successful businessman. After a conflict with the authorities over a tax issue, he had become disillusioned with life and decided from then on to avoid all contact with the outside world.

The owner of the villa had observed the rescue vessels landing on his pretty island and approached the shipwrecked people."

The teacher then explains that the first question the students need to consider is whether, in their opinion, the owner of the island is morally obliged to allow these people to stay on his island. In order to help the students reach a conclusion, the teacher will read out a number of statements (listed below) and each pair will have to decide which statement(s) they agree with and why. The students discuss in pairs and note down their answers.

A. The owner may refuse to allow the shipwrecked people to stay on his island.

B. The owner may refuse to allow the shipwrecked people to stay on his island as long as he provides them with the necessary food and drink.

C. The owner may refuse to allow all those who are not able to pay (with money, jewels or through labour) to stay on his island.

D. The owner has to allow the people to stay on his island as long as necessary. The shipwrecked people have the moral obligation to respect the owner's privacy and belongings.

E. The owner has to allow the shipwrecked people unconditional access to the island and has to consider them as co-owners.

The teacher can get feedback from the class, for example by asking such questions as, "How many of you have chosen statement A?" "How many have chosen statement B?" "Why?"

Then the teacher distributes part two of the story.

Teacher's copy: part two

"The owner of the island decided to allow the shipwrecked people to stay for some time. He expected them to pay for services and food from his reserves. As long as there was food left from the ship, he refused to sell them anything at all.

There were 13 shipwrecked people. There was Victor, his pregnant wife Josepha, and their two children (3 and 7 years old). Abramovitch, 64, was a rich jewel merchant. He was the oldest member in the group and had no relatives or friends. He had a collection of golden rings, diamonds and other precious jewels with him. John, Kate, Leo and Alfred were four young friends, who were strong, healthy and very skilful. They had lived together in an alternative community house and had refurbished the house they lived in themselves.

Maria, a lawyer working part-time at a university, could only walk very slowly due to problems with her left leg and hip (the result of an accident). She was accompanied by Max, her assistant at university, as they were travelling to the US in order to give a lecture at a conference and to discuss the publication of a book with a publisher. Both were specialists in penal law, but not gifted with their hands. Last but not least, there was Marko and his girlfriend Vicky, both members of the boat crew who, at the last moment, had taken as much as they could carry from the ship's storeroom: cans of food, biscuits, oil and some cooking pans. All those shipwrecked had some money with them, but the boatswain Marko carried a large amount, which he had stolen from an apartment in the last port they had called at.

On the island there was a small, old shed on the hillside quite near the sea. It had only one room that could serve as a primitive shelter for two or three people."

The teacher then explains that each pair needs to decide who, in their opinion, should be allowed to use the shelter. The teacher reads out the following statements and asks the students to discuss in pairs which statement(s) they agree with, why and whether they have another solution:

A. The pregnant woman and the children.

B. The four young friends, who are the only ones able to refurbish it.

C. The jewel merchant, who pays for it (therefore allowing the others to buy some food).

D. The boatswain and his girlfriend, on condition that they share their food with the rest of the people.

E. The lawyer, who is able to act as mediator and settle quarrels among the shipwrecked people.

After reporting back, the next part of the story is handed out.

Teacher's copy: part three

"The shipwrecked people also had to decide what to do with the food reserves the boatswain had taken with him, and which he did not intend to share. In fact, sharing would have meant diminishing his and his girlfriend's chances of survival."

Now the pairs are asked to consider who should receive the food from the ship's supplies. The teacher again reads the statements and asks the pairs to discuss and decide which of the statement(s) they agree with, why and whether they see another solution.

A. The boatswain has to be allowed to keep the food for himself and his girlfriend.

B. The food available should be distributed equally among all the shipwrecked people.

C. The food available could be bought by the highest bidder (be it with money, goods or services).

After reporting back, the last part of the story is handed out.

Teacher's copy: part four

In pairs, the students discuss who should ask the owner for food and how this should be done.

> *"The shipwrecked people decided that the food should be shared, without any compensation. They forced Marko to hand over his provisions by appealing to his sense of moral obligation. After about a week there was no food left and the only solution was to try to get some food from the owner of the villa."*

Then the teacher reads the following statements and asks which of the statement(s) they agree with, why and whether they see another solution.

A. Each person should individually negotiate trade conditions with the owner (paying with money, jewels or labour). In this case, the family with children and the lawyer and her assistant, in particular, will have problems.

B. All available resources (jewels, money) should be shared by all the people, irrespective of the original owner. The food bought this way should be distributed equally. Additional food could then be bought individually, in exchange for labour.

C. The same as B, but everyone is expected to work to the extent he or she is able, and to share the food he or she earned in this way.

D. The jewel merchant is allowed to buy everything the owner is ready to sell, and to "help" the others with food packages.

After reporting back, the teacher can lead a class discussion in order to help the students apply the story to the real world:

Do you recognise similar situations in our society?

A. ... in your neighbourhood or family?

B. ... in your country?

C. ... on global scale?

What actual situations that you know about strike you as being unjust as far as distribution of food, water, housing, etc. is concerned?

A. ... in your neighbourhood or family?

B. ... in your country?

C. ... on global scale?

Why?

At the end of this lesson, there must be a discussion about the basic concept of this unit. The teacher might decide to add an extra lesson. To start with, the teacher gives a short lecture using the basic information on equality and diversity from this unit. He/she might even prepare a handout on the different definitions. The students will then reflect on the four lessons in small groups: What have they discussed? What have they learned? Which new questions have they become aware of? They come up with suggestions on how to react to situations of inequality in their own lives.

Student handout 2.1
Vesna's story

Vesna, a Roma woman, tells what happened to her:

"I saw a job for a sales assistant advertised in the window of a clothes shop. They wanted someone between 18 and 23. I'm 19, so I went in and asked the manager about the job. She told me to come back in two days because not enough people had applied.

I returned twice, and was always told the same thing. Nearly a week later I went back to the shop. The job advertisement was still in the window. The manager was too busy to see me, but I was told that the vacancy had been filled.

After I left the shop, I was so upset that I asked a non-Roma friend if she would go in and ask about the job. When she came out she said that she had been asked to come for an interview on Monday."

Questions

1. How would you feel if what happened to Vesna had happened to you? How would you react if your friend told you that she was invited for an interview?

2. Why, do you think, did the shop manager behave in this way? Do you consider this a form of discrimination? Why (or why not)?

3. What could Vesna do about it? Do you think that she could change the situation? What could other people have done on her behalf?

4. Do you expect the law to do something about such a situation? What should the law say?

5. Could this also happen in your own country? If so, which groups would be affected?

Student handout 2.2
Men and women: the story

Story 1

"It has happened to me many times. After dinner, my mother expects her children to take all the dishes and casseroles to the kitchen, to clean the table, do the dishes, make sure that everything is put in the kitchen cupboard and that the whole kitchen is neat and clean. Once again my two brothers, though they are older than me, told me that this wasn't something for them, and that I had to do it, just because I'm a girl. I didn't protest this time, because I was so upset. I complained to my father, but he told me that it was good to have some practice, that it was a good preparation for becoming a housewife."

Questions

1. Can you imagine this happening in your family?
2. Imagine you are this girl: what would you want to say to your brothers? And to your father?
3. Do you agree with the text in Article 1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights? How does this apply to the above-mentioned story?

"All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights".

Story 2

"Six boys were standing around me in the school playground. They were all staring at me and teasing me. They said: 'Hey guys, are you sure this is a girl? Shall we examine this a little further?' Then one of them approached me, intending to touch me. But at that very moment the school principal entered the playground, and the boys left."

Questions

1. Can you imagine that this happens in or around your school? Give examples.
2. Imagine that you are this girl – what would you want to say to these boys?
3. Imagine another boy saw what was happening from a distance. Should this boy have intervened? Why/why not? How could he have done so?
4. Do you consider what happened to be "sexual harassment" according to the following definition?

"Sexual harassment is any behaviour that in word, action or psychological effect of a sexual nature in intent or effect inflicts injury on the dignity of a person or gives rise to intimidation, hostility, or demeaning, threatening or similar situations and which is motivated by belonging to another sex or different sexual orientation and which to the victim represents inappropriate physical, verbal, suggestive or other behaviour."

Story 3

"As a young engineer, I applied for the job of technical maintenance manager at a construction materials factory. I was invited to take part in general, technical, and psychological tests, along with 24 other people, all of them males except myself. After this phase, five people were selected for an interview with the general manager. Though I was ranked third after the tests, I wasn't among them (I've got this information, on a very confidential basis, from a friend of mine working

in the staff administration office). Not mentioning this information, I tried to call the general manager. When I managed to talk to him, I asked if they took into account that I was female. He denied it, but said that it must be admitted that women often get pregnant after a few years, and that for certain jobs this creates problems of continuity. He also said that, especially for this job, it would be quite difficult for a woman, as all the workers in the technical team were men, and they behaved rather crudely. I should consider myself lucky not to have been selected."

Questions

1. Can you imagine this happening in a company in your region?

2. Imagine you are this woman: what would you want to say to the general manager?

3. Do you think the general manager in this case is acting against the law in your country? If yes, how would you prove this?

"All forms of discrimination on the grounds of gender in the employment process, the advertisement of vacancies, selection procedures, employment and dismissal are contrary to the provisions of the law."

Student handout 2.3
The shipwreck

Part one

"More than an hour elapsed between the first alarm and the sinking of the cruise ship 'The Queen Maddy'. Thus the passengers were able to organise themselves a little before entering the rescue vessels. A heavy storm had caused the ship to crash into an oil tanker, resulting in the shipwreck.

About half a day later some of the rescue vessels landed on a small rocky island. It was oval-shaped, about 1.5 km long and half as wide and partly covered by lush woods. There was no other island within reasonable distance. This rather sunny island was not inhabited, apart from the family Richalone, who lived in a luxurious villa on the top of the hill and owned the whole island.

Years ago, this family had settled on the island, hardly keeping contact with the outside world; they merely arranged the monthly delivery of fresh food, petrol, and all sorts of other goods that they needed. Their life was well organised: they produced their own electricity, could afford to buy enough food and drink, and had all the modern comforts they wished for. In the past, the owner had been a very successful businessman. After a conflict with the authorities over a tax issue, he had become disillusioned with life and decided from then on to avoid all contact with the outside world.

The owner of the villa had observed the rescue vessels landing on his pretty island and approached the shipwrecked people."

Part two

"The owner of the island decided to allow the shipwrecked people to stay for some time. He expected them to pay for services and food from his reserves. As long as there was food left from the ship, he refused to sell them anything at all.

There were 13 shipwrecked people. There was Victor, his pregnant wife Josepha, and their two children (3 and 7 years old). Abramovitch, 64, was a rich jewel merchant. He was the oldest member of the group and had no relatives or friends. He had a collection of golden rings, diamonds and other precious jewels with him. John, Kate, Leo and Alfred were four young friends who were strong, healthy and very skilful. They had lived together in an alternative community house and had refurbished the house they lived in themselves.

Maria, a lawyer working part-time at a university, could only walk very slowly due to problems with her left leg and hip (the result of an accident). She was accompanied by Max, her assistant at university, as they were travelling to the US in order to give a lecture at a conference and to discuss the publication of a book with a publisher. Both were specialists in penal law, but not gifted with their hands. Last but not least, there was Marko and his girlfriend Vicky, both members of the boat crew who, at the last moment, had taken as much as they could carry from the ship's storeroom: cans of food, biscuits, oil and some cooking pans. All those shipwrecked had some money with them, but the boatswain Marko carried a large amount, which he had stolen from an apartment in the last port they had called at.

On the island there was a small, old shed on the hillside quite near the sea. It had only one room that could serve as a primitive shelter for two or three people."

Part three

"The shipwrecked people also had to decide what to do with the food reserves the boatswain had taken with him, and which he did not intend to share. In fact, sharing would have meant diminishing his and his girlfriend's chances of survival."

Part four

"The shipwrecked people decided that the food should be shared, without any compensation. They forced Marko to hand over his provisions by appealing to his sense of moral obligation. After about a week there was no food left and the only solution was to try to get some food from the owner of the villa."

UNIT 3
Diversity and pluralism

How can people live together peacefully?

3.1. How can people live together?

How can education help to develop tolerance and understanding?

3.2. Why do people disagree?

What are differences based on?

3.3. In what ways are people different?

How different are people's needs?

3.4. Why are human rights important?

Why do we need human rights legislation to protect vulnerable people?

UNIT 3: Diversity and pluralism
How can people live together peacefully?

This unit focuses on three key concepts: diversity, pluralism and democracy. It explores some of the links between them to support students in developing the attitudes and skills they need in order to participate in a pluralist, democratically governed society.

Pluralism refers to a basic quality of modern societies, where a wide (but not all-encompassing) range of religious and political beliefs – diversity – is accepted and where the ideal societies envisaged by different political parties may be incompatible with each other. For example, citizens who belong to radical socialist parties strive to achieve a society which would be completely alien to citizens of a right-wing, capitalist persuasion. In pluralist societies, the general influence of many traditions and values, including religious belief, has waned. Individuals can, and must, work out for themselves which values they adhere to and how they wish to live their lives. Pluralist societies therefore pose a challenge: individuals may enjoy a greater degree of personal liberty than ever before but, on the other hand, they need to work harder to bargain for agreement and compromise, without which no community can survive. This raises the question as to which political system can provide the best framework for the organisation of decision making in an open, pluralist society.

In an authoritarian system – one-party rule, theocracy, or even dictatorship – this problem is solved by giving one player (for example, a party or leader) the power to decide on everyone's behalf what lies in the common interest. This solution meets the challenge of pluralism by evading it – by sacrificing the liberty of the individuals. The potential of conflict in pluralist societies is suppressed, but the price to be paid is a high one: many problems are not solved properly and fairly, as they may no longer be articulated clearly.

In a democracy, citizens basically agree on a set of principles, on rules of procedure and rights that allow them to disagree on many issues, but which also offer the tools to enable them to reach agreement by non-violent means. Viewed in this way, democracy supports peace in pluralist societies by civilising conflict rather than suppressing it. The common interest is something to be worked out together, and bargained for, rather than to be defined in advance by any single party. Disagreement and conflict are normal and by no means harmful as long as their destructive potential is kept under control. In democracy as a form of government, therefore, citizens are accorded such basic rights as freedom of conscience, belief and expression. When citizens use these rights, they will create disagreement and conflict, and they will have to bargain for a solution. To ensure that they agree on the rules of how to handle the conflicts and finally solve them, citizens of pluralist democracies are deemed to enter into a social contract with all other citizens to abide within the social and political conventions of that society.

Such a social contract includes the principle of rule by the majority. For some minority groups, the disadvantage of this is that their own radical vision may never be achieved through the ballot box. On the other hand, such societies guarantee the rights of political minorities to pursue legitimate political ends unhindered by the state. Thus, pluralist democracies always live with the possibility of the election of radical governments, whose members might be inclined to restrict the activities of political opponents. This is why it is important to have legislation for human rights and freedoms built into the constitutions of democratic countries.

Every generation must understand this complex set of challenges in pluralist societies and how they may be met in a democratic community. This includes an appreciation for the unwritten social contract without which no democratic community can survive. Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education can support students to develop the understanding, attitudes and skills that they need in order to participate as citizens.

Teaching about diversity and pluralism

Students following EDC courses should be helped to understand the nature of social, political, religious and racial diversity. They should be helped to understand the complex nature of the challenges arising from such diversity. Given that a good deal of prejudice arises from lack of awareness and understanding, much bigotry can be reduced by means of the rational examination of attitudes in the light of knowledge and the development of empathic reasoning.

Teaching for diversity and pluralism

Students also need to experience democratic discussion in order to learn how to deal with it. Education for Democratic Citizenship should therefore take every opportunity to ask students to express their own opinions on a topic (however minor) and offer justifications for these views. In listening and responding to other students' views on the same issue, students will develop not only their own analytical and expressive skills, they will also develop basic dispositions of tolerance towards moral and political diversity. They will develop the ability to accept situations of disagreement and controversy, and they will also appreciate the need for compromise, and understand the difference between a fair and an unfair compromise. They should focus on issues and should respect people, regardless of their views and interests.

Through experience of the processes of democratic discussion, students will also learn that open and fair debates demand that certain basic procedures be followed, including:

- all participants with something to contribute should be enabled to do so;
- everyone's contributions should be listened to with respect;
- participants should attack arguments not people;
- participants should enter a debate accepting the possibility that their own views could be modified;
- adversarial debates, where participants argue from closed positions, are often less helpful than exploratory debates, where the aim is not to "win the argument" but to "understand the problem better".

This marks out EDC as a subject in which the processes of enquiry and discussion are generally more important than the promulgation of given truths. The implications for teaching are therefore that EDC teachers develop skills to support student thinking rather than dominating it. Research suggests that students only talk more in class when teachers talk less.

UNIT 3: Diversity and pluralism
How can people live together peacefully?

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: How can people live together?	To consider issues which arise when communities with different values and beliefs try to live together in peace. To consider the role of education in developing understanding between people of different cultures. To consider whether individuals, on their own, can influence society.	Students discuss issues raised by a story. Students engage in critical thinking. They share ideas. Students role-play to explore an issue.	Copies of student handout 3.1.	Discussion. Critical thinking. Hypothesising. Role play.
Lesson 2: Why do people disagree?	To consider reasons why people have different opinions on important issues. To develop the ability to discuss contested issues. To consider what values are necessary to underpin democratic societies.	Students make statements about and defend their views on a range of issues. Students analyse the sources of disagreements on publicly contested issues. Students consider influences on their own values. Students develop guidelines to encourage respect for pluralism and ensure that the quality of respect and dialogue over public issues is upheld.	Large labels for the "four corners" exercise.	Discussion. Reflection. Critical thinking. Developing rules collaboratively.

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 3: In what ways are people different?	To consider barriers to equality in the wider community. To identify reasons why some people may have unequal access to education. To consider barriers to equality in the wider community. To consider who shares responsibility for overcoming barriers to equality.	Students critically analyse a hypothetical situation dealing with the key concepts. Students apply key principles to their own social situations. Students discuss key issues raised by the lesson. Students perform a written task.	Copies of the story. Copies of student handout 3.3.	Critical thinking. Discussion. Development of written argument.
Lesson 4: Why are human rights important?	To consider issues which arise when people of different values and ways of life try to live together. To consider reasons why the international human rights instruments have been developed, especially where individuals and communities are vulnerable.	Students engage in critical analysis and prioritising of situations. Students role-play discussions between opposing parties. Students develop key principles based on the role play and compare with comparable sections of the ECHR. Students compare scenario with real examples of human rights abuses in their country. Students develop presentations for other students about selected elements of the ECHR.	Copies of the island scenario. Copies of the situation cards for each small group. List of key elements of human rights. Large sheets of paper and art materials, as required, for final presentation.	Critical thinking. Discussion. Negotiation. Group presentation.

Lesson 1
How can people live together?
How can education help to develop tolerance and understanding?[13]

Learning objectives	The students are able: – to consider issues which arise when communities with different values and beliefs try to live together in peace; – to consider the role of education in developing understanding between people of different cultures; – to consider whether individuals on their own can influence society.
Student tasks	Students discuss issues raised by a story. Students engage in critical thinking. They share ideas. Students role-play to explore an issue.
Resources	Copies of student handout 3.1.
Methods	Discussion. Critical thinking. Hypothesising. Role play.

13. Based on a lesson developed by the Citizenship Foundation, London.

The lesson

The teacher introduces the aims of the lesson and reads the story "The school on the edge of the forest" (student handout 3.1) to the class.

The teacher seats the students in a circle and asks them to say what they found surprising or interesting about the story and why. Give them two minutes in "buzz groups" (pairs) to talk to a partner before sharing their views with the whole group.

The teacher reminds the class that in an "enquiry-based" discussion the aim is to share ideas and to elaborate them together. There are no right or wrong answers.

The teacher then asks: "Let us all think of as many people as we can who might have wanted to burn down the school (examples might be: some of the children, some of the parents, a member of the community such as a priest). What motives might they have had? Who stands to gain and who stands to lose if the school is not re-built? (For example, if students don't have to go to school, is this a gain or a loss for them?)"

This could be done in the form of a table as below:

Name of the party	Gains	Losses
Students		
Parents		
Priest		
Whole community		
Other?		

The teacher now guides the students to focus on the teacher's role in the story. At first, a general question – "What is your view of the teacher?" – prompts the students to contribute their ideas. Further follow-up questions could be:

– Was he a fool, an idealist, or was he courageous?

– Do you admire or despise him for what he tried to do?

– What do you think his motives were?

– Where do you think he got his social values from?

– What should he do now and why? (Try again or give up?)

– If you were a student at this school, what would you want the teacher to do?

Then the teacher helps the students to link the issues in the story to their own community. Possible questions include:

– Think about where you live.

– Do you think people like the teacher exist?

– Is it possible for individuals to make a difference to society on their own? Think of examples.

Other important issues raised by the story include:

– How far do you think peace between the two peoples could really be achieved through educating the children together?

– What are the problems facing schools and teachers when children with different values and of different religions are educated together? How can these be solved?

– The lesson can be rounded off with a role play. Imagine that before the school burned down, some parents of the plains children had come to the teacher with a complaint. They said:

"There are more plains children than forest children in this school, so we think you should not teach our children about the religion of the forest people. It might turn them against their own people."

The teacher is unhappy about this. In pairs, make up a conversation between a parent and the teacher. Perform it to the rest of the class.

Lesson 2
Why do people disagree?
What are differences based on?

Learning objectives	The students are able to consider reasons why people have different opinions on important issues. The students are able to discuss contested issues. The students are able to consider what values are necessary to underpin democratic societies.
Student tasks	The students make statements about and defend their views on a range of issues. The students analyse the sources of disagreements on publicly contested issues. The students consider influences on their own values. The students develop guidelines to encourage respect for pluralism and ensure that the quality of respect and dialogue over public issues is upheld.
Resources	Large labels for the "four corners" exercise.
Methods	Discussion. Reflection. Critical thinking. Developing rules collaboratively.

Key concept

Pluralism: Pluralism exists in societies which do not have one official set of interests, values or beliefs. Citizens have the right to freedom of conscience, religion and expression. The exception is that views which threaten other people's freedom of belief are against the law and are not tolerated. A state in which only one religion is allowed or where no religion is tolerated would not be pluralist.

The lesson

The teacher asks the class to consider the following controversial statements, one at a time:

Agree or disagree?

- It is wrong to eat animals.
- If a student is HIV positive he should not be in the same class as healthy children.
- Pacifists should not be compelled to join the armed forces.
- Capital punishment should be banned.
- A woman's place is at home.
- Children under 14 should not be allowed to work.
- Smoking should be banned in public buildings.
- People should pay more taxes.
- Free speech is not a good thing.

Each corner of the classroom is labelled with the following:

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

The teacher reads out each statement in turn and asks the students to move to the appropriate corner of the room, according to their views on the above questions. If they cannot decide, they should remain where they are.

When students have taken up their positions, the teacher asks someone in each of the four corners to say why they have chosen that position. No discussion should be allowed at this stage. Then the teacher asks any students who have changed their mind, to move to a different corner, as appropriate.

Next, the teacher asks students who have not made up their mind try to explain why they cannot decide. They should write down the reasons given for the indecision (for example, they may need more information, it is not clear to them what is meant, they can see arguments on both sides, etc.)

The exercise is repeated three or four times with different statements. On each occasion, the teacher should be concerned not so much with debating the particular issue, but with eliciting the reasons why people hold different views.

In a plenary session, the teacher points out that the same issues evoked very different responses from class members. He/she can then introduce the concept of pluralism and ask the class the following questions, explaining that they can help to understand the reasons why pluralism exists in societies:

- Think back over the questions we considered. Which ones provoke the strongest feelings? Why is that?
- Where do we get our ideas, values and beliefs from? (This will help students see that our ideas on controversial issues can come from different sources.)

The teacher then asks the students to what extent they think they are influenced by the following:

- their parents' ideas;
- what their friends think;
- their religion or culture;

– the media, e.g. newspapers, TV, the Internet;

– teachers;

– their own personality.

The students then work individually and arrange the items in order of importance in the shape of a pyramid, with the most important at the top, like this:

item

item item

item item item

The teacher asks the students to compare their pyramids in pairs. Which factors are felt by the class as a whole to be most important? This could be discovered by weighting the items as follows: give items in the top row six points, items in the middle row four points and give items in the bottom row two points each. In groups of four, students total the points given to each item. Compare the findings of each group. Were the same factors at the top of the list of importance?

The teacher explains that pluralism develops in a free and open society. However, no society can function without a minimum level of shared agreement among its members. He/she asks the students to list some values or rules that they think would help overcome dissenting values or interests. The students could, for example, suggest the following:

– Respect other people's opinions.

– Try to put yourself "in other people's shoes".

– Remember that talking is better than fighting.

– Try not to give offence.

– Give people a chance to have their say.

If people cannot agree, we may need a mechanism such as voting in order to make a decision.

Lesson 3
In what ways are people different?
How different are people's needs?

Learning objectives	The students are able to: – identify reasons why some people may have unequal access to education; – consider barriers to equality in the wider community; – consider who shares responsibility for overcoming barriers to equality.
Student tasks	The students critically analyse a hypothetical situation dealing with the key concepts. The students apply key principles to their own social situations. The students discuss key issues raised by the lesson. The students perform a written task.
Resources	Copies of the story.
Methods	Critical thinking. Discussion. Development of written argument.

Conceptual learning

Diversity: Diversity exists not only in relation to ethnicity or nationality. There are many other kinds of differences which divide people from each other and which can be the causes of serious social differences, especially if those in the majority or those with power and influence do nothing, due to a lack of understanding or compassion.

Equality: There are two main types of equality – equality of opportunity or equality of outcome. It is possible to give everyone an equal opportunity (to go to school, for example) but if certain barriers (such as disability) are not overcome, this opportunity could be denied to some. Equality of outcome would aim to allow every child to be educated, whatever his or her disability.

Discrimination: To treat someone unfairly on the grounds of race, gender, sexuality, age, belief, etc.

The lesson

The teacher reads the story to the class (student handout 3.2). This story addresses a range of complex issues, which may escape the students' attention unless they study the story more closely. To help them, the teacher gives them student handout 3.3 and explains the following task.

The students work in pairs to identify as many of the problems facing the staff of Hope College as they can. They enter these in note form in the first column of the handout ("Problems"). Then they suggest ways in which the problems could be tackled ("Solutions") and add who they think should be responsible for carrying out these solutions under column three ("Responsibilities"). The last column can be left empty until a later stage.

The students then present, compare and discuss their results. To support the students' presentation, some students should prepare a flip chart with the same layout as the handout. If an overhead projector is available, the handout can be copied onto an overhead transparency that a pair of students can fill in.

Discussion in class

The students may raise some of the following questions, or the teacher can start the discussion by asking them:

- Do you think the principal achieved her aim to treat every student the same?
- Do you think the principal should respect the values of the refugee parents and educate the boys and girls separately? Think of arguments on both sides.
- Would it be better if the refugee children were taught separately from the rest of the students? List the advantages and the disadvantages of each approach, first for students and second for the wider community.

Rather than discussing all questions, the students should have time to explore one question in detail. It is important for them to understand that, in a pluralist society, people have different needs and that this may lead to conflict. It is therefore important to resolve these conflicts fairly by paying due attention to all individuals and groups (see Unit 4 for more details on conflict resolution). In this case study, school can be viewed as a micro-society in which young citizens encounter the same type of problems as exist in society as a whole.

The following issues show how rich this case study is, and that the issues are well worth studying. For more extensive study, an additional lesson will be necessary. The teacher must decide whether to select certain aspects, depending on the time available and the students' level of interest.

How different are children's educational needs?

The key questions which the students must answer are, of course, how these problems can be dealt with and if any of these problems should be ignored by the school (and if so, why).

These questions can be answered in two ways: first, by considering whose needs would be affected by solving or ignoring a certain problem, and second, by identifying those problems that could be solved by the school community.

In following the first path, the students will understand the specific needs of refugee (and local) students better if they consider the following question: "What human rights – or children's rights – have the refugee children been denied?"

Here are some categories of educational needs. The students should find examples of these in the story, and enter them in the fourth column of the handout:

- emotional;
- learning;

– religious;

– cultural;

– language;

– physical.

For each category, the students have to provide examples of their own.

Responsibility and its limits

The specific issues raised in the story should lead on to a more generalised discussion about equal rights and education.

How easy is it to provide the best education for every child, according to his or her own needs? What can a school do, and which problems require support from outside, for example, additional funding by the local council?

Here, the students follow the second path, and this analysis leads to an important insight – typically, complex problems cannot be solved by taking one big step, which in this case means, for example, expanding the school, employing specially trained staff, etc. Such measures of educational reform would be highly desirable, but they may never happen because they depend on political decisions (how to assign tax money, for example) that are decided by others (such as the local town council or the ministry of education). People who only think of taking such seemingly radical steps may, in fact, end up doing nothing at all, except placing the blame on others. On the other hand, things can also be improved by taking small steps, which in this case study means looking at those parts of the problem that the principal, the teacher, the students or the parents could change tomorrow – if they wanted to, or if they could agree.

This is where the third column on the handout is important. Who is responsible, that is, in whose power is it to change something? The students can discuss whether the small steps – the improvements within the school community's reach – are sufficient, and where they have limitations. They may also consider a combination of small, short-term steps and bigger steps that need time.

Here again, "school is life", a micro-society. The discussion of strategies for school development introduces students to thinking in terms of political decision making and strategic planning.

School is life

The students can compare Hope College with the situation in their own school using the following idea.

"In your own school, what obstacles to education do some pupils encounter? Whose responsibility do you think it is to address these needs (for example, the government, the principal, the staff or the students)?"

Different methods are possible for dealing with this question. It can be the subject of a plenary discussion, an interview project with other students, or it can be linked to the project of a school newspaper (see Unit 5).

Written task

In organising processes of teaching and learning, it is important to make sure that the students have understood and can apply what they have learnt. One way of doing this is to link a plenary discussion with a written task. This gives all students the opportunity to think about the issues that have been discussed in the plenary and it may be particularly useful for the slow and thorough thinkers, who often tend to stay silent in a discussion although they actually have a lot to say.

The teacher must decide which topic best suits the students' level of reflection and understanding. It may be sufficient for the students to repeat the discussion and give their own judgment. In a

more demanding exercise, the students can refer to human rights and/or to issues of inequality in society, for example:

"The European Convention on Human Rights and the Children's Rights Convention state that it is the duty of governments to provide every child with an education.

- Explain whether you think the school fulfilled this obligation.
- What is needed to give children the education they deserve?
- Who do you think is responsible for making this happen?
- What other areas of life are affected as a result of inequalities in society?
- Discuss."

Suggested result of plenary discussion (flip chart, completed handout)

Help for Hope College

Problems	Solutions	Responsible	Educational needs
(1) Refugee children			
Language problems	Special courses	Principal Local council	Language
Boy does not speak	Therapy, special tuition	Advice: principal, teacher	Language, emotional
Girl cannot walk	Medical treatment Special tuition Advice for parents		Physical
(2) Refugee and local students			
Bullying, teasing Gang Threats Fight, boy injured	Discussion in class Rules of conduct Students as monitors	Teachers Students Parents	Emotional Social Attitudes and values
(3) Teachers			
Cannot care for refugee and local students	Smaller classes Classes in shifts More teachers	Local council	Learning Language Cultural Religious
(4) Parents			
Want separate classes for boys and girls	"No"? "OK"?	?	Cultural Religious

Lesson 4
Why are human rights important?
Why do we need human rights legislation to protect vulnerable people?[14]

Learning objectives	The students are able to consider: – issues which arise when people of different values and ways of life try to live together; – reasons why the international human rights instruments have been developed, especially where individuals and communities are vulnerable.
Student tasks	The students: – engage in critical analysis and prioritising of situations; – role-play discussions between opposing parties; – develop key principles based on the role play and compare them with corresponding sections of the ECHR; – compare the scenario with real examples of human rights abuses in their own country; – develop presentations for other students about selected elements of the ECHR.
Resources	Copies of the island scenario (student handout 3.4). Copies of the situation cards for each small group (student handout 3.5). Key elements of human rights (student handout 3.6). Large sheets of paper and art materials, as required, for final presentation.
Methods	Critical thinking. Discussion. Negotiation. Group presentation.

Information box

The European Convention on Human Rights was introduced to protect the rights of people whose fundamental rights, for example the right to life, to religious freedom or to justice under the law, were being denied. All governments who are members of the Council of Europe have agreed to abide by the articles of the Convention in respect of their citizens. Each country has to report to the international community on the state of human rights in their country. Individual citizens can complain to the European Court of Human Rights if they believe that the country of which they are a citizen is denying them their human rights. One country can also lodge a complaint against another country about breaches of human rights, but this does not happen very often.

The European Convention on Human Rights was closely modelled on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which was introduced after the genocides of the Second World War.

14. Based on a lesson developed by the Citizenship Foundation, London.

The lesson

The teacher refers to the "role cards" (student handout 3.4) when he/she introduces the scenario and the two groups involved in the role play. First, the teacher describes the island, possibly with the help of a map on the blackboard, and then describes the islanders, who have lived there for generations.

The teacher then tells the class that another group has arrived and wants to settle on the island. They are very different from the islanders. The teacher describes the settlers and their way of life and then divides the class into two halves. One half of the group will play the role of islanders and the other half will be settlers. There are two possible ways of discussing these issues (see methods 1 and 2 below). For classes used to role playing, use method 1. For classes used to working in more formal ways, use method 2.

Method 1: role play

The students work in pairs. One of them takes on the role of the islander and one that of the settler. They are to consider each of the situations described on the small cards from the point of view of their own people. They are going to enter into negotiations with the other people (assuming that language is no barrier). They should try to agree on:

a) What are the most serious problems for their people?

b) What do they want to get out of the negotiations?

Then the teacher asks pairs of islanders and pairs of settlers to sit together. They will role-play a meeting of the two peoples in an attempt to bring about agreement on both of these issues and on guidelines for the future.

Remind the two groups before they begin discussions that the islanders may not be completely happy until the settlers leave the island, because their whole way of life may be threatened. On the other hand, the settlers love this new place and may be prepared to use force to stay there.

Ask each group of four students to first agree on the most serious problems facing the groups and to deal with them in order of seriousness, working from the most to the least serious problems, as time permits.

Method 2: guided discussion

This exercise is best done using role play, but can work quite well for students unused to role playing. Half the class will look at the situations from the point of view of islanders and the other half from that of the settlers. Each situation is described from two points of view. Working in pairs, the students decide what are the most serious issues and try to think of the best way of resolving each issue from their own points of view. Remind them that there is an "ideal" or "fair" way of solving each problem, but reality (and history) suggests that one side might get its own way more than the other, due to an imbalance of power.

The teacher leads the discussion of each situation, taking one view of the problem and then asking the other group for opposing points of view. The teacher tries to broker an agreement between the two groups. Each discussion could be led by one pair from each side coming to the front of the class to talk about the problem as they see it. A variation on this method is for pairs to discuss each situation, with one representing the islanders and the other the settlers.

Debriefing for methods 1 and 2

Debrief the students about the situations they have discussed using the following questions:

– Were negotiations easy or hard? Why?

– Did each group get what they wanted out of the negotiations?

– Which group came out of the negotiations best? Why?

- Did one group have more moral rights in each situation than the other?
- What is the future likely to be for the two groups on the island?
- What might prevent the domination of one group over the other?
- Draw up a list of rules or principles that could help the two groups co-exist peacefully on the island. Compare this class list with key elements of human rights (see student handout 3.6). Which of these articles could help to prevent people like the islanders losing their land, their way of life and their basic human rights?

The teacher points out that this kind of situation has occurred many times in history, for example, when British settlers colonised Australia or Europeans colonised North and South America. At the time, there was no international human rights legislation in place and many acts took place which violated the human rights of the indigenous peoples. Similar situations are still taking place, for example, where South American tribes are being dispossessed of their land because international companies are mining or logging.

Celebrating the importance of human rights

As the final exercise in this unit, the teacher asks the students (in groups) to select one of the human rights found in the European Convention that has been discussed in the course of this unit. Then students make a banner displaying this right and prepare a presentation about its importance. Some students could draw scenes from the islanders' role play to illustrate the issues dramatically. These could be presented to the class, the year group or even to the whole school. In this way, the unit may lead to a follow-up project, if time allows and the students are interested. See lesson 4 in Unit 5 (media) on how to plan such a project in class.

Student handout 3.1
The school on the edge of the forest

There was once a community of people who lived in dense forests on the side of a mountain range. They were religious people who brought their children up strictly to worship the gods of their people. Their religion believed there were no differences between men and women.

Between the mountains and the farthest edge of the country was a huge expanse of plain. A different community of people lived on the plain. They had no religion, but worked hard for each other. They were fierce warriors and men were the dominant sex. Women were respected but could not rise to become leaders.

The people of the forest had nothing to do with the people from the plains. They hated and feared each other. There had sometimes been wars between them.

One day a young man arrived on the edge of the forest. He announced that he wanted to build a school there so that the children of both communities could be educated together, so that there could finally be peace between the two peoples.

Soon, a simple wooden building was ready and the day came when the teacher opened his school for the first time. A few children from both communities came to see what it would be like. The parents and the leaders of the two communities watched anxiously.

At first, there were problems between the children. They called each other names and there was often fighting. But the children could see the value of coming to school and gradually things began to settle down. The teacher was strict but fair and treated all his pupils equally. He said he respected both ways of life and the children were taught about their different ways of life.

More and more children started attending the school on the edge of the forest.

However, it soon became clear that more children from the plains were attending the school. The forest children now made up only a quarter of the school. The teacher talked to the parents of both sides to encourage and reassure them.

But then one morning, the teacher arrived to find that someone had burned the school to the ground.

(Based on a story by Ted Huddleston of the Citizenship Foundation)

Student handout 3.2
Hope is for everyone

The principal of Hope College was a generous and humane woman. She believed strongly in the importance of education. "Everyone deserves a good start in life," she used to tell the staff. "I do not want you to treat any one person more favourably than another in this school. That would not be fair."

Then one day a group of refugee children arrived at the school. Their families had fled from a conflict in a neighbouring country. The principal told the staff,

> *"These unfortunate young people have lost everything. Make them welcome in your classes. They should suffer as little as possible. The war was not their fault."*

The staff agreed. The children were put in classes according to their age. Most of the refugee children were on their own in the class, but in one class there was a group of four refugee boys.

It wasn't long before the staff began to realise there were some difficulties in treating the refugee children the same as the others in the class. One by one, they came to the principal with their problems. "The refugee child in my class doesn't speak our language," said one teacher. "I haven't got the time to translate everything for her. It's taking too much of my time. Other students are suffering." "The refugee student in my class won't speak to anyone," another teacher observed. "He may be traumatised by the war. Or he may just have difficulties with learning. What can I do?" A third teacher said, "I have a child who was injured. She cannot walk. She cannot join in any physical activity and she can't get up the stairs to the science laboratory."

Then other problems began to emerge. At lunchtimes, some of the refugee children were bullied and teased. They were called insulting names and some of the other children told them to go back where they came from.

The four boys in the same class formed a gang to protect themselves. One day, there was a fight between one of them and a local boy. The refugee boy hurt his opponent very badly. The staff complained to the principal that the boy should be expelled from the school, but the principal wondered if that would be fair, given what the young refugee had been through. The staff said:

> *"We have tried to make this work, but our own children are suffering too much. We cannot teach these children and do our best for the local students at the same time."*

Shortly after, the parents of the refugee children asked to see the Principal. They said:

> *"We don't like the fact that you teach boys and girls together in sport classes. That is against our religion and culture."*

The principal was finally beginning to run out of patience. She was finding this a difficult problem but knew in her heart that she should not lose hope.

Student handout 3.3
Help for Hope College

Problems	Solutions		
(1) Refugee children			
(2) Refugee and local students			
(3) Teachers			
(4) Parents			

Student handout 3.4

The islanders and the settlers (role cards)

Group 1: The islanders

You are a group of islanders. Your people have lived on this island for thousands of years. Your ancestors are buried in sacred places in the mountains and you believe their spirits are still there.

You lead a very simple way of life. Women care for the children whilst the men wander across the whole island hunting animals and gathering food from the lush vegetation. Your people believe everyone has a responsibility to preserve nature and to leave it undamaged for the next generation. Your weapons are spears, bows and arrows and animal traps.

Your religion is based on the worship of nature and your culture is based on the importance of the community. When food is short, everyone shares and people work hard for each other. When food is plentiful, people gather together to sing, dance and tell stories. Your people have no need for writing.

You have very few laws. The tribal chief can make new laws if necessary. He can also arbitrate in disputes between members of your community.

Group 2: The settlers

You are with a group of people who have sailed from Europe in the hope of finding a new way of life for yourself and your family. You want to find one of the new lands which have been discovered on the other side of the world. You hope to settle there to build homes and farms and to become prosperous.

You are taking with you tools for tilling the soil and guns for hunting. Your culture is based on education and hard work. Everyone aims at becoming prosperous and comfortable. You have no single religion but you believe that people should have the right to follow their own faith.

You want to decide things democratically in your new community. You have left a society where only an elite group had power and where there were great inequalities of wealth. You want to establish a society in which all people are equal or where everyone has the same chance to succeed.

Student handout 3.5

Situation cards: the islanders

Look at the following situations and decide in your own groups what you think should be done about them.

Islanders	Settlers
1I New fences Some of the settlers have started putting up fences around their houses, across the tracks you have always used to follow the herds. You have torn some of them down.	**1S New fences** Islanders have torn down some of the fences you have put up to keep in the animals you have caught.
2I The trespasser An islander was crossing an area that had been fenced in by the settlers and he has been shot and killed.	**2S The trespasser** Islanders have been trespassing across some of the land you have fenced in for your animals. One was given a warning and then shot.
3I A mixed marriage One of the islanders has fallen in love with a settler woman. They want to get married and live in one of the settler communities. The man's family are very unhappy about it.	**3S A mixed marriage** One of the settler women has fallen in love with an islander. They want to get married and live in a settler community. Some of the settlers are unhappy about it.
4I Sacred places Some of the settlers are digging for minerals in the mountains where you believe the spirits of your ancestors live. These places are sacred to you. In protest, you have attacked some of the men doing the digging.	**4S Sacred places** You have discovered valuable minerals in the mountains. You will be able to sell these minerals to traders back home. The islanders seem to regard the mountains as sacred, which you think is just superstition. They have attacked the men doing the digging.
5I Education Some of the settlers have opened a school and have invited your children to come along and learn to read and write.	**5S Education** Some of the settlers have opened a school. They have invited the islanders to send their children to the school.

Student handout 3.6

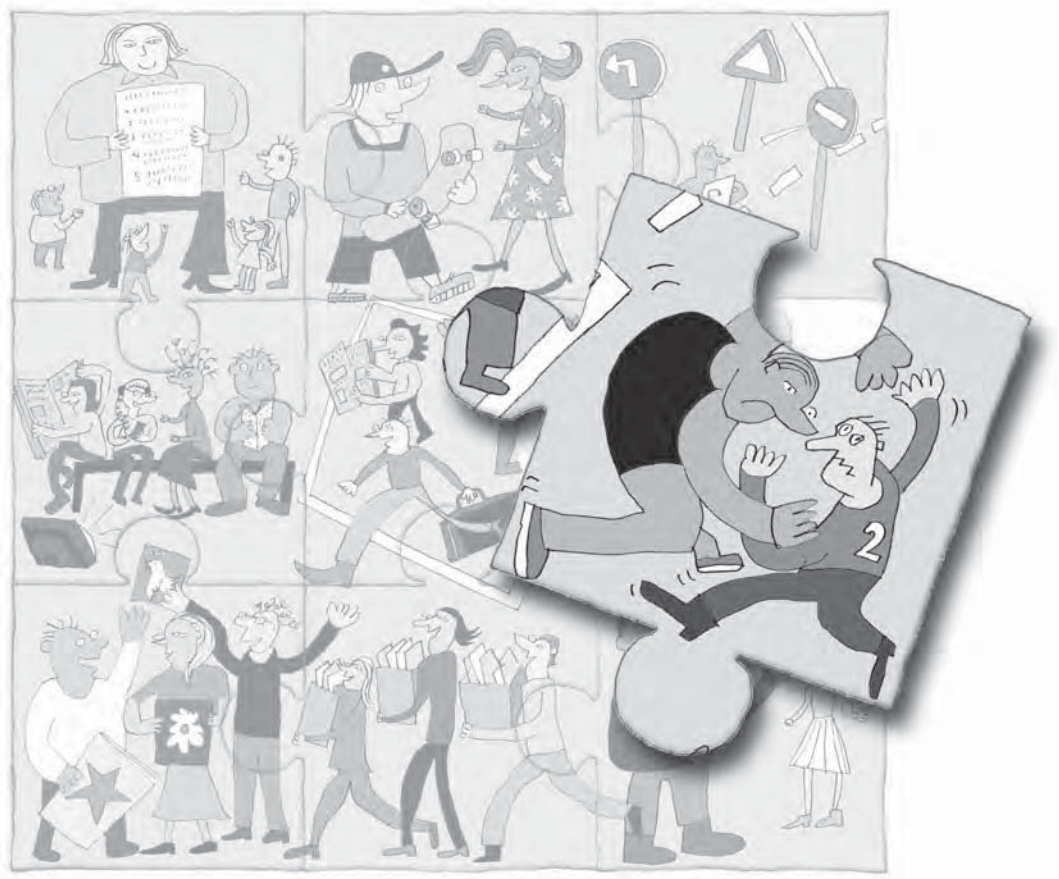
Key elements of human rights[15]

1. Right to life.
2. Freedom from torture.
3. Freedom from slavery.
4. Right to liberty and security.
5. Right to a fair trial.
6. Right to an effective remedy in case of violations.
7. Freedom from discrimination; right to equality.
8. Right to be recognised as a person; right to nationality.
9. Right to privacy and family life.
10. Right to marry.
11. Right to own property.
12. Right to movement of persons.
13. Right to asylum.
14. Freedom of thought, conscience and religion.
15. Freedom of expression.
16. Freedom of assembly and association.
17. Right to food, drink and housing.
18. Right to health care.
19. Right to education.
20. Right to employment.
21. Right to rest and leisure.
22. Right to social protection.
23. Right to political participation.
24. Right to take part in cultural life.
25. Prohibition of destruction of human rights.
26. Right to a social order that recognises human rights.
27. Duties of the individual.

15. This list is based on the teacher's resource sheet in Unit 5, "Rights, liberties and responsibilities".

UNIT 4
Conflict

What to do if we disagree?



4.1. Conflict resolution

How can we deal with serious disagreements?

4.2. Applying the six-step approach

How can we avoid fighting our neighbour?

4.3. Conflicting human rights

A clash between human rights. What now?

4.4. Using violence

Is using violence acceptable in some cases?

UNIT 4: Conflict
What to do if we disagree?

The concept of peace has an important cultural dimension. Traditionally, in Far Eastern cultures, peace has more to do with inner peace (peace in our minds or hearts) while in the western world, peace is understood to be outside the individuals (the absence of war or violent conflict). In India, for example, the word for peace is "shanti", which implies a perfect order of the mind or peace of mind. Gandhi based his philosophy and strategy on a concept called "Ahimsa", which broadly means "to refrain from anything at all harmful". He said, "literally speaking, Ahimsa means non-violence. But to me it has a much higher, an infinitely higher meaning. It means that you may not offend anybody; you may not harbour uncharitable thoughts, even in connection with those who you consider your enemies. To one who follows this doctrine, there are no enemies." In the Maya tradition, peace refers to the concept of welfare and is linked to the idea of a perfect balance between the different areas of our lives.[16]

"Positive peace" describes a state whereby the collective will is directed towards promoting peace and removing the barriers to peace. It includes a commitment to social justice, thereby moving beyond the idea that peace is the absence of fear, violence and war. It includes a commitment to non-violent conflict resolution and seeks to encourage the capacities of individuals and groups so they are able to address social problems in a constructive manner. For EDC educators, it also means promoting democratic processes in the classroom, addressing issues of power or the abuse of power, as well as seeking at all times to encourage the skills of listening and constructive dialogue and a commitment to resolve conflict.[17]

Is violence natural? Many people are convinced that human beings are naturally violent and that consequently we cannot avoid wars, conflicts and general violence in our lives and our societies. Other specialists in this field claim that we can avoid thinking, feeling and acting violently. The Seville Statement on Violence, elaborated in 1986 by a group of scholars and scientists from many countries, confirms this by stating that:

> "1. It is scientifically incorrect to say that we have inherited a tendency to make war from our animal ancestors (...) Warfare is a solely human phenomenon and does not occur in other animals (...).
>
> 2. There are cultures that have not engaged in war for centuries and there are cultures which have engaged in war frequently at some times and not at others (...).
>
> 3. It is scientifically incorrect to say that war or any other violent behaviour is genetically programmed into our human nature (...).
>
> 4. It is scientifically incorrect to say that humans have a 'violent brain' (...) how we act is shaped by how we have been conditioned and socialised (...)."

Most of us are conditioned by our environments to react aggressively and violently. We learn to think, feel and act aggressively and in some cases violently. Wherever we live, we are submitted to a social and cultural pressure that conditions us to read about violence, watch violence and hear about violence almost constantly. Television programmes, advertisements, newspapers, video games and the movie and music industries contribute greatly to this situation. Before reaching adolescence, a child has seen thousands of murders and violent acts just by watching television. Our modern societies, whether consciously or not, make no apology for violence. Violence is seen

16. Text from "COMPASS, a manual for human rights education with young people", Council of Europe,. Strasbourg 2002, p. 376ff.
17. From "A glossary of terms for education for democratic citizenship", Karen O'Shea, Council of Europe, DGIV/EDU/CIT (2003) 29.

as being of positive value. In most cultures, saying no to violence and avoiding physical violence or confrontation may be perceived as a sign of weakness, especially for men, who are put under a lot of pressure by their peers from a very young age.[18]

For additional information, refer to the teachers' resource sheet at the end of this unit.

Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights

Through this series of lessons students will:

- increase their insight into the mechanisms behind a conflict;
- increase their insight into non-violent conflict resolution;
- improve their ability to deal with conflict in their own environment;
- improve their ability to consider the views and needs of all parties involved in a conflict;
- increase their insight into conflicts between human rights;
- increase their critical thinking about the use of violence;
- increase their insight into how to cope with the violence they are confronted with;
- be stimulated to approach conflicts in a non-violent way.

18. Text from "COMPASS, a manual for human rights education with young people", Council of Europe. Strasbourg 2002, p. 380.

UNIT 4: Conflict
What to do if we disagree?

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: Conflict resolution	Introduction to a six-step approach to conflict resolution.	Analyse a conflict; find solutions.	Student handout 4.1	Small group work.
Lesson 2: Applying the six–step approach	Learning to apply the six-step approach.	Analyse a conflict; find solutions.	Student handout 4.1 Student handout 4.2	Small group work.
Lesson 3: Conflicting human rights	Learning to recognise and analyse situations where human rights are in conflict.	Analyse a situation where human rights are in conflict.	Student handout 4.3 Student handout 5.2	Small group work. Critical thinking.
Lesson 4: Using violence	Develop critical thinking about the acceptability of the use of violence and about personal behaviour.	Reflect upon use of violence and upon personal behaviour.	Student handout 4.4	Small group work. Critical thinking.

Lesson 1
Conflict resolution
How can we deal with serious disagreements?

Learning objective	Introduction to a six-step approach to conflict resolution.
Student tasks	Analyse a conflict; find solutions.
Resources	Sheets of paper or copybooks and pens. Student handout 4.1.
Method	Whole class and optional pair work.

Conceptual learning

Conflicts are part of daily life. They need not be seen as negative events, but as clashes of interests between individuals or groups. In politics, conflicts are even an important part of the public discussion. Only through open conflict and the search for compromise do all the different social groups feel heard and integrated. Conflict resolution (looking for compromise) is a skill that can be learned. This lesson aims at contributing to this goal.

The following descriptions of a conflict resolution appear in this lesson and it is important that the teacher is aware of their meaning.

Win-win: this describes a situation in which both parties benefit in the same way from the agreed resolution to the conflict and feel that they have achieved what they wanted. This is seen as the most ideal conflict resolution situation, since it helps to ensure that the conflict does not re-appear.

Win-lose or lose-win: this describes a situation where the resolution of the conflict has meant that one party has lost and the other has won. This kind of situation often means that the conflict will re-appear, as there is little benefit to the loser.

Lose-lose: This describes the situation in which neither party gains anything from the resolution of the conflict. This situation often means that the conflict has only temporarily disappeared and is more than likely to resurface.

The lesson

The teacher starts the lesson by writing the word "CONFLICT" on the left side of the blackboard. The students are then asked to write down on a sheet of paper expressions and words associated with the word "conflict" which come into their minds.

The same is then done with the word "PEACE", which the teacher writes on the right side of the blackboard. The teacher then asks about 10 students for their words. The results are brought together on the blackboard and the students then give their comments on the following questions:

- Are they surprised at any of the words chosen?
- Do all the words associated with conflict appear to be negative, whereas the ones associated with peace have a positive connotation?

The teacher then asks the students to give examples of conflicts that they themselves have experienced or that have occurred in their environment. He/she asks them to think whether these conflicts belong to the category of conflicts that could be resolved and that are the first step towards compromise, or to the category of conflicts that cannot be resolved. The teacher then introduces them to the idea that conflicts do not necessarily lead to violence and that more constructive approaches to conflicts are possible.

The teacher then introduces them to a concrete example of a conflict that can occur in a family.

"Katja, the 18-year-old daughter, wants to watch a video, which she recently received from a friend. Her brother Martin, 15 years old, would like to see his favourite television programme."

The teacher gives each student a copy of student handout 4.1 and begins to analyse this conflict using the six-step approach described below.

Steps 1 and 2 are undertaken with the whole group, guided by the teacher, who insists on finding out the real "needs" of both parties, and in forming a clear definition of the conflict.

In step 1 it is important that the real needs of each of the parties are spelled out in a non-provocative way. Thought must be given to what the real needs behind the problem are, as these can differ from the needs expressed by the parties themselves. In step 2, the problem behind the conflict is formulated in a way that both parties can agree upon.

Step 3 consists of thinking of possible solutions. At this stage, the solutions should not be commented on or judged – all contributions should be welcomed. Step 3 could take place in pairs, followed by an exchange of views (or partners?). The teacher then introduces the concept of the "lose-lose", "win-lose", "lose-win" or "win-win" approaches in analysing the solutions, and then asks the pairs to evaluate their solutions using this concept (step 4).

If the students discover that none of their solutions results in a win-win situation, they are invited to think further. However, there will always be cases in which a win-win solution is not possible. After presenting their answers, the teacher invites the group to decide which solution is best (step 5). In a real conflict, where the parties are directly involved in this approach to conflict resolution, the parties must accept the solution. The teacher finishes by briefly presenting a possibility for step 6. The essential element of step 6 is that after a certain time (a number of minutes, hours, days or weeks, depending upon the nature of the conflict) the solution is evaluated and, where necessary, adapted.

In conclusion, the teacher supports a discussion about the question whether a tool such as the six-step method could work, in what type of situation, and what would be the consequences if such a tool were widely known about and used. This should be discussed in relation to different groups and contexts, such as the following:

- peer groups;
- family;
- class;
- school;
- state;
- war;
- sport.

Lesson 2
Applying the six-step approach
How can we avoid fighting our neighbour?

Learning objective	Learning to apply the six-step approach.
Student tasks	To analyse a conflict and find solutions which benefit both parties.
Resources	A copy of one of the conflict scenarios on student handout 4.2 for each small group. Student handout 4.1.
Method	Small group work.

Information box

Peaceful conflict resolution cannot be put into practice purely by understanding the theoretical concept. It is a real skill that has to be learned, and this lesson provides an opportunity for students to learn how to put peaceful conflict resolution into practice. The next step will be applying this knowledge to a real life situation at school.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by explaining to the students that their task is to apply the six-step approach to conflict resolution in different conflict situations.

The class is divided into small groups of four or five students, and each group receives a copy of student handout 4.2. Each group works on one of the scenarios, so that each scenario will be worked on by more than one group. The students also use student handout 4.1 entitled "A six-step approach to conflict resolution". After the groups have finished, a spokesperson from each group presents their six steps to the whole class. Do this first for "conflict 1", and then for "conflict 2":

After their presentations, the teacher leads a classroom discussion about the solutions, using the following questions:

- Do we understand the "needs" and the "definition of the problem"? Are there unresolved questions?
- Could we find other solutions that we think would be better in the long term?

In a second step, the teacher asks the students to work on conflicts that have taken place or are ongoing in the school, in the peer group, in the country, etc. They are asked to choose one or more (depending on the time available) and to think about possible win-win solutions.

If the teacher uses the two case studies as a means of introducing the students to forms of mediation, he or she can give some basic information about the judicial system of conflict resolution in the country (forms of mediation, the possibility of taking a conflict to court, etc.). Instead of discussing these conflicts with the six-step approach, the situations could also be role-played.

In the case of role play, one student would play party A, another party B, and a third would take on the role of mediator. The teacher could then ask each group for feedback on how they resolved the conflict. Different solutions could be discussed, as well as the process of trying to reach a resolution. These additional elements may well take up a lot more time, and it might be necessary for them to be undertaken as an extracurricular activity or as an additional unit.

Lesson 3
Conflicting human rights
A clash between human rights. What now?

Learning objective	Learning to recognise and analyse situations where human rights are in conflict.
Student tasks	Analyse a situation where human rights are in conflict.
Resources	Large sheet of paper and marker for each group. Student handout 4.3. Student handout 5.2.
Method	Small group work. Critical thinking.

Information box

Although at first sight human rights may seem to offer clear answers, this is not always the case. Indeed, there are many situations in which someone's right conflicts with someone else's. In such a case, critical thinking can help one to weigh the rights involved against each other, and to determine one's own solution.

The lesson

Working groups (four or five students per group) receive a case about conflicting human rights (student handout 4.3 “Five cases of conflicting human rights”), a large sheet of paper and a marker.

First, the students are invited to discuss which human rights are involved in the conflict. For the discussion the group can be given a list of human rights (student handout 5.2). Once they have agreed on which rights are in conflict, they divide their sheet of paper as shown below. The teacher could prepare this on the blackboard and enter the rights involved into the first box.

Case Number
Human rights involved
– – –
Solution
Why?

The second task is to have an open discussion on what the students believe the solution to the conflict could be. They give reasons for their choice and add them to their sheet.

Each group is then asked to appoint a spokesperson, who presents the group’s answers to the whole class. The teacher can ask the class for feedback about the choices made and whether or not they agree or disagree with the group’s ideas.

Lesson 4
Using violence
Is using violence acceptable in some cases?

Learning objective	Develop critical thinking about the acceptability of the use of violence and about personal behaviour.
Student tasks	Reflect upon use of violence and upon personal behaviour.
Resources	Cards or strips of paper with cases from student handout 4.4. for each group. (The teacher needs to have some information on the judicial system of conflict resolution in the country.)
Method	Small group work. Critical thinking.

Information box

Though a peaceful world is seen as the ultimate goal, neither international human rights law nor international humanitarian law excludes the use of violence in absolute terms. This lesson aims to contribute to the students' critical thinking about the legitimacy of the use of violence in specific cases. Students are asked to reflect upon their personal behaviour with regard to violence used by themselves or by others in their environment.

The lesson

The class is divided in working groups of four or five. A student or the teacher presents case 1 from student handout 4.4.

It might be too difficult to deal with all four cases in one lesson. The teacher therefore could decide to give different cases to different groups, to choose only two of the four cases or to add another lesson.

The task of the group is to discuss the case, using the questions given on the card, and to present their response orally. The teacher needs to be aware that the fundamental question being explored is to what extent the use of violence should be accepted. After each group has responded, the teacher can give some additional information related to the case before giving out the next case.

Teacher's copy of cases, questions and additional information

Case 1

During a demonstration on the issue of anti-globalisation, a small group of people starts throwing stones at the headquarters building of a famous trans-national company. The police force present on the spot sees this taking place and tries to arrest the people involved. During this intervention, a policeman is captured by the people throwing stones and is seriously beaten.

Questions:

1. Would it be acceptable for the police force to use their guns to shoot at the people throwing stones?
2. Would it be acceptable for the police to intervene using machine guns? (This would be faster, but would almost certainly result in more casualties.)
3. Would it be acceptable for the police to wait until they are able to intervene using a water cannon?
4. Would it be acceptable for the police not to intervene by using force, in order to avoid escalation of the conflict?

Information

Following international standards, the police may use force under certain conditions. Force should be used only if necessary and should be in proportion to the aim of the intervention. Should a police officer be ordered by his/her superior to intervene in a way that is clearly in contradiction with this rule, UN rules expect him/her to refuse to carry out the order.

Case 2

Country X declares war on country Y because Y clearly protects and even finances rebel groups operating against country X from within country Y. Country X's intelligence team discovers in which village a group of well-trained and armed rebels are staying, and finds out that they are preparing a major bomb attack on an important industrial target.

Questions:

1. Would it be acceptable for country X to bomb the village heavily, making sure that only a few people, including local inhabitants, survive?
2. Would the former be acceptable after a clear request to the rebels to surrender and a clear warning to the local population to leave the village and to gather in the local sports stadium, where they would be allowed in after being searched for weapons?
3. Would it be acceptable not to intervene by using force? What alternatives can you think of?

Information

International rules (the so-called "Geneva Conventions") on warfare do not foresee a total ban on the use of military force, but forbid some types of interventions and weapons. One of the principles is that military force should not be used against non-military targets, and should neither be indiscriminate nor disproportionate: for example, serious attempts have to be made to avoid civilian casualties by refraining from using the most powerful bombs against military targets, in situations where less powerful bombs would be sufficient. In this way, civilian casualties and the deaths of innocent parties (so-called "collateral damage") could be prevented. However, as mentioned above, this does not mean that the "Geneva Conventions" on warfare consider collateral damage unacceptable, but rather that they take it into account to a certain extent.

Case 3

Mr X, a young man working as a technical assistant at the local hospital, regularly beats his wife when he arrives home drunk. His wife once informed the police about the beatings by her husband, which are sometimes serious. The neighbour's wife, who accidentally became aware of the situation, can now imagine what is going on next door when she hears her neighbours arguing and shouting.

Questions:

1. Should the neighbour's wife inform the police in such cases, or is that an unacceptable intrusion into her neighbours' privacy?
2. When they receive information from someone, should the police intervene in these circumstances?

Information

"(...) States should condemn violence against women and should not invoke any custom, tradition or religious consideration to avoid their obligations with respect to its elimination. States should pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating violence against women and, to this end, should:

(a) Consider, where they have not yet done so, ratifying or acceding to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women or withdrawing reservations to that convention;

(b) Refrain from engaging in violence against women;

(c) Exercise due diligence to prevent, investigate and, in accordance with national legislation, punish acts of violence against women, whether those acts are perpetrated by the State or by private persons (...)."

From the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993).

Case 4

Leo, 13, is a slim and rather small young boy. He is often bullied by some older boys while he is playing in the local playground. This time, he replies that they should not harass him all the time, and that they are behaving like non-educated, primitive people. As a consequence the older boys start beating him severely. Leo's friend sees this happening when he enters the playground. Some elderly people also see it happening when they cross the playground on their way back home after buying food at the market.

Questions:

1. Should Leo's friend intervene in this case? How?
2. Should the elderly people intervene? How?
3. What other solutions would you suggest?

As an additional task, the students could draft a letter to the older boys, in which they explain what they think of the older boys' behaviour. This could be a task for homework or for groups who work more quickly.

Teacher's resource sheet
International humanitarian law

What is international humanitarian law?

International humanitarian law (IHL) encompasses both humanitarian principles and international treaties that seek to save lives and alleviate the suffering of combatants and non-combatants during armed conflict. Its principal legal documents are the Geneva Conventions of 1949, four treaties signed by almost every nation in the world. The conventions define fundamental rights for combatants removed from the fighting due to injury, illness or capture and for civilians. The Additional Protocols of 1977, which supplement the Geneva Conventions, further expand those rights.

Who does IHL protect? Does IHL protect me?

IHL protects wounded, sick or captured members of the armed forces and civilians. Wounded and sick combatants – to whatever nation they may belong – are to be collected and cared for under the provisions of Geneva Convention I. They cannot be murdered or subjected to torture or biological experiments. They are to receive adequate care and are to be protected against pillage or ill-treatment. The convention also protects medical workers, military religious personnel, military medical facilities and mobile units.

Wounded, sick, and shipwrecked combatants at sea are protected by Geneva Convention II. They receive the same protection as soldiers on land, extended to conditions encountered at sea. Hospital ships are protected.

Prisoners of war (POWs), protected by Geneva Convention III, must be treated humanely and provided with adequate housing, food, clothing and medical care. They are not to be subjected to torture or medical experimentation and must be protected against acts of violence, insults and public curiosity. Captured war correspondents and civilians authorised to accompany the military are also entitled to this status.

Civilians are protected under Geneva Convention IV. At all times, parties to the conflict must distinguish between civilians and combatants and direct their operations only against military targets. Civilians must be permitted to live as normally as possible. They are to be protected against murder, torture, pillage, reprisals, indiscriminate destruction of property and being taken hostage. Their honour, family rights and religious convictions and practices are to be respected. Occupying forces shall ensure and allow safe passage of adequate food and medical supplies and the establishment of hospital and safety zones for the wounded, sick, elderly, for children, expectant mothers and mothers of young children. This convention provides special protection for women and children. The hospital staff caring for these individuals is to be respected and protected.

The Geneva Conventions call for humanitarian assistance to be carried out by the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), the Red Cross and Red Crescent national societies or other impartial humanitarian organisation, as authorised by parties to the conflicts.

Are international humanitarian law and human rights law different?

Yes, but they complement each other. Both seek to protect individuals from harm and maintain human dignity, but they address different circumstances and have different core documents. IHL applies in times of armed conflict to limit the suffering caused by war and to protect those who have fallen into the hands of the opposing party. IHL's primary focus is to safeguard the fundamental rights of wounded, sick and shipwrecked combatants, POWs and civilians. Human rights law applies in times of peace or war, but is primarily concerned with protecting people

against government violations of their internationally recognised civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights.

What does IHL say about child soldiers?

Humanitarian law prohibits children from taking part in hostilities, but child soldiers still represent a serious problem in many parts of the world. IHL requires that children under 15 should not be recruited into the armed forces, and that "all feasible measures" be taken to ensure that they do not take direct part in the fighting. In recruiting those between 15 and 18 years of age, priority must be given to the oldest (Article 77, Protocol I). Unfortunately, the number of children becoming soldiers. either voluntarily or by force. is increasing. Children living in conflict zones, particularly those separated from their families or marginalised in other ways, may become potential recruits. Children are often forced to join an armed group or to become child soldiers as a means of survival.

When is IHL used?

IHL applies to armed conflict (war) taking place between nations (international armed conflict) or to internal armed conflicts such as civil wars.

Does IHL apply to the terrorist attacks of 11 September?

Although 11 September 2001 brought death and destruction on a scale we associate with warfare, it is not clear that IHL applies. IHL applies to armed conflict between states (international armed conflict) or to internal armed conflicts such as civil wars. If the shocking attacks on civilian targets in New York and Washington were committed by a terrorist network operating on its own, then they amount to horrendous crimes, rather than acts of war to which IHL would apply.

Does IHL provide special protection for women?

Yes. Although women enjoy the same general legal protection as men, the Geneva Conventions recognise the principle that "women shall be treated with all the regard due to their sex" (Article 12, GC I and II, Article 14, GC III). This means that additional protection is provided to address women's specific needs arising from gender differences, honour and modesty, pregnancy and childbirth. For example, women POWs or internees are to be held in quarters separate from men's, under the immediate supervision of other women. Women are to be protected "against rape, enforced prostitution or any form of indecent assault" (GC IV, Article 27, also Article 75 and 76, Protocol I). As to relief shipments, "expectant mothers, maternity cases and nursing mothers" are to be given priority (Article 70, Protocol I). To learn more about issues for women in armed conflict, as well as the resilience many have shown, see the recent study on "Women Facing War" at www.womenandwar.org.

How does IHL protect children?

IHL forbids attacks against civilians and identifies special protection for children. All civilians are to be protected against murder, torture, pillage, reprisals, indiscriminate destruction of property and being taken hostage. Their honour, family rights, religious convictions and practices are to be respected. Occupying forces are to ensure and allow safe passage of adequate food and medical supplies and the establishment of hospital and safety zones for the wounded, sick, elderly, children, expectant mothers and mothers of young children. Special provisions also respond to the needs of children unaccompanied by family, psychosocial needs, and family communication.

Children under 15 who are orphaned or separated from their families must be provided for. They must be able to practise their religion and their education must be facilitated.

Is it a violation of IHL if civilians are killed during war?

Protecting civilians is a major objective of IHL. Under Geneva Convention IV, civilians are to be protected from murder and permitted to lead normal lives, if security allows. Additional Protocol I of 1977 provides further details extending civilian protection in international armed conflicts. Although the United States signed Protocol I, it has not yet ratified it. Even so, the US has indicated it will abide by these provisions, which are considered by many to be a codification of widely accepted customary law, developed over hundreds of years.

The basic rule on the principle of distinction is set out in Article 48 of Protocol I, which states: "In order to ensure respect for and protection of the civilian population and civilian objects, the Parties to the conflict shall at all times distinguish between the civilian population and combatants and between civilian objects and military objectives and accordingly shall direct their operations only against military objectives." In addition to prohibiting direct attacks, IHL also prohibits indiscriminate attacks on civilians. These can occur, for example, when an attack by the armed forces on a military target does not take into account excessive negative consequences to civilians (Article 41 of Protocol I).

However, not all civilian deaths are unlawful during war. IHL does not outlaw armed conflict, but instead attempts to balance a nation's acknowledged legal right to attack legitimate military targets during war with the right of the civilian population to be protected from the effects of the hostilities. In other words, given the nature of warfare, IHL anticipates a certain amount of "collateral damage", which sometimes, regrettably, may include civilian casualties.

Student handout 4.1

A six-step approach to conflict resolution

<table>
<tr><td>1. Needs of party A
a)
b)
c)
d)</td><td>1. Needs of party B</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">2. Definition of the problem</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">3. Ideas for solutions
a)
b)
c)
d)</td></tr>
<tr><td>4. Evaluate the solutions for party A
a)
b)
c)
d)</td><td>4. Evaluate the solutions for party B
a)
b)
c)
d)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">5. Which solution is the best?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">6. Decide how and when the solution will be evaluated</td></tr>
</table>

Student handout 4.2

Conflict scenarios

Conflict 1

Two neighbours disagree with each other about the fence that exists between their respective properties. One neighbour wants to replace the fence with a new one, as he believes that the old one is not in good condition any more. He expects his neighbour to pay half the cost of the new one. The other neighbour agrees that the fence is not in good condition, but he doesn't want to spend money on a new one. He thinks that the existing fence, although it doesn't look good, at least manages to keep the neighbour's dog out of his garden. Moreover, he doesn't like his neighbour always showing off with new, more expensive things.

Conflict 2

Father and mother deeply disagree with each other about how to react when their two-year-old baby makes too much noise inside their apartment. The father believes that his child has to learn how to behave, and that this learning process has to begin as early as possible. Moreover, he prefers to have peace and quiet during his free time, as his job is a very tiring one. The mother feels that you cannot constantly stop a two-year-old child from playing or crying, because it will frustrate the child too much and harm its development.

Student handout 4.3

Five cases of conflicting human rights

Case 1

Max is an eight-year-old boy who was seriously wounded in an accident and urgently needs a blood transfusion at a hospital. However, his father forbids the hospital staff to carry it out for religious reasons. His mother and the doctors would like to save his life.

Case 2

In a hospital, only a limited number of people work in the emergency department. It is a hectic evening and there is only room for one more person to have immediate emergency treatment. Since the lives of two people are still in danger, the doctors have to decide whether to treat a young child or a successful businessman.

Case 3

Gus is a well-respected member of a religious political party, which strongly emphasises family values. A journalist who visits the party's headquarters discovers by chance a series of personal letters from X, from which he can conclude without doubt that Gus is having an extramarital relationship. The journalist publishes the story.

Case 4

Youtchou lives in a Third World country. He is poor and is able to meet his basic needs, but nothing more. He would like to start studying, but cannot find the necessary means to do so. His country is not able to provide him with the resources needed, as the state of the economy is very bad and it has to use all the resources available to cover the basic needs of the population.

Case 5

The local authorities are planning to build a new school on a piece of land which is one of the rare places where children can still play.

Student handout 4.4

Is violence acceptable in some cases?

Case 1

During a demonstration on the issue of anti-globalisation, a small group of people starts throwing stones at the headquarters building of a famous trans-national company. The police force present on the spot sees this taking place and tries to arrest the people involved. During this intervention, a policeman is captured by the people throwing stones and is seriously beaten.

Questions:

1. Would it be acceptable for the police force to use their guns to shoot at the people throwing stones?
2. Would it be acceptable for the police to intervene using machine guns? (This intervention would be faster, but would almost certainly result in more casualties.)
3. Would it be acceptable for the police to wait until they are able to intervene using a water cannon?
4. Would it be acceptable for the police not to intervene by using force, in order to avoid escalation of the conflict?

Case 2

Country X declares war on country Y because Y clearly protects and even finances rebel groups operating against country X from within country Y. Country X's intelligence team discovers in which village a group of well-trained and armed rebels are staying, and finds out that they are preparing a major bomb attack on an important industrial target.

Questions:

1. Would it be acceptable for country X to bomb the village heavily, making sure only a few people, including local inhabitants, survive?
2. Would the former be acceptable after a clear request to the rebels to surrender and a clear warning to the local population to leave the village and to gather in the local sports stadium, where they would be allowed in after being searched for weapons?
3. Would it be acceptable not to intervene by using force? What alternatives can you think of?

Case 3

Mr X, a young man working as a technical assistant at the local hospital, regularly beats his wife when he arrives home drunk. His wife once informed the police about the beatings by her husband, which are sometimes serious. The neighbour's wife, who accidentally became aware of the situation, can now imagine what is going on next door when she hears her neighbours arguing and shouting.

Questions:

1. Should the neighbour's wife inform the police in such cases, or is that an unacceptable intrusion into her neighbour's privacy?
2. When they receive information from someone, should the police intervene in these circumstances?

Case 4

Leo, 13, is a slim and rather small young boy. He is often bullied by some older boys while he is playing in the local playground. This time, he replies that they should not harass him all the time, and that they are behaving like non-educated, primitive people. As a consequence, the older boys start beating him severely. Leo's friend sees this happening when he enters the playground. Some elderly people also see it happening when they cross the playground on their way back home after buying food at the market.

Questions:

1. Should Leo's friend intervene in this case? How?
2. Should the elderly people intervene? How?
3. What other solutions would you suggest?

Part 2

Taking responsibility

Unit 5

Rights, liberties and responsibilities
What are our rights and how are they protected?

Unit 6

Responsibility
What kind of responsibilities do people have?

UNIT 5
Rights, liberties and responsibilities

What are our rights and how are they protected?

5.1. Wishes, basic needs, human dignity and human rights

Do I have a human right to everything I wish?

5.2. Detecting human rights violations

Which human right is violated here?

5.3. Rights and responsibilities

How can rights exist without responsibilities?

5.4. Human rights quiz

What is right? What should be one's human right?

UNIT 5: Rights, liberties and responsibilities
What are our rights and how are they protected?

Human rights are, on the one hand, concerned with the development of human beings, that is, how they are able to realise their full potential in their relationships with their fellow citizens. On the other hand, human rights define the responsibilities of the nation state towards individuals. Important human rights documents include the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the European Convention on Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Traditionally, human rights have been divided into categories – civil, political, social, economic and cultural. These categories are often associated with stages of development in human rights history, with civil and political rights regarded as "the first generation", followed by social and economic rights as the "second generation" and cultural or development rights being viewed as a "third generation". Notwithstanding the value of categorising rights, EDC/HRE seeks to promote an integrated understanding of human rights. It places equal emphasis on all categories: civil, political, social, economic and cultural. Thus, EDC/HRE seeks to balance a tendency in the past to view certain rights as more important than others. While human rights have been traditionally associated with the state and its relationship with the individual, EDC/HRE is increasingly placing emphasis on the rights of groups or peoples. Attempts to include these ideas in EDC/HRE are important for the development of the concept itself and for the development of local, national and regional communities.[19]

Human rights have three elements: the holder of the rights, the content of the right (what the holder is entitled to claim) and the duty-bearer (the person or institution that must respond to the claim). Duties are usually assessed at three levels:

- To respect is to refrain from directly or indirectly depriving individuals of their rights, including refraining from establishing an institutional system that would deprive people of their rights or giving incentives to others to deprive people of their rights.
- To protect is to enforce that respect; to prevent those who seek to deprive another of rights – whether they be government officials, international institutions, private corporations, community leaders, vigilantes or family members – from doing so.
- To fulfil is to aid the deprived – including those for whom one has a special responsibility, those who are deprived because there has been a failure of the duty to respect and the duty to protect their rights, and those who are victims of natural disasters. This aid includes legislative, budgetary, judicial and other action to provide the best possible policy environment for the protection of rights.[20]

Liberties protected as civil rights include freedom of thought, opinion and expression, freedom of religious belief and practice, of movement within a state and the right to peaceful assembly and association. Other civil rights protect the privacy of the individual, family life and the right to equality before the law.[21]

Responsibilities are a logical consequence of human rights. In order to be protected, every right carries corresponding responsibilities, both for citizens and for the state. Every individual has a moral duty not to violate another person's personal dignity. Governments, in signing up to international agreements and bound by their own constitutions, not have only a moral obligation, but also a legal duty.

---

19. From "A glossary of terms for education for democratic citizenship", Karen O'Shea, Council of Europe, DGIV/EDU/CIT (2003) 29.
20. Based on "Duties sans Frontières. Human rights and global social justice", International Council of Human Rights Policy.
21. *Idem*.

Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights

Through this series of lessons students will:

- understand better the nature of human rights: they are preconditions that enable every human being to live with dignity;
- increase their knowledge of and their insight into the internationally recognised human rights;
- increase their capacity to recognise infringements of human rights;
- increase their insight into how they could contribute to improving respect for human rights;
- increase their insight into and awareness of the responsibilities connected with human rights: the responsibilities of the state and of institutions, as well as their own moral responsibilities.

UNIT 5: Rights, liberties and responsibilities
What are our rights and how are they protected?

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: Wishes, basic needs, human dignity and human rights	The students can show that human rights are preconditions for every human being to be able to live with dignity.	The students link their wishes to basic needs and human rights.	Student handout 5.1. Student handout 5.2 (teachers should note that this handout is used throughout the unit and will therefore be needed in other lessons).	Group work, plenary work. Critical thinking.
Lesson 2: Detecting human rights violations	The students can identify violations of human rights.	The students study cases of human rights violations.	Student handout 5.3. Student handout 5.2.	Pair or group work. Plenary discussion.
Lesson 3: Rights and responsi-bilities	The students understand how they can contribute to protecting human rights. The students understand that human rights are connected to responsibilities – responsibilities of the state and of institutions, as well as their own moral responsibilities.	The students identify responsibilities to protect human rights, including their personal contributions.	Blank sheet of paper and a pen Student handout 5.4. Student handout 5.2.	Pair or group work. Critical thinking.
Lesson 4: Human rights quiz	The students learn about the internationally recognised human rights.	The students answer multiple choice questions and discuss the implications of their answers.	Cards for each student, with the solutions on the back (student handout 5.5).	Multiple choice questions.

Lesson 1
Wishes, basic needs, human dignity and human rights
Do I have a human right to everything I wish?

Learning objective	The students can show that human rights are necessary preconditions for every human being to be able to live with dignity.
Student tasks	The students link their wishes to (their) basic needs and human rights.
Resources	Student handout 5.1 (one handout per group of four or five students). Student handout 5.2 (one handout per group of four or five students).
Method	Group work, plenary work. Critical thinking.

Concepts

It is important to be able to differentiate between a **wish** and a **basic need**. The basic needs of human beings, which have to be met in order to enable them to live with dignity, can be considered as the basis on which human rights have been formulated.

This lesson has the potential for poster work and conceptual thinking as extension activities.

The lesson

To introduce the lesson, the teacher informs the students how the lesson will be organised, but should not go into detail concerning the main topic. The students start by questioning themselves and each other about their own wishes and needs – they will find out later in the lesson that many of these correspond with human rights. After the introduction (not more then a minute or two) the students are then divided up into small groups of four or five, and are given their tasks in two phases. The teacher first explains task 1 and individually explains the next step to the groups when they have finished. In this way, individual learning speeds are catered for.

- **Task 1:** Student handout 5.1, Wishes, needs and rights. The groups make a list of their "material" wishes (e.g. "a good meal") in the left-hand column of the worksheet and add a minimum of three "immaterial" wishes (e.g. "to be loved"). Then they think about the needs that these wishes stand for and add them in the middle column.
- **Task 2:** The teacher then gives the groups that have finished task 1 a copy of student handout 5.2, List of Human Rights, and asks them to write down the corresponding right in the last column (e.g. "the right to food", "freedom from discrimination").
- **Task 3:** Groups that have finished early should start thinking about producing a human rights poster by choosing one of the needs and the corresponding right. They should discuss the content of their concept and also look at it from the artistic point of view and then design a draft proposal.

Once the group work is finished the teacher can write the groups' ideas on the blackboard. He or she draws a table of three columns and asks a representative of each group to add a wish, a need and the corresponding right. This goes on until there is a list of up to ten wishes, needs and rights on the blackboard (if possible, use a flip chart, as the sheets can then be posted on the classroom walls to remind the groups of their discussions).

Now the teacher leads a short plenary discussion using the following ideas:

- "You have found out that your wishes and needs correspond to the ideas of the Human Rights Convention. This needs some explanation!"
- "Some rights from the Convention have not been thought of by us. They might not be important or they might have been taken care of under another right. What is your point of view?"
- "Look at this list of human rights. When you think about what you need in order to live a decent life or what other people in other regions or countries or continents need, what is missing? What further human right would you add?"

To end the discussion, the teacher informs the students that there is a worldwide debate about the main focus of human rights. One conclusion is: "Human rights are needed to allow everyone to live with dignity." The teacher then asks the students to think of alternatives to this conclusion. This could be a task for a piece of homework. If possible, over the next few days, the students should add their ideas to the sheets of paper that have been posted on the walls. In this way, the thinking process can continue.

As an extra task, the students can be asked to produce posters on the theme of human rights, using newspaper clippings, cuttings from magazines or drawings and paintings by themselves. These could be used for classroom decoration or for an exhibition.

Finally, to sum up, the teacher gives a short review of the ideas and the goals of the lesson. He/she might even explain the didactic principle of his induction concept: that is, to start by examining experience and personal ideas and to finish by explaining the concept or theory.

Lesson 2
Detecting human rights violations
Which human right is violated here?

Learning objective	The students can identify violations of human rights.
Student tasks	The students study cases of human rights violations.
Resources	Student handout 5.3 for each pair of students. Student handout 5.2 for each pair of students.
Methods	Pair or group work. Plenary discussion.

Information box

Infringements and violations of human rights happen daily, worldwide. By looking at real cases from the past or present, the students get a clearer and more precise picture of what human rights are about.

The lesson

The class begins by discussing the tasks and the results from the last lesson. The posters are presented and the list of conclusions compared. If useful and possible, the proposals are written on sheets of paper and pinned on the classroom walls, together with the posters.

The students now form pairs. Each pair is given a copy of student handout 5.3, Human rights violations, and a copy of student handout 5.2, List of human rights.

The list of examples of human rights violations is then divided between the pairs; for example pair 1 can be given a-d, pair 2 e-j, etc.

It is preferable to divide the list in such a way that each group of violations is examined by more than one pair of students.

The students read and discuss the example of a human rights violation. They then try to reach agreement on which human right from the list of rights has been violated or infringed; for example, in example a, the right being violated is right 10.

The responses are discussed in class. The value of having more than one pair working on an example means that if there are differences of opinion, discussion can be guided through a series of short questions:

- How did you arrive at your opinion?
- When you heard the other pairs' answers, did it make you want to change your own response? If yes, what convinced you? Why?

The purpose of the discussion is to explore some of the examples and the responses, rather than to assume that there is only one correct answer.

Extension activity

If there is time at the end of the lesson, the teacher can ask the students which of these concrete examples strikes them most. For some of the examples given, the students can be asked:

- How would you feel if that happened to you?
- How would you react?
- What would you hope other people might do?

Such questions can help students explore the idea that others have responsibilities to act in defence of human rights.

Student handout 5.3

Cases of human rights violations

Teacher's copy with solutions

Human rights violation or infringement	HR violated
a. Mrs X, who some years ago lost her daughter and husband in a car accident, could not marry another man unless her brother-in-law explicitly gave his permission.	10
b. The prison guards used dogs to frighten and intimidate detainees with threats of attack, and in one instance they made dogs bite a detainee.	2
c. In the local factory, the workers have to work for at least 10 hours a day without a break.	21
d. Since the three men were arrested, they have had problems getting access to lawyers. On many occasions the lawyers would arrive and not be permitted to see them; the men were not allowed to have a collective discussion with their lawyers, which effectively meant that two of them had no access to their lawyer.	5
e. The woman, doing exactly the same job and having the same age and experience, received a lower wage than her male colleague.	7
f. X abducted and detained Y for three days and shot him in the head, which resulted in his death 3 days later.	1
g. A photo of Mrs X, a drug addict, was taken when she was leaving a Narcotics Anonymous meeting. Later the photo was published.	9
h. A woman, mistreated by her husband, was only able to obtain a divorce when she gave him her house, her car and all her property. She was left with nothing.	11
i. X, suffering from a life-threatening case of pneumonia, received no medical treatment in hospital, as she had entered the country illegally.	18
j. Seventy per cent of the population of area X were forced to move away from their homes and were later prevented from returning. They were not allowed to leave their camps to go to nearby fields to cultivate their crops, and they were forbidden to travel on many roads.	12
k. Black Africans were bought in Africa for, for example, a bottle of whisky, and sold in North America for between 1 200 and 1 500 US dollars.	3
l. In country X, all means of survival for the local population have been intentionally destroyed: crops, water supplies and livestock.	17
m. In country X, citizens may be jailed without being charged.	4
n. A 26-year-old reporter for a daily newspaper was shot dead in a suspected reprisal attack for his coverage of recently concluded election campaigns.	15
o. Mr X was called up for enrolment in the army. He wrote to the military office declaring his conscientious objection to military service and refused to report for military duties. He was charged with insubordination and was banned from leaving the country.	14
p. In country X, those who want to belong to the Falun Gong religion are prohibited from meeting.	16
q. The ethnic majority ruled that those belonging to the minority groups, such as Jews and Roma people, were obliged to live in defined areas of the town.	25

Human rights violation or infringement	HR violated
r. The children living in the village are unable to attend a primary school, as there is no such school available within a reasonable distance.	19
s. Because the religious authorities of the country disapproved, X could not run as a candidate in the parliamentary elections.	23
t. Being black, X cannot get a job as a doctor in the local hospital.	20
u. In some countries underprivileged people have no access to food or housing programmes, nor to affordable health services.	26
v. Mr X, whose house was burned down, could not make any claim for compensation.	6
w. X, a 47-year-old woman, who has always worked in the home as a housewife and mother of five children, loses every social security benefit once she is divorced from her husband.	22
x. Mr X, father of two, was jailed and tortured in country X for writing poems criticising the regime in power. His application for political asylum in country A was turned down. He claimed he would face torture if he returned home, as he is now obliged to do.	13
y. For so-called practical reasons, physically disabled people such as wheelchair users are not allowed to attend cultural events at the local theatre.	24
z. To apply for nationality in country X, a 15-year period of residence is required, plus a physical and mental health test and unreasonably high administrative fees. As a result, thousands of Roma, who have long-standing ties to their country, are stateless in their own land.	8

Lesson 3
Rights and responsibilities
How can rights exist without responsibilities?

Learning objectives	The students understand how they can contribute to protecting human rights. The students understand that human rights are connected to responsibilities – responsibilities of the state and of institutions, as well as their own moral responsibilities.
Student tasks	The students identify responsibilities to protect human rights, including their personal contributions.
Resources	Blank sheet of paper and a pen. Student handout 5.4 for each pair of students. Student handout 5.2 for each pair of students.
Methods	Work in pairs or groups. Critical thinking.

Information box

A human right will never be respected if no individual or authority takes responsibility for its realisation. Although governments are the main duty-bearers in this case, there is a strong need for other bodies and for individuals to promote and protect human rights. Every individual has the moral responsibility to contribute to a culture in which human rights values inspire our behaviour in daily life.

A possible extension activity would be to introduce the subject of positive and negative rights and project work.

The lesson

The students form pairs. It is important that there is an equal number of pairs in the classroom.

Each pair is given a blank sheet of paper and a pen and is asked to write down three important rights that they think they should have at school and three important rights that they think they should have at home. Examples might be the right not to be overloaded with homework or the right to get some pocket money.

Once this has been completed, the teacher distributes a copy of student handout 5.4, Rights and responsibilities, and student handout 5.2, List of human rights to each pair. The students are then asked to examine the list of human rights and to discuss which rights best correspond to the six rights they have written on their sheet of paper.

Once they have decided, they write the six rights in the first column of student handout 5.4. At this point, the teacher can ask the students if they need any clarification on the rights they have listed.

Once the first column is complete, the teacher explains to the students that every right carries corresponding responsibilities, giving the following example: "The freedom of speech is limited by the responsibility not to say untrue things that will degrade another person and abuse his/her right to dignity and good reputation." The teacher can also explain that the balance of a person's rights and his/her responsibilities to respect the rights of other people means that we have to exercise our rights within certain restraints. There are many situations in which the rights and responsibilities of different people conflict. For example, in the classroom, the right of education can conflict with the right to leisure, when some students want to learn while others prefer just to have fun. Moreover, school has the responsibility to teach and to educate the students and to ensure that teachers have the right of decent working conditions (such as not too much noise in their working environment).

The teacher now asks each pair of students to swap their list with another pair. The new pair now has to discuss examples of two levels of responsibility that correspond with each right listed by the other pair (see example below):

- **First level:** the responsibilities that individuals have to ensure so that others can enjoy the right (this should be written in the second column).
- **Second level:** the responsibilities (where these exist) for authorities (such as school or local authorities) to ensure this right. This should be written in the third column. For example, the responsibility of each individual to respect the privacy of the diary of other students; the responsibility of the school not to search an individual's belongings when this is unnecessary (for example, not reading the diary while searching the classroom for a stolen calculator).

Human right (in school, at home)	**(Moral) responsibility of the individual**	**Responsibility of the school, the authority, etc.**
The right to privacy	Not to look in someone else's diary	Not reading a student's diary when searching individual belongings in a case of theft

The teacher can then ask each pair to report to the rest of the class on one right and the corresponding responsibilities from their lists.

As the emphasis of this lesson is on responsibilities, the teacher can choose to draw two columns on the blackboard, one for individual responsibilities, the other for responsibilities of authorities, and as the students give examples, these can be written on the blackboard. The teacher can end the class with a review of the responsibilities and ask the students to comment on the lists.

Extension activity

If time allows, or if the teacher wishes to extend the lesson to include the idea of positive and negative rights and project work, he or she could carry out the following activities.

The teacher can begin by explaining that sometimes human rights are divided into "negative rights" and "positive rights".

"Negative rights" are rights that ban or forbid something unpleasant (such as the ban on torture). "Positive rights" are rights that explicitly ask one to do something or to have something done (such as the right to food: everyone is entitled to have adequate food). Whereas "negative rights" expect people not to carry out specific actions, "positive rights" expect individuals and authorities to carry out certain activities in order to provide those rights.

The teacher also explains that most of the human rights have both negative and positive sides. For example, the right not to be tortured means that authorities must not mistreat people who have been detained, but also that the authorities need to give clear instructions about this to their police forces.

The students are invited to return to their lists of human rights and to choose three of them. They should then look for examples of positive or negative action in their lives to illustrate their own moral responsibility. They should then look for other examples, this time to show the responsibility of the school or the local/national authorities. For this purpose, they could add a plus or minus sign to the responsibilities chosen: see example below.

Human right (in school, at home)	**(Moral) responsibility of the individual**	**Responsibility of the school, the authority, etc.**
Right to privacy (= example)	(+)	(+) To take care that the students' school file cannot be looked into by visitors
	(-) Not to look into someone's diary without being invited to do so	(-) (school) Not to search someone's belongings if not strictly necessary (-) (state) To provide legislation protecting the privacy of individuals

If teachers wish to use this activity as an introduction to project work, they could ask students to choose some of the human rights that will be treated more in depth over the next few weeks or months. Students then set up a plan in which they agree on the overall objective and the different steps to be taken. They also decide by when which task has to be completed and by whom.

Plan

Overall objective:		
What has to be done?	Who will do it?	When should this be ready?

During the course of the next few lessons, this plan has to be followed up and finally evaluated.

Lesson 4
Human rights quiz
What is right? What should be one's human right?

Learning objective	The students learn about the internationally recognised human rights.
Student tasks	The students answer multiple choice questions and discuss the implications of their answers.
Resources	Cards for each student, with the solutions on the back (see student handout 5.5).
Method	Multiple choice questions.

Information box

Though human rights is a dynamic concept, and one which is therefore constantly evolving, international law defines the content and scope of human rights. The human rights quiz that follows, which should not be used as a test of knowledge, helps to show the students at what stage we are now in the elaboration of human rights. It also helps to avoid misinterpretations of the human rights framework.

Before this lesson, the teacher should note all the questions related to agreements made within the UN or within the Council of Europe. It might also be useful to start with a short explanation of the terms or concepts used, such as UN, Council of Europe (not to be confused with the European Council in the European Union), human rights, nation/state, discrimination, judge or trial.

The lesson

First of all, the teacher explains that the purpose of the quiz is not to test their knowledge, but to enhance their understanding of human rights in an active way.

The students prepare the cards themselves by cutting out the strips with the questions and answers. They then glue them back to back in order to have questions and answers on the same card.

In small groups (or in pairs) the students now sit together and ask each other questions. Each group of students is then given the set of cards. Every question has three possible answers, namely A, B or C. The students choose what they believe to be the correct answer to each question. It should be pointed out that there is sometimes more than one possible correct answer, as human rights is a dynamic concept that is constantly evolving and this leaves room for interpretation.

It makes sense to discuss the answers in class every once in a while. In this way, this lesson will not become a simple knowledge-based question and answer quiz. But it is important to be ready for a discussion in public by preparing the knowledge element too.

Questions and answers

See also student handout 5.5. The teacher or a group of students prepares enough sets of cards by cutting out the slips with questions and answers on them, folding them and gluing them together.

Child labour by 17 year olds: A. Is always a violation of the rights of the child. B. Is a violation of the rights of the child if the task is harmful. C. Can be acceptable if the government has fixed the minimum working age to be under 17.	**Child labour by 17 year olds:** C is correct. The Children's Rights Convention bans child labour if it is dangerous or a form of exploitation, but allows governments to fix the age under which the ban is valid. There is much pressure to reach more stringent restrictions on child labour.
According to international agreements relating to the right to water: A. Governments are obliged to provide their citizens with clean and healthy water. B. Governments are not allowed to discriminate against some citizens in provision of water. C. Governments are not allowed to deny their citizens access to a water supply.	**According to international agreements which relate to the right to water:** According to the interpretation by the UN Committee on Economic and Social Rights, B and C are correct, A is not. The fulfilment of the right to water is something that governments have to strive towards, but this right cannot be claimed as such by the citizens.
The death penalty: A. Is in general forbidden all over the world. B. Is abolished in law or practice by more than 50% of all countries. C. Is not allowed in the case of young people under 18.	**The death penalty:** B and C are correct, A is not. The death penalty is not totally banned in UN treaties, nor by the ECHR, though in both cases it is banned by an optional protocol. Protocol 6 (abolition of the death penalty in peacetime) and Protocol 13 (abolition of the death penalty in all circumstances) to the ECHR have both been signed and/or ratified by many states.
Economic and social rights: A. Are not real human rights. B. The immediate fulfilment of these rights for all individuals is not expected from states. C. Can be claimed by every European individual.	**Economic and social rights:** B is correct. Officially, economic and social rights are real human rights, though it is true that the obligation to recognise them is much weaker than for many of the civil and political rights. The International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights expects states to strive for their fulfilment but there is no European mechanism allowing individuals to file a complaint (though under certain restrictions an optional protocol allows organisations to do so).

According to the clauses of the right to education: A. Individuals and groups are allowed to open a school, as long as they fulfil the minimum legal conditions. B. There are no obligations concerning the contents of educational programmes. C. Governments are bound to provide compulsory education for all young people under 18.	**According to the clauses of the right to education:** A is correct, B and C not. International conventions, such as the Children's Rights Convention, stipulate that education has to inform children about human rights.
The right of being recognised as a refugee: A. Is defined for people who have a well-founded fear of being persecuted on the basis of their race, religion or political opinion and have fled their country as a result. B. Also exists for people who have fled their country as a result of civil war or hunger. C. Can be automatically refused by a government to all applicants who come from a country which is considered as being safe.	**The right of being recognised as a refugee:** A is correct, B is not (although in some countries, people who fled their country as a result of civil war or hunger can be granted protection, without being considered as refugees under the international conventions). C does not apply to refugees under the Geneva Convention, but is widely applied within the EU in dealing with asylum seekers.
The freedom of religion: A. Cannot be denied to people on the ground that they belong to a minority religion. B. Obliges nations to recognise and subsidise religions. C. Cannot be restricted in any way by a state.	**The freedom of religion:** A is correct. Nations are obliged to respect the freedom of religion, but don't have the legal obligation for any system of recognition or subsidisation. States can restrict the freedom of religion, for example, where the religion would be in opposition to fundamental human rights.
The right to property: A. Doesn't mean that governments cannot take a possession from someone if this is in the public interest. B. Is violated if an entire village is evacuated without due compensation in order to build a hydroelectric power station. C. Allows a person to consider goods that they have stolen as his/her property.	**The right to property:** A and B are correct. C is obviously wrong.
Elections: A. All citizens are allowed to vote, even if they have lost their civil rights due to criminal activity. B. Two votes for each person are allowed if the voter is an employer. C. The balloting must be performed secretly.	**Elections:** Only C is correct. A state can prevent persons who have lost their civil rights from voting. Equal rights for everyone who is entitled to vote is an international rule.
Freedom of expression: A. May be restricted in order to protect against defamation. B. Cannot be restricted for reasons of public morality. C. Can be restricted to prevent religious intolerance.	**Freedom of expression:** A and C are correct. Freedom of expression can, under certain conditions, be restricted for reasons of public morality, for the prevention of crime, for the protection of health or for protection against defamation, if this is foreseen by law.
The right to work: A. Obliges states to provide jobs for all their citizens. B. Means that no one can be fired arbitrarily. C. Doesn't mean a government has to make efforts to realise full employment.	**The right to work:** Only B is correct. In Europe, states are obliged to undertake efforts to realise full employment but this is not included in UN treaties.

The right to a healthy environment: A. Forbids states to dump toxic waste that spoils the soil irreversibly. B. Aims at protecting human beings, animals and plants. C. Is not yet fixed as a universal right.	**The right to a healthy environment:** C is correct, although the right to health protects human beings from harm resulting directly from pollution. In those cases, only human beings are universally protected, animals or plants are not. The African Charter and the European Union Charter, which are not universally valid, do establish to a certain extent a right to a healthy environment.
According to the right to education: A. For primary school children no school fees may be charged, only the cost of school trips and school textbooks may be requested. B. It is the obligation of the state to strive to help as many students as possible to succeed in their studies. C. States have to give all students equal opportunities in education.	**According to the right to education:** B and C are correct (these obligations are included in the Children's Rights Convention). In principle, primary education must be free, and this not only includes a school fee, but also other indirect costs related to essential school activities.
Punishment of children in schools: A. Is not allowed in the form of corporal punishment. B. Is not forbidden if the punishment is mentally cruel. C. May only be used if parents agree.	**Punishment of children in schools:** A is considered as correct, since the European Court of Human Rights has repeatedly considered corporal punishment as a violation of the ECHR (and this complies with the interpretation which is given by the Children's Rights Committee to the Children's Rights Convention). B is incorrect, as the ban relates to all cruel punishments. As for C, there is no clause that makes punishment directly dependent on the parents' agreement.
At school: A. There shouldn't be any attention given to environmental issues. B. Young children should be taught to respect their parents. C. Young children should learn about human rights and experience human rights.	**At school:** B and C are correct. The Children's Rights Convention contains such clauses. The convention also determines that education should aim at respect for the environment.
In court: A. Every criminal has the right to a lawyer. B. People can only be convicted if they have made a confession. C. The suspect has the right to an interpreter free of charge if the trial takes place in a language unknown to him/her.	**In court:** A and C are correct.
Torture: A. Is allowed if used to prevent terrorist attacks. B. Is only allowed after the decision of a judge. C. Is never allowed.	**Torture:** C is correct (torture is not allowed even in cases of national emergency).
The right to life is violated if: A. Someone dies by accident due to a police force preventing an attack on someone else's life. B. Someone dies due to an act of war, even if this was legal. C. Someone dies due to unnecessary force by the police.	**The right to life is violated if:** C is correct. In the case of A, the right to life could be violated if the force used by the police was more than absolutely necessary.

According to the right to housing: A. All states are obliged to ensure that nobody is homeless. B. Foreigners should be offered the same access to social housing as the country's citizens. C. The state should make efforts to reduce the number of homeless people.	**According to the right to housing:** B and C are correct.
According to the right to health care: A. Governments are not obliged to prevent labour accidents. B. Everybody should have access to health care. C. Medicines should be free of charge.	**According to the right to health care:** B is correct. Prevention of labour accidents is considered as an obligation. Medicines can be sold.
According to the right to freedom of movement: A. A person can be forbidden to choose a certain residence for reasons of public security. B. The denial of a visa to a person who has not been convicted of a crime is a violation of human rights. C. A criminal may be imprisoned.	**According to the right to freedom of movement:** A and C are correct. A visa can be denied to anyone, not only to criminals. Restrictions on the freedom of movement can also be imposed for reasons of public health, public order or national security, if provided for by law.

Student handout 5.1

Wishes, needs and rights

Wishes	Basic needs	Human rights

Student handout 5.2

List of human rights

This is a list of human rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) and the revised European Social Charter (ESC).

1. Right to life.
2. Freedom from torture.
3. Freedom from slavery.
4. Right to liberty and security.
5. Right to a fair trial.
6. Right to an effective remedy if a human right is violated.
7. Freedom from discrimination; right to equality.
8. Right to be recognised as a person; right to nationality.
9. Right to privacy and family life.
10. Right to marry.
11. Right to own property.
12. Right to movement of persons.
13. Right to asylum.
14. Freedom of thought, conscience and religion.
15. Freedom of expression.
16. Freedom of assembly and association.
17. Right to food, drink and housing.
18. Right to health care.
19. Right to education.
20. Right to employment.
21. Right to rest and leisure.
22. Right to social protection.
23. Right to political participation.
24. Right to take part in cultural life.
25. Prohibition of destruction of human rights.
26. Right to a social order that recognises human rights.
27. Responsibilities and duties of the individual.

Student handout 5.3

Cases of human rights violations

Human rights violation or infringement	Human right
a. Mrs X, who some years ago lost her daughter and husband in a car accident, could not marry another man unless her brother-in-law explicitly gave his permission.	
b. The prison guards used dogs to frighten and intimidate detainees with threats of attack, and in one instance they made dogs actually bite a detainee.	
c. In the local factory the workers have to work for at least 10 hours a day without a break.	
d. Since the three men were arrested, they have had problems obtaining access to lawyers. On many occasions the lawyers would arrive and were not be permitted to see them; the men were not allowed to have a collective discussion with their lawyers, which effectively meant that two of them had no access to their lawyer.	
e. The woman, doing exactly the same job and having the same age and experience, received a lower wage than her male colleagues.	
f. X abducted and detained Y for three days and shot him in the head, which resulted in his death 3 days later.	
g. A photo of Mrs X, a drug addict, was taken when leaving a Narcotics Anonymous meeting. Later the photo was published.	
h. A woman, mistreated by her husband, was only able to obtain a divorce when she gave him her house, her car and all her property. She was left with nothing.	
i. X, suffering from a life-threatening case of pneumonia, received no medical treatment in hospital as she had entered the country illegally.	
j. Seventy per cent of the population of area X were forced to move away from their homes and were later prevented from returning. They were not allowed to leave their camps to go to nearby fields to cultivate their crops, and they were forbidden to travel on many roads.	
k. Black Africans were bought in Africa for, for example, a bottle of whisky, and sold in North America for between 1 200 and 1 500 US dollars.	
l. In country X, all means of survival for the local population have been intentionally destroyed: crops, water supplies and livestock.	
m. In country X, citizens may be jailed without being charged.	
n. A 26-year-old reporter for a daily newspaper was shot dead in a suspected reprisal attack for his coverage of recently concluded election campaigns.	
o. Mr X was called up for enrolment in the army. He wrote to the enrolment military office declaring his conscientious objection to military service and refused to report for military duty. He was charged with insubordination and was banned from leaving the country.	
p. In country X, those who want to belong to the Falun Gong religion are prohibited from meeting.	
q. The ethnic majority ruled that those belonging to the minority groups, such as Jews and Roma people, were obliged to live in defined areas of the town.	

Human rights violation or infringement	Human right
r. The children living in the village are unable to attend a primary school, as there is no such school available within a reasonable distance.	
s. Because the religious authorities of the country disapproved, X could not run as a candidate in the parliamentary elections.	
t. Being black, X cannot get a job as a doctor in the local hospital.	
u. In some countries, underprivileged people have no access to food or housing programmes, nor to affordable health services.	
v. Mr. X, whose house was burned down, could not make any claim for compensation.	
w. X, a 47-year-old woman, who has always worked in the home as a housewife and mother of five children, loses every social security benefit once she is divorced from her husband.	
x. Mr X, father of two, was jailed and tortured in country X for writing poems criticising the regime in power. His application for political asylum in country A was turned down. He claimed he would face torture when returning home, as he is now obliged to.	
y. For so-called practical reasons, physically disabled people such as wheelchair users are not allowed to attend cultural events at the local theatre.	
z. To apply for nationality in country X, a 15-year period of residence is required, plus a physical and mental health test and unreasonably high administrative fees. As a result, thousands of Roma, who have long-standing ties to their country, are stateless in their own land.	

Student handout 5.4

Rights and responsibilities

Human right	Responsibility of the individual	Responsibility of the school, the authority, etc.

Student handout 5.5

Human rights quiz (training cards)

Child labour by 17 year olds: A. Is always a violation of the rights of the child. B. Is a violation of the rights of the child if the task is harmful. C. Can be acceptable if the government has fixed the minimum working age to be under 17.	**Child labour by 17 year olds:** C is correct. The Children's Rights Convention bans child labour if it is dangerous or a form of exploitation, but allows governments to fix the age under which the ban is valid. There is much pressure to reach more stringent restrictions on child labour.
According to international agreements relating to the right to water: A. Governments are obliged to provide their citizens with clean and healthy water. B. Governments are not allowed to discriminate against some citizens in provision of water. C. Governments are not allowed to deny their citizens access to a water supply.	**According to international agreements which relate to the right to water:** According to the interpretation by the UN Committee on Economic and Social Rights, B and C are correct, A is not. The fulfilment of the right to water is something that governments have to strive towards, but this right cannot be claimed as such by the citizens.
The death penalty: A. Is in general forbidden all over the world. B. Is abolished in law or practice by more than 50% of all countries. C. Is not allowed in the case of young people under 18.	**The death penalty:** B and C are correct, A is not. The death penalty is not totally banned in UN treaties, nor by the ECHR, though in both cases it is banned by an optional protocol. Protocol 6 (abolition of the death penalty in peacetime) and Protocol 13 (abolition of the death penalty in all circumstances) to the ECHR have both been signed and/or ratified by many states.
Economic and social rights: A. Are not real human rights. B. The immediate fulfilment of these rights for all individuals is not expected from states. C. Can be claimed by every European individual.	**Economic and social rights:** B is correct. Officially, economic and social rights are real human rights, though it is true that the obligation to recognise them is much weaker than for many of the civil and political rights. The International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights expects states to strive for their fulfilment but there is no European mechanism allowing individuals to file a complaint (though under certain restrictions an optional protocol allows organisations to do so).
According to the clauses of the right to education: A. Individuals and groups are allowed to open a school, as long as they fulfil the minimum legal conditions. B. There are no obligations concerning the contents of educational programmes. C. Governments are bound to provide compulsory education for all young people under 18.	**According to the clauses of the right to education:** A is correct, B and C not. International conventions, such as the Children's Rights Convention, stipulate that education has to inform children about human rights.
The right of being recognised as a refugee: A. Is defined for people who have a well-founded fear of being persecuted on basis of their race, religion or political opinion and have fled their country as a result. B. Also exists for people who have fled their country as a result of civil war or hunger. C. Can be automatically refused by a government to all applicants who come from a country which is considered as being safe.	**The right of being recognised as a refugee:** A is correct, B is not (although in some countries, people who fled their country as a result of civil war or hunger can be granted protection, without being considered as refugees under the international conventions). C does not apply to refugees under the Geneva Convention, but is widely applied within the EU in dealing with asylum seekers.

The freedom of religion: A. Cannot be denied to people on the ground that they belong to a minority religion. B. Obliges nations to recognise and subsidise religions. C. Cannot be restricted in any way by a state.	**The freedom of religion:** A is correct. Nations are obliged to respect the freedom of religion, but don't have the legal obligation for any system of recognition or subsidisation. States can restrict the freedom of religion, for example, where the religion would be in opposition to fundamental human rights.
The right to property: A. Doesn't mean that governments cannot take a possession from someone if this is in the public interest. B. Is violated if an entire village is evacuated without due compensation in order to build a hydroelectric power station. C. Allows a person to consider goods that they have stolen as his/her property.	**The right to property:** A and B are correct. C is obviously wrong.
Elections: A. All citizens are allowed to vote, even if they have lost their civil rights due to criminal activity. B. Two votes for each person are allowed if the voter is an employer. C. The balloting must be performed secretly.	**Elections:** Only C is correct. A state can prevent persons who have lost their civil rights from voting. Equal rights for everyone who is entitled to vote is an international rule.
Freedom of expression: A. May be restricted in order to protect against defamation. B. Cannot be restricted for reasons of public morality. C. Can be restricted to prevent religious intolerance.	**Freedom of expression:** A and C are correct. Freedom of expression can, under certain conditions, be restricted for reasons of public morality, for the prevention of crime, for the protection of health or for protection against defamation, if this is foreseen by law.
The right to work: A. Obliges states to provide jobs for all their citizens. B. Means that no one can be fired arbitrarily. C. Doesn't mean a government has to make efforts to realise full employment.	**The right to work:** Only B is correct. In Europe, states are obliged to undertake efforts to realise full employment but this is not included in UN treaties.
The right to a healthy environment: A. Forbids states to dump toxic waste that spoils the soil irreversibly. B. Aims at protecting human beings, animals and plants. C. Is not yet fixed as a universal right.	**The right to a healthy environment:** C is correct, although the right to health protects human beings from harm resulting directly from pollution. In those cases, only human beings are universally protected, animals or plants are not. The African Charter and the European Union Charter, which are not universally valid, do establish to a certain extent a right to a healthy environment.
According to the right to education: A. For primary school children no school fees may be charged, only the cost of school trips and school textbooks may be requested. B. It is the obligation of the state to strive to help as many students as possible to succeed in their studies. C. States have to give all students equal opportunities in education.	**According to the right to education:** B and C are correct (these obligations are included in the Children's Rights Convention). In principle, primary education must be free, and this not only includes a school fee, but also other indirect costs related to essential school activities.

Punishment of children in schools: A. Is not allowed in the form of corporal punishment. B. Is not forbidden if the punishment is mentally cruel. C. May only be used if parents agree.	**Punishment of children in schools:** A is considered as correct, since the European Court of Human Rights has repeatedly considered corporal punishment as a violation of the ECHR (and this complies with the interpretation which is given by the Children's Rights Committee to the Children's Rights Convention). B is incorrect, as the ban relates to all cruel punishments. As for C, there is no clause that makes punishment directly dependent on the parents' agreement.
At school: A. There shouldn't be any attention given to environmental issues. B. Young children should be taught to respect their parents. C. Young children should learn about human rights and experience human rights.	**At school:** B and C are correct. The Children's Rights Convention contains such clauses. The convention also determines that education should aim at respect for the environment.
In court: A. Every criminal has the right to a lawyer. B. People can only be convicted if they have made a confession. C. The suspect has the right to an interpreter free of charge if the trial takes place in a language unknown to him/her.	**In court:** A and C are correct.
Torture: A. Is allowed if used to prevent terrorist attacks. B. Is only allowed after the decision of a judge. C. Is never allowed.	**Torture:** C is correct (torture is not allowed even in cases of national emergency).
The right to life is violated if: A. Someone dies by accident due to a police force preventing an attack on someone else's life. B. Someone dies due to an act of war, even if this was legal. C. Someone dies due to unnecessary force by the police.	**The right to life is violated if:** C is correct. In the case of A, the right to life could be violated if the force used by the police was more than absolutely necessary.
According to the right to housing: A. All states are obliged to ensure that nobody is homeless. B. Foreigners should be offered the same access to social housing as the country's citizens. C. The state should make efforts to reduce the number of homeless people.	**According to the right to housing:** B and C are correct.
According to the right to health care: A. Governments are not obliged to prevent labour accidents. B. Everybody should have access to health care. C. Medicines should be free of charge.	**According to the right to health care:** B is correct. Prevention of labour accidents is considered as an obligation. Medicines can be sold.
According to the right to freedom of movement: A. A person can be forbidden to choose a certain residence for reasons of public security. B. The denial of a visa to a person who has not been convicted of a crime is a violation of human rights. C. A criminal may be imprisoned.	**According to the right to freedom of movement:** A and C are correct. A visa can be denied to anyone, not only to criminals. Restrictions on the freedom of movement can also be imposed for reasons of public health, public order or national security, if provided for by law.

Teacher's resource sheet

This list contains the rights from the "List of human rights", showing the relevant articles from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) and the revised European Social Charter (ESC). This overview has been made for educational purposes.

	UDHR	ECHR	ESC	ICCPR	ISESCR
1. Right to life	3	2		6	
2. Freedom from torture	5	3	26	7, 10	
3. Freedom from slavery	4	4		8	
4. Right to liberty and security	3	5		9	
5. Right to a fair trial	10, 11	6, 7		14, 15	
6. Right to an effective remedy in case of violations	8	13	D	2, 9	
7. Freedom from discrimination; right to equality	2, 7	14	4, 15, 20, 27, E	3, 26	3
8. Right to be recognised as a person; right to nationality	6, 15			16, 24	
9. Right to privacy and family life	12	8		17	
10. Right to marry	16	12		23	
11. Right to own property	17				15
12. Right to movement of persons	13		18	12	
13. Right to asylum	14			18	
14. Freedom of thought, conscience and religion	18	9		18	
15. Freedom of expression	19	10	28	19	8
16. Freedom of assembly and association	20	11	5, 28	21, 22	8
17. Right to food, drink and housing	25		30, 31		11
18. Right to health care	25		11		7, 12
19. Right to education	26		10		13, 14
20. Right to employment	23		1, 2, 3, 4, 24		6, 7
21. Right to rest and leisure	24		2		7
22. Right to social protection	22, 25		7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 23, 25		9, 10
23. Right to political participation	21		22	25	
24. Right to take part in cultural life	27			27	15
25. Prohibition of destruction of human rights	30	17		5, 20	5
26. Right to a social order that recognises human rights	28			2	2
27. Duties of the individual	29				

Note: Some articles of the ESC are referred to by numbers, some with capital letters.

UNIT 6
Responsibility

What kind of responsibilities do people have?

6.1. Responsibilities at home

People experience conflicts of loyalty – how should they decide?

6.2. Why should people obey the law?

What are the best reasons for obeying the law?

6.3. Whose problem is it?

How are social responsibilities shared?

6.4. Why do people become active citizens?

Why do people want to change society and how can they do it?

UNIT 6: Responsibility
What kind of responsibilities do people have?

Legal responsibility

Citizens of any state are entitled to know what their rights are in law and also to appreciate the extent of their legal responsibilities to the state and to other citizens. The responsibilities of citizens of democracies are sometimes summed up in three main duties, namely to vote, pay taxes and obey the law.

Responsibilities are often the obverse of rights. For example, the right to free speech brings with it the responsibility to allow the same right to others. However, people who commit crimes do not necessarily lose the rights they denied to others (as in the case of killing or discrimination). Equally, people often have obligations which are not reciprocal, for example, responsibilities towards children.

Moral responsibility

In EDC it is very important to nurture young people's capacity to think morally. Without this capacity, there can be no critical evaluation of society's laws or social structures in terms of whether they are fair (just). For this reason, when students are taught about laws which affect them, they should also be encouraged to critically evaluate their function and purpose and whether they should be changed in any way.

Teaching for responsibility

By examining the reasons why people behave in a pro-social way, or highlighting the extent of other people's needs, teachers can help students become more aware of the needs and rights of others. It is also important for teachers to demonstrate attitudes of responsibility in front of students.

Students learn to become responsible citizens not only through study in the classroom, but also through being given the opportunity to learn from experience. In this respect, the good EDC school will be keen to encourage students to be involved in the life of the school and the wider community, for example, through school councils.

In this unit students will:

- explore the range of responsibilities experienced by citizens in society;
- explore the nature of people's legal responsibilities;
- consider the shared nature of social responsibilities;
- consider why people take personal responsibility to bring about social change.

UNIT 6: Responsibility
What kind of responsibilities do people have?

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: Responsibilities at home	To explore the range of responsibilities people have. To understand that responsibilities can come into conflict with each other.	Students analyse the moral dilemma. Students discuss alternative analyses. Students make individual statements.	Copies of the story "Milan makes a choice". Paper for written tasks.	Individual and small group discussion. Plenary discussion. Individual written work.
Lesson 2: Why should people obey the law?	To explore the moral reasoning underlying decisions about conflicts of responsibility.	Students analyse a moral dilemma. Students critically evaluate reasons for legal obedience. Students suggest situations in which a moral duty might override the duty to obey the law.	Copies of the story "Schmitt's Dilemma". Paper for written tasks. Blackboard	Shared analysis of moral dilemma. Teacher-supported analysis. Story writing. Plenary discussion.
Lesson 3: Whose problem is it?	To explore the nature of people's legal responsibilities. To explore the distinction between moral and legal obligations.	Students discuss responsibility for certain social problems. Students complete a thinking frame. Students produce written responses to the issues raised.	Copies of the "letter". Blackboard Paper for individual student writing.	Structured critical analysis. Small group analysis and discussion. Consensus reaching and negotiation. Personal writing.
Lesson 4: Why do people become active citizens?	To consider the shared nature of responsibility for social problems. To consider reasons why people accept responsibility for other people's suffering. To explore the role of NGOs in civil society.	Students work in groups to piece together a narrative. Students hypothesise on the reasons for socially motivated behaviour. Students consider the role of NGOs. In groups, students research the work of an NGO or a social campaigner. In groups, students present their findings.	Copies of the slips about Jelena Santic (student handout 6.4), already cut up. Resources to support student research. Resources for group presentations, e.g. large sheets of paper, coloured pens.	Group work. Negotiation. Moral reasoning. Critical evaluation. Research. Group presentation.

Lesson 1
Responsibilities at home
People experience conflicts of loyalty – how should they decide?

Learning objectives	To explore the range of responsibilities people have. To understand that responsibilities can come into conflict with each other. To explore the moral reasoning underlying decisions about conflicts of responsibility.
Student tasks	Students analyse the moral dilemma. Students discuss alternative analyses. Students make individual statements.
Resources	Copies of the story "Milan makes a choice". Paper for written tasks.
Methods	Individual and small group discussion. Plenary discussion. Individual written work.

Conceptual learning

Responsibility: Something people have to do – responsibilities can be legal, moral or social, depending on how they arise.

Moral conflict: The conflict people experience when they have to decide between two or more courses of action.

Civic responsibility: People's duties to the wider community. These responsibilities arise because membership of a community brings rights in return for responsibilities.

The lesson

The teacher introduces the idea that everyone has responsibilities of some kind and that problems can arise when people put some responsibilities above others. There are difficult choices to make. The teacher reads the story "Milan makes a choice" to the class and asks students to think about the following issues. Some questions could be discussed in pairs before answers are finalised. With others, students could usefully make notes before sharing their ideas with the class.

1. What does the story say about the kind of responsibilities Milan has? How many different kinds of responsibility can you see (responsibility to himself, to his family, to the school, to the local community or to the wider world)?
2. What do you think Milan should do and why? Does everyone in the class agree?
3. How difficult a decision do you think Milan has? What makes it difficult?
4. What responsibilities does Milan's father have in the story? How many can you see?
5. Do you think that Milan's father was right to ask him to stay at home?
6. How serious would it be if Milan disobeyed his father? Would this be a difficult decision for Milan to make? Give reasons for your answer.

Written task

In your own words, write down what you think Milan wrote to his father. Compare your version with those of others in the class. The students share their ideas with the class.

Generalisation

Perhaps the students have already addressed some general aspects of moral conflict.

The teacher responds to these thoughts or asks the class to think more generally about the kinds of responsibility people have towards:

- themselves;
- their family;
- their local community;
- the national community;
- the wider world.

The students work in groups again. They could use a table to set out the different responsibilities. The reasons why people disagree about the extent to which people have responsibilities for others and for the community are then discussed in class.

Individual statements

The teacher should then give the following information to the students. "In the story some of Milan's responsibilities come into conflict with each other. Think of some examples of your own where people's responsibilities might conflict. Take some specific examples and talk about how you think people resolve such conflicts of responsibility."

If students find this difficult to think about, the teacher should provide some specific examples, drawing on local context.

Lesson 2
Why should people obey the law?
What are the best reasons for obeying the law?

Learning objectives	To explore the nature of people's legal responsibilities. To explore the distinction between moral and legal obligations.
Student tasks	Students analyse a moral dilemma in a plenary discussion. Students critically evaluate reasons for legal obedience. Students suggest situations in which a moral duty might override the duty to obey the law.
Resources	Copies of the story "Schmitt's Dilemma". Paper for written tasks. Blackboard.
Methods	Shared analysis of moral dilemma. Teacher-supported analysis. Story writing. Plenary discussion.

Conceptual learning

Law: A rule made by local or national government.

Rule of law: In democratic societies, governments and those in power are subject to the law of the land. Power changes hands democratically according to the rules of the country's constitution, not as the result of force or war. People have a general duty to obey the law because it is democratically decided.

Legal duty: The obligations people have put upon them by the law.

Moral responsibility: The personal obligations people feel based on their beliefs about what is right and wrong.

The lesson

The teacher introduces the story "Schmitt's Dilemma" and asks students to work in pairs to consider whether Schmitt should break the law and steal the money or not. The teacher writes different opinions on the blackboard as to whether Schmitt should steal the money.

The teacher asks the students to choose an opinion they agree with and add their own reason in writing:

– Schmitt should steal the money because...

– Schmitt should not steal the money because...

The teacher notes the range of reasons suggested by the students on the blackboard. For example,

"He should steal the money because his daughter's life is more important than the law against stealing";

"He should not steal the money because he could get caught"; or

"He should not steal because it is wrong to break the law".

The different reasons are then discussed in class. Why are they different? Are some reasons better than others? The teacher then asks the students to complete this sentence:

"It is generally wrong to break the law because..."

Alternatively the teacher could ask the class to think of as many reasons as they can as to why it is wrong to break the law. Typically, in answer to this question, people come up with a range of replies, including the following:

"It is wrong to break the law because:

– you could get caught and be punished;

– the law protects people from harm and it is wrong to harm other people;

– everyone would go wild if the law did not stop them;

– law-breaking undermines trust between people;

– society needs law and order to survive, without laws there will be chaos;

– law-breaking violates individual people's rights, such as their rights to property or to life."

The teacher points out to the class that people have a range of reasons for obeying the law. Some of these have to do with self-interest, other reasons show concern for other people and some show a concern for the well-being of society as a whole (see note below).

To illustrate these concepts, the teacher could draw a series of three concentric rings on the blackboard with "self", "others" and "society" written in each ring, starting from the inner ring. The different reasons should be written in the appropriate area.

The teacher stresses that legal obedience of itself is not necessarily a sign of a "good citizen". Many wrong deeds have been committed by people who were in fact obeying the law, saying they were only "doing their duty". On the other hand, the story shows that from time to time even good people might have to consider breaking a particular law for a morally good reason.

To support the students' understanding of the difficult balance between legal duties and moral responsibilities, the teacher then asks the students to write their own short stories in which people (for good reasons) consider breaking the law. Examples might be breaking the speed limit in an emergency or defying a law because it is bad or unjust.

Some of the students read their examples aloud in the plenary discussion. The teacher then underlines the distinction between moral responsibilities (which people take upon themselves as part of their own values and beliefs) and legal duties, which are imposed by governments. The

tensions between these two kinds of responsibility may lead citizens to criticise some laws they disagree with and to work to change them. They may even, on occasion, decide to break some laws for morally positive reasons. History offers many examples of situations in which people have broken laws in order to protest against them or to rebel against tyrannical governments. The teacher should illustrate this with some local examples. The teacher should stress that such actions should not be taken lightly because of the danger of undermining the rule of law, upon which stable democracies depend.

Note

The moral dilemma offered in this lesson is not unlike the famous "Heinz Dilemma" devised by Lawrence Kohlberg, the American psychologist, in the 1950s. This was one of a number of dilemmas Kohlberg and his colleagues put to young people every three years or so between the ages of 10 and 25. It was found that over time young people, on average, progressed from using self-centred reasoning when they were young to using more person-centred reasoning in early adolescence. Then, in mid-adolescence, most of them showed a progression towards using society-centred reasoning, though the context and the type of dilemma can influence which type of reasoning people use at any one time. Younger children have been shown to regard rules and laws as inflexible and based not on social purpose but solely on the authority of the rule maker. By adolescence, young people are more aware that laws have social purposes, which can be reviewed, questioned and criticised as being morally wrong or unfair.

Lesson 3
Whose problem is it?
How are social responsibilities shared?

Learning objective	To consider the shared nature of responsibility for social problems.
Student tasks	Students discuss responsibility for certain social problems. Students complete a thinking frame. Students produce written responses to the issues raised.
Resources	Copies of the "letter". Blackboard. Paper for individual student writing.
Methods	Structured critical analysis. Small group analysis and discussion. Consensus reaching and negotiation. Personal writing.

Conceptual learning

Social problem: A problem experienced by all or many members of a community the responsibility for which is shared by different parts of the community or by the community as a whole. Responsibility for a social problem is not necessarily shared equally between the parties involved.

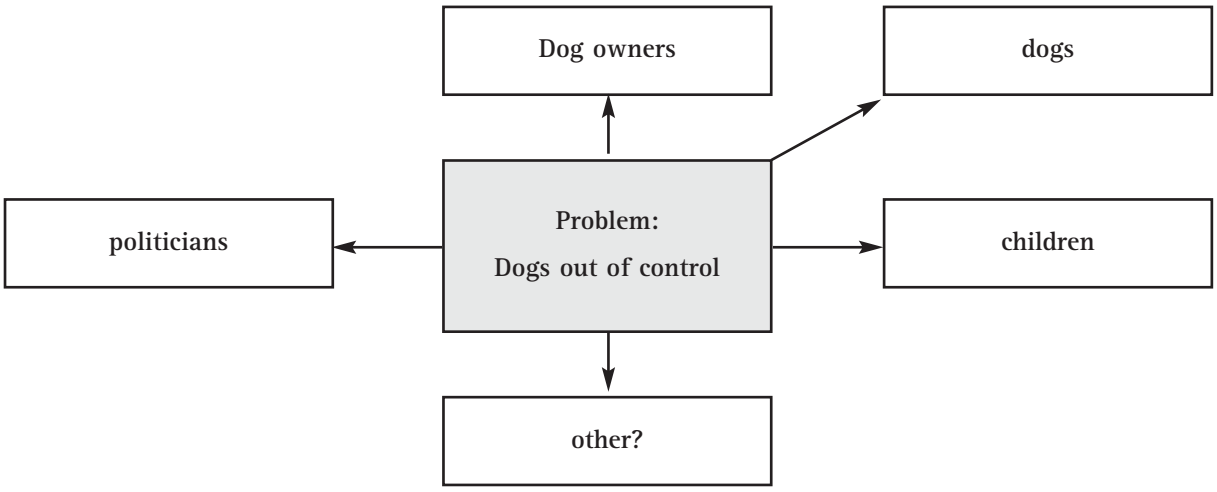
Degree of responsibility: The extent to which someone may be responsible for a social problem.

The lesson

The teacher introduces the imaginary letter to the local newspaper. This contains complaints about two social problems worrying the residents of a town.

The teacher asks the students as a class to: a) identify the issues and b) make a list (for both issues) of those people who might have responsibility. The teacher can assist this process by drawing a thinking frame on the blackboard as shown below.

Who is involved in this problem in any way?



Group work

Step 1

Divide the class into groups of three or four. Give each person in the group a number of points equal to the number of parties involved.

Step 2

Each member of the group first divides up the points between the parties according to how they think the responsibility for the problem should be shared. For example, the children and dogs might get no points, but dog owners and politicians could share the points between them or one of these might get more points than the other.

Step 3

When each member of the group has made his or her own decision, they take it in turns to share their ideas with each other, giving their reasons. Students can change their minds at this stage. Finally, each group totals the points awarded to each party. This represents how the group as a whole thinks the responsibility for this problem should be shared.

The teacher discusses with the whole class the conclusions reached by the different groups. The teacher explores the different views put forward, eliciting from the students their underlying reasons for these judgments.

If time allows, repeat the exercise with the problem of litter and rubbish. Or substitute a problem more relevant to the locality of the school or more challenging to the ability of the group.

Note

The problems given in these examples are suitable for students who are not yet very experienced in discussing political problems. This is because they are concrete, visible and relatively easy to understand (although they are still quite hard to solve). Older or more able classes should be asked

to discuss more sophisticated problems, such as unemployment or racism, using the same kind of thinking frame.

Step 4: Discussion arising from the exercise

In the final plenary session, the teacher asks the students to consider whether people generally take enough responsibility for their actions. If not, consider how they might be persuaded to do this. Will education help in any way? Or is it necessary to create new laws or introduce stiffer penalties? If local or national government should accept responsibility for certain problems, ask students about the likely cost and how this should be paid for. The teacher could also ask the class to consider the role of young people in addressing social problems of this kind. Should they be excused from responsibility because of their age? Is it right for young people to leave problems in the community to adults? Such issues could form the basis of a personal written task.

The teacher explains the need for local and national politicians to be aware of problems as they develop. Politics is often about tackling shared problems as a community. This does not mean that governments can solve every problem, and many problems would not even arise if people took more responsibility for the consequences of their actions in the first place.

Lesson 4
Why do people become active citizens?
Why do people want to change society and how can they do it?

Learning objectives	To consider reasons why people accept responsibility for other people's suffering. To explore the role of NGOs in civil society.
Student tasks	Students work in groups to piece together a narrative. Students hypothesise on the reasons for socially motivated behaviour. Students consider the role of NGOs. In groups, students research the work of an NGO or a social campaigner. In groups, students present their findings.
Resources	Copies of the slips about Jelena Santic (student handout 6.4), already cut up. Resources to support student research. Resources for group presentations e.g. large sheets of paper, coloured pens.
Methods	Group work. Negotiation. Moral reasoning. Critical evaluation. Research. Group presentation.

Conceptual learning

Social action: Action taken by citizens or members of a community to tackle a social problem.

Citizen: Someone who has legal membership (citizenship) of a national community. Citizenship brings rights and duties, though people differ in the extent to which they feel responsibility for what happens in the community.

Active citizen: Someone who takes public action in response to a social or community problem.

Non-governmental organisation (NGO): An organisation set up and supported by citizens (not government) to tackle a social problem. NGOs are public, not secret, and work within the structures of a society to bring about change. They often address issues in which people's rights are not adequately protected or recognised by government. NGOs may work with governments or in opposition to them. Democratic societies have laws which allow NGOs to exist and have legal rights and protections.

Civil society: People and organisations who take social action, outside of the work done by the government, are said to be part of civil society. Civil society forms part of the link between individual citizens and governments.

The lesson

The teacher divides the class into groups of around four students. He/she then gives out the information about Jelena Santic (student handout 6.4). Ideally this should be cut into separate slips of paper. The teacher asks the group to share the slips randomly amongst the group members. Each group member takes it in turn to read out their slip to the other members of the group. The group then arranges the slips in an order which makes the best sense.

The teacher then asks the students to discuss the following questions as a group and, as far as possible, to arrive at a group answer. The teacher stresses that group members may disagree, but sharing ideas produces better answers. Individual students should write down their own answers. The teacher then discusses key issues with the class, suggested by the questions below.

Questions

- What do you think were the main reasons why Jelena Santic got involved in Group 484?
- From what you know about Jelena Santic, what words would you use to describe her?
- Why do you think Jelena Santic and Group 484 did not leave the work they wanted to do to the government?
- What kinds of need does Group 484 try to meet?
- What kind of society did Jelena Santic and Group 484 hope to build?
- How important do you think non-governmental organisations (like Group 484) are in society? What do you think they can achieve? Think about their role in relation to the work of governments, as well as in relation to meeting the needs (rights) of people.
- Think about your own society. What needs are you aware of which could be helped by active individuals or by NGOs taking responsibility?

To give an example, the teacher then reads the following quotation from an international report for 2003 on NGOs in Bosnia and Herzegovina:

"The NGO sector in Bosnia and Herzegovina continues to make positive contributions to the process of building democracy and civil society. [...] There are currently 7 874 non-governmental organisations in Bosnia and Herzegovina under the old and the new registration laws. [...]

The NGO sector showed that it was capable of conducting large public campaigns that advocated for change on issues vital to Bosnian society, including youth, gender equality, environment, minority rights protection, etc. Great numbers of NGOs continue to offer services in the fields of health care and social welfare, reconstruction, human rights protection, environmental protection, and minority protection."[22]

The teacher discusses this quotation with the students. First they should consider whether the areas of work mentioned in the report apply to their country as well. Then the teacher asks them to think of examples of the kinds of projects which could come under these different areas of work.

Questions

As a final piece of work in this unit, each group could take one of these areas and prepare a presentation about it, based on the lesson. Alternatively, if research facilities are available, the lives of other active citizens in the country could be researched and could form the subject of the group presentation. The students could also include international figures such as Mother Theresa and Nelson Mandela.

22. Source: USAID report entitled "2003 NGO Sustainability Index, Europe and Eurasia" pp. 42 and 43; www.usaid.gov/locations/europe_eurasia/dem_gov/ngoindex/2003/bosnia.pdf

Student handout 6.1

Milan makes a choice

Milan was nearly ready to leave for school when his father came into the kitchen.

"Milan, I really need your help today in the fields. Can't you stay at home and not go to school? The crops will be damaged if we leave them any longer."

Milan was not happy.

"Dad, I need to go to school today," he said, "it's the first meeting of the student council and I've just been elected as one of the 8th grade representatives."

"But you won't be the only one, will you?" said his father, "it won't matter if you don't go. There are other 8th grade reps, aren't there?"

"Yes, but I'll be letting down the people who elected me if I don't go. Besides, we have our science lesson today. I don't want to miss it. I have got to pass my exams if I'm going to get to university."

Milan's father grunted unhappily.

"You talk about going to university as if your family doesn't matter. Why can't you see that we need you at home? What help will you be to us if you go away to university? And where will you go when you have got your qualifications? You aren't likely to come back here, that's for sure."

"You should be pleased that I want to get on in life," Milan shouted angrily, "unlike most of the boys round here. They have got no ambition. They'll end up doing what their fathers did."

"There's nothing wrong with a bit of respect for the older generation," Milan's father replied, his temper rising. "All this talk of education these days, it makes me sick. It seems to me you have forgotten some of the old values, where we all pulled together. You're just out for yourself."

Milan sighed. He had heard all this before.

"Dad, if I do get a good job, I won't forget you and the family. How could you think I'd do that? Do you really want me to leave school and not achieve what I know I'm capable of? All my teachers say I could be a good scientist. Maybe one day I'll make discoveries that will help everyone in the world."

Milan's father banged the table.

"Your first duty is to the family and this community, especially now times are so hard. You're filling your head with dreams. What do you care about the real world?"

This hurt Milan but he didn't want to show it. For a second he stared at his father in silent defiance. Then the old man turned round and left the house, slamming the door as he went.

Milan sat down and sighed. He thought for a minute and then made up his mind. He picked up his school bag and turned towards the door. Then he stopped, took out a sheet of paper and sat down to write a note to his father. It was the hardest thing he had done in his life.

Student handout 6.2

Schmitt's dilemma

Schmitt's only daughter is very ill. She needs an operation urgently but the only doctors in the area who can do it need money before they will treat anyone. Schmitt doesn't know what to do. He and his wife have some savings which they were hoping would help them buy a small shop. They will gladly give all this to save their daughter, but it is not nearly enough.

Schmitt begs the doctors to do the operation for less, but they say they cannot do this, as it would be unfair on everyone else who has to pay full price. Schmitt asks his family and friends to lend him some money, but this raises only a little more. And all the time Schmitt's daughter is growing weaker and weaker.

In desperation, Schmitt considers stealing the rest of the money to save his daughter's life.

Student handout 6.3

Things are getting out of control!

Consider the following letter, which appeared in a local paper.

As a group of local residents, we are very concerned about a number of problems which seem to arise because people are not prepared to take responsibility for their own behaviour.

Many dogs are running wild. Their owners either don't know or don't care about this. The dogs leave their mess on the streets, which is not only unpleasant but can also be a health hazard. Some dogs are roaming in packs and are vicious. They need to be kept under strict control, especially when there are children playing nearby.

We also think there is too much rubbish left lying around in the town and on the outskirts. This is because people are too lazy to dispose of it properly. It is ugly, and attracts rats and encourages the spread of disease. When people leave old tins of paint and chemicals around, these can get into streams and rivers and affect the supply of drinking water.

Why don't people think about the effects of their actions more? And why don't politicians do something about these problems?

Yours sincerely,

Student handout 6.4

Card sort: the life of Jelena Santic

1. Jelena Santic was born in 1944. She was Serbian.	2. Jelena Santic died of cancer in 2000.
3. After Jelena died, some of her friends took a stone from a bombed building in Belgrade. It was decorated by refugee children who had come from Kosovo. Then the stone was taken to the Jelena Santic Park of Peace in Berlin as a symbol.	4. Jelena Santic and Group 484 ran Project Pakrac in Croatia, which helped to build trust between Serbs and Croats after the war in 1991. She was joined by volunteers from both sides and from the international community in this project.
5. Jelena Santic was a founder member and leader of an organisation called Group 484. Group 484 is a non-governmental organisation (NGO). Group 484 encourages non-violent conflict resolution, toleration and co-operation as the basis for building humane societies.	6. Jelena wrote articles against nationalism and racism, which were published internationally. She was awarded an international peace prize for her work by an organisation called Pax Christi.
7. In Berlin, there is a park of peace named after Jelena Santic, in recognition of her work. Jelena had spoken at a public meeting in this park.	8. Jelena Santic became an internationally famous ballerina and ballet teacher.
9. Jelena Santic was an anti-war campaigner and she fought for the human rights of all people. She and her organisation worked hard to bring help to the refugees that flooded into Serbia.	10. Group 484 got its name because one of its first projects worked with 484 families from Croatia who had been made homeless by war. Group 484 gave the refugees help, comfort and advice about their rights.

Part 3

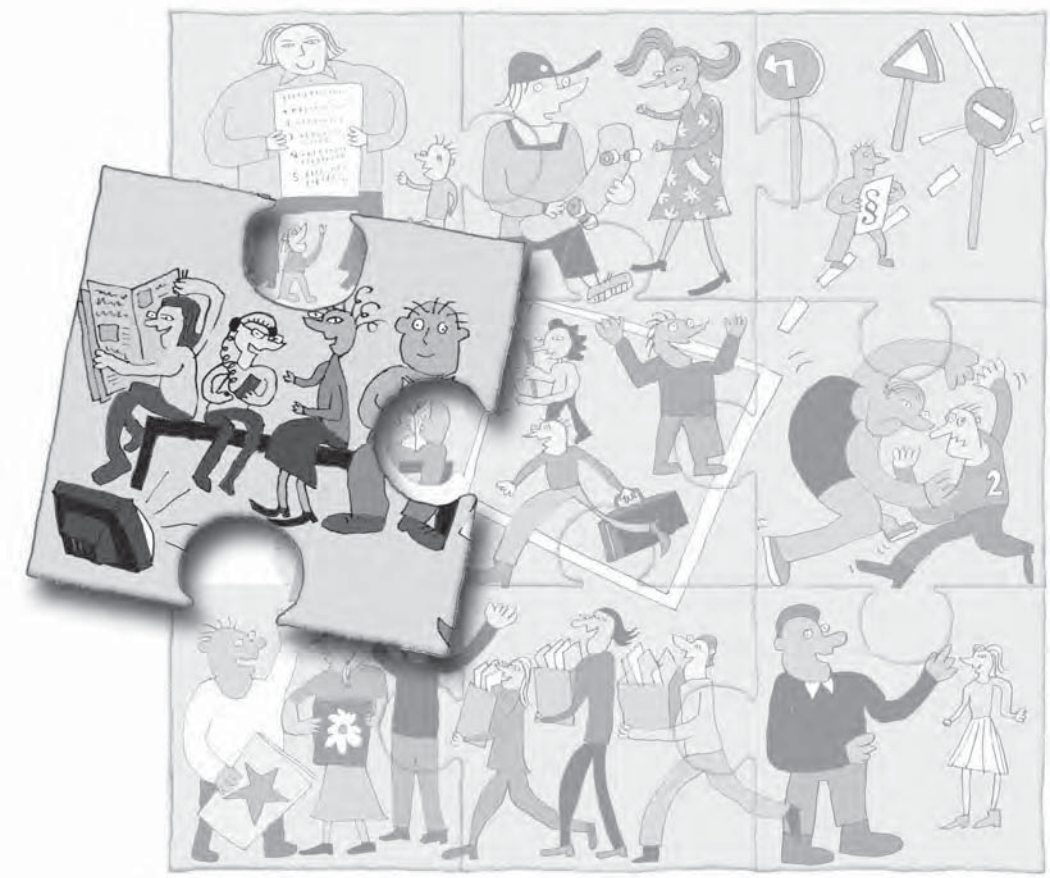
Participation

Unit 7

A class newspaper
Understanding media by producing media

UNIT 7
A class newspaper

Understanding media by producing media



7.1. The newspapers around us

Who they inform. How they inform. What they communicate.

7.2. Our newspaper is the best ... don't you agree?

What makes a newspaper a good newspaper?

7.3. We produce our wall newspaper

All the "do's" and a few "don'ts"

7.4. Our first issue!

Where do we go from here?

UNIT 7: A class newspaper
Understanding media by producing media

All over the world, the presence and impact of media has increased over the last few years. The more complex and interdependent our lives become, the more we all rely on information to understand the influences and developments that affect us. For any piece of information on matters beyond our range of personal experience and immediate perception, we must rely on a medium of information.

However, individual access to different media varies widely. This affects a person's level of information and his potential to exercise influence and power. A further important aspect is the issue of censorship and the problem of misinformation by parties, governments and powerful lobbies. Conflict, including social change or warfare, gives rise to monopolised and distorted information.

Although these interrelationships, to name but a few, will not be explicitly addressed in this unit on media, the students will discover elements of them when they compare the print media of their country or their region and judge them by specific criteria.

The approach to media education in this unit is different. By producing their own wall newspaper, the students will gain some insight into newspaper production and thus learn something about the reality of media "from within". Teaching experience has shown that this approach gives students a form of direct access to print media that is more remote from their daily lives. The students will view this type of media critically and will also evaluate electronic media, and their own use of these different kinds of media, from a new perspective. They will develop media literacy.

Finally, one practical hint: this unit, in particular, demands and offers potential for cross-curricular teaching and co-operation. Writing and revising texts could take place as part of language teaching, while designing the layout might be a task in art class. In some cases, a class may have to start on its own, with an additional input by an editing team of students who are particularly interested.

The wall newspaper may have to be present in school life for some time before other teachers will be sufficiently convinced of its worth to join in.

Learning for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights

Media literacy is one of the keys to an overall objective in human rights and civic education – the active, participating citizen. Here is a summary of the most important aspects of media literacy:

1. Competence of communication refers to the general manner in which human beings interact with each other. Social reality does not exist as such. Rather, it is jointly defined by humans through social interaction, which means it is created by acts of communication. This general communicative competence begins with learning our mother tongue and is developed further by using this competence in public.
2. Every human being has this communicative competence from birth. We are endowed with this competence by nature, but it needs to be educated, practised and refined.
3. Media literacy is included in the overarching concept of communicative competence. It refers to the complex multitude of media, the use of which needs to be learned and practised through, for example, being set as a task for students. Print media, including the wall newspaper, are important means of everyday communication, which students should be familiar with. However, they are no more than one element within the overall goal of media literacy.

UNIT 7: A class newspaper
Understanding media by producing media

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: The newspapers around us	The students are introduced to a variety of print media. They understand the differences in content structure.	The students collect and analyse newspapers and magazines that are commonly read in their communities. They create a poster to record their results.	Newspapers, scissors, glue, large sheets of paper.	Group work.
Lesson 2: Our newspaper is the best... don't you agree?	The students clarify the criteria for a good newspaper or magazine. They become aware of their own outlook, values and interests.	The students assess the presentations by the other groups and agree on compromises.	Presentations prepared in the previous lesson. Matrix on blackboard or flip chart.	Group presentations, plenary discussion and assessment.
Lesson 3: We produce our wall newspaper	In groups, the students agree on a range of topics and objectives. They co-operate in the group, sharing their own ideas and competences with the team.	The students decide on the structure of their jointly produced newspaper. They identify topics that are relevant for their school and write an article for their section of the wall newspaper.	Depending on the material resources available, the results will range from handwritten texts to computer printouts with digital photographs.	Making joint decisions, group work.
Lesson 4: Our first issue!	In an open discussion, the students understand what is involved in continuing the wall newspaper project. They are able to make a decision and to take responsibility for it.	The students must form opinions and decide about their future involvement in a follow-up project.	Blackboard or flip chart.	Plenary discussion.

Lesson 1
The newspapers around us
Who they inform. How they inform. What they communicate.

Learning objective	The students are introduced to a variety of print media. They understand the differences in content structure.
Student tasks	The students collect and analyse newspapers and magazines that are commonly read in their communities. They create a poster to record their results.
Resources	Newspapers, scissors, glue, large sheets of paper.
Method	Group work.

Conceptual learning

The term “print media” refers to printed sources of information – the so-called classic media – including newspapers, magazines, books, catalogues, prospectuses, flyers, maps, diagrams, postcards, calendars and posters.

Print media are usually printed on paper. The printing technologies are undergoing rapid change, and digital printing is becoming increasingly common.

The lesson

Several weeks before this lesson is to begin, the teacher asks the students to collect all the newspapers and magazines they can lay their hands on and bring them to school. To support the students in their work, it is recommended to set aside a table in the classroom that can be used for presentations. With luck, a student may be able to obtain an old newspaper rack from a newsagent, which provides an ideal means to present the newspapers and magazines. The teacher should ensure that all the main daily newspapers are included.

The teacher begins the first lesson by informing the students about the objectives and tasks of this unit. The teacher should emphasise that this unit is the beginning of a project that can and should be continued for at least half a school year. The students should also realise that this project offers them the opportunity to gather practical experience of journalism. Experience has shown that future journalists have often taken their first steps in projects of this type.

The students form small groups, preferably of three or a maximum of four students. Each group is to analyse a different newspaper or magazine. The students are guided by the following questions:

- What sections are included in the newspaper or magazine?
- In what order do the sections appear?
- Which target groups do the sections address? Which members of the family are particularly interested in reading a certain section?
- Which topics are covered in the sections of the issue that the group is examining?
- Choose one typical article from each section. Cut out these articles and stick them on a sheet of paper to make a poster.

The poster should carry the name of the newspaper or magazine, ideally with an original heading, and the questions shown above should be answered. The students should be reminded of the importance of a clear and orderly layout.

At this stage, it is important for the students to have understood the basic structure of their newspaper, thus enabling them to present and explain it clearly in class.

The groups prepare their presentations for the next lesson as though they are advertising their newspaper or magazine, emphasising all its advantages and strengths. After having heard all the presentations, the class should decide which newspaper they consider to be the most interesting and informative. The purpose of this step is to obtain free delivery of this newspaper for a few weeks, a service that many newspaper publishers are willing to provide to schools.

In this phase, the teacher has an advisory role. He/she will support the groups in exploring the inner structure of the newspaper, as not all papers are equally easy to analyse. The teacher should also monitor the students during their group work to ensure that each group is able to make a good presentation and finish their work by the end of the lesson. Trying to be too perfect will disrupt the time budget for this activity.

Lesson 2
Our newspaper is the best... don't you agree?
What makes a newspaper a good newspaper?

Learning objective	The students clarify the criteria for identifying a good newspaper or magazine. In doing so, they become aware of their own outlooks, values and interests.
Student tasks	The students assess the presentations by the other groups and agree on compromises.
Resources	Presentations prepared during the last lesson. Blackboard or flip chart.
Method	Group presentations, plenary discussion and assessment.

Conceptual learning

The term "freedom of the press" refers to the right of the press to go about their business freely, along with the right to uncensored publishing of information and opinions. Freedom of the press takes concrete form in the specific rights of journalists to refuse to give evidence and restrictions on monitoring journalists with audio equipment ("bugging"), in order to protect the sources of information that journalists need for their work. Access to the profession of journalism is not subject to state regulation and training of journalists is organised privately and free of state influence.

The lesson

The second lesson starts with presentations. The groups have prepared their posters and selected their newspaper or magazine clippings. It may be advisable to give the groups five minutes at the beginning of the lesson to run through their presentations.

The students assess the presentations by using defined criteria. The teacher may introduce these criteria and prepare a matrix such as the following.

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Points
Name of the newspaper or magazine						
Poster						
Formal aspects of presentation						
Content of presentation						
Formal aspects of newspaper or magazine						
Content of newspaper or magazine						

The assessment should not be given overdue importance, but should rather, through the element of competition, motivate the students to deliver a good presentation.

After the presentations, the students should evaluate the print media that they have seen (critical thinking), focusing on the following questions:

– What makes a newspaper/magazine a “good” newspaper/magazine?

– What purpose does it serve?

– What do we think of the newspapers/magazines that have been presented to us?

– What could be improved?

Experience has shown that the teacher will support and give structure to the discussion by noting the students’ ideas on a flip chart that has been prepared before the lesson. Alternatively the blackboard may be used, but this has the disadvantage that the information will not be available in the following lesson.

At the end of the lesson the teacher suggests that the students should produce and publicly present a school “wall newspaper”. The students should be asked to think about the task and to think about which sections should be included in order to give a comprehensive view of school life, and which section they would be keen on producing themselves. They should also suggest a name for their newspaper.

Lesson 3
We produce our wall newspaper
All the "do's" and a few "don'ts"

Learning objective	In groups, the students agree on a range of topics and objectives. They co-operate in the group, sharing their own ideas and competences with the team.
Student tasks	The students decide on the structure their jointly produced newspaper will have. They identify topics that are relevant for their school and write an article for their section of the wall newspaper.
Resources	Depending on the material resources available, the results will range from handwritten texts to computer printouts with digital photographs.
Methods	Making joint decisions. Group work.

The lesson

In groups of three or four, the students share their ideas about which sections of a newspaper provide relevant information on life in the school.

The teacher has prepared a small wall newspaper for every group by sticking three A4 sheets of paper together. The groups are then given the task of designing the general structure of the newspaper, including the name of the newspaper, the possible layout and the sections which the students have chosen. Their result might look like this:

The Students' Chronicle The latest news Sports	Top level news Events	The parents Our concerns

Suggestions made by the groups are displayed on the wall in the classroom and the students are given time to read the posters and form their opinions. Then an "editors' conference" makes the following important decisions:

- The name of the newspaper (exchange of views, discussion and final vote);
- Selection of the sections which are most important and meaningful for the school and the students.

The students now form small teams, with the number of teams corresponding to the number of sections that are to be produced, with an additional team that is put in charge of production.

In the beginning, the production team deals with practical matters such as the layout and presentation of the wall newspaper. Beforehand, the teacher has informed the head teacher about the newspaper project and has obtained his/her permission to display the school newspaper in the school building.

While the teams of editors are planning the first articles for the different sections, the teacher discusses technical aspects with the production team.

The students are given tasks that are to be completed by the following week. Each editing team submits an article and the production team produces the wall newspaper, complete with the heading design showing the logo and name of the paper, and the sections that have been chosen.

This task allows the students to experience their first success, but also immediately confronts them with the difficulties involved. The objective of this approach is to set up a standing team of editors who will regularly publish school news. The teams will be made up of particularly active and interested students, who are able to continue with the wall newspaper project over a longer period of time.

Lesson 4
Our first issue!
Where do we go from here?

Learning objective	The students are able to conduct an open discussion and they become aware of the implications and consequences of continuing the newspaper project. They are able to make a decision and to take responsibility for it.
Student tasks	The students must form opinions and decide about their future involvement in a follow-up project.
Resources	Blackboard or flip chart.
Method	Plenary discussion.

Conceptual learning

A discussion (an exchange of arguments, derived from the Latin, *discussio*) is a specific form of verbal communication between two or more persons in which one or several issues are addressed, with each side presenting their arguments. A discussion should be held in a spirit of mutual respect. A good discussion style requires the speakers to allow and even encourage the expression of views and opinions other than their own, considering them carefully instead of rejecting them out of hand. Personal qualities such as serenity, composure and politeness will be advantageous to both sides. The best type of discussion will lead to the solution of a problem or a compromise that everyone involved can accept.

In modern societies, discussions are a civilised, that is, non-violent means of handling controversy and dealing with conflicts of interests and objectives. Conflicts are not suppressed, but solved. By practising their discussion skills, students learn a basic tool for working towards and maintaining peace in society.

The lesson

After the teams of editors have posted their articles on the wall and reported briefly on their working experience, the next focus will be on the question of whether to continue the wall newspaper project. Now that all students have some idea of the time they would need to spend on it and the organisational problems that need to be solved, they can have a realistic discussion on the question of continuation.

The teacher may help to give clarity and structure to the student discussion by providing the following on a flip chart or on the blackboard.

Organisation	Personal aspects	Co-operation	Time management
If we continue: – What must we take into account? – Will time be a problem? – What technical means do we have? – How can we prevent our newspaper from being vandalised? – What financial means will we need? How can the funds be raised?	Who is interested? – Editor-in-chief? – Committee of editors? – What is the role and position of the teacher? – Names: – – – – –	– How can we attract the interest of other students? – Which other teachers would we like to join our project? – Can we arrange visits to local editorial offices (print media, broadcasting or electronic media)? – Can we interview a journalist as an expert?	

As soon as teachers begin a project such as this they will realise that not everything can be planned. It requires a process of continual reflection by all participants. It is a lively, fascinating, but also a difficult and sometimes even frustrating process.

Teachers who already have experience of project work with classes will know the sequence of steps that will be needed and they also know that strong leadership is necessary. Unless care is taken, however, an over-strong leadership can, of course, also destroy the students' motivation and initiative. Participation in projects such as this benefits students by giving them important experience in civic and human rights education.

Teachers should exercise their leadership skills to ensure that, by the end of this lesson, clear decisions have been made and an appropriate time frame has been set for the follow-up steps.

Background material for teachers

Three dimensions of developing media literacy

1. The first dimension: judgment of media

Judgment of media may be summed up in the ancient Greek verb Κρινειν (krinein), which originally meant "to distinguish" and referred to the permanent acquisition and reflexivity of knowledge and experience.

Media judgment is media analysis. This analytic sub-dimension refers to the competence to perceive and understand developments in society, such as the process of concentration within the media business that may jeopardise the function of media in a democratic society. In this example, it is important to know who owns which newspaper and how many types of media are owned by the same company. However, we should not forget that media are run as commercial enterprises that must yield a profit. And whether we like it or not, the more interdependent and globalised our lives become, the more we need to rely on media. Media analysis enables us to judge media developments critically – to make distinctions – so that we can adequately make use our of media literacy.

The (self-) reflexive sub-dimension means that we should be able to link and apply our analytical potential and knowledge to ourselves and our personal sphere of action. Particularly when dealing with media, we have a strong tendency to talk about "the others" and to ignore our personal involvement.

The capability to analyse and reflect includes a third sub-dimension, ethical concern for others, that balances and defines analytical thinking and self-reflexiveness in terms of social responsibility.

2. The second dimension: knowledge about media

Here we refer to the "pure" knowledge about media and media systems. This can be divided into two sub-dimensions.

The sub-dimension of information includes basic knowledge such as how journalists go about their work, the types of programmes that are broadcast by TV and radio, the reasons for a viewer's preferences when watching TV and how a computer can be used so that it effectively serves the user's needs.

The sub-dimension of skills adds to media knowledge the ability to use new equipment without having to read the instruction manuals. This includes the process of "learning by doing" – how to handle a computer, how to access the Internet, how to use a video camera, etc.

3. The third dimension: use of the media

Use of the media may also be divided into two sub-dimensions:

1. Competence in using media products, that is, in receiving and consuming what the media have produced. Watching TV is an example of this. It is an activity during which we need to process what we have seen, and to integrate it into our cognitive structures and our repertoire of imagery. Today, we can enhance our receptive competence not only through reading texts, but also through watching films.
2. Active use of media equipment. This sub-dimension refers to media use in social interaction. Examples are telebanking, teleshopping, video and telephone conferences, traditional and digital photography and video production. The enormous variety of media available gives us the potential to perceive the world not only by receiving information, but also by producing it.

   The unit on media focuses on precisely this active use of the media, but includes links to the other two dimensions of media education mentioned above.

Student handout 7.1

How to write an article

Basic structure of an article

1. Headline

Every article needs a headline. It fulfils an important function: it should not overwhelm the reader, but should catch his or her attention and arouse his interest to read on.

Newspaper readers skim the pages quickly to select the articles that interest them and therefore headlines need to catch the reader's eye. Keep headlines short, use large and bold print and separate headlines from the following text.

2. Introductory lines

The introductory lines will usually be the first paragraph of your article (newspaper producers call this the "lead"). As a rule, it is marked in bold print.

The lead gives the reader the most important information. In an informative lead text, the reader finds answers to the key questions.

In features and other texts that are emotional rather than factual, the first lines will often vividly describe a scene. Here, the reader's interest in reading on is not aroused by factual information, but by stylistic means.

3. Use of language and style

Careful and elaborate use of language is perhaps even more important for a good article than the correct use of journalistic form or style. If we view a newspaper as a house, then the different forms of journalistic writing and presentation might be the furniture, but words would be the bricks with which the house has been built.

While we can somehow get along without furniture, we could not live in a house without bricks. Emotionally written articles, with the "human touch", are very popular in newspapers. But be careful, too much salt will spoil the soup (one can have too much of a good thing)!

That brings us to the sentence. Keep your sentences short and simple. Readers will have difficulty understanding sentences with more than 14 words. And sentences with 25 words or more are simply incomprehensible. Under all circumstances, avoid a complex sentence structure containing lots of commas and separate clauses. Make it a habit to read every sentence immediately after you have written it. Is it clear and easy to understand? Are there any unnecessary words?

Spelling mistakes do not only make a bad impression, but also annoy the reader, because they distract his or her attention from the message. Before you deliver your article, revise it – and this means check it for correctness and completeness of information (this amounts to checking the truth and accuracy of the information), language mistakes, style and comprehensibility.

Part 4

Power and authority

Unit 8

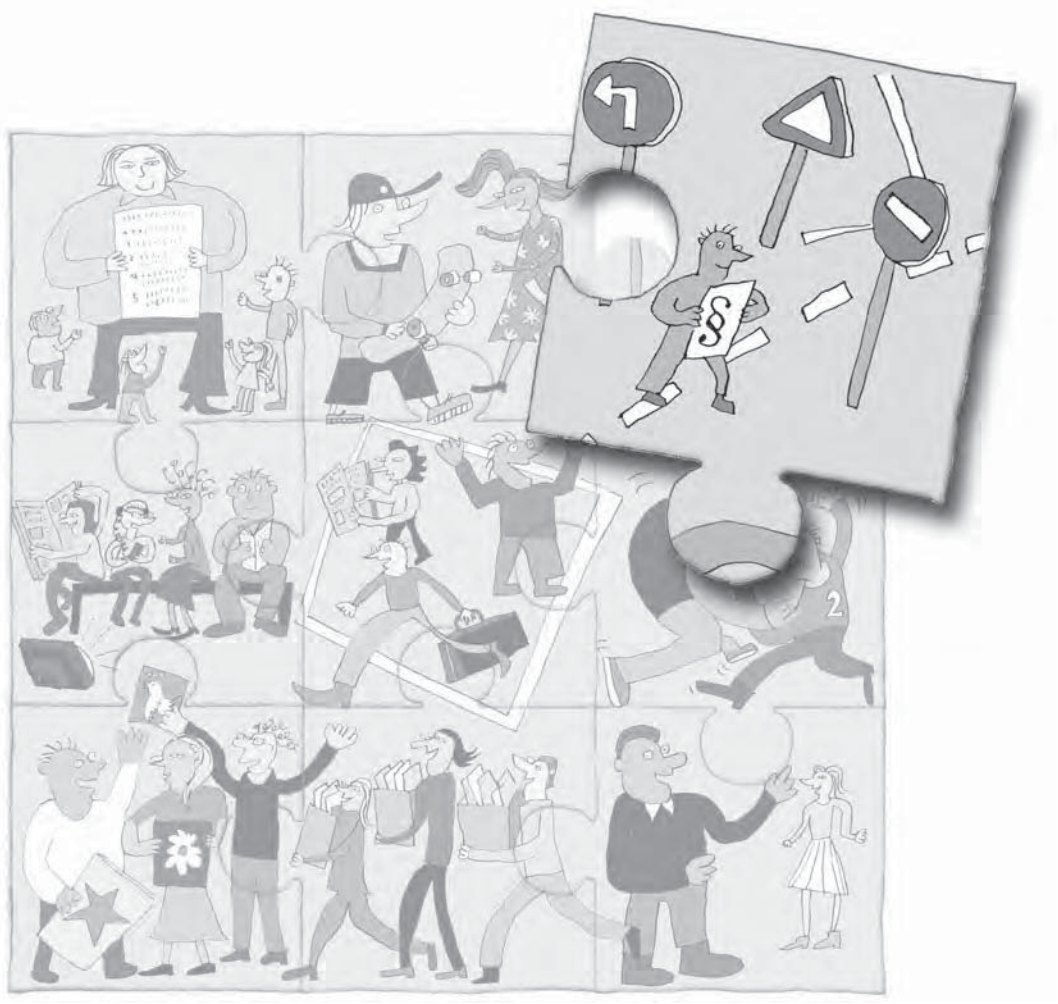
Rules and law
What sort of rules does a society need?

Unit 9

Government and politics
How should society be governed?

UNIT 8
Rules and law

What sort of rules does a society need?



8.1 Good law – bad law

What makes a good law?

8.2 At what age?

How should the law apply to young people?

8.3 You make the law

How do you deal with young offenders?

8.4 Rules of evidence

What evidence should count in a court of law?

UNIT 8: Rules and law
What sort of rules does a society need?

Laws of some kind are essential for the fair and efficient running of any society. Laws apply in all situations, to everyone within the community of a country – although there are certain groups, such as children, who are not affected by some laws until they reach a certain age.

One of the ways in which the law can be divided up is into what is known as civil and criminal law. Civil law provides a way of settling disputes between individuals and groups of people. Criminal law covers behaviour that the state has decided must be discouraged or prevented.

Laws can never be perfect, however. They are human creations and sometimes need changing. They may become out of date, ineffective or be simply unfair on certain groups in society.

Law can never be divorced from politics. For it is within political systems that laws are made and changed. In a democratic political system it is important that all citizens are able to have an equal say about this. It is also important that the law is applied equally to all citizens, and that no one is above the law. This concept is sometimes known as the rule of law.

Finally, laws should comply with human rights. This is important in order to make sure that laws are fair and that they are not abused as a means of oppression or dictatorship. Most democratic systems therefore rely on written constitutions that provide a human rights framework that stands above the laws of the country. Some countries have also established constitutional courts to decide whether laws are in line with the constitution or not.

Learning for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights

Through this series of lessons students will:

- develop a greater understanding of the concept of law and its importance in a democratic society;
- recognise that the main purpose of law is to help people and protect society;
- develop a greater respect for the idea of the rule of law;
- find out more about the legal system in their own country.

UNIT 8: Rules and law
What sort of rules does a society need?

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: Good law – bad law	To be aware of and understand the factors that determine what makes a good law.	To discuss school rules and identify what makes a good school rule. To discuss laws and identify what makes a good law. To examine critically an area of law in their country, e.g. laws on alcohol. To propose and justify their own new school rule or law.	Two cards for each student – one labelled with a letter "A" (in green), the other with a letter "B" (in red). Handout – Laws on alcohol in our country Markers and a large sheet of paper for each group of 4-6 students. Flip chart or a large piece of paper for display in class.	Small group work and class discussion.
Lesson 2: At what age?	To examine how the law applies to young people.	To work out the legal ages at which young people become entitled to take part in different adult activities. To consider how appropriate the current law is for young people.	Three large signs labelled "A", "B" and "C" put up on three different walls of the classroom. Copies of student handout 8.1 – one for every two students. Marker pens and a large piece of paper each for group of 4-6 students.	Pair work, small group work and class discussion.
Lesson 3: You make the law	To examine the question of whether young people who have broken the law should be punished at all, and if so, how.	To consider the different factors that come into play when deciding what is a fair punishment for a crime.	A copy of the story and extra information for the teacher	Small group work and class discussion.
Lesson 4: Rules of evidence	To understand the rules of evidence in a court of law.	To consider the kind of evidence that should count in a court of law and the kind of evidence it would be wrong to use.	Discussion cards (student handout 8.2) for each group of 4-6 students	Small group work and class discussion.

Lesson 1
Good law – bad law
What makes a good law?

Learning objective	To be aware of and understand the factors that determine what makes a good law.
Student tasks	To discuss school rules and identify what makes a good school rule. To discuss laws and identify what makes a good law. To examine critically an area of law in their country, e.g. laws on alcohol. To propose and justify their own new school rule or law.
Resources	Two cards for each student – one labelled with a letter "A" (in green), the other with a letter "B" (in red). Handout – Laws on alcohol in our country. Marker pens and a large piece of paper each for group of 4-6 students. Flip chart or a large piece of paper for display in class.
Method	Whole class discussion and small group work.

Information box

The method used in this lesson is known as "inductive learning". This is where the teacher helps students to understand abstract principles by basing them on concrete examples. The lesson begins with such examples – in this case examples of rules or laws – and students are encouraged to draw out general principles from these. Here, the principles are the criteria that can be applied to rules or laws to judge whether they are good laws or not: Are they fair? Are they useful? Are they for the good of all? Can the police enforce them? Are they simple to understand and obey?

Where specific material is needed, for example, laws on alcohol as they apply in the country, the teacher or the students have the task of feeding this material into the lesson.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by giving each of the students two cards – one labelled with a large letter "A" (in green) and the other with a large letter "B" (in red).

The teacher explains to the students that they are going to hear some imaginary school rules and they should decide whether they think these would be good rules or bad rules. For good rules they should hold up card "A", and for bad rules card "B".

The teacher reads out the imaginary school rules one by one. Each time, the students must hold up one of their cards – depending on what they think of the rule. The rules used could include:

– homework is banned;

– no bullying;

– students should have to pay to come to school;

– no chewing gum to be brought to school;

– students must like all their teachers;

– students should be able to choose which classes to go to;

– older teachers should have an easier timetable;

– no mobile phones in school.

For each one, the teacher should ask two or three different students to justify their decisions:

– Why do you think it is a good/bad rule?

The students' ideas should not be further discussed or commented on at this stage.

Then the teacher should divide up the class into groups of 4-6 and ask the students to try to pinpoint the factors that make a school rule a good one:

– What makes a good school rule?

The groups should present their ideas to the class as a whole.

Next, the teacher repeats the whole exercise with the class – reading out statements, the students holding up their cards and justifying their decisions, etc. – but this time focusing on imaginary laws, rather than school rules. The laws used could include:

– all citizens should have to follow the same religion;

– murder is wrong;

– no telling lies;

– junk food should be banned;

– citizens should be allowed to decide for themselves which side of the road they drive on;

– women should be paid the same as men.

Then the teacher should ask the students to return to their groups and try to pinpoint the factors that make a law a good one:

– What makes a good law?

The groups should present their ideas to the class as a whole. In doing so, the teacher should try to steer student thinking towards a number of key criteria that can be applied to laws and that help to make them good laws. They include:

– fairness – justice and equality, such as equal pay for men and women;

– usefulness – making society run smoothly, such as laws on driving to make roads safer;

- common good – not just supporting the interests of particular groups, such as the wealthy;
- enforceability – the majority are willing to obey them, police are able to catch those who break them;
- simple – easy to understand and to obey, not too complicated.

When the class has agreed on these criteria, they should be displayed in the classroom on a flip chart for everyone to see. The title for the display should be "What makes a law a good law?".

The teacher should then ask the students, in their groups, to study a law or area of law from their country (such as the laws on alcohol). This material should be provided on a handout. If more time is available, the students can obtain other material that they are interested in, for example, the rights and duties of children and teenagers. The groups are each given marker pens and a large piece of paper and asked to prepare a presentation to the class on whether they think the law(s) they have chosen are good laws or not – using the principles they have previously identified and that are displayed on the classroom wall.

Groups make their presentations to the class.

As a final exercise or a homework assignment, students could be asked to propose a new law or a new school rule on a topic of their choosing, such as the environment, and to prepare arguments for its introduction in terms of the key principles they have identified.

Lesson 2
At what age?
How should the law apply to young people?

Learning objective	To examine how the law applies to young people.
Student tasks	To work out the legal ages at which young people become entitled to take part in different adult activities in their country. To consider how appropriate the current law of their country is for young people.
Resources	Three large signs labelled "A", "B" and "C" put up on three different walls of the classroom. Copies of student handout 8.1 – one for every two students. Marker pens and a large piece of paper each for groups of 4–6.
Method	Pair and small group work and whole class discussion.

Information box

This lesson involves a lot of physical activity. If you think this is inappropriate for your students, the main exercise can be adapted so that students remain seated at their desks – for example, voting with a show of hands, or holding up cards "A", "B" or "C", instead of moving to different parts of the classroom.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by asking the class if they think it is fair to have a law making young people go to school, when there is no law like this for adults:

– Do you think it is fair to have a law that forces young people to go to school? Why or why not?

The teacher then divides the students into pairs and gives them a questionnaire (student handout 8.1) to fill in. The questionnaire relates to the legal age at which young people become entitled to take part in different adult activities in their country.

The teacher asks for some volunteer pairs to read out one of their answers. After each answer, the teacher pauses and, if necessary, corrects the students' answer. The students then write down the correct answer on their questionnaires.

For each answer, the teacher should ask the pairs:

– What do you think? Is this age:

  a) too low?

  b) too high?

  c) about right?

The teacher gives the pairs a minute to think and decide, then asks them to move to a different part of the room depending on their answer. (The teacher has already put up large signs labelled "A", "B" and "C" to show the students where to stand.)

The teacher then asks randomly chosen pairs to explain their thinking to the class and to justify their opinions. The teacher also gives other students an opportunity to question them about their decision.

To end this section of the lesson, the teacher asks:

– Do you think it is fair that the law treats young people differently from adults? Why or why not?

The teacher then divides up the class into groups of 4-6 students and gives each group marker pens and a large piece of paper. The teacher asks the groups to think of a change in the law in their country that would benefit young people. They can propose an entirely new law – for example, that every school should have a student parliament or a minimum wage for young people at work, or they can propose a change in the existing law – for example, about the law on the voting age or the age for obtaining a driving licence. Each group should prepare a presentation to the class on their chosen topic, outlining their arguments and exactly how they think their law would benefit young people. After the presentations, the class can take a vote as to which group's suggestion was the best.

As a final exercise or for homework, students should consider the steps that they, as young people, or as a school group, can take to persuade the government to accept the change(s) in the law that they are proposing.

Lesson 3
You make the law
How do you deal with young offenders?

Learning objective	To examine the question of whether young people who have broken the law should be punished at all, and if so, how.
Student tasks	To consider the different principles – retribution, deterrence, rehabilitation – that come into play when deciding what is a fair punishment for a crime committed by a young person.
Resources	A copy of the story and extra information for the teacher.
Method	Small group work and whole class discussion.

Conceptual learning: three basic principles on the purpose of punishment

While lesson 2 focused on civil law, this lesson will look at criminal law, focusing on the issue of whether or not to punish young offenders and if so, how to punish them. The basic question in the theory of punishment is, "why punish?". This question has been answered in different ways throughout the course of history and changes in scientific and philosophical thinking. Three principles relating to the purpose of punishment have emerged.

1. **Retribution**. Punishment is related to guilt and responsibility. A criminal deserves to be punished, and society expresses its disapproval for the crime. This concept also provides a standard of proportion, thereby protecting the criminal from over-severe punishment. The objective is to restore justice.
2. **Deterrence**. The punishment sends a message to potential criminals in society, discouraging them from turning to crime, as the "pain" of punishment outweighs the benefit. The objective is to prevent crime by others.
3. **Rehabilitation**. A crime is perceived as a cry for help. The criminal needs treatment rather than punishment and the objective is to help him not to commit further crimes in the future by integrating him in society.

Penal systems around the world differ considerably in the way they balance these three principles, both for adults and young offenders. Generally speaking, many countries have given rehabilitation priority over the principles of retribution and deterrence. But not all countries are moving in this direction. Closely linked to the question of rehabilitation is the issue of where to draw the line between young and adult offenders. The Council of Europe has called for the age limit to be fixed at 18, and has referred to the Children's Rights Convention of 1989 to justify this (see background information for teachers).

This lesson provides an introduction to the three key concepts of punishment outlined above. Once again, an inductive approach is applied. The students deal with a case study about a young offender and discover the different principles of punishment, their implications and the need for balance. The teacher may outline the concepts in a brief lecture during or after the discussion in class.

This lesson may open the door to a follow-up project that would require approximately two further lessons. The students could use the concepts they have learnt in this lesson to describe the balance that has been struck by the penal legislation for young offenders in their country.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by dividing the students into groups of 4-6. The teacher explains that the rule of law includes the principle that judges should be bound by the law when imposing a penalty on a criminal or offender. In this lesson, the students will look at the way such laws should be designed when dealing with young offenders. They are going to hear a story about a crime and each group has to imagine that they are members of parliament who have to pass the law that lays down the punishment the criminal should receive.

The teacher tells the students the basic story and gives them an opportunity to decide as groups what they think would be a fair punishment for Tom. The groups present their ideas to the class as a whole.

Then the teacher gives the groups some extra pieces of information. After each piece of new information, the groups are given an opportunity to change their mind about the punishment they had originally planned.

At the end of the activity, the teacher asks each group to present their ideas to the class:

- What punishment do you think Y should have? Why?
- Did any of the extra information make you change your mind about your original decision? If so, how?

The teacher then brings all the students together in a plenary session and asks:

- What sort of factors should the law take into account when deciding on the punishment to be given to someone convicted of an offence?
- Do you think the law should treat young people differently from adults? Why or why not?

As a final exercise or for homework, the teacher asks students to think of a case they have heard about – on TV, in the papers or one that has happened locally – where a young person who has broken the law has been given a punishment that they think is either:

a) too harsh; or

b) too lenient.

Students should write a short piece about their chosen example and present it to their peers in the next lesson, outlining the factors in the case that led to their opinion about it. One example would be a case involving someone having a car accident under the influence of alcohol.

You make the law

"Leonard and Tom were both 15 and went to the same school. They had known each other for many years, but they had never really got on.

One day, Tom's mobile phone went missing and he blamed Leonard for stealing it. Leonard said he hadn't stolen it, but said that Tom was jealous of him because he had lots of friends and Tom didn't have any.

After school that day, there was a fight. Tom drew a knife even though Leonard was unarmed. During the fight Tom cut Leonard's face so badly that it left him with a scar for the rest of his life."

Task

What do you think would be a fair punishment for Tom? Discuss this question in your group and then write down what punishment the law should provide for this kind of offence.

Extra information

1. Tom had been brought up very strictly, and had been repeatedly beaten by his father.

   Does this affect your view about Tom's punishment? If so, how? Change your draft law if necessary.

2. Tom was isolated in his class and had nobody who would listen to his problems.

   Does this affect your view about Tom's punishment? If so, how? Change your draft law if necessary.

3. Leonard really had stolen Tom's mobile phone and he had actually started the fight because Tom had reported the theft of the mobile phone to the police.

   Does this affect your view about Tom's punishment? If so, how? Change your draft law if necessary.

4. Leonard was the leader of a gang who had been bullying Tom for months. The gang had beaten Tom up more than once, hitting him with sticks, chains and a metal bar. This gave Tom nightmares and he was even afraid to go to school.

   Does this affect your view about Tom's punishment? If so, how? Change your draft law if necessary.

5. Tom's father had tormented Tom by repeatedly telling him that he was too soft and that he should stand up to bullies like Leonard.

   Does this affect your view about Tom's punishment? If so, how? Change your draft law if necessary.

6. Tom only got out the knife to frighten away the bullies. He never meant to use it. Twenty other young people were standing around at the time, all encouraging the boys to fight.

   Does this affect your view about Tom's punishment? If so, how? Change your draft law if necessary.

7. A teacher had seen Tom bring his knife to school two days before the fight, but he did not ask Tom about it.

   Does this affect your view about Tom's punishment? If so, how? Change your draft law if necessary.

The students appoint spokespersons for their groups, who then present their draft laws to the class. It may be expected that they all will be aware of the dilemmas involving conflicting objectives and principles of justice such as the following.

- How do we show that society disapproves of such behaviour?
- How do we make sure that school is a place where violence is banned?
- How harshly must we punish someone like Tom to discourage others, such as Leonard's gang, from also using knives?
- Tom's behaviour is a cry for help and he could not choose the family in which he was raised. How can we help Tom so that he feels happier and has no need to fight with knives in future?

The teacher can sum up this discussion up by linking these questions to the three principles of retribution, deterrence and rehabilitation. By referring to the Children's Rights Convention, the teacher can propose that priority to be given to rehabilitation.

If time allows and the students are interested, this issue can be taken further. If they disagree on the question of how to balance the different principles of punishment, this debate should be continued. If they agree on the principle of rehabilitation, they can study how the law in their country takes the three principles of retribution, deterrence and rehabilitation into account.

Lesson 4
Rules of evidence
What evidence should count in a court of law?

Learning objective	To understand the rules of evidence in a court of law.
Student tasks	To consider the kind of evidence that should count in a court of law and the kind of evidence it would be wrong to use.
Resources	Discussion cards (student handout 8.2) for each group of 4-6 students.
Method	Small group work and class discussion.

Information box

One of the key elements in any system of criminal justice is a set of rules that determines what kinds of evidence should and should not be used in a court of law in order for a trial to be a fair one. For example, is it fair to use "hearsay" evidence (that is, evidence not directly experienced by a witness but reported to them by someone else), evidence obtained as a result of torture or the threat of violence or evidence obtained through "leading questions", that is, questions which put words into a witness's mouth?

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by presenting the following provision from the ECHR (1950), both orally and in written form on the blackboard or a flip chart:

> "Everyone charged with a criminal offence shall be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law."
>
> *European Convention of Human Rights (1950), Article 6, No. 2*

The teacher invites the students to explain this provision. The teacher may add the category of initial presumption of innocence. The students should understand the importance of this principle for a fair trial, and should learn that an accused person may only be convicted if sufficient evidence has been given to prove his or her guilt. In this lesson, the students will look at rules of evidence in a court of law.

The students should form groups of 4-6.

The teacher then tells the groups about a criminal trial that is taking place. It concerns a young man called Manuel, who is accused of stealing a car belonging to a Mr Kay. The car disappeared from outside Mr Kay's house late one evening and was discovered abandoned outside the village next morning. It had been doused in petrol and set on fire. Manuel was arrested by the police later in the week and charged with theft and criminal damage.

The teacher then gives each of the groups a set of discussion cards. Each of the cards contains a piece of evidence that the prosecution is using in court to try to prove that Manuel is guilty.

The teacher asks the groups to:

- put the pieces of evidence in order – from strongest to weakest;
- decide whether any pieces of evidence should be ruled out all together because either they are irrelevant or unfair.

The groups present their ideas to the rest of the class and try to agree on those pieces of evidence that should be accepted and those that should be ruled out altogether.

The teacher asks the students to return to their groups and consider:

- What questions would you like the court to put to these witnesses or to Manuel now? Why?
- Are there any kinds of question that it would be unfair for the court to ask them? If so, what kinds and why?

The groups present their ideas and the class, working collectively, tries to draw up lists of types of evidence and types of questions that they think it would be wrong to use in a court of law.

If time allows, this lesson can lead to a research task. For homework, the students are asked to research the rules of evidence that apply in criminal trials in their country and present their findings to the class in the next lesson.

Student handout 8.1

A questionnaire: at what age?

At what age does the law in your country allow young people to:

1. Have a driving licence?
2. Get married?
3. Vote in elections?
4. Join the army?
5. Pay tax?
6. Stand for political office?
7. Be put in prison?
8. Leave school?
9. Adopt a child?

Student handout 8.2

Discussion cards

A police officer tells the court that Manuel confessed he had stolen the car when he was being questioned at the police station.	A young man tells the court that Manuel is always bragging about stealing cars.
A young girl tells the court that she overheard a friend of hers talking to Manuel on his mobile phone. Her friend was talking to Manuel about stealing Mr Kay's car.	Mr Kay tells the court that he thinks Manuel must be the chief suspect as he had borne a grudge against the Kay family ever since Mr Kay stopped Stefan from seeing his daughter.
One of Manuel's teachers tells the court how he caught Stefan stealing from school several times when he was at school.	Manuel has no one to back up his alibi that he was alone at home on the evening the car was stolen.
When asked by the prosecutor, "Did you see a young man like Manuel driving away the car that evening?", a neighbour of the Kay's told the court, "Yes, I did."	

8.1 Background information for teachers

Integration, not criminalisation

Thomas Hammarberg, Commissioner for Human Rights, Council of Europe

In most European countries, teenagers are not dominant in the overall crime statistics. Also, juvenile crime rates remain more or less stable from year to year across our continent.

This does not mean that the problem is insignificant. A worrying trend reported from several countries is that some crimes committed by young offenders have become more violent or otherwise more serious. This is a warning signal in itself. (...).

There are two different trends for the moment in Europe. One is to reduce the age of criminal responsibility and to lock up more children at younger ages. The other trend is – in the spirit of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child – to avoid criminalisation and to seek family-based or other social alternatives to imprisonment.

I am going to argue for the second approach. In that I am supported not only by the UN Convention but also by the European Network of Children's Ombudspersons. In a statement [in] 2003 no less than 21 national ombudspersons stressed that children in conflict with the law are first and foremost children who still have human rights.

They proposed that the age of criminal responsibility should not be lowered but raised – with the aim of progressively reaching 18 – and that innovative systems of responding to juvenile offenders below that age should be tried with a genuine focus on their education, reintegration and rehabilitation.

The Convention of the Rights of the Child – ratified by all European states – asks governments to establish a minimum age below which children shall be presumed not to have the capacity to infringe the penal law. The treaty does not spell out at which precise age the line should be drawn. However, the Committee monitoring the implementation of the Convention has expressed concern about the low age in several countries. In most European states, children are held criminally responsible between 12 and 15 or 16, but there are also examples of age limits as low as seven, eight and 10.

Though the message of the Convention on the Rights of the Child is that criminalisation of children should be avoided, this does not mean that young offenders should be treated as if they have no responsibility. On the contrary, it is important that young offenders are held responsible for their actions and, for instance, take part in repairing the damage that they have caused.

The question is what kind of mechanism should replace the ordinary criminal justice system in such cases. The procedures should recognise the damage to the victims and it should make the young offender understand that the deed was not acceptable. Such a separate juvenile mechanism should aim at recognition of guilt and sanctions which rehabilitate.

It is in the sanction process that we find the difference to an ordinary criminal procedure. In juvenile justice there should be no retribution. The intention is to establish responsibility and, at the same time, to promote reintegration. The young offender should learn the lesson and never repeat the wrongdoing.

This is not easy in reality. It requires innovative and effective community sanctions. In principle, the offender's parents or other legal guardian should be involved, unless this is deemed counter-productive for the rehabilitation of the child. Whatever the process, there should be a possibility for the child to challenge the accusations and even appeal.

An interesting procedure for "settlements" has been introduced in Slovenia. There, a case of an accused juvenile can be referred to a mediator if this is agreed by the prosecutor, the victim and

the accused. The mediator then seeks to reach a settlement which would be satisfactory to both the victim and the accused and a trial can thereby be avoided.

One aspect should be further stressed: the importance of a prompt response to the wrongdoing. Delayed procedures – which [are] a problem in several European countries today – are particularly unfortunate when it comes to young offenders whose bad actions should be seen as a cry for immediate help. (...)

Thomas Hammarberg, Commissioner for Human Rights, Council of Europe, excerpt from "The human rights dimension of juvenile justice", a presentation given at the Conference of Prosecutors General of Europe, Moscow, 5-6 July 2006. Source: http://www.coe.int/t/commissioner/

8.2 Background information for teachers

Convention on the Rights of the Child

Adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 20 November 1989

"Article 37

States Parties shall ensure that:

(a) No child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Neither capital punishment nor life imprisonment without possibility of release shall be imposed for offences committed by persons below eighteen years of age;

(b) No child shall be deprived of his or her liberty unlawfully or arbitrarily. The arrest, detention or imprisonment of a child shall be in conformity with the law and shall be used only as a measure of last resort and for the shortest appropriate period of time;

(c) Every child deprived of liberty shall be treated with humanity and respect for the inherent dignity of the human person, and in a manner which takes into account the needs of persons of his or her age. In particular, every child deprived of liberty shall be separated from adults unless it is considered in the child's best interest not to do so and shall have the right to maintain contact with his or her family through correspondence and visits, save in exceptional circumstances;

(d) Every child deprived of his or her liberty shall have the right to prompt access to legal and other appropriate assistance, as well as the right to challenge the legality of the deprivation of his or her liberty before a court or other competent, independent and impartial authority, and to a prompt decision on any such action."

"Article 40

(...) 3. States Parties shall seek to promote the establishment of laws, procedures, authorities and institutions specifically applicable to children alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law, and, in particular:

(a) The establishment of a minimum age below which children shall be presumed not to have the capacity to infringe the penal law;

(b) Whenever appropriate and desirable, measures for dealing with such children without resorting to judicial proceedings, providing that human rights and legal safeguards are fully respected.

4. A variety of dispositions, such as care, guidance and supervision orders; counselling; probation; foster care; education and vocational training programmes and other alternatives to institutional care shall be available to ensure that children are dealt with in a manner appropriate to their well-being and proportionate both to their circumstances and the offence."

Source: Rolf Gollob/Peter Krapf: *Exploring children's rights. Lesson sequences for primary schools*. EDC/HRE, Vol. V, Strasbourg 2007, pp. 77ff.

For further reading: Cyndi Banks, *Criminal justice ethics*, Thousand Oaks, 2004. A PDF version of Chapter 5, The Purpose of Criminal Punishment, is available at http://www.sagepub.com.

UNIT 9
Government and politics

How should society be governed?

9.1. Who is in charge?

What is the best way to govern a country?

9.2. If you were the president

What is government for?

9.3. Me and my role

What should a country expect of its citizens?

9.4. Student parliament

How should schools be governed?

UNIT 9: Government and politics
How should society be governed?

Politics is the process by which a society of people with different opinions and interests reaches collective decisions about the way their life together should be organised. It involves persuasion and negotiation, and some kind of mechanism for reaching a final decision, such as voting. It involves power and authority, and an element of coercion – if only to ensure that collective decisions are made binding on the group as a whole.

Politics is defined, therefore, in terms of the institutions of a state and the relation between a state and its citizens. This relation takes different forms under different types of political system, for example monarchies, democracies and totalitarian regimes.

In a democracy, citizens enjoy political equality. Collective decisions are made in terms of some form of majority voting, either by the citizens themselves or by their elected representatives. But democratic politics is not just about voting. It is also about discussion and debate, and opportunities for citizens to make their voices heard on issues of public importance.

An important question in a democracy is the proper function of the institutions of state and the corresponding duties of citizens. Another is the extent to which individual institutions within a democracy should be governed democratically (schools, for example).

Learning for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights

Through this series of lessons students will:

- develop an understanding of different forms of government and their implications for citizens;
- have a greater understanding of the responsibilities and functions of government, and the corresponding duties of citizens;
- become more familiar with democratic processes;
- find out more about the political system in their country.

The reader will notice that in the following lesson plans a piece of homework is suggested that will support the students' learning and understanding. Ideally, the following lessons should then begin with an input by the students. This takes time and often gives rise to questions in class, showing the need for repetition or explanation, or spontaneous discussions may be triggered off. It is for the teacher to decide whether the time budget allows an additional lesson to be added to the unit to account for the students' learning needs and interests. Obviously, there are limits to extending a unit, so alternatives are necessary. If the time budget is limited, the teacher could collect some or all written pieces of work and give feedback or, in some cases, also mark the students' work. The students may also hand in their work voluntarily. Finally, homework may serve as repetition or follow-up to prepare for a test. As a matter of principle, the teacher should always consider the function of the students' homework and decide whether to integrate it in his/her future lesson planning and if so, how.

An example of this kind of planning is discussed in the description of the fourth lesson.

UNIT 9: Government and politics
How should society be governed?

Lesson title	Objectives	Student tasks	Resources	Method
Lesson 1: Who is in charge?	The students learn about different forms of government, e.g. democracy and dictatorship.	The students reflect upon the fairness of the system of government in place in an imaginary society.	Copies of student handout 9.1 for each student, paper and pens.	Story, pair work, whole class discussion, formal debate.
Lesson 2: If you were the president	The students can explain the functions and responsibilities of government.	The students imagine that they form a government and have to decide how government money should be spent. They consider the sort of social ideals they would like to achieve.	A large piece of paper, marker pens and prompt sheet for each group of 4-6 students.	Posters, presentations, small group work and whole class discussion.
Lesson 3: Me and my role	The students learn about the duties of citizens in a democratic society.	The students consider the kinds of responsibilities that citizens have and how they can be encouraged to take their responsibilities more seriously.	Set of discussion cards (student handout 9.2), large piece of paper and marker pens for each group of 4-6 students.	Presentations, small group work and whole class discussion.
Lesson 4: Student parliament	The students can define criteria relating to how school should be governed and the role of the student body in this process.	The students consider how their ideal student parliament would work.	A questionnaire for each student (student handout 9.3) and a large piece of paper and marker pens for each group of 4-6 students.	Presentations, individual, small group and whole class discussion.

Lesson 1
Who is in charge?
What is the best way to govern a country?

Learning objective	The students learn about different forms of government, e.g. democracy and dictatorship.
Student tasks	The students reflect upon the fairness of the system of government in place in an imaginary society.
Resources	Copies of student handout 9.1 for each student, paper and pens.
Method	Story, pair work, whole class discussion, formal debate.

Conceptual learning

Forms of government can be classified in different ways, for example, in terms of who holds power, how power is conferred on people, where sovereignty lies and how rule is enforced. In practice, the principal types are: democracy, monarchy, theocracy and tyranny or dictatorship. These should be thought of as "ideal types", because in reality they can co-exist in the same country – for example, a parliamentary democracy may contain within it elements of dictatorship or may co-exist with a ruling royal family.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by reading the story, "The Kingdom of Sikkal" (student handout 9.1). The students should each have their own copy of the story, so they can follow it whilst the teacher is reading.

The teacher should stop reading part way through the story and ask:

– What do you think of life in Sikkal from what you have heard so far?

At the end of the story, the teacher should ask:

– What do you think of life in Sikkal now?

The teacher divides the students into pairs and asks them to reflect upon the quality of life in Sikkal. Students are given a piece of paper on which they should write down what they think are the advantages and disadvantages of living in Sikkal.

The teacher asks the pairs to present their ideas to the class as a whole and writes up the main points for all to see.

Then the teacher asks the class as a whole to reflect on the way that Sikkal is governed:

– Do you think Sikkal is run in a fair way? Why or why not?

– If you think it could be run in a fairer way, what sort of things would you need to change for it to be fairer?

Next the teacher asks the class to imagine that they are inhabitants of Sikkal. The class is divided into two large groups for a debate: one group is asked to argue in favour of the country continuing to be run by the king; the other group is asked to argue that every inhabitant – not just the king – should have a say in the running of the country. The teacher gives the groups a few minutes to think of and write down arguments they can use in the debate. The two different groups are seated facing each other on opposite sides of the classroom and the debate begins. Students from each side take it in turns to express their views – perhaps aided by a "talking stick", that is, a stick used as a microphone.

The teacher asks the students to give their opinions on which of the two sides had the best arguments.

The students are now ready for a brief explanation (inductive approach). The teacher writes down the names of five types of government and explains how they are different, referring to the students' inputs where possible:

– monarchy;

– democracy;

– dictatorship;

– theocracy;

– anarchy.

The lesson ends by asking the students about the system of government in their country. For homework, the students are asked to find out more about this and to formulate a quiz – of 5-10 questions – to test the knowledge of the rest of the class in the next lesson.

Lesson 2
If you were the president
What is government for?

Learning objective	The students can explain the functions and responsibilities of government.
Student tasks	The students imagine that they form a government and have to decide how government money should be spent. They consider the sort of social ideals they would like to achieve.
Resources	A large piece of paper, marker pens and a prompt sheet for each group of 4-6 students.
Method	Posters, presentations, small group work and whole class discussion.

Conceptual learning

The duty of the government in a democratic society is to promote the common good. This is more than the good of the majority. It is what is of ultimate benefit to all members of the society. What this means in practice is often the subject of debate. A number of different – sometimes conflicting – social ideals have been suggested, such as welfare, security, justice, social harmony, human rights or prosperity. Prioritising these in actual spending plans can be difficult, especially as the resources available to a government are always limited.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by dividing students into groups of 4-6 and giving each group a large piece of paper and marker pens.

The teacher asks the groups to imagine that they are living at some point in the future and find they have been put in charge of running the country – in other words, they are the government. As the government, they have $6 billion to spend. The teacher may adapt this figure to the annual budget of the government of the country.

The task for the groups is to decide how they will spend this money over the coming year. Using the paper and marker pens, each group creates a poster explaining how, as the government, it will spend its money and then gives a presentation setting out its ideas to the rest of the class. At the end of each presentation, the other students are given an opportunity to question the group about its spending plans.

The teacher also questions the groups as a way of introducing new information about the economy and the way that governments function, for example:

– Have you thought about using some of the money to pay off foreign debt?

– Should you use some of that money to create jobs?

– How important is it for a government to spend money on education?

Then the teacher works with the class as a whole to draw up a list, visible to everyone, of all the things they think a government should spend money on.

Next, the teacher asks the students to return to their groups and gives each group a prompt sheet containing a list of the kind of social ideals that a government of a democratic society might be trying to achieve, for example:

– welfare;

– security;

– justice;

– social harmony;

– human rights;

– prosperity.

The groups have to try to match the ideals on the list to the areas of spending they have already outlined by considering which of the ideals are achieved by each of their spending headings.

The teacher asks the groups to present their ideas to the class as a whole and finishes the lesson by asking all the students in turn:

– What do you think is the most important responsibility a government is meant to carry out?

For homework, the teacher asks the students to find out some of the ways in which government money in their country is spent. They might do this by watching TV or looking at a newspaper. The students present what they have found out at the beginning of the next lesson and consider whether their own priorities would be the same.

Lesson 3
Me and my role
What should a country expect of its citizens?

Learning objective	The students learn about the duties of citizens in a democratic society.
Student tasks	The students consider the kinds of responsibilities that citizens have and how they can be encouraged to take their responsibilities more seriously.
Resources	Set of discussion cards (student handout 9.2), large piece of paper and marker pens for each group of 4-6 students.
Method	Presentations, small group work and whole class discussion.

Information box

Citizens in a democratic society should expect to be granted certain rights such as civil rights, political rights, social rights, cultural rights and environmental rights. What these rights should be is a matter of debate. So is the question of the responsibilities that go with these rights. Some people think that citizens should just have one responsibility – to obey the law. Others think that society requires citizens to have a much wider range of responsibilities.

The lesson

The teacher begins the lesson by dividing the students into groups of 4-6 and giving each group a set of discussion cards (student handout 9.2). Each of the cards contains a suggested citizen's duty.

The teacher asks the groups to sort out the cards into three categories – depending on whether they think the suggested duty on the card should apply to:

1. ALL citizens;
2. SOME citizens; or
3. NO citizens.

The teacher asks the students to present their decisions to the class as a whole and to explain the thinking behind them.

The students return to their groups and are given large pieces of paper and marker pens. The teacher tells the groups that their task is to draw up a "citizens' charter". They should divide up their large piece of paper into two columns. In the first column they should write what they think every citizen in their country should be able to expect from their country (under the heading "RIGHTS"), and in the second, what citizens should be expected to do in return for this (under the heading "RESPONSIBILITIES").

When they have finished, the groups should present their ideas to the rest of the class, and give the other students an opportunity to question them about their work.

Finally, the teacher should ask the class as a whole:

– Do you think the citizens in your country always carry out their responsibilities as citizens as they should? Why or why not?
– What sorts of things do you think could be done to encourage people to take their responsibilities as citizens more seriously?
– Do you think that citizens should have some of their rights taken away if they do not carry out their responsibilities as citizens properly? Why or why not?

For homework, students should conduct a survey of family and friends, asking them what they think the responsibilities of a citizen should be. They should present their findings to their class at the beginning of the next lesson.

Lesson 4
Student parliament
How should schools be governed?

Learning objective	The students can define criteria relating to how school should be governed and the role of the student body in this process.
Student tasks	The students consider how their ideal student parliament would work.
Resources	A questionnaire for each student (student handout 9.3) and a large piece of paper and marker pens for each group of 4-6 students.
Method	Presentations, individual and small group work and whole class discussion.

Information box

Young people are citizens too. They have a right to have a say in things that affect them and their communities. This includes their school. Mechanisms that allow students to have a say in the running of their school not only help to ensure that young people enjoy this right, they also help them to learn about democratic processes. What these mechanisms might be is a matter for debate, however. Some people think that it is important for every school to have its own separate student parliament, others say that this is not necessary and that there are other ways of creating opportunities for students to contribute to the running of their school.

The lesson should begin with the students' inputs that they have prepared as homework. Depending on the richness of their material and the need for discussion, the time budget may need to be extended by a further lesson. As there are limits to this option, the teacher may also collect the students' work and give them written feedback. The teacher should make sure, however, that the students' work is given attention.

The lesson

The students begin the lesson by presenting the results of their surveys showing what their families and friends think about the responsibilities of a citizen. The students discuss their results.

The teacher introduces the new topic by referring to the students' material, as appropriate, and by asking students how well they think their school council or student parliament is working. If there is no form of student representation in the school at present, the teacher should ask the students if they know of any schools that have this and, if so, what form it takes.

The teacher tells the students that their task is to imagine the ideal student parliament – that is, a group of democratically elected students representing the interests of the student body in their school as a whole.

The teacher then gives out a questionnaire (student handout 9.3) which students fill in by themselves.

The teacher then divides up the students into groups of 4-6. The students in the groups have some time to compare their answers to the questionnaire and to ask each other further questions. Next, the teacher gives each group a large piece of paper and some marker pens. The task for the groups is to draw up a constitution for their ideal student parliament. The teacher should explain what a constitution is, and give some examples of the kinds of rules they might expect to find in the constitution of a student parliament.

When the groups have finished, they present their work to the rest of the class and consider the issues raised, for example:

- How much power should students have and how much should the school principal and the teachers have?
- Who should have the last word in decisions that affect the running of a school?
- Can a school be a democracy?

Finally, the students should make a class presentation to the school principal and, if they wish, make some concrete proposals for their own school parliament.

For homework, students should carry out a survey of family and friends, asking them:

- Do you think every school in the country should have a student parliament?
  Why (or why not)?

The students should present the results of their survey at the beginning of the next lesson.

Student handout 9.1

The Kingdom of Sikkal

Sikkal is a country situated high in the mountains. For centuries it has had little contact with the rest of the world.

Although Sikkal is only a tiny kingdom, it has attracted a lot of interest lately. This is mainly because of the unusual way in which society is organised there.

To begin with, no one in Sikkal ever goes hungry. The Sikkalese people produce all their own food and it is shared out to whoever needs it. A house is provided rent-free for every family. The size of the house depends on the number of people in the family. Fuel for heating and cooking is provided free of charge, as is a regular repair service. Should anyone ever fall sick, a doctor is always at hand. Everyone is given a free medical check-up every six months and care-workers make regular visits to old people, families with young children and anyone else who needs extra attention.

In Sikkal the good things in life are available to all. Each family is given a book of vouchers which they exchange each year for different luxury items, such as scent, furniture or spices. The vouchers can be traded in right away or saved up over a period of time for something special.

How have the people of Sikkal been able to organise all these things? As far back as anyone can remember, Sikkal has been ruled by a royal family. The present ruler is King Sik III. He decides on the number of workers needed for each kind of work, such as growing food, building houses or medical care. The people who do these jobs are selected at five years of age and sent to special schools for training. Farmers are sent to agricultural school, house-builders to technical school, health-workers to medical school, and so on. Everyone else of working age is employed by King Sik in one of his royal palaces.

The most amazing thing about Sikkal is that there is no such thing as money. No one needs to be paid because everyone already has everything they need!

You may be asking yourself whether anyone in Sikkal ever complains about these arrangements. In fact, this very rarely happens. The few people that do complain are looked after in secure mental hospitals. After all, you would have to be mad to complain about life in a society like this, wouldn't you?

Student handout 9.2

Discussion cards

Pay taxes	Be a member of a political party
Fight to defend your country	Vote in elections
Report crime to the police	Support your family
Obey the law	Help your neighbours
Speak up for your country when it is criticised	Something else... ?

In your ideal student parliament:

1. How many student representatives would there be?

2. How exactly would the representatives be chosen?

3. How often would the student parliament meet?

4. Where would the student parliament meet?

5. How, if at all, would teachers or parents be involved?

6. What issues would the student parliament be allowed to discuss, and what issues would it not be allowed to discuss?

7. What kind of decisions would the student parliament be allowed to make, and what decisions would it not be allowed to make?

Sales agents for publications of the Council of Europe
Agents de vente des publications du Conseil de l'Europe

BELGIUM/BELGIQUE
La Librairie Européenne -
The European Bookshop
Rue de l'Orme, 1
B-1040 BRUXELLES
Tel.: +32 (0)2 231 04 35
Fax: +32 (0)2 735 08 60
E-mail: order@libeurop.be
http://www.libeurop.be

Jean De Lannoy
Avenue du Roi 202 Koningslaan
B-1190 BRUXELLES
Tel.: +32 (0)2 538 43 08
Fax: +32 (0)2 538 08 41
E-mail: jean.de.lannoy@dl-servi.com
http://www.jean-de-lannoy.be

CANADA
Renouf Publishing Co. Ltd.
1-5369 Canotek Road
OTTAWA, Ontario K1J 9J3, Canada
Tel.: +1 613 745 2665
Fax: +1 613 745 7660
Toll-Free Tel.: (866) 767-6766
E-mail: order.dept@renoufbooks.com
http://www.renoufbooks.com

CZECH REPUBLIC/
RÉPUBLIQUE TCHÈQUE
Suweco CZ, s.r.o.
Klecakova 347
CZ-180 21 PRAHA 9
Tel.: +420 2 424 59 204
Fax: +420 2 848 21 646
E-mail: import@suweco.cz
http://www.suweco.cz

DENMARK/DANEMARK
GAD
Vimmelskaftet 32
DK-1161 KØBENHAVN K
Tel.: +45 77 66 60 00
Fax: +45 77 66 60 01
E-mail: gad@gad.dk
http://www.gad.dk

FINLAND/FINLANDE
Akateeminen Kirjakauppa
PO Box 128
Keskuskatu 1
FIN-00100 HELSINKI
Tel.: +358 (0)9 121 4430
Fax: +358 (0)9 121 4242
E-mail: akatilaus@akateeminen.com
http://www.akateeminen.com

FRANCE
La Documentation française
(diffusion/distribution France entière)
124, rue Henri Barbusse
F-93308 AUBERVILLIERS CEDEX
Tél.: +33 (0)1 40 15 70 00
Fax: +33 (0)1 40 15 68 00
E-mail: commande@ladocumentationfrancaise.fr
http://www.ladocumentationfrancaise.fr

Librairie Kléber
1 rue des Francs Bourgeois
F-67000 STRASBOURG
Tel.: +33 (0)3 88 15 78 88
Fax: +33 (0)3 88 15 78 80
E-mail: francois.wolfermann@librairie-kleber.fr
http://www.librairie-kleber.com

GERMANY/ALLEMAGNE
AUSTRIA/AUTRICHE
UNO Verlag GmbH
August-Bebel-Allee 6
D-53175 BONN
Tel.: +49 (0)228 94 90 20
Fax: +49 (0)228 94 90 222
E-mail: bestellung@uno-verlag.de
http://www.uno-verlag.de

GREECE/GRÈCE
Librairie Kauffmann s.a.
Stadiou 28
GR-105 64 ATHINAI
Tel.: +30 210 32 55 321
Fax.: +30 210 32 30 320
E-mail: ord@otenet.gr
http://www.kauffmann.gr

HUNGARY/HONGRIE
Euro Info Service kft.
1137 Bp. Szent István krt. 12
H-1137 BUDAPEST
Tel.: +36 (06)1 329 2170
Fax: +36 (06)1 349 2053
E-mail: euroinfo@euroinfo.hu
http://www.euroinfo.hu

ITALY/ITALIE
Licosa SpA
Via Duca di Calabria, 1/1
I-50125 FIRENZE
Tel.: +39 0556 483215
Fax: +39 0556 41257
E-mail: licosa@licosa.com
http://www.licosa.com

MEXICO/MEXIQUE
Mundi-Prensa México, S.A. De C.V.
Río Pánuco, 141 Delegación Cuauhtémoc
06500 MÉXICO, D.F.
Tel.: +52 (01)55 55 33 56 58
Fax: +52 (01)55 55 14 67 99
E-mail: mundiprensa@mundiprensa.com.mx
http://www.mundiprensa.com.mx

NETHERLANDS/PAYS-BAS
De Lindeboom Internationale Publicaties b.v.
M.A. de Ruyterstraat 20 A
NL-7482 BZ HAAKSBERGEN
Tel.: +31 (0)53 5740004
Fax: +31 (0)53 5729296
E-mail: books@delindeboom.com
http://www.delindeboom.com

NORWAY/NORVÈGE
Akademika
Postboks 84 Blindern
N-0314 OSLO
Tel.: +47 2 218 8100
Fax: +47 2 218 8103
E-mail: support@akademika.no
http://www.akademika.no

POLAND/POLOGNE
Ars Polona JSC
25 Obroncow Street
PL-03-933 WARSZAWA
Tel.: +48 (0)22 509 86 00
Fax: +48 (0)22 509 86 10
E-mail: arspolona@arspolona.com.pl
http://www.arspolona.com.pl

PORTUGAL
Livraria Portugal
(Dias & Andrade, Lda.)
Rua do Carmo, 70
P-1200-094 LISBOA
Tel.: +351 21 347 42 82 / 85
Fax: +351 21 347 02 64
E-mail: info@livrariaportugal.pt
http://www.livrariaportugal.pt

RUSSIAN FEDERATION/
FÉDÉRATION DE RUSSIE
Ves Mir
9a, Kolpacnhyi per.
RU-101000 MOSCOW
Tel.: +7 (8)495 623 6839
Fax: +7 (8)495 625 4269
E-mail: orders@vesmirbooks.ru
http://www.vesmirbooks.ru

SPAIN/ESPAGNE
Mundi-Prensa Libros, s.a.
Castelló, 37
E-28001 MADRID
Tel.: +34 914 36 37 00
Fax: +34 915 75 39 98
E-mail: libreria@mundiprensa.es
http://www.mundiprensa.com

SWITZERLAND/SUISSE
Van Diermen Editions – ADECO
Chemin du Lacuez 41
CH-1807 BLONAY
Tel.: +41 (0)21 943 26 73
Fax: +41 (0)21 943 36 05
E-mail: info@adeco.org
http://www.adeco.org

UNITED KINGDOM/ROYAUME-UNI
The Stationery Office Ltd
PO Box 29
GB-NORWICH NR3 1GN
Tel.: +44 (0)870 600 5522
Fax: +44 (0)870 600 5533
E-mail: book.enquiries@tso.co.uk
http://www.tsoshop.co.uk

UNITED STATES and CANADA/
ÉTATS-UNIS et CANADA
Manhattan Publishing Company
468 Albany Post Road
CROTTON-ON-HUDSON, NY 10520, USA
Tel.: +1 914 271 5194
Fax: +1 914 271 5856
E-mail: Info@manhattanpublishing.com
http://www.manhattanpublishing.com

Council of Europe Publishing/Editions du Conseil de l'Europe
F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex
Tel.: +33 (0)3 88 41 25 81 – Fax: +33 (0)3 88 41 39 10 – E-mail: publishing@coe.int – Website: http://book.coe.int

ID 5599

This is a manual for teachers in Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) and Human Rights Education (HRE), EDC/HRE textbook editors and curriculum developers. Nine teaching units of approximately four lessons each focus on key concepts of EDC/HRE. The lesson plans give step-by-step instructions and include student handouts and background information for teachers. In this way, the manual is suited for trainees or beginners in the teaching profession and teachers who are receiving in-service teacher training in EDC/HRE. Experienced teachers may draw on the ideas and materials. The complete manual provides a full school year's curriculum for lower secondary classes, but as each unit is also complete in itself, the manual allows great flexibility in use.

The objective of EDC/HRE is the active citizen who is willing and able to participate in the democratic community. Therefore EDC/HRE strongly emphasise action and task-based learning. The school community is conceived as a sphere of authentic experience where young people can learn how to participate in democratic decision making and may take responsibility at an early age. Key concepts of EDC/HRE are taught as tools of life-long learning.

This is Volume III out of a series of six:

EDC/HRE Volume I:	Educating for democracy: Background materials on democratic citizenship and human rights education for teachers
EDC/HRE Volume II:	Growing up in democracy: Lesson plans for primary level on democratic citizenship and human rights
EDC/HRE Volume III:	Living in Democracy: EDC/HRE Lesson plans for lower secondary level
EDC/HRE Volume IV:	Taking part in democracy: Lesson plans for upper secondary level on democratic citizenship and human rights
EDC/HRE Volume V:	Exploring children's rights: nine short projects for primary level
EDC/HRE Volume VI:	Teaching democracy: a collection of models for democratic citizenship and human rights education

COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE

www.coe.int

The Council of Europe has 47 member states, covering virtually the entire continent of Europe. It seeks to develop common democratic and legal principles based on the European Convention on Human Rights and other reference texts on the protection of individuals. Ever since it was founded in 1949, in the aftermath of the Second World War, the Council of Europe has symbolised reconciliation.

ISBN 978-92-871-6332-5

9 789287 163325

€15/US$23

http://book.coe.int
Council of Europe Publishing