

IIHR

Inter-American Institute
of Human Rights

V Inter-American Report on Human Rights Education

**Developments in curriculum contents
and courses: 10-14 years of age**



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Inter-American Institute
of Human Rights

**INTER-AMERICAN REPORT ON
HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION**

A study in 19 countries

Developments in curriculum contents and courses:
10-14 years of age

San Jose - December, 2006

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Production team for this publication:

Diego Iturralde, *Coordinator of the Applied Research Unit*

Ana María Rodino, *Coordinator of the Education Unit*

Marisol Molestina, *Coordinator of the Information Unit*

Giselle Mizrahi, *Consultant in charge of research*

IIHR: *Layout and graphic arts*

Mundo Gráfico: *Printing*

The following local consultants were instrumental in gathering the information; several are alumnae of the IIHR Interdisciplinary Courses on Human Rights:

Argentina, Francisco Scarfó; Bolivia, José Eduardo Rojas; Brazil, Simone Ambros; Colombia, Sandra Morello; Costa Rica, Sergio Alfaro Salas; Chile, Carlos López Dawson; Dominican Republic, Luisa América Mateo; Ecuador, DNI Ecuador; El Salvador, Zulema Lara; Mexico, Citlalin Castañeda; Nicaragua, Sonia Durán; Panama, José Antonio Grenard; Paraguay, Arístide Escobar; Peru, Patricia Luque; Uruguay, Lilián Celiberti; Venezuela, María Isabel Bertone.

The report was written and compiled under the direction of Ana María Rodino, Diego Iturralde and Giselle Mizrahi.

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Inter-American Institute of Human Rights

Apartado Postal 10.081-1000 San José, Costa Rica
Tel: (506) 234-0404 Fax: (506) 234 - 0955
e-mail: uinformacion@iidh.ed.cr
www.iidh.ed.cr

Table of Contents

Introduction:	A human rights curriculum for children in the Americas.....	7
Section I:	Selecting content and creating opportunities: the educational proposal.....	9
	Content and teaching opportunities: a curriculum for the practice of negotiation and consensus	9
	Human rights, schools and manifestations of the curriculum.....	10
	Purposes, content and principles of human rights education.....	12
	Modes and types of curriculum change.....	16
	Table of suggested curriculum content for each grade level and stage of development.....	18
Section II:	The Report: background, key methodological features and sources of information	20
	HRE reports as profiles	20
	Key methodological features	22
	The progress approach	26
Section III:	Analysis of research findings.....	33
	Curriculum design processes.....	33
	The curriculum map and courses for introducing human rights.....	40
	Human rights content	44
	Human rights content in instructional materials.....	55
	Options for curriculum enhancement	61
Section IV:	Conclusions	63
Section V:	Recommendations	69
Appendix:	Table of suggested content by stage of development and grade level.....	71

Tables¹

Table 1:	Matrix for the Fifth Report.....	30
Table 2:	Density of information received for the Fifth Inter-American Report.....	31
Table 3:	Number of official documents, programs, textbooks and interviews used as sources of verification	32
Table 4:	Where decisions on curriculum content are made.....	36
Table 5:	Entities involved in setting curriculum content, by level	37
Table 6:	Other responsibilities of the curriculum department or division	39
Table 7:	The curriculum map for students 10-14 years old: courses and course load	41
Table 8:	Percent of course load devoted to the subject with greatest affinity to HR (10-14 years of age)	43
Table 9:	Percent of human rights-related content in the courses with greatest affinity	44
Table 10:	Human rights concepts / number of school grades in which they were identified.....	49
Table 11:	Other course topics for 13- and 14-year-olds	51
Table 12:	Course content from the educational proposal, found in the school curriculum	52
Table 13:	Textbooks by age, country and year of use.....	55
Table 14:	Material and themes identified in 2000 and 2005, by country (11 years).....	57
Table 15:	Material and themes identified in 2000 and 2005, by country (12 years).....	58
Table 16:	New material and themes in textbooks for 2005 (12 years).....	58

Figures

Figure 1:	HR Content for students 10 to 14 years old, in 16 countries	54
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¹ All tables and figures in this report were produced by the IIHR.

Introduction

A human rights curriculum for children in the Americas

The matter of education arouses passions in every country of the world, including the democratic nations of the Americas. In Chile and Peru, in Panama and Honduras, in Mexico, and especially in Oaxaca, teachers' associations and unions are squaring off against national authorities. Motivations abound: budget and salaries, criticism of the administration and regulation of classroom schedules, employment benefits: all these appear on the agenda when unions hit the streets to demonstrate. Significantly, values education and rights education are absent from the public budget and missing from union demands. Meanwhile, many countries are beginning to hear complaints of a frightening panorama in which the democratic values in our societies are losing ground.

At the end of the 1990s, the first human rights plans emerged, and little by little, mostly under pressure from the *United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education, 1995-2004 (United Nations Decade for HRE)*, the idea spread that it was time to make human rights education universal. Several countries made serious commitments. The IIHR has been right in the crosshairs of these many important efforts, and in 2000 we began to develop the system of Inter-American reports on human rights education. We have been able to identify and applaud a number of excellent initiatives; but all too often, they have not gone beyond good intentions.

Human rights education (HRE) is a right in the inter-American system, enshrined in the Protocol of San Salvador (Articles 13 and 13.2) as part of the overall right to education. The 19 signatory countries hold the inescapable obligation to carry out, guarantee and promote this right, and for the IIHR, it is not an option, but our very mandate. It justifies our existence in the region and gives purpose to our constant drive to consolidate the future of human rights in the Americas.

In the interest of driving progress toward full realization of the right to HRE, the IIHR began presenting regular progress reports on public policy advances in the 19 signatory countries of the Protocol of San Salvador. It has been one of our most significant contributions to the inter-American system. This Fifth Report and the previous four have provided greater insight into this right, which is now better accepted as a legitimate part of the political agenda and is more widely understood as obligatory. For the IIHR, human rights education is not just one more item on the curriculum. Instead and above all, it is a human right that stands at the very core of the development of democracy.

The Fifth HRE Report is a logical part of the gradual dialectic process that the IIHR has been conducting to study the actual status of human rights instruction. Its intent is to carry the process further by defining a curricular and methodological proposal to help the countries comply with the goals set forth in Articles 13 and 13.2 of the Protocol of San Salvador. There is a pressing need to finish introducing human rights into national education programs, especially for children from 10 to 14 years of age, who make up nearly 36% of the population of Latin America and the Caribbean. It is equally urgent to reinvent the public school curriculum and change directions radically if we really hope to transform political conditions in our countries and, over the shortest term possible, reverse the encroaching disillusionment with democracy in the Americas.

Which is most important today for learning about human rights and practicing democracy from the earliest grades? Improving curriculum or guaranteeing basic education? Under present circumstances, it is difficult to set priorities between these two essential elements of human rights education. To begin with, it is not clear who is responsible for teaching the fundamentals of human rights at school. Moreover, few believe in HRE at levels where political decisions are made, which is why human rights

are losing ground in the schools. Add to this the lack of meaningful, substantial growth in public resources and the inability to adapt programs to the social needs of students.

Much of the school curricular content has become obsolete and needs to be updated, and the teaching of human rights and democratic practices is ideally suited to lend a more optimistic and future-oriented educational vision to this task. Education needs to become a public priority that transcends all electoral circumstances. The importance of human rights in the schools lies not only in the teaching of values, but in learning what it means today to live together in democracy.

The region needs curriculum proposals that are not improvised and do not respond to simple momentary circumstances. The introduction of human rights into the curriculum could clear away many failings of the past. First, it will clearly reveal that over the short term, this is the best investment in democracy. Second, it will provide a legitimate forum to let teachers themselves speak out about the practice of human rights. In so doing, it will give voice to this valiant group of professionals who spend their days at the battlefield in difficult, sometimes violent situations in the classroom, and whose opinion no one has asked. Third, it will provide an opportunity to start talking about the quality of education.

The only real intent of the human rights curriculum is for children to understand the reality in which they live and know how to defend their rights while upholding their dignity. As they read and play, write and do drills, they learn about the right to freedom and the obligations inherent to life in democracy. It can be done only through regular programs and basic teaching of human rights starting in grade school.

The IIHR hopes that this report, along with the curricular and methodological proposal, will be welcomed by top education authorities. We mean it as a contribution that will facilitate planning processes so that instruction of human rights issues can be improved in the education of children and adolescents. This in turn will raise the quality of education and have an impact on expanding and improving democracy as today's students quickly become tomorrow's voters.

These Institute reports are also presented to national human rights authorities who are responsible for promoting human rights in their countries and monitoring their governments and government agents for compliance with commitments acquired when they ratified international human rights instruments. This is especially true for article 13.2 of the Protocol of San Salvador, the right of citizens and the obligation of the State concerning human rights education.

Nongovernmental organizations and regional and international organizations that have accumulated vast experience in the field of HRE will find here a useful vehicle for inspiring more profound consideration of education in the primary schools, overlooked in the past but increasingly urgent. As these organizations work side by side with official State entities to design curriculum and prepare textbooks and educational resources, they will be able to inject a welcome note of reality, special technical and pedagogical skills and a critical attitude; all these are indispensable for the multi-dimensional education of our children and adolescents, as full subjects of law.

*Roberto Cuéllar M.
Executive Director of the IIHR
San Jose, December 10, 2006*

Section I

Selecting content and creating opportunities: the educational proposal

Content and teaching opportunities: a curriculum for the practice of negotiation and consensus

This Fifth Report draws heavily on findings from the four previous inter-American HRE reports (2002 to 2005). Its arguments are built on two factors that are critical for incorporating, improving and expanding *education in and for human rights and life in democracy* in the formal public education systems of the region. The first is careful selection of content to be included in the curriculum, and the second is the creation of suitable opportunities within the curriculum for the content to be developed effectively. Two other components that serve as the backbone of education, but that this report will not examine, are the production of educational materials and teaching resources, and continuing education for teachers.

Over the past 15 years, HRE has been slowly but surely gaining ground in the school systems of Latin America. Most of the countries in the region now have the necessary legal basis and a first level of institutionalization. HRE now has a firm footing in school programs, especially as it applies to such issues as promoting gender equity, recognizing ethnic diversity and multicultural societies, and the exercise of democracy. The schools are also applying it to environmental education and to health and sex education. Much remains to be done to give the topic a clear identity, offer specific content and guidelines and build it into all applicable courses, school activities and teacher training.

The Fourth Report (2005) studied progress in the preparation of national human rights education plans. It found that 18 countries had undertaken efforts to fulfill the commitments they had acquired in 1995 in the framework of the *United Nations Decade for HRE*. Of these, only half had completed the process with some degree of success and were beginning to apply it as public policy. The rest had conducted profiles or were engaged in consultation and design but had bogged down at particular stages of the process. Four countries had incorporated elements of HRE into national education plans that had emerged from education reform processes; others had adopted comparable plans promoted by international assistance agencies, such as *Values education* and *Education for all*.

The study confirmed the hypothesis that planning processes tending to incorporate, improve, expand or formalize HRE involve processes of negotiation in which many stakeholders are involved. Multiple orientations and educational perspectives vie for attention, many interests clash and compete, and the standoff is ultimately resolved as a power struggle. These negotiations revolve around a wide range of issues, from philosophical conceptions and ideological positions on education and human rights, to distribution of workloads and schedules, the rights and obligations of teachers and the acquisition of new textbooks. They also involve people inside and outside the educational community, both experts and novices in technical knowledge of education science and educational management, parties representing both the public and private sectors, with equal standing for service providers and service beneficiaries.

In this sense, the school curriculum is the political expression of a consensus about the legitimacy of all the forms of knowledge that will be imparted to students. Any knowledge that eventually makes its way into the curriculum embodies some value that overall society has included in its educational aspirations. It is given practical form through lesson plans and classroom programs, textbooks, teaching methods, instructional materials and grading systems. It also needs to be included in teacher training, for it is the teachers who ultimately construct the real curriculum in the classroom.

Much of the negotiation that precedes the preparation of national HRE plans, as studied in the Fourth Report, focuses on selecting and defining human rights content to be included in education and deciding how it will be distributed on the *map* of grade levels, subjects and school activities. Consideration is also given to the ways in which HRE content will interact and balance with other pre-existing curricular content. In general, the countries found that it was very difficult to build consensus on content, and they tended to resolve the matter by avoiding hard choices. Instead they broadly admitted an extensive repertoire of subjects and shied away from adopting specific guidelines on how to handle them. Obviously this limits the effectiveness of the program, which in practice will probably prove difficult or impossible to carry out. In most cases, planning processes did not grapple with the organizational, labor and economic implications of these curriculum changes, as it would have been far too difficult to build consensus on such complex issues.

The IIHR, while fully cognizant of these difficulties, was encouraged when the governments of the world renewed their commitment to push for HRE in coming years (*United Nations World Programme for Human Rights Education 2005-2007*). Therefore, in 2006 it focused its efforts on preparing an educational proposal to formalize, expand and improve human rights education in the grades attended by children from 10 to 14 years of age. This Fifth Inter-American Report targets the countries of the region that are signatories to the Protocol of San Salvador. It explores the current state and evolving trends of the school curriculum, focusing on subjects and activities that cover, or have the potential to cover, the content suggested in the proposal.

This educational proposal,² built on long-standing IIHR traditions of human rights education at various levels and with a plethora of stakeholders, is a macro curricular proposal that reflects, develops and implements the concepts and guidelines articulated in a number of important international documents. Chief among these instruments are: the *Declaration and Programme of Action* of the Vienna World Conference on Human Rights (1993); the *Declaration and Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education* (1995); the Report “*Learning: The Treasure Within*,” produced by a UNESCO commission under the leadership of Jacques Delors (1996), and the *United Nations World Programme for Human Rights Education* (2005-2007).

The rest of this chapter synthesizes arguments taken from the educational proposal in favor of a comprehensive, all-encompassing approach to selecting and introducing human rights content in the curriculum for students in this age group. The learning is classified as: information/knowledge, values/attitudes and skills/abilities. Section II describes key methodological features and sources of information for the research on curricular content and activities; Section III gives a regional synthesis of the results. As in previous reports, the last two sections offer conclusions and recommendations developed by the Institute, reflecting insight that has evolved over the course of 25 years working in the broad field of education in and for human rights and life in democracy.

Human rights, schools and manifestations of the curriculum

Many points of consensus can be found in a dozen different international and inter-American instruments, most of them signed and ratified by the States of the region, and commitments acquired at world conferences held in the last decade of the 20th century (especially in Montréal, Vienna, Beijing and Durban). In general, these instruments take a firm regulatory and political stance in favor of the education sector as the place best suited for making human rights a reality. They unequivocally state

² To simplify the text, this Report will use the abbreviated term “educational proposal.” The full name of the Institute document is *Curricular and methodological proposal for incorporating human rights education into formal schooling for children from 10 to 14 years of age*. A preliminary version for discussion and enrichment was introduced to participants in the 24th Interdisciplinary Course on Human Rights in September 2006 in San Jose, Costa Rica.

that education is a right that the States must guarantee to all citizens, and at the same time, that one of the objectives and features of education is the full development of the human being and strengthening respect for human rights.

Education and human rights are closely intertwined and help define one another. By giving education a new purpose, human rights help define its goals and content and distinguish it from other processes that serve as mere socialization, transmission of information and exercise of social control. Education becomes a place for building meaning and restructuring legitimacy. It contextualizes and defines the scope of human rights, distinguishing them from other bodies of knowledge.

Certainly, education is colored by the characteristics, dynamics and problems of society; in practice, it duplicates the contradictions of surrounding society and is a place for students to contrast different views of reality including such issues as rights, values and the exercise of democracy. This is why neither the school nor anyone involved in it can sidestep its role in developing principles and values associated with human rights and democracy. They do so either positively or negatively, by action or omission, consciously or all unawares, because their actions express much more than the explicit curricular content, conveying values and attitudes, models and behaviors.

The role of the school in this field has its limits because human rights instruction does not depend exclusively on formal education. Many other members of society are involved as well, transmitting information, beliefs, values and behavioral models. The work of the school is affected by conditions in the social order that either guarantee or deny widespread material and symbolic participation in society and its benefits (nutrition, health, housing, employment). These conditions cannot be replaced or modified by the action of educational institutions, but it would be a mistake to underestimate the contribution that schooling makes to forming individuals able to value human rights theory, give meaning to its principles and act in its defense.

This is why the school must be a place where people are exposed to principles and methods consistent with human rights and can acquire and exercise the knowledge, attitudes and skills needed to analyze reality with an autonomous, critical eye. It will happen best in a setting where different world views come together and can be contrasted through democratic rules and ethical procedures.

Education takes place in every aspect of the school program: formal courses and other training activities, institutional and interpersonal relations in the institution, relations with the educational community and social setting. Education also involves factors that are not part of the school program; while present in the consciousness and action of all students, they are not taught in school. This is why it is important to recognize at least three types of content that play a part in education; they comprise what is properly known as *manifestations of the curriculum*:

- i. curricular content found in plans, programs and texts: the *explicit curriculum*;
- ii. content that is silenced and is not addressed by the educational process: the *null curriculum*, and
- iii. learning that derives from daily institutional and interpersonal relations among all members of the school environment, including relationships between the educational institution and the surrounding community: the *hidden curriculum*.

Human rights education is an ever-present factor in every component of the school environment. It inevitably has an impact on all the different, complex manifestations of the curriculum and does so consistently. It begins with the explicit inclusion of human rights content in courses, textbooks and teaching tools, and extends to the complex world of institutional relations that has such a critical impact on student development. This includes relations of authority inside the school—between teachers and students, among students, and between the school, the family and the local community.

Purposes, content and principles of human rights education

Purposes of human rights education

The ultimate goal of human rights education is inspired in the principles set forth in relevant international instruments. Its theoretical development is the work of the still-young discipline of Human Rights Pedagogy, and it draws on the findings of experiments conducted worldwide and in Latin America by a plethora of entities, especially human rights NGOs, that have undertaken impressive efforts of many kinds in the field of HRE over at least the past quarter-century.

The ultimate goal of human rights per se is to build societies where human dignity is not trampled upon. In this framework, the eminently subjective goal of human rights education is for every person to be recognized as a subject of rights, able to exercise and defend them and, at the same time, recognize and respect the rights of others and behave accordingly.

With the passage of time, the concept of human rights has steadily expanded, and the notion of its comprehensive, interdependent nature has taken root. Consequently, the purposes of human rights have been enriched as defined from the perspective of the subject, and the role of human rights education has become more complex. In addition to serving as an instrument for preventing the violation of fundamental rights, education must also become the engine driving individual and social transformation, building citizenship and making democracy a reality.

As it works toward these goals, HRE pursues several simultaneous purposes consistent with the multidimensional concept of human rights. These are general guiding principles that must be shared by any individual program. They involve instilling universal values that sustain the dignity of the person (ethical purposes) and also include training in analysis and evaluation of the real world based on parameters of values and norms (critical purposes). Finally, they must inspire an active commitment to transform certain aspects of reality, both individual and social, that interfere with the full exercise of human rights (political purposes).

Purposes of human rights education	
Ethical	Instill universal values that sustain the dignity and rights of persons.
Critical	Teach students to take a critical view of themselves and the surroundings in which they live and work, from the nearest and most immediate to the most distant and mediate.
Political	Train students to envision necessary social changes and bring them about.

These purposes form the horizon of human rights education and must never be forgotten when the objectives are designed for any specific program. They need to be explicitly adapted to the characteristics of recipients and to the surrounding context.

The most comprehensive principle—*education in and for human rights and life in democracy*—clearly espouses an attitude and an action whose first purpose is to impart a *philosophy*: the recognition of human rights. The second purpose is to engender *concrete practices* in terms of both action and relationships among subjects who respect one another as equals in dignity and rights and who conduct themselves autonomously, critically and responsibly, guided by principles of ethics and solidarity.

The content of human rights education

When selecting content for any particular human rights education program, it is important to consider different *levels of content*; they can be visualized metaphorically as successive layers of increasing specificity:

- The *macro-content*: the most general, all-encompassing layer, made up of broad categories of components indispensable for intended training; this content should encompass many kinds of

learning (cognitive, affective and procedural or pragmatic) in response to the comprehensive, multidimensional nature of both the object of knowledge (human rights and life in democracy) and the purposes being pursued (ethical, critical and political).

- The *meso-content*: this entails a first selection of particular content that gives meaning to the classes or categories defined at the macro level; such content includes specific knowledge shaped by the disciplines that encompass each object of knowledge, and it is always evolving. It is the level most appropriate for the bodies of knowledge accumulated through history, the broad thematic pillars, the concepts, the history of disciplines, the arguments and controversies of scholars and researchers, the dilemmas and quandaries, the scales of values and their tensions, and the operational skills demanded by the practice of these knowledges.
- The *micro-content*: this is the level of greatest specificity and detail, selected according to the particular qualities of each educational setting (national and local) and the concrete subjects of education, analyzed with the greatest possible degree of individualization.

The latter two levels of content, regardless of their specific differences, must not be limited to simple juxtaposition or accumulation of information. They should be a web of interrelated meanings, organized in such a way as to guide participants in the educational process toward apprehending and giving their own meaning to the field of knowledge of human rights and democracy.

The *macro-content* of human rights education consists of three levels or categories of components:

- *Information and knowledge* on human rights and democracy.
- *Values* that underlie the principles and norms of human rights and democracy, and attitudes that are consistent with these values.
- *Skills or abilities* for effectively putting the principles of human rights and democracy into practice in daily life.

The *Macro-content* can be visualized from two related and inseparable perspectives, two sides of the same coin:

- Seen from the perspective of the object of knowledge, macro-content refers to the many dimensions of the concept of human rights, just as it was (and continues to be) constructed by society over the course of human history, that the educational process seeks to reconstruct and thus understand.
- From the perspective of the subject or recipient, macro-content refers to the dimensions of the human being that the educational process seeks to engage and mobilize.

Perspectives	Content		
	Information and knowledge	Values and attitudes	Skills or abilities for action
According to the object of knowledge (HR as a social construct)	<i>Dimensions: historical, socio-political, legal</i>	<i>Dimensions: axiological, ethical</i>	<i>Dimensions: practical, individual, social</i>
According to the cognizant subject	<i>Dimension: cognitive</i>	<i>Dimensions : affective, moral</i>	<i>Dimension: pragmatic or procedural</i>

Any program whose purpose is to educate in human rights must design and conduct processes that will facilitate teaching and learning in all three categories of content, using methods that are appropriate to the specific nature of each one.

The following table displays in greater detail the content of each component or category of macro-content.

Macro-content of human rights education

Information and knowledge	Values and attitudes	Skills or abilities for action
<p>Teaching comprehensive handling of:</p> <p>Concepts: categories of analysis, principles, standards, logic of argumentation, confrontation of ideological positions, etc.</p> <p>History: origin, evolution and landmarks in the recognition and effectiveness -- or breach -- of human rights, democracy and rule of law in the world, the region and the country: content, background, influences, protagonists, results, effects, consequences, etc.</p> <p>Legal provisions: human rights instruments, international and regional documents of different kinds and varying legal effect, national legislation, etc.</p> <p>Institutions: forums for protection of national, regional and universal rights; structure, function, procedures, etc.</p>	<p>Instilling an appreciation and willingness to act in accordance with the universal principles that underpin the dignity and rights of persons.</p> <p>The central core of values is set forth in human rights instruments developed and upheld by the international community:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Life and personal safety – Human dignity – Identity – Freedom and responsibility – Equality and freedom from discrimination – Justice and equity – Solidarity and cooperation – Participation – Pluralism – Human development – Peace – Security 	<p>Development of skills necessary for the full exercise of human rights and the practice of democracy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – For critical thinking – For communication and effective argumentation – For participation and cooperative work

In summary: to educate in human rights is to develop the **knowing**, the **wanting** and the **being able to act** for the defense of human rights and democratic principles. It is a task that should mobilize the intellect, feelings and will -- a comprehensive task for comprehensive human beings.

Principles for selecting specific content

The body of specific content must be carefully selected if teaching is to be effective for the group and in the setting where education will take place. In selecting specific content, teaching programs must always retain the comprehensive, indivisible nature of human rights.

To meet this need, Abraham Magendzo³ proposes three broad principles that will help in selecting and organizing micro-content and meso-content for any human rights education program:

- *Principle of social historicity*: knowledge of human rights is a knowledge that exists in a historical and social context, subject to change and with connotations that vary across time and space. If we hope to be relevant and meaningful to students, contextual historicity is a critically important yardstick.
- *Principle of reconstruction of knowledge*: The rationale of human rights knowledge is built on the personal and collective experience of its learners; they reconstruct it for themselves as they attach its meaning and order to their own experience. This is why it is important to include content that will trigger in the students' minds a full range of other meanings, in both number and kind, that are relevant to their own development, experience and preconceived ideas.
- *Principle of integration*: along these same lines, it is preferable to select content that will help students more easily interrelate concepts gleaned from different areas of knowledge and apply them to their own lives and experiences. The idea, then, is to help students build a systematic, progressive web of meanings that reflect the interwoven nature of human life itself.

Characteristics of specific content in human rights education

These three principles will be of help in selecting and organizing meso- and micro-content for human rights education; but it is also important to understand that the content will assume particular characteristics dictated by each individual school setting.

For the most part, school content and teacher training reflect the state of knowledge in each technical field (mathematics, biology, history, geography, etc.). The conceptual frameworks in these disciplines, validated by specialists, are carried over into classroom instruction. The teaching of human rights imparts knowledge whose characteristics are quite different from these others, and such differences need to be taken into account.

Human rights concepts are *polisemic and debatable* because they derive from a great variety of disciplines (legal science, political science, social science and philosophy). Even within each discipline, they can be interpreted from different theoretical perspectives.

This content is also *resignifiable* and may be taught in situations of conflict, which inevitably means taking positions that should be based on rational argumentation, valid information and theoretical references.

Content always *makes reference to tensions and conflicts* that are present in real life (such as tension between freedom and equality, between public interests and private interests, between the common good and the individual good, between freedom and order), and that reflect situations of life in which different, often contradictory interests and visions come into play.

The central concepts for teaching about human rights (citizenship, State, democracy, and so forth) *are historical constructs* open to redefinition and whose meaning may vary in diverse social settings. They need to be introduced in the social and cultural context in which they arose and where they acquired their meaning. As they are put into use, they will develop and change, and this change needs to be watched closely.

Principles and concepts of human rights *attach to reality* in many ways: they serve as tools to analyze, evaluate and judge social situations; they legitimize action in defense of human rights, and

³ Magendzo K, Abraham, *Currículo, escuela y derechos humanos. Un aporte para educadores*. PIIE and Universidad Academia de Humanismo Cristiano, Santiago, Chile, 1989. Pg. 28-35.

they inspire the texts of positive law (covenants, conventions, laws, etc.) that in turn can be used to analyze, judge and make concrete decisions on particular social situations. This is why human rights are a body of conceptual knowledge that has its roots in reality and culminates in action. Indeed, the above discussion on the purposes of human rights education stated that human rights are a yardstick for critiquing the present order, guiding development of legal frameworks and creating ways to intervene in the social world; they restore the value of learning to coexist and work with others.

Finally, the notions involved in human rights have certain disciplinary and theoretical meanings; they also have *varying meanings in the realm of collective representations*, or meanings that take shape at the crossroads of images, beliefs and values and are transmitted by the most diverse social agents (the family, the media, the surrounding community, peer groups).

These specific characteristics of human rights principles and content need to be considered when selecting material for the school curriculum and when designing ways to teach it. For example, instructional programs need to include many approaches and theories in the field of human rights; educators must be familiar with this array of methods and use them in the classroom. The program must question students about their earlier opinions and ideas concerning real situations and encourage them to analyze these situations from the perspective of human rights knowledge. Questions should arise about the functioning of the school culture and needs that the community and the students express and that have an impact on social representations. Students should be prodded to question the “obvious,” the reasons for the “habitual” and the meaning of socially accepted “common sense.”

Modes and types of curriculum change

Human rights and democracy: knowledge and cross-cutting practices

As was stated above, Human rights and the principles of democracy are present in every phase of human life and, therefore, in school life. They cut across the social environment, the school as an institution and the disciplines taught therein. They are present in educational institutions because they apply to all settings and practices, and their content can be found in all different areas of teaching, from social science to natural science.

Accordingly, the school is a microcosm of daily coexistence where conflicts arise and are resolved using discourses and practices that generally reflect the principles of human rights and democracy. In this interplay of norms, behaviors and values, any contradictions between discourse and practice become readily apparent. Some specific mechanism needs to be selected for incorporating human rights issues into the curriculum, and such a decision requires critical consideration of the full array of practices found in the school.

The dovetailing of material can be very valuable as it will enrich teaching. It provides a means to guide and expand the educational value of school subjects that have traditionally existed as separate islands. This lends unity to the program of each individual school. Human rights content is useful for reformulating and combining subjects already present in the curriculum, from a new perspective.

For all these reasons, the introduction of HRE into the school requires clear curriculum design, which means:

- adopting a particular organizational format;
- establishing explicit content appropriate to each grade level;
- setting out specific objectives for learners;
- assigning teaching times;

- recommending learning activities;
- including cross-cutting designs;
- distributing teacher responsibilities, and
- defining evaluation strategies.

Types of curriculum enhancement

In general terms, there are two basic ways to begin introducing human rights and democracy education into the school curriculum: (i) the *cross-cutting mode*, penetrating all the activities and disciplines in the school, or (ii) the *disciplinary or specific mode*.

There are different types of enhancement that can be used under either of these modes, as briefly described below. The first three pertain to the cross-cutting mode, while the fourth, applied under the disciplinary mode, creates a specific item on the curriculum.

Specific themes or topics in other areas of the curriculum:

This method identifies certain themes or topics within existing curriculum subjects that lend themselves to analysis from the perspective of human rights principles and provisions.

Examples include:

History, when teaching about struggles for human rights and for the rights of specific populations (women, children, indigenous peoples, other ethnic groups), warfare and peace processes and migration.

Civics or Life in Democracy could include examination of the public square, the rule of law, political participation, wealth and the distribution of goods and discrimination.

Language and Literature could focus on uses of language, argumentation, discourse in the media, culture, language and cultural identity and intercultural communication.

Special projects or workshops on specific problems:

These are short-term educational activities supervised by one or more teachers. They may take place within an individual school, as an interscholastic activity, or in conjunction with a community institution.

Workshops can be designed in response to concerns being expressed by students or present in specific schools or the surrounding community, or to address current events being covered by the media that are influencing public opinion.

Workshops can provide a useful platform for more in-depth discussion of the concepts of human rights. They are a vehicle for learning study procedures commonly used with this type of material and applying them to specific problems and contexts: case analysis, methods of conflict resolution, strategies of argumentation, debate.

The curriculum table given in Appendix 1 offers examples of possible topics for this age group, under the column *Real-life situations and problems*. Projects or workshops that develop human rights issues based on real-life situations and problems must always include the teaching and learning of human rights knowledge, values and attitudes, as well as specific skills and abilities.

Daily situations as sources of learning:

This method seizes on experiences, cases or concrete situations experienced in a school or community as a point of departure for teaching human rights topics.

Group conflicts, institutional decision-making in the school, unresolved problems in the outlying community or news on external events often provide fertile ground for applying principles, developing guidelines for action and experimenting with forms of participation and organization.

A specific item in the curriculum:

This type of approach develops human rights content as a *separate subject* or as a *substantial portion of another subject* with which it is considered compatible (such as civics or social studies).

Creating a separate slot in the curriculum for human rights offers a number of advantages. For example, it clarifies priorities as to which teachers should be selected for specific training.

Proponents of this alternative claim that the curricular tradition of dividing studies into separate disciplines is so deeply rooted that any attempt to teach something outside these lines inevitably dilutes the content and blurs responsibility.

Disciplines that are given status and position in the curriculum attract teachers interested in delving more deeply into their own specialization; this in turn can trigger the use of more advanced teaching methods, text materials and evaluation systems.

The curriculum modes as described here are not mutually exclusive. In fact, in order to preserve the comprehensive nature of human rights and conduct an effective training process, it would be best for *multiple approaches to coexist in a single school*. In this way, human rights topics are guaranteed a clearly defined place in the curriculum where they can be introduced and analyzed very specifically; and at the same time, the school can offer a cross-cutting approach that clearly highlights human rights issues and tackles human rights problems in many different spheres of human life (represented in the school by separate disciplines).

Table of suggested curriculum content for each grade level and stage of development ⁴

Appendix 1, developed in accordance with the broad macro-curricular framework described above, presents a table (meso-curricular matrix) outlining suggested intermediate content for use in formal human rights education among children from 10 to 14 years of age. This table serves as a *minimum template of essential content* for human rights education *relevant* to the hemisphere's great problems and needs in this field, and *adapted* to the interests of the targeted age group. Because it is a meso-curricular proposal, it cannot be applied blindly to any particular educational system or program. It must be preceded by the development of a detailed grade-by-grade micro-curriculum reflecting the characteristics of each specific teaching environment. In other words, it needs to be:

- *adapted to each school grade and, even more, to each target cultural group* (for example, urban, semi-urban or rural groups; groups that are ethnically homogeneous or diverse; groups of Hispanic, indigenous or Afro-Latin American descent, to name only a few significant variables);

⁴ The text summarizes one section of the IIHR educational proposal. The full-length document develops arguments more extensively and cites background information and sources of documentation for the proposal.

- *fitted to the guidelines and content of each country's official complete curriculum*; this means it must be consistent with content the students have received in years previous to the age targeted by this proposal (before age 10, for example), and to material that will be taught afterward (after age 14, depending on the particulars of the official curriculum), and
- *adapted to the national educational system's particular approach for incorporating human rights education*. For example, if the decision is made to incorporate it using the *discipline-based approach* (assigning a specific slot in the curriculum), the suggested content would need to be concentrated under a single subject or part of a subject. If the cross-cutting approach is adopted instead, the suggested content is distributed among other academic subjects or institutional mechanisms, including extracurricular activities.

The table provides a detailed breakdown of the particular content that gives concrete expression to the broad categories of components (macro-components) of human rights education: *knowledge*, *values and attitudes*, and *skills or abilities*. A curriculum that considers these categories as equal and mutually complementary takes a holistic view of human rights education.

The table includes two other sections containing further information for curriculum designers, teachers and producers of educational materials. The first sets out broad educational objectives for working with the targeted age group. The final section is labeled *real-life problems and situations*. Reflecting another way to organize content, it is particularly suited to the more traditional approach first used to set up educational programs in this field: the problem-centered approach that focuses on cases or situations of conflict found in the global or local environment.

Finally, the proposal can be presented and therefore read in two different ways. One is to begin with the headings given in the curriculum table (objectives, knowledge, values and attitudes) and display parallel descriptions of how they can be developed in the two different groups (10 to 12 years and 13 to 14 years). Another is to separate the two different groups and display the full curriculum for each developmental stage. Both are equally logical and useful. Here we have selected the second form of presentation so as to show how the objectives and different types of curricular content fit together in each of these sub-groups.

Section II

The Report: background, key methodological features and sources of information

HRE reports as profiles

The preparation of an IIHR educational proposal for introducing, expanding and improving human rights education in the schools was based, among other things, on the findings of IIHR research conducted from 2002 through 2005. The purpose of these studies was to measure progress made to protect the right to human rights education in the 19 countries signatory to the Protocol of San Salvador, between 1990 in the first half of the present decade.

The results of these studies can be found in the *four inter-American reports on HRE* published each year and introduced simultaneously on December 10 in several countries of the region. The four reports outline major trends in the region by tracing the presence of HRE in: (i) the legal and institutional sphere; (ii) curriculum and textbooks; (iii) teacher training, and (iv) educational planning at the national level.

The first report studied the inclusion of HRE in *legal provisions and policies*. The study considered four variables: (i) adoption of legal provisions that establish human rights as one of the objectives of education; this may include ratification of international instruments as well as introduction of HRE into the Constitution and laws governing the national education system; (ii) public policies on HRE in the form of executive decrees, resolutions and educational plans and document; (iii) the existence of government offices and programs specialized in HRE, and (iv) indicators on the recognition and effective exercise of the right to education.

The report on progress with the inclusion of HRE in the curriculum traced changes over the course of a decade in: (i) documents providing guidelines and content for the school curriculum; (ii) programs under those school subjects that are most relevant to human rights in the fifth, eighth and 11th grades, and (iii) classroom textbooks for these same grades. In order to measure these three variables, researchers paid special attention to the performance of content indicators on such topics as the State, rule of law, justice, democracy and values in general. A fourth area of interest was: (iv) crosscutting themes on gender equity and ethnic and cultural diversity, and civil society participation in educational affairs.

The third report addressed *teacher training* and considered four variables: (i) legal and regulatory provisions; (ii) the presence of human rights education guidelines in training programs for future teachers and in the university curriculum for teacher education; (iii) the presence of teacher training textbooks that cover this subject, as well as thesis submissions and research projects on human rights by students preparing to be teachers, and (iv) HRE as a part of in-service training for current teachers.

The fourth report, a regional study on the impact of human rights issues in *educational planning*, examined the preparation of national plans for human rights, human rights education and the like. Such planning documents are considered clear evidence that public policies are being developed for the inclusion of HRE as a central component of education, and reveal the basic directions this education is taking. The study looked for clues on such policy considerations as: (i) the origin and strength of the initiative; (ii) the type of institutional structure that had been developed for planning; (iii) the characteristics of the procedure; (iv) the type and variety of interactions among various stakeholders, and (v) the allocation of responsibilities and resources for carrying out final plans. It also examined the following technical details: (vi) the scope of human rights content; (vii) the adoption of priorities

and preferences for use in selecting those rights and topics that would be addressed, and (viii) spheres for educational intervention.

The most significant trends in the region over the 1990s and the first five years of the new century⁵ can be found in the conclusions of each report, while the electronic appendices attached to each one detail trends in each country. For the most part, these trends have run parallel to the processes of reestablishing democracy, restoring civic institutions, adopting constitutional, legal and administrative reforms, and mobilizing civil society for the effective exercise of human rights and the rule of law. Nevertheless, the picture is very uneven from one country to the next; even within single countries, progress is still diffuse, partly because it originates in isolated, incomplete legislative reforms and occasional programs promoted by international organizations. The countries have also experienced systematic breakdown in the quality of education in general and the capacity to invest at levels proportional to the growth of the population demanding educational services.

The study on *legal provisions and policies* found that most of the countries had acquired an international commitment to orient their educational policies toward strengthening human rights and fundamental freedoms and fighting racial discrimination and discrimination against women. New and reformed national constitutions offered broader descriptions of the purposes of education, introducing an approach based on human rights and democracy. General laws of education in half the countries explicitly incorporated human rights principles and content as part and parcel of the educational structure. In addition, special laws (on gender equity, indigenous affairs, children, people with disabilities, domestic violence and the like) were designed for the purpose of promoting, defending and educating in the field of human rights. Nevertheless, very few countries consolidated entities with a clear mandate and resources sufficient to promote public policies, meaning State policies, favorable to HRE.

The study of *curriculum* found an increased number of references to human rights and fundamental guarantees in documents that set directions for the curriculum, in programs for each subject and in textbooks. These references have become more explicit and have progressed from civil and political rights only, to include economic, social and cultural rights and, in some countries, environmental rights, as well as others that have appeared more recently. In some cases, programs introduce a social rights perspective that counterbalances the earlier tendency to focus on individual rights. In any case, curriculum development is lagging far behind the progress States are making in acquiring legislative commitments. This is because progress in curriculum design is strictly superficial, given the shaky development of course subjects and embryonic efforts to develop textbooks and other educational media.

The selection of particular subjects to be included in the curriculum may cover a wide range of topics that can be considered useful for imparting a sense of belonging to the nation and guiding citizen involvement in public life. Coverage is progressive, beginning with values statements that become increasingly diverse and more repetitive in the advanced grades as the curriculum progresses from understanding values as an individual (moral and civic) attribute to seeing them as social (ethical and democratic) qualities. One of the most significant signs of progress in nearly all the countries was the incorporation into the curriculum of issues involving gender equity. In countries with large indigenous populations, the school curriculum increasingly recognizes ethnic diversity and multicultural identity; but the presence and contribution of Afro-descendant populations is not yet recognized, emphasized or valued to the same degree.

⁵ All the reports cover the period beginning in 1990 and ending the year immediately prior to publication, starting in 2001.

The task of *teaching teachers* the pedagogy of human rights is greatly underestimated. Systematic programs are nearly non-existent, both for teachers now being trained, and for those currently practicing. Indeed, teacher training is rapidly falling out of the hands and off the agendas of the public sector. With few exceptions, traditional teacher training institutions (education institutes and normal schools), where they have not disappeared altogether, have lost influence. Their mission is generally being absorbed by universities, where levels of training are perhaps better, but where training programs can easily fall out of step with other components of the educational process. Another inexorable trend is that teaching careers have clearly lost status as prestigious professions, which is of course reflected in the income levels to which teachers can aspire.

The actual adoption of national *human rights plans* and *human rights education plans* has been slow in coming, as measured against proposals and plans of action contained in the Vienna Declaration (1993) and the *United Nations Decade for HRE* (1994).⁶ Indeed they are still too new to be able to gauge their results or effects. Insufficient evidence is available to determine whether a regional trend favorable to the introduction of public policy on HRE has taken root. The study did draw several conclusions showing, among other things: (i) that the initiative for implementing planning processes in the field of human rights came equally from the international sphere –particularly the UNHCHR and UNESCO– and from the national public sector, with little initial participation by civil organizations; (ii) that for the preparation of these plans, many countries set up commissions or ad-hoc councils that held out little promise of producing a permanent institutional solution; (iii) that the procedures have generally been non-bureaucratic, with a preference for advisory-style events of various kinds as an aid in performing assessments and identifying needs and aspirations; (iv) that differences of opinion were systematically resolved by compiling all proposals into a broad whole. This tended to produce plans that were more comprehensive and less selective in terms of themes, beneficiaries, spheres and strategies of intervention and types of activities for achieving results.

The study also looked at the actual content of plans, programs and proposals, when available. The most general finding is that the universal, interdependent and indivisible nature of all human rights is becoming more clearly understood. Moreover, the countries are beginning to recognize the international community, especially international protection bodies, as the natural setting to which they have submitted for the development of legal standards, control mechanisms and possibilities for enforcement.

Key methodological features

Objectives

Researchers first gathered available information, beginning with past HRE progress reports that offer clear assessments of the status of HRE in various spheres. The Institute's main objective in this process is to promote an educational program for incorporating, expanding and improving human rights education in the schools. The working hypothesis was that this program essentially calls for negotiation on content and opportunities within the existing curriculum. With this material, researchers for the Fifth Inter-American Report on HRE set about examining the status and trends of evolving curriculum programs that are being used, or have the potential to be used, for organizing content as suggested in the educational proposal developed by the IIHR.

In order to meet this goal, three specific objectives were set for the research in each country:

⁶ As was stated in Section I, only seven countries undertook the types of programs to which they had committed in the United Nations. In other countries, the challenge was met in a more marginal fashion, reviewing or re-writing national education plans or subscribing to special programs promoted by international cooperation (Values Education, Education for All).

- i. Identify the main features of curriculum design processes; note the level where decisions are made on the macro-, meso- and micro-curriculum, the institutional structure and the procedures for developing and preparing this instrument.
- ii. Analyze changes that occurred between 2000 and 2005 on the curriculum map of content or courses for grades attended by students between 10 and 14 years of age, and identify slots on the curriculum that include human rights content or offer opportunities to include it.
- iii. Examine the progress of human rights content being added to teaching materials, evaluation systems and extracurricular or out-of-classroom activities for these grades and levels.

To determine the current state of *spaces in the curriculum*, researchers used the idea or image of the curriculum map, which in a simplified format gives a clear picture of how courses and other school activities are organized and distributed, and where specific content is developed. This map is a limited space subject to all the constraints typical of a school system (calendar, schedules, actual working time, out-of-school student projects, and so forth). Diverse forms of internal competition take place among participants in the process (teachers, school authorities and others), among different types of principles and beliefs that vie for time and between the work students must do at school and at home (homework, which prolongs learning time). This rivalry is played out as competition for available time, as reflected in total classroom hours. The relative importance of each school subject is reflected in how it is handled in the curriculum and how students respond to it – whether it holds their limited attention through the efforts of teachers and the availability of educational resources.

To study the *relative weight of content* involving human rights in school courses and other activities, the methodology made use of two arbitrary assumptions: (i) it assumed that the full array of courses involving history, social studies, ethics and civics, or their equivalent, is where most possibilities lie for introducing human rights, and that therefore the position on the curriculum map occupied by such subjects would be an indicator of the degree to which such content has been incorporated into education; and (ii) it used the complete educational proposal prepared by the IIHR as a *checklist* on content that, in the form of information, values or skills, would appear in the program of the selected courses, in classroom textbooks and in evaluation exercises, as a second indicator of progress in incorporating the right to human rights education.

Finally, the exercise assumed that the internal configuration of this limited map –as a frame and a distributor of content– is under pressure because of the dynamics generated by internal competition, instructions coming from outside the school (educational authorities in general) and other influences or factors from daily life in society. One of the goals, therefore, was to determine how stable the map is over the short and medium term, given the fact that these dynamics have gathered speed in recent years. This is due partly to initiatives coming from education reform processes underway in nearly all the countries, and partly to the growing influence that non-school factors have in the learning scenario, including the information and entertainment industries.

Selection of the 10 to 14 year age group

An earlier report stressed the complex conditions prevailing in the human rights scenario today and new and serious challenges that are threatening human rights, no longer coming primarily from the authoritarian and anti-democratic exercise of power, but from new, external factors such as transnational crime and social violence. These factors weaken institutions, widen economic gaps and degrade social and democratic values, and they point to the urgency of undertaking special efforts to introduce human rights education in the classroom. Newly developing citizens about to enter public life must be equipped to help renew the values on which culture is built and in which it is lived out every day.

Human rights education should, of course, be present at every level of the school program. It should be approached in a way that is appropriate to the biological, psychological and social development of students and commensurate with their skills.

Without underestimating the underlying argument about the need to include HRE throughout the educational program, the IIHR educational proposal and this HRE report have focused on the age group of children between 10 and 14 years of age, the three final grades of elementary school and the first two years of secondary school, for reasons explained below.

Formal education, regardless of its condition, serves a high percentage of the children and young people in the countries of the region, a phenomenon that is on the rise. Available data suggest that students from 10 to 14 years of age make up 75% of the school-age population.

This age group, posting high rates of school attendance, is located within the segment for which school attendance is obligatory in most countries. At least formally, these young people are targeted by State budget allocations. National legislation directly regulates the schooling of this age group through the ministries of education, which are also responsible for training, certifying and maintaining teachers. Therefore the education of this specific segment of the population, despite changes being urged in recent years, remains under the responsibility and protection of public policy, including curriculum design and provision of teacher training.

The net rate of elementary school enrollment (6 to 12 years of age) in the countries covered by this report averaged 93.83% for the 2001/2002 school year, or 12.07% higher than a decade ago. Public schools took in 81.7% of this enrollment. Net enrollment in secondary school (12 to 17 years of age) was 57.00% and has increased by 22.50% over the same period. Public secondary schools accounted for 64.20% of this enrollment.⁷

Psychological development in adolescence:

Transformations at a time of change

Dina Krauskopf

The goal of human development is progressive personal and social enrichment. Adolescents pursue this goal by acquiring new capabilities that will equip them for positive social coexistence. They learn to assert their own personal needs and take part in collective progress, being transformed as they adjust and integrate (Krauskopf, 1995). The characteristic stages of development that unfold from 10 to 14 years of age are reflected as major psychosocial transformations. It is approximately in this stage that sexual changes begin and puberty peaks. Because of the biological changes marking the end of childhood, health professionals classify adolescence as a period that begins at the age of 10. Most legal systems, however, consider the age of 12 as the beginning of adolescence.

Young people in this stage reassert their definition of themselves, both personally and socially, by means of a second individuation that triggers processes of exploration, differentiation from the family setting and a search for belonging and meaning in their lives (Krauskopf, 1994). Such a situation is particularly critical in today's world, where adolescents are the heralds of cultural change. They demand that the adult world reorganize psychosocial structures and establish new models of authority and innovative development goals. It is a common misconception that adolescence is a time of transition; this notion was functional only in the days when puberty marked a direct passage into adulthood.

⁷ UNESCO EFA: *Global Monitoring Report 2003/04*, in <http://portal.unesco.org/education>, and UNDP, *Human Development Report 2004*.

Finally, most children this age are passing through a growth phase in which they must actively internalize the sense of otherness. They learn to recognize others as distinct from themselves and to understand social relationships as delicately balanced interactions between rights and obligations built on a foundation of values and fitting into given institutional frameworks. This point in the educational

process is ideally suited for incorporating the essential principles of human rights and democracy into the cultural capital of individuals and social capital of groups.

Intellectual development is part of their push to seize a new place in the world. Toward the end of this stage and the beginning of the next, they become interested in new activities, begin to express concern for social affairs and explore their personal capabilities as they move toward autonomy.

Intergenerational relationships provide a way to affirm identity and reinforce processes of greater independence and differentiation. Group identity conditions and transcends the identity of each individual member and provides a place differentiated from the family. The power of the group is one of the defining features of this identity (Martín-Baró, 1989).

Most significant developmental changes

Preadolescence (10 to 12 years): focus on the physical and emotional	Early adolescence (13-14 years): focus on personal and social affirmation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Grieving the loss of the familiar body and the childish relationship with parents</i> – <i>Restructuring body shape and image</i> – <i>Adjusting to emerging sexual, physical and physiological changes</i> – <i>Stimulation by the new possibilities that these changes bring</i> – <i>Need to share problems with parents</i> – <i>Mood swings</i> – <i>Acute awareness of own needs</i> – <i>Ability to perceive greater strengths and weaknesses</i> – <i>Continued importance of play</i> – <i>Acceptance of discipline includes demands for rights and concern for fairness</i> – <i>Affirmation through opposition</i> – <i>Investigative curiosity, interest in debate</i> – <i>Same-sex group relationships</i> – <i>Progress alternates with regression in exploring and leaving behind dependence</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Differentiation from the family group</i> – <i>Parents experience difficulty changing the models of authority they used during childhood</i> – <i>Desire to affirm sexual and social attractiveness</i> – <i>Emerging sexual impulses</i> – <i>Exploring personal abilities</i> – <i>New patterns of reason and responsibility</i> – <i>Capacity for self care and mutual care</i> – <i>Capacity to take a stance in the world and with themselves</i> – <i>Interest in instruments of participation</i> – <i>Questioning earlier behavioral patterns and positions</i> – <i>Concern and exploration of social roles</i> – <i>Transition to co-ed groups</i> – <i>Interest in new activities</i> – <i>Increased interest in romantic involvement</i> – <i>Striving for autonomy</i> – <i>Finding the meaning of the present</i> – <i>Progress in developing identity</i> – <i>Gradual restructuring of family relationships</i>

Specific tensions melt away when parental figures assume their new role as a sturdy springboard for launching their children into wider society. As their children progress through adolescence, they need a good affective relationship and a willingness to redefine generational relationships; this will help them develop differentiation, autonomy and the ability to tackle modern life.

Respect and mutual listening facilitate the development of negotiating skills and constructive interactions with adults, so necessary for entering the life of modern society. Breakdowns in development and in social recognition can produce frightening consequences as adolescent groups assert power in response to an environment that marginalizes or denies them.

Failure to recognize their new needs is often a factor when conflicts arise and problems worsen. Social exclusion, along with emotional deprivation and the lack of tangible options, can lead to despair. The resulting negative convictions may lead to destructive substitutes as young people take refuge in meaningless gratification and impulsive actions that reveal their inner conflicts and even depression. It is important to create opportunities for recognition and hope in order to encourage development and a positive sense of life.⁸

The progress approach

This report, like the earlier ones, has adopted a research methodology whose working approach will facilitate comparisons of State compliance with human rights commitments. Its purpose is to supplement other approaches used traditionally in the field of human rights. It uses the notion of progressive achievement, selecting relatively long periods over which to gauge whether the State is advancing and taking concrete steps to uphold standards of human rights. It can be called the “progress approach” and is associated with the principle of progressive achievement of rights, especially economic and social rights.

Approaches to human rights research⁹

Approach	Orientation	Type of results	Uses
Violations	Descriptive	Identify frequency	Report, defend, advocate
Status	Comparative	Develop indices	Situation assessment
Progress	Forward-looking	Identify trends	Promote dialogue and projects

The progress measurement approach can never replace the job of monitoring, drawing attention to violations, filing complaints and defending rights; nor is it intended to mask setbacks in the achievement of desirable goals. It is innovative because of its potential to portray human rights concerns as *processes*, or phenomena that change over time, rather than merely taking a photograph of the *status quo* at a given moment. This approach helps identify not only the shortcomings, but also the potential to overcome them in the medium and long term and to help various stakeholders in the particular social setting develop shared, complementary priorities and working strategies.

The HRE reports¹⁰ have used this approach and the resulting methodology to track compliance with the commitments set forth in article 13.2 of the Protocol of San Salvador since 1990. The studies have

⁸ Extracts taken from a study of the same name that provides the psychological foundations for the IIHR educational proposal. (See *Curricular and methodological proposal for incorporating human rights education into formal schooling for children from 10 to 14 years of age* (2006), Appendix III. IIHR, San Jose, Costa Rica.

⁹ For a more extensive discussion of this classification of approaches to human rights research, see earlier inter-American HRE reports at: <http://www.iidh.ed.cr> (Center of Pedagogical Resources/Documents and Materials); R. Cuéllar, “La medición de progresividad de los derechos humanos,” in: *Rumbos del derecho internacional de los derechos humanos. Estudios en homenaje al Profesor Antônio A. Cançado Trindade*. Sergio Antonio Fabris, Editor. Porto Alegre, Brazil, 2005; A.M. Rodino and D. Iturralde, “Medir progresos en Educación en Derechos Humanos: Una experiencia interamericana en marcha,” in: *Journal Encounters on education*. Spain-Canada. Vol. 5, Autumn 2004; M. Molestina and D. Iturralde, “La promoción del derecho a la libertad de expresión en el IIDH,” in: *El estado de la libertad de expresión en Centroamérica, México y República Dominicana*. IIHR. San Jose, Costa Rica.

¹⁰ This is also true for other IIRH studies produced in past years. See: Mapa de Progresos en Derechos Humanos, at <http://www.iidh.ed.cr>.

documented prevailing situations with HRE in specific years (1990, 2000, 2005), and placed them in context, such as constitutional and legal reforms. They have drawn comparisons between periods and between countries to infer either positive or negative trends of variation in results being obtained from efforts by civil society, the State and the international community in this field.

The points of reference for research on this Fifth Report were the curriculum map and curriculum content as they stood in 2000 and then in 2005. This is a period subsequent to the one studied in more general terms in the Second Report, and presumably, changes were being made in response to education reform measures and the new general laws of education that had gone into effect. The study completed this documentation process in 16 of the 19 countries signatory to the Protocol of San Salvador. Because of a number of practical difficulties, Guatemala, Haiti and Suriname were not included.

The use of indicators

One of the challenges for human rights progress research is that written policies and laws are very general and abstract, while social practices are specific and concrete. Researchers need to bridge this gap in order to compare the two and measure progress. To meet this challenge, the IIHR has adopted a methodology that uses a *system of indicators*—or *measurable evidence*—for producing a reasonably objective estimation of the remaining gap between the defined standard, which is the desired goal, and the actual situation. This result serves as a basis for determining whether these gaps are being closed.

Although there is no single, unambiguous definition of indicators, this tool has proved useful for revealing changes that have occurred over time in the wording of policies or regulations and in their practical effect. In other words, it points to changes (or trends) in the relationship between modifications in the law and changes in actual practice. Each indicator is merely a sign or symptom of the behavior of the variable, which in turn is an expression of the relationship among variables within a given domain (for example, between laws and public policies, or between policies and behaviors of various stakeholders).

The series of HRE reports was prepared using a system that methodically considers key indicators on legal provisions at different levels (constitution and laws). It then compares this legal and policy content to actual performance, measured in terms of the creation of institutional mechanisms (departments, divisions, institutes) and the implementation of programs or projects. It also studies ways in which these policies and programs have been translated into specific instructions (such as curricula and programs) and how they are being carried out (in textbooks that teachers use in the classroom, for example). The measuring process inevitably overlooks actual performance of people involved (such as teachers) and the short-, medium- and long-term impact of their activities (changes in student knowledge, attitudes and skills). Such phenomena will require some other type of measurement.¹¹

The use of these progress indicators offers a number of advantages for the research: (i) they can be applied simultaneously in all the countries, guaranteeing that results will be reasonably comparable; (ii) they draw on data from *hard* sources, such as legislation, administrative measures, textbooks and official documents, and this lessens the risks inherent in interpreting or handling opinions; and (iii) they measure actual efforts that have been made in each country, so the study is not limited

¹¹ To learn more about these phenomena, the IIHR tested a methodology based on surveys of teachers, students and parents, applying it in Panama and Costa Rica. The results were published in *Hallazgos sobre democracia y derechos humanos en la educación media en Costa Rica y Panamá* (2000). San José, Costa Rica: Inter-American Institute of Human Rights (IIHR) and Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD).

only to results, which depend –at least in the case of education– on factors outside the realm of the research.

A monitoring system

The application of the progress approach and the use of indicators in the field of HRE produces a system for monitoring legal protection of the right to human rights education, the ultimate goal of the Institute's work.

A monitoring system (sometimes known as follow-up in the literature) is an ongoing process that systematically compiles data on a set of indicators (organized into variables, domains and fields, depending on the degree of complexity needed) to give an indication of progress and goal achievement, as well as use of allocated resources.

Monitoring activities take place at regular intervals over the course of the entire intervention. They are usually part of the internal performance management system. As was stated earlier, monitoring for the HRE Reports has been underway for the period 1990-2005.

The IIHR monitoring approach can be described briefly as consisting of the following elements:

- A logical system that clearly defines objectives, means to achieve them, and progress indicators on each one.
- The system must provide all definitions necessary to develop a matrix for the collection and analysis of information, as follows:

Structure of a system of progress indicators

Field	Domains	Variables	Indicators	Means of verification
Body of rights associated with a major theme	Each level of relevant laws and regulations, policy making, and resulting applications	Changes in the situation during the lapse between two pre-determined times Distance from a measurable standard	"Key" indicators that point to trends for each variable over time	Sources of information supporting the proposed indicators: laws, official documents, text analysis, etc.

- A procedure for systematically and regularly collecting evidence to be examined and compared to established objectives; results point to progress, stagnation or setbacks, and are publicized.
- A network of stakeholders (monitors) who have taken part in determining the logical frame and procedures; they are responsible for collecting evidence and for discussing and disseminating results. They participate under the terms of a mutual agreement.
- A central point in the network (*hub*) that receives, compiles, processes and redistributes information and results.

Monitoring is just one component of a program/project management system comprised of at least four procedures: ex ante evaluation, monitoring, impact evaluation and outcome evaluation. In this context, the purpose of monitoring is to explain what is happening, while the purpose of evaluation is to explain why certain things are happening. Impact evaluation examines the effect of interventions, while outcome evaluation reports on final achievements of the intervention.

In the case at hand, it seems best to develop only the monitoring component. This is a task that can be conducted by a broad combination of participants, including intergovernmental organizations and their counterparts in the government and in social organizations. Each of these entities can use the results to perform its own evaluations.

The system *hub* should contain at least the following:

- A database that can store evidence (from the baseline) and receive information that is being generated continuously.
- A system for classifying the information, organizing it in accordance with the logical frame.
- Mechanisms for analysis (valuing/weighing) of the information –both cumulative and new– to determine whether it is contributing to goal achievement.
- An interconnected (virtual) network linking the monitors and connecting them to the hub.

The system should be highly *participatory* so as to:

- Involve users/beneficiaries in monitoring results.
- Incorporate the perceptions (viewpoints, interests) of users/beneficiaries.
- Interact with users/beneficiaries, both to set points of reference and to involve them in designing the system of objectives and procedures.
- Bear in mind the impact of the monitoring process.

The key to an effective monitoring system is its *reliability* which, among other things, can be assured by:

- Complete, objective data collection.
- High quality methodology.
- Functionality of the system.
- Consistency and relevance of results.
- Accessibility of results, including user assistance.

The reports prepared to date have used tables containing the following components:

Data collection tables for the five HRE reports					
Number and year	Field	Domains	Variables	Indicators	
I 2002	Normative development and public policy	1	4	10	
II 2003	Development of school curricula and textbooks	3	6	28	
III 2004	Development of teacher education	4	11	38	
IV 2005	Developments in national planning	3	8	26	
V 2006	Development of curricular content	3	9	28	
Total		14	38	130	

The matrix and information gathering

IIHR partners (both individuals and collectives) in the countries were responsible for *gathering* information. They used a data collection matrix and a research guide. This task took place simultaneously over the course of 45 to 60 days (depending on the complexity of the table) at mid-year (June-July of each year). The process always included a first step of processing to identify changes that had taken place in the performance of indicators over the measurement periods established, and to calculate the significance of these changes in absolute or percentage terms (whichever applied).

In all cases, the information was *processed* at the IIHR in an exercise that mostly entailed synthesizing, standardizing and comparing research findings. The team also discussed whether findings were relevant for answering the critical questions of the research. The working hypothesis was tested, and decisions were made on how best to display findings. After producing a regional report that goes

into circulation in December of each year, and receiving and considering comments and observations, a synthesis will be prepared of information collected for each country, according to indicators and variables. This synthesis will be included as an appendix to the bilingual version of the report and used as input for preparing a final consolidated version of all the reports (now in preparation).

Table 1: Matrix for the Fifth Report

Domains	Variables	Indicators for 2000 and 2005	Means of verification
I: Process of curriculum design	1. Level of decision-making	1. National	Legislation, official documents, rulings or memoranda from the Ministry of Education
		2. State, provincial, municipal	
		3. Local and school	
	2. Institutional responsibility for curriculum design	1. Professional level of curriculum designers	
		2. Development and preparation of curriculum	
		3. Responsibilities of the Curriculum Department or Division	
II: Curriculum slots for 2000 and 2005	1. Courses for 12-year programs	1. Map by grades	Study program
		2. Curriculum format and design	Curriculum for all subjects
	2. Course load (hours) of the map	1. Classroom hours by grade	
	3. Human rights content	1. for 10-year-olds	
		2. for 11-year-olds	
		3. for 12-year-olds	
		4. for 13-year-olds	
		5. for 14-year-olds	
III: Teaching resources for 2000 and 2005	1. Presence of human rights content in schoolbooks	1. for 10-year-olds	Textbooks
		2. for 11-year-olds	
		3. for 12-year-olds	
		4. for 13-year-olds	
		5. for 14-year-olds	
	2. Presence of human rights content in graded assignments	1. for 10-year-olds	
		2. for 11-year-olds	
		3. for 12-year-olds	
		4. for 13-year-olds	
		5. for 14-year-olds	
	3. Extra-curricular activities	1. Visits to government institutions	Recommendations of the Ministry, memoranda, interviews with administrators and teachers
	4. Special commemoration days	1. On ethnic diversity	
		2. On gender equity	
		3. Others associated with human rights	

Sources of research data

As was stated, this report draws its information mostly from the findings of studies conducted by local researchers. The availability of information varies from one country to the next; the final results in terms of responses can be broken down as follows:

Table 2: Density of information received for the Fifth Inter-American Report

Domains	Domain 1						Domain 2								Domain 3													
Variables	V 1			V 2			V 1	V2	V 3 to the nth						V 1					V 2					V3	V 4		
Indicators	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	1	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	1	2	3
Argentina	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	✓	✓	✓	✓	√7	√7	√7	√7	√7	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Bolivia	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	✓	✓	✓	✓	√7	√7	√7	√7	√1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	◊	◊	✓
Brazil	✓	✓	✓	◊	◊	◊	✓	◊	✓	◊	√9	√9	√9	√9	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	✓	✓	✓	✓
Chile	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	•	◊	√11	√11	√11	√11	√11	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	•	•	•	•	•	◊	•	•	•
Colombia	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	◊	✓	✓	✓	√2	√2	√2	√2	√2	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Costa Rica	◊	◊	◊	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	√13	√13	√13	√14	√14	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Dominican Rep.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√10	√10	√10	√10	√10	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	•	•	•
Ecuador	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√4	√4	√4	√4	√4	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
El Salvador	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√6	√6	√6	√6	√6	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	◊	◊	◊
Mexico	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√4	√5	√5	√6	√6	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Nicaragua	◊	◊	◊	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√8	√8	√8	√8	√8	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	◊	◊
Panama	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√5	√5	√5	√5	√5	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Paraguay	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√1	√1	√1	√1	√1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	◊	◊
Peru	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	√7	√7	√9	√9	√9	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Uruguay	◊	◊	◊	✓	✓	✓	✓	•	✓	√7	√7	√13	√13	√13	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Venezuela	◊	◊	◊	•	•	•	✓	✓	✓	√4	√5	√5	√2	√2	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	◊	◊	◊	◊

References: √: full response ◊ partial response • no response; numbers represent number of courses examined by country.

For the purpose of this study, national researchers were asked to collect opinions by conducting interviews or focus groups of specialists or people with experience. They were told to ask these subjects about the desirability of three different options: establishing one or more courses specifically devoted to teaching human rights; adding human rights content to the teaching of currently existing subjects, and if so, which ones; or establishing human rights as a crosscutting theme running through the entire educational program. They also discussed the advantages and disadvantages of each option.

It was important to consider where HRE could be introduced into the current curriculum and determine what human rights (or related) content was already present. For this purpose, researchers needed to consider a full ensemble of official documents, along with course content and textbooks, as seen in Table 3.

Table 3: Number of official documents, programs, textbooks and interviews used as sources of verification

	No. of official documents	No. of course programs per age group	No. of textbooks per age group¹²	No. of experts interviewed
Argentina	2	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 35	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 4 per age	7
Bolivia	5	10 and 11 years: 14 12 and 13 years: 14 14 years: 1	10 and 11 years: 3 per age 12, 13 and 14 years: 2 per age	3
Brazil	3	10, 12, 13 and 14 years: 36	N/A	9
Chile	1	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 55	10 and 11 years: 2 per age 12 years: 1 13 years: 3 14 years: 0	1
Colombia	5	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 10	10, 11 and 12 years: 2 per age 13 and 14 years: 1	1
Costa Rica	1	10, 11, 12 years: 39 13 and 14 years: 28	10 and 11 years: 1 per age 12, 13 and 14 years: 2 per age	2
Dominican Republic	7	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 50	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 2 per age	7
Ecuador	1	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 20	10 years: 3 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 4	3
El Salvador	4	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 30	10, 11 and 12 years: 1 per age 13 and 14 years: 2	3
Mexico	6	10 years : 4 11 years: 5 12 years: 5 13 years: 6 14 years: 6	10 years: 5 11 years: 4 12 years: 11 13 years: 12 14 years: 8	3
Nicaragua	0	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 40	10, 11, 12 and 13 years: 1 per age 14 years: 0	2
Panama	3	10 and 11 years: 10 12, 13 and 14 years: 15	10 years: 4 11 and 12 years: 5 13 years: 7 14 years: 3	21
Paraguay	1	10, 11, 12 years: 3 13 and 14 years: 2	10 years N/A 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 1	5
Peru	5	10 and 11 years: 14 12, 13, 14 years: 27	10 years: 4 11 years: 7 12 years: 5 13 and 14 years: 7	7
Uruguay	3	10 and 11 years: 14 12 and 13 years: 26 14 years: 13	10 years: 1 11 years: 3 12 and 13 years: 1 14 years: 6	5
Venezuela	2	10 years: 4 11 and 12 years: 5 13 and 14 years: 2	10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 years: 1 per age	4
Total	49 documents	538 courses	211 texts	83 people interviewed

¹² Data reflect textbooks for 2000 and 2005.

Section III

Analysis of research findings

Curriculum design processes

The curriculum as a policy cascade

Education systems have a process for adding new content, understood broadly as knowledge, values and skills.¹³ Invariably, this process must consider the full curriculum in all its manifestations (explicit, null, hidden) and at all three levels (macro, meso and micro). Analysis of these manifestations and levels suggests the emphasis and meanings that should be given to the new content, where it should fit into the structure of education (the curriculum map), and how it interacts with other content and with school activities in general. This same analysis also reveals what teaching resources can be used, what special skills the teachers will need and, in some cases, what ranking or priority the new content should hold in the curriculum and whether it should be required or elective.

As stated in the first HRE report, the right to education is guaranteed in the constitutions of all the countries in the region. Although the texts variously use different terms, they all define the nature, purposes and principles of education.

“It shall be the responsibility of the Congress: To enact laws that establish the basis and define the organization of education, consolidating unified national standards while respecting local and provincial peculiarities” (Argentina).

“The national education system shall include instructional programs that reflect the country’s true diversity. It shall include strategies for decentralized administrative, financial and teaching operations. Parents, the community, teachers and students shall all take part in developing the educational processes” (Ecuador).

“The law shall designate a specific State institution to develop and approve the curriculum, instructional programs and educational levels, as well as organization of a national system for educational guidance, all in accordance with national needs” (Panama).

The constitutions of Argentina (Art. 75.19), Brazil (Art. 214), Costa Rica (Art. 81), Ecuador (Art. 68), El Salvador (Art. 54), Mexico (Art. 3), Panama (Art. 92), Paraguay (Art. 76), Peru (Art. 16) and Venezuela (Art. 104) all expressly assert the duties and powers of the State to design and organize education and oversee the processes and entities involved in education. Thus they establish a constitutional mandate authorizing the State to develop laws and policies that lay the foundation for curriculum design.¹⁴

These countries, as well as Bolivia (Law 1565/1994: Education Reform), Chile (Law 18962-1990: Basic Charter

of Education), Colombia (Law 115/1994: General Law of Education), Nicaragua (General Law of Education, 2006), Dominican Republic (Law 66-97: General Law of Education) and Uruguay (Law 15739: Education) have specialized legislation outlining the power of the State to set curriculum guidelines. They also define the powers of national, sectional or local authorities, as well as educational institutions (schools in general) and teachers themselves to design and apply the curriculum.

These same laws, their implementing regulations and, in some cases, official documents produced through the education reform processes of the 1990s create regulatory instruments, generally of an administrative nature such as agreements, rulings and memoranda from the ministries of education,

¹³ The IIHR educational proposal uses the terms “information, attitudes and skills.”

¹⁴ See the classification proposed under the variable *Regulación general de la educación* in the Political Database of the Americas, Georgetown University (2006). Comparative Constitutional Study (<http://www.pdba.georgetown.edu>).

for the delegation of authority. These instruments serve as vehicles to convey curricular instructions issued at higher levels of government for compliance at lower levels, or for approval of initiatives that originated at lower levels and need to be authorized by central authorities.

In short, laws and instructions begin as constitutional principles and trickle down to the level of actual course programs designed by classroom teachers, in a *cascade* effect that has three characteristics:

- As issues progress along the chain, instructions tend to become increasingly complex and detailed.
- As they progress from higher to lower levels, they become less binding.¹⁵
- The distribution of these instructions varies in nature depending on whether a unitary or federal government is involved, on the nature and depth of decentralization of education, and whether it is a more or less interventionist State.

With respect to this third feature, there is great variation among countries with different types of federalism. In Mexico, for example, public education is primarily the responsibility of the Federation, and therefore matters involving curriculum design and implementation are settled, even to the smallest detail, by the federal government. In Argentina, by contrast, education is mainly the responsibility of provinces, and most control is exercised by local authorities. Great variation can also be found among unitary states. In some cases (Ecuador, Peru and all the countries of Central America), sectoral entities, mainly the ministries of education, have branch offices in the regions, departments or provinces that do little more than carry out instructions from central authorities. In other cases (Bolivia and Colombia), local or regional governments are empowered to organize public services, mostly health and education, and have a relatively broad margin of discretion for following central guidelines or directions and for curriculum design.

Most of the countries continue to use an education management model in which the greatest share of authority to define every detail of the process is centered on the national or intermediate-level public sector. A few, especially Chile and Colombia, are applying a policy to delegate this power to educational institutions at the basic level (schools), whose character as local-level public entities is being diluted. There is also considerable variation in the degree of priority attached to participation by the educational community and local institutions in making decisions that affect school life. Management of financial resources allocated for education is quite varied, including decentralized and contractual systems.

This tendency to delegate decision-making authority for the education process has its parallel in laws and regulations for organizing curriculum design, which are becoming far less formal and political, and more technical and practical. The trend clearly fits into the framework of changes brought about by education reform. All the countries had essentially completed the design of new systems by the mid-1990s, but implementation is being delayed in many cases due to a number of factors. The proposed reforms are highly complex, especially for a sector such as this, where resistance to change is a powerful force, where insufficient resources are available to cover the cost of reforms and where a number of factions, including teachers, oppose certain features of the reform. As resistance fades, shortages are overcome and opposition is negotiated, it is reasonable to expect that this trend will become consolidated and will have a powerful impact on the role of all the different players involved in developing the curriculum.

The curriculum is the most important instrument available for planning education, and a mechanism ideally suited to achieve the inclusion, modification or expansion of human rights content. The process of designing, developing and applying the curriculum culminates in the formulation and publication of

¹⁵ Compliance with these instructions becomes more discretionary.

far-reaching laws and policies that are to be honored by everyone involved in the process. Every country has its own particular sequence for developing and delegating laws and policies, and these need to be considered when promoting curriculum changes.

The curriculum in the decision-making chain

Research has confirmed that all countries have various means of expressing their curriculum, in terms of both specificity of content and complexity of the instructions contained therein. As was suggested in the IIHR educational proposal, summarized in Section I of this report, these expressions may be understood metaphorically as successive, interrelated *curricular layers*. They take specific names in each different country, and government entities at different levels are responsible for preparing them, although there are a few exceptions.¹⁶

In the 16 countries covered by this report, decisions on the *macro*-layer of the curriculum are made at the national level (ministry of public education) and mostly include the objectives and purposes of education, standards and mechanisms of evaluation, organization of services and teacher qualifications. This national level is also responsible for determining overall content and distributing it through the full curriculum structure, although the degree to which they develop this content varies considerably. In Mexico, at one extreme, all components and levels of the curriculum are defined and authorized exclusively by the highest federal authority (the Secretariat of Public Education). At the opposite extreme, Colombian national authorities issue basic regulations, guidelines and general indicators of achievement, and the next level of development is assigned to educational institutions (schools), which have considerable autonomy.

In between these two extremes can be found a great variety of models that fall into two broad groups: (i) models where the national level defines basic obligatory content at the macro-layer, which intermediate levels put into more concrete, specific form until it reaches the classroom (Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Peru); and (ii) models where the national level specifies and establishes the obligatory portion of all the layers of the curriculum (around 75% of the full school day) and leaves the rest to be adapted and contextualized by lower levels (Ecuador, Uruguay and Venezuela).

The Central American countries define their curriculum using a process that more closely resembles the Mexican model of centralized decisions for all or most of the curriculum layers. The countries of South America have a proliferation of intermediate levels, and individual educational institutions (the schools) are more actively involved. All the countries expect teachers to play a significant role in contextualizing content. It is the teachers who make instruction relevant to the needs and demands of educational processes in the classroom, although still respecting the indicative guidelines of the school and the laws and regulations of the overall public institutional framework. The countries have adopted a variety of mechanisms to oversee teacher initiatives and their results.

Decisions on the *meso*-layer of the curriculum are made by a variety of other entities. Depending on the country, they may be geographic divisions of the education system (districts), political or administrative units with powers of their own (provinces, municipalities), or hierarchical structures reporting directly to the national entity (sub-departments, branch offices). In some countries, this authority to fine-tune the *meso*-layer of the curriculum goes as far down the chain as local educational institutions (schools). The roles of these intermediate entities in defining content may vary, but in general, their goal is to incorporate certain regional peculiarities as reference points for education.

¹⁶ For purposes of clarity, this text will use the term *layers* for curricular expressions and *levels* for each of the entities (from national to local) involved in the education process.

The evidence suggests that in some cases, this is the level where material on ethnic diversity and multicultural life can be added.

The following table, while not exhaustive, shows the relationship between these *layers* of the curriculum and the institutional levels where they are defined.

Table 4: Where decisions on curriculum content are made

Country	National level	Intermediate level	Local level	
			Educational institution	Teacher
Argentina	Universal basic content (federation)	Curriculum design by jurisdiction; 1st curriculum specification, final curriculum design	Institutional curriculum proposal; 2nd curriculum specification	Classroom lesson plans and 3rd curriculum specification
Bolivia	Common core	Department- and district-level curriculum proposal combining proposals from schools	Complementary and vocational tracks	
Brazil	National parameters for the curriculum	Curriculum for secondary education	Detailed instructional designs	
Chile	National curriculum framework Required core content		Curriculum, plans and programs	
Colombia	Technical and pedagogical curriculum guidelines		Institutional educational proposal	
Costa Rica	National curriculum			
Dominican Rep.	National curriculum design			
Ecuador	National curriculum guidelines		Curriculum proposal: 70% required material, 30% local input	Apply proposed curriculum for grade level or subject
El Salvador	National curriculum		Teaching units or modules	Instructional planning
Mexico	Education law; designation of plans and programs; authorization of educational materials and textbooks; evaluation procedures, teacher training	State governments may propose changes in education policy or regulations, or introduce regional content		Organize classroom instruction within official parameters
Nicaragua	All levels of the curriculum			
Panama	Overall design and curriculum for each level	Implementation of education plans for each department	Education plans for the school	
Paraguay	General guidelines and core curriculum	Department-level educational development plan		
Peru	Education policies; basic curriculum design; technical guidelines	Management units communicate guidelines and offer assistance to schools	Adapt and adjust curriculum design and contextualize content	
Uruguay	General guidelines	Specific curriculum	Programs for each subject	
Venezuela	National core curriculum	State curriculum	Teaching program for the institution	Teaching program for the classroom

The local level is responsible for organizing education processes in the school and in the classroom, adapting curriculum content to the needs and concrete demands of users, and matching teaching to the

characteristics of local life. Part of this work is done for the school as a whole, and part is done directly by teachers. As was stated above, some countries place responsibility for the meso-curriculum in the hands of the educational institutions. Sometimes they perform this task individually, while in other cases, they work together with other schools, as within a certain territory, and with other authorities delegated by the central level (supervisors and school advisors). Documents collected from a number of countries expressly assign teachers the responsibility of instructional design and of preparing classroom lesson plans. In all cases, schools and teachers that adapt and contextualize material are required to abide by standards and guidelines issued at higher levels. In some cases, specific plans and programs prepared by teachers and/or schools need to be authorized at higher levels of the decision-making chain.

The following table shows the wide range of entities cited in national reports.

Table 5: Entities involved in setting curriculum content, by level

	National	Intermediate	Local	School
Argentina	Federal Council of Culture and Education	General (provincial) Director of Culture and Education		Individual school
Bolivia	National Secretariat of Education, National Unit of Technical-Educational Services	Department-level councils of education; Education Councils of Native Peoples	Core Directors, District Units of Technical-Educational Services	Educational core, school boards, education advisors
Brazil	National Council of Education	Federal Councils of Education	Municipal Secretariat of Education	School boards
Chile	National Ministry of Education			
Colombia	National Ministry of Education	Department or district secretariats of education		Individual schools
Costa Rica	Ministry of Education: Department of Academic Education, Council of Higher Education			
Dominican Rep.	General Department of Curriculum, Secretariat of Education			
Ecuador	Ministry of Education	Provincial directors of education		Individual school
El Salvador	Ministry of Education			Director and teachers of individual schools; technical education committee
Mexico	Secretariat of Public Education	State governments (secretariats of education)		Teachers
Nicaragua	Ministry of Education			School
Panama	Ministry of Education	Education regions (13 in all)		Individual schools
Paraguay	Ministry of Education	Department-level educational development plan	Ideas are developed locally, after reading the curriculum, then validated by the MEC	Community members and organizations and education experts in general are invited to offer suggestions and ideas that will later be validated by the MEC
Peru	Ministry of Education	Local Education Management Units (UGEL)		Individual schools
Dominican Rep.	General Department of Curriculum, Secretariat of Education			
Uruguay	Central Administrative Council			
Venezuela	Ministry of Education	State education authorities		Schools, teachers

This is the web of entities that build the curriculum and give it concrete form. The task requires them to work together and elicit participation by all social stakeholders and the educational community. The network reveals, first, the degree of complexity involved in adopting or changing such an instrument and, second, the democratic breadth of the processes. The more centralized models tend to employ less complex procedures, at the cost of curtailed participation by stakeholders and their opinions. Other models combine the national and local levels by authorizing the national level to develop technical and regulatory stipulations, and requiring the local level to interact with the educational community (local schools). Most countries have adopted a frankly hybrid model with a broad, diversified intermediate level able to accommodate a high number of institutional and social stakeholders. While this seems to enrich the results, it further complicates decision-making procedures, especially when decisions require the consent of several different levels of authority and social representations whose interests and viewpoints may not converge and need to be bridged.

Several countries of the region, both federal and unitary, have territorial authorities, such as provincial or municipal governments, that have relatively high degrees of autonomy and power over certain aspects of education, and that work alongside local offices of the national executive branch. In these cases, it is not unusual to find overlapping boards, commissions or committees responsible for developing opinions or even conducting curriculum design tasks (meso- or micro-), with all the problems this implies. In several countries, public services such as education and health are provided and supervised according to specific districts or territories mapped out using particular technical and planning criteria, but that do not coincide with administrative and territorial political divisions such as states, provinces and municipalities. Overlapping responsibilities are common in such cases, along with a proliferation of entities making decisions on curriculum adaptation.

Meaningful participation by the educational community takes place most directly at the level of individual schools, including teachers and students, in very close proximity to other local stakeholders such as parents. At intermediate levels, participation is engendered by developing mechanisms for representation by institutions and social sectors. Participation at the national level is commonly achieved using formal inter-institutional mechanisms and holding consultative events and consultations with experts. Each of these levels has advantages and drawbacks and can produce distortions that could be significant.

At all these levels –national, intermediate and local– and in all configurations –permanent and occasional, institutional and strictly consultative– where the curriculum is developed and discussed,

The states frequently hold *workshops* on curriculum issues. State employees and consultants then write up and publicize conclusions (Brazil).

The process was divided into three stages:

1. Investigate the latest developments in social science curriculum: target international curricula, discuss with experts.
2. Develop the curriculum proposal: epistemological, conceptual and ideological rationale on social sciences and teaching theory.
3. Validate the curriculum proposal: workshops with teachers. The team traveled to different regions of the country to discuss the proposal with practicing teachers from department-level educational institutions (Columbia).

The 2004-2005 curriculum reform process followed these steps:

1. Identification of reference points in the national and international setting, assessment studies, drafting of objectives, national consultations (Nicaragua).

there is a clear interplay of widely varying viewpoints and interests. There are tensions and rivalries among technical positions, as when education specialists disagree with specialists in specific disciplines. National, intermediate and local institutions vie to be heard, some of them more immediately involved with the national program, and others more deeply committed to regional or local programs. Authorities square off against teachers, teachers disagree with parents, and so forth. These tensions and rivalries can compromise the use and distribution of resources. However, they also reveal differences of opinion and, in many cases the ideological and political options that prevail in each different scenario. These things are in fact extremely important when making decisions on whether to incorporate, expand or improve human rights and democracy content in the swarm of documents that comprise the curriculum.

The curriculum as a field for participation and compromise

Curriculum content and many other components of the educational process are determined and developed along a complex institutional chain where opinions, interests and expectations by a broad universe of stakeholders are negotiated and reconciled.

Decisions are made by a broad combination of entities whose nature, composition, functions and authority vary greatly, both at the many levels of intervention within each country, and among the countries studied. All the countries have a central entity in the ministry of education, generally known as the department, directorate or division of the curriculum, responsible for developing and modifying the curriculum. This is where technical decisions on curriculum content are made. These entities have other related duties as well, as can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6: Other responsibilities of the curriculum department or division

	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dom. Rep.	Ecuador	El Salvador	Guatemala	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru	Uruguay	Venezuela
Duties																	
Teacher training and assistance	✓	✓	✓	n/a	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓
Developing lesson guides for teachers	✓	✓	✓	n/a	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓
Preparing study materials for students	✓	✓	-	n/a	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-
Evaluating the development and application of lesson plans	✓	-	-	n/a	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-

These technical and administrative entities are staffed by employees of the ministry of education or its equivalent in each country, including both administrative staff and education specialists. They also include a large group of technical advisers specialized in different areas, who come from within the ministry staff, from other ministries or specialized public institutions, or are hired specifically to take part in curriculum design processes.

The basic core of staff responsible for designing and developing a curriculum or keeping it up to date is made up of groups of professionals known generically as *curriculum specialists*. In the 16

countries studied, these groups consist of personnel from the ministries of education and short-term consultants or advisers. The proportions vary from one country to another. Most are professionals with university degrees, both generalists (education) and specialists in different fields (teachers of history and geography, natural sciences, philosophy, social sciences). The teams also include professionals from related fields, such as psychology, and from outside the field of education, but specialized in specific curriculum subjects (sociologists, historians, anthropologists, mathematicians). Available information suggests that candidates for positions or contracts as curriculum specialists must have both university credentials and several years of teaching experience.

At some point in the process, these curriculum specialists serve on peer-based collegial bodies such as committees or councils whose members may also include authorities from the ministry and representatives of autonomous educational institutions such as universities, teacher unions, social organizations, and in some cases, parents and students. These collegial bodies are empowered to gather and receive opinions, hold consultations, organize events and, in general, promote discussion with a broad diversity of stakeholders. The core groups of curriculum specialists generally serve at the national level and offer assistance to intermediate and local levels. Some countries have teams of curriculum specialists at the intermediate level as well, as in the provincial or state governments of Argentina and Brazil.

The long road of curriculum reform

The curriculum is a highly complex mechanism that operates through many manifestations and levels. It is extremely difficult to develop a precise timetable, in the abstract, setting forth an exact procedure for producing and implementing a curriculum. It is equally difficult to identify the specific date when a particular curriculum went into effect in a given country. The versions currently in use in the countries of the region are the outcome of more or less comprehensive processes of design and adaptation. They were all based on earlier versions and emerged in the context of education reform programs of which they were a part. The first processes began in the mid-1990s, and the last did not start up until the early years of the present decade, with the exception of Nicaragua, which began as recently as 2005.

The countries that have already finished took around five years, while others are still involved in consultations and experimentation. All the countries apparently consider them open-ended processes, highly sensitive to political circumstances, changes of government and offers of international aid.

There are many factors that help explain or understand why curriculum design and change takes so long. In the first place, the process is eminently experimental. Second, it needs to be conducted and validated along the entire length of the chain that connects the national level to the local level, through successive operations of adaptation and contextualization. Third, it is best implemented on a progressive basis, introducing a full set of changes into the program of a selected graduating class, leaving older classes unchanged. Finally, there is the matter of continuing education for teachers.

All this needs to be considered if HRE content in the school curriculum is to be included, expanded or improved.

The curriculum map and courses for introducing human rights

How education and education reform are organized

The general curriculum for the education process generally organizes the whole body of learning into cycles, which in turn are divided into grade levels. Content is distributed into separate courses,

within which the available time (course load) is apportioned among the subjects that need to be covered in each course.

The most significant curriculum reform in most countries took place in the second half of the 1990s. A few countries that undertook reform later, in the first five years of the present decade, do not appear with detailed descriptions in this report because the research focused on the 2000-2005 period. Curriculum reform has reflected several very general trends that are significant for human rights:

- i. So-called “basic education” is generally being expanded from six to nine years in length. At least formally, this means that young people in this age group are required to be in school, and the State is responsible for providing oversight and funding.
- ii. The content imparted in each grade is subdivided among a larger number of courses than before. This means that such themes as social studies, ethics and civics have acquired a clearer identity instead of being dissipated among other courses, as in the past.
- iii. There are fewer vocational options in the final grades of secondary school (10th through 12th). In the past, these years were oriented toward an early near-specialization (exact sciences, natural sciences and humanities), and all the programs shared certain general courses on social and political life.

Researchers for this report examined programs in existence in 2005 to pinpoint human rights content on the curriculum map. They recorded courses offered for every grade level, along with the weekly time allotment for each one. For this exercise, they then selected whichever single course at each grade level could be considered to have the greatest affinity to the topic of human rights, based on the content it offered. Finally, they recorded the amount of time that was allotted for teaching about human rights-related topics. The results can be seen in Table 7, expressed in terms of the total number of courses and weekly time commitment for each grade, the hourly allotment of the course with the greatest affinity to human rights, the amount of time scheduled for teaching about human rights and the percentage of content devoted expressly to human rights. It was impossible to obtain complete information on all these points in all the countries.

Table 7: The curriculum map for students 10-14 years old: courses and course load

Country	Information	10	11	12	13	14
Argentina	Number of courses / hours per week	7/20	7/20	7/20	7/20	7/20
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	3hr	3hr	4hr	4hr	4hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	32'	32'	139'	127'	139'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	35%	35%	48%	53%	58%
Bolivia	Number of courses / hours per week	7/28		7/28		14/32
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	n/a		n/a		1hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a		n/a		1'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	80%		90%		2%
Brazil	Number of courses / hours per week	7/na	10/29	10/29	10/29	10/29
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	n/a	3hr	3hr	2hr	3hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a	30'	90'	48'	17'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	n/a	50%	50%	66%	42%
Chile	Number of courses / hours per week	10/28	10/28	10/28	10/28	10/32
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	1hr	5hr	6hr	6hr	5hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	30'	114'	43'	137'	60'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	50%	38%	12%	38%	20%

Table 7: The curriculum map for students 10-14 years old: courses and course load

Country	Information	10	11	12	13	14
Colombia	Number of courses / hours per week	8/na	8/na	8/na	8/na	8/na
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	80%	70%	40%	40%	50%
Costa Rica	Number of courses / hours per week	13/na	13/na	13/na	13/41	13/45
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	2hr	2hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	90'	96'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	20%	38%	38%	75%	80%
Dominican Rep.	Number of courses / hours per week	10/26	10/26	10/26	10/26	12/27
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	1hr	1hr	1hr	1hr	1hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	60'	60'	60'	60'	60'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Ecuador	Number of courses / hours per week	7/30	7/30	8/35	8/35	8/35
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	5hr	5hr	5hr	5hr	5hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	180'	240'	192'	270'	300'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	60%	80%	64%	90%	100%
El Salvador	Number of courses / hours per week	6/25	6/25	6/25	6/25	6/25
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	4hr	4hr	4hr	5hr	5hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	72'	48'	139'	45'	90'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	30%	20%	58%	15%	30%
Mexico	Number of courses / hours per week	8/20	8/20	11/35	11/35	11/35
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	1hr	1hr	3 hr	2 hr	3 hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	60'	60'	180'	120'	180'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Nicaragua	Number of courses / hours per week	7/21	7/22	9/32	10/35	10/34
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	2hr	2hr	2hr	1hr	1hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	84'	120'	96'	47'	52'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	70%	100%	80%	78%	86%
Panama	Number of courses / hours per week	6/28	6/28	8/33	8/33	8/33
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	25%	37%	100%	100%	100%
Paraguay	Number of courses / hours per week	8/37.5	8/37.5	9/43	9/43	9/43
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	3hr	3hr	3hr	3hr	3hr
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	72'	90'	144'	144'	162'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	40%	50%	80%	80%	90%
Peru	Number of courses / hours per week	7/na	7/na	na/na	11/36	11/36
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	2	3
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	47'	88'
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	71%	73%	66%	35%	49%
Uruguay	Number of courses / hours per week	7/20	7/20	11/40	11/40	13/38
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	n/a	n/a	5hr	hr	n/a
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a	n/a	105'	105'	n/a
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	57%	75%	35%	35%	94%
Venezuela	Number of courses / hours per week	6/25	6/25	10/36	10/36	10/38
	Hours per week of the course with greatest affinity to HR	4	4	-	-	-
	Time in minutes per week devoted to teaching HR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	% of HR content in the course with greatest affinity	20%	20%	n/a	n/a	n/a

As can be seen, the mean weekly course load for the five grades covered by this study runs as high as 29.3 hours in the targeted countries. Of these, 2.8 hours per week pertain to courses in which researchers identified a significant amount of human rights or near-human rights material. In other words, only one of every 10 hours that students from 10 to 14 spend in school under the official course curriculum is devoted to the study of courses that, by their nature, offer a setting suitable for discussing problems directly related to human rights. The following table lists data on the 10 countries for which sufficient information is available, and shows that the percentage of time occupied by the selected courses ranges from 3% to 18%.

Table 8: Percent of course load devoted to the subject with greatest affinity to HR (10-14 years of age)

Country	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dominican R.	Ecuador	El Salvador	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru	Uruguay	Venezuela	Mean
% for the subject with greatest affinity	18%	n/a	9%	12%	n/a	n/a	3%	15%	18%	7%	6%	n/a	7%	n/a	6%	n/a	10.1%

Other courses that log more hours per week also offer small amounts of human rights content, including language and mathematics. The human rights content in these courses can and should be increased.

Argentina	Social sciences
Bolivia	Ethics and moral development
Brazil	History
Chile	Study and understanding of society
Colombia	Social sciences
Costa Rica	Social studies
Dominican Republic	Civics
Ecuador	Social studies
El Salvador	Social studies
Mexico	Civics and ethical development
Nicaragua	Civics and social development
Panama	Civics
Paraguay	Ethics and citizen development
Peru	Social sciences
Uruguay	Social sciences
Venezuela	Social sciences (10 to 12 years)

Subjects with affinity to human rights

Researchers were interested in determining the relative weight of courses that have potential for offering human rights content. They drew a sample of several such courses to examine course content in greater detail, selecting for each country that subject in which such content was most abundant.

The percentage was calculated by comparing course content with a checklist of 41 subjects listed in the IIHR educational proposal as knowledge, values or skills. The result of this selection can be seen in the text box.

Researchers found no course expressly entitled “Human Rights” in any country or at any of the five grade levels they examined.

They also looked more closely at the curriculum for courses selected as having the greatest affinity to human rights, asking what percent of that curriculum was devoted to discussing actual human rights content. The results are given in Table 9. Note

that in some countries, the subjects with the highest percentage of human rights content may vary by age of students.

Table 9: Percent of human rights-related content in the courses with greatest affinity

Country	Course selected for analysis	Percent of HR content				
		10 years	11 years	12 years	13 years	14 years
Argentina	Social sciences	35%	35%	48%	53%	58%
Bolivia	Ethics and moral development (10 to 13), Civics (14)	80%	80%	90%	90%	2%
Brazil	History	n/a	50%	50%	40%	29%
Chile	Guidance (10), Language and communication (11), Study and understanding of society (12 to 14)	50%	38%	12%	38%	20%
Colombia	Social sciences (10 to 12), Ethical and moral education (13 and 14)	80%	70%	40%	40%	60%
Costa Rica	Guidance (10), Social studies (11 and 12), Civics (13 and 14)	20%	38%	38%	75%	80%
Dominican R.	Civics	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Ecuador	Social studies	60%	80%	64%	90%	100%
El Salvador	Social studies	30%	20%	58%	15%	30%
Mexico	Civics (10 and 11), Civics and ethical development (12 to 14)	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Nicaragua	Civics (10 and 11), Civics and social development (12 to 14)	70%	100%	80%	78%	86%
Panama	Social sciences (10 and 11), Civics (12 to 14)	25%	37%	100%	100%	100%
Paraguay	Social studies (10 and 11), Ethics and citizen development (12 to 14)	40%	50%	80%	80%	90%
Peru	Personal and social development (10 and 11), Social sciences (12 to 14)	71%	73%	66%	26%	49%
Uruguay	Moral and civics education (10 and 11), Social sciences (12 and 13), Social and civics education (14)	57%	75%	35%	35%	94%
Venezuela	Social sciences (10 and 11)	20%	20%	n/a	n/a	n/a

Clearly, the information supplied in these pages may, and in fact does, mask the presence of references to human rights in other courses. Nevertheless, it clearly reveals the near-invisibility of express human rights content in the full ensemble of the explicit curriculum. It exposes the enormous differences among countries and the relative absence of such subjects in the overall educational process. These matters need to be considered for promoting human rights in the region.

Human rights content

Tracking content

The original intent of this report was to identify the headings under which human rights content is offered. Initial studies found that four components need to be considered: (i) explicit course content; (ii) textbooks used as teaching resources in these courses; (iii) other practical activities scheduled or conducted to supplement the curriculum, and (iv) special commemorations.

Researchers obtained information for content analysis by examining the individual curriculum for all courses taught in each grade. In most of the countries, these curricula did not change from 2000 to 2005, and therefore the analysis does not reveal significant progress. It does, however, provide more

detail for each subject and grade level than the exercise conducted in 2003 for the *Second HRE Report*, when changes occurring from 1990 to 2000 were examined in a smaller sampling of courses. A few countries did introduce some changes during the lapse covered in this new study, but they were minor and generally reflected the same trends as those established in the earlier report.

Human rights content in the course curriculum was tracked with the use of four inter-related exercises. Each of the following alternative methods of grouping human rights content was applied in turn to the body of material explicitly identified in the programs:

- i. Basic subjects: Person, rights of persons and human dignity; equality, difference, discrimination; State, rule of law, individual guarantees and the Constitution; society, culture and coexistence.
- ii. Subject-specific bodies of human rights: civil and political rights, economic, social and cultural rights, environmental rights and the right to development.
- iii. Human rights-related issues associated with concerns present in the educational environment and of interest to the targeted age groups, such as: drug use and other addictions, immigration and poverty, democracy, the media, intercultural life, gender equality.
- iv. A checklist of 41 human rights items taken from the IIHR educational proposal.¹⁷

Curriculum content and classroom subjects

The following tables illustrate topics and concepts that are taught in many different courses in the countries, for the targeted groups. They are classified according to four content fields that were defined during the design phase of the system of HRE progress indicators (2000-2002). Researchers developed this matrix of content fields by collecting a variety of opinions on the minimum knowledge that should be taught in HRE, gathered in consultation with human rights experts and activists from civil organizations. They also adhered to the basic orientation found in article 13 and paragraph 13.2 of the Protocol of San Salvador and the definition of the right to human rights education that the IIHR has adopted for its work.

The person and rights of persons, human dignity	Concepts in the course curriculum	Country	Course	Age
	The concept of ethical rules or principles. The relationship between rules and ethical principles. The dignity of the person	Argentina	Social sciences	11
	Respect for human dignity	Bolivia	Roman Catholicism, Ethics and morals	10 and 11
	Dignity	Brazil	Religious education	11
	Based on Christian principles, express notions of dignity as children of God, present in human rights and duties	Costa Rica	Religious education	12
	Identify foundations of human dignity and the potential for personal growth and development	Colombia	Religious, ethical and moral education	13
	Values and attitudes; personal qualities that facilitate coexistence: identity, individuality, valuing our own personal dignity and safety	Mexico	Civics and ethical development II	13
	Rights and responsibilities: Human dignity; Solidarity; Relationship between freedom, responsibility and commitment	Peru	Social sciences	14
	Recognition and respect for human rights as components of human dignity, and opposition to all forms of discrimination	Uruguay	Social sciences	14

¹⁷ This *checklist* consists of the 29 items expressly suggested in the IIHR proposal as knowledge, attitudes and skills, and 12 additional items implicit in the curriculum of specific courses analyzed.

Equality and difference, discrimination	Concepts in the course curriculum	Country	Course	Age
	Awareness of discrimination based on certain varieties of a language	Bolivia	Language and communication	10 and 11
	Linguistic variations: oral languages, graphic languages, first language, second language, foreign language			
	Discrimination: in our own region/other regions; in the media/school/street/our peers; in adults/adolescents/children	Argentina	Language arts	11
	Values and attitudes: recognizing equality and differences among people	Costa Rica	Language arts	12
	Social and gender inequality	Dominican Republic	Civics	13
	Physical, human and economic problems of the Panamanian population; discrimination against women	Panama	Geography	12
	Equality before the law	Panama	Civics	13
	Freedom, equality and pluralism	Uruguay	Social and civics education	14

State and rule of law, individual guarantees, Constitution	Concepts in the course curriculum	Country	Course	Age
	Composition and functions of the three branches of government in Bolivia: executive, legislative, judicial	Bolivia	Life sciences	10 and 11
	Components of the State; national sovereignty	Ecuador	Social studies	11
	The components of government. Definition of Republic. Components of the Mexican Republic. The Constitution of the United Mexican States: the Highest Law of the Land. Sovereignty	Mexico	Civics	11
	The constitution: origin, content, importance	Dominican Republic	Social sciences	12
	Constitution of the Republic: enactment and fundamental provisions of the Constitution	Venezuela	Social sciences	12
	Political organization. The provincial constitution. Declarations, rights, guarantees. The executive, legislative and judicial branches. Composition and powers of each one	Argentina	Social sciences	13
	Why is it important to understand how the State of Nicaragua is organized and operates?	Nicaragua	Civics and social development	13
	Democracy and the rule of law	Peru	Social sciences	14

Society, culture and coexistence	Concepts in the course curriculum	Country	Course	Age
	Social coexistence and the importance of laws	Mexico	Civics	10
	Constructive and destructive attitudes for coexistence in daily and historical social behaviors	Argentina	Social sciences	11
	Respecting and learning the basic elements of cultural diversity	Brazil	Arts	11
	Human population dynamics: distribution and variety of cultures	Ecuador	Social studies	12
	Societies and cultures through time	Bolivia	Life sciences	13
	Culture and identity			
	Understanding and valuing standards that govern the coexistence of human groups	Chile	History and social sciences	14
	Dialogue and democracy as mechanisms for conflict resolution			
	Introduction to human culture understood as all the values, beliefs, behavior patterns, attitudes and types of relationships that individuals share in a given society.	El Salvador	Social studies	14

These examples clearly show that the curriculum for courses on social sciences, civics and (where relevant) religion all cover concepts that can be associated with human rights. Although this is true for all the ages considered, such instances are more frequent in the higher grades.

This course content is not necessarily being presented in the context of rights, or specifically of human rights; but it does offer knowledge and promote attitudes that can be clearly associated with rights, or that may create opportunities for discussing real-life dynamics and problems.

Curriculum content and types of rights

It is instructive to read the list of concepts taught under the course curriculum, considering them from the standpoint of protected *juridical goods*, as they are called in the international and inter-American instruments and human rights doctrine. Seen in this light, the list reveals an additional opportunity to identify content that could be associated with a human rights education program.

The examples in the following tables were taken from course offerings for students 12, 13 and 14 years of age and from all 16 countries analyzed for this report.

Right to life	
Courses	Examples of concepts
Ethics and moral development	• Respect for life in actions by the State
Religious education	• Laws on crimes against the life and safety of persons
Religion, morals and values	• Valuing life
	• Situations that do not contribute to self actualization: against the right to life

Right to information and freedom of expression	
Courses	Examples of concepts
Ethics and moral development	• Responsibility in exercising freedom of expression and information
Civics	• Freedom of expression
Social sciences	• The right to information: informed consent

Right to health	
Courses	Examples of concepts
Social sciences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health • Taking an interest in caring for ourselves and others • Prevention against practices harmful to health • Right to health • Our diet: foundation of health • Use of health services
Natural sciences	
Technology and practical skills	
Language arts	
Biology	
Physical education	
Science, technology and environment	
Civics	

Right to work	
Courses	Examples of concepts
Social sciences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thinking about work as a means of human signification Workers' rights The technical and social division of labor Social stratification and the social division of labor (as laborers, employees, entrepreneurs) Compare and contrast differences among social groups in Brazil Analyze the causes of labor problems
Life sciences	
Ethics and moral development	
History	

Right to education	
Courses	Examples of concepts
Geography	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explore ways in which education and the press have influenced the building of the Costa Rican State Identify and understand characteristics and problems of the situation of schools and education in El Salvador, and use this knowledge to understand and analyze the ways our education influences the development of our personality
Civics	
Ethics and citizen development	
Social sciences	

Right to cultural heritage	
Courses	Examples of concepts
Art education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cultural heritage Identification of different artistic and cultural expressions Distinguish between national symbols and cultural or historical heritage and learn their meaning
Language arts	
Civics	

Development and the right to development	
Courses	Examples of concepts
Social sciences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Human development and quality of life Identify the characteristics and conditions of underdevelopment and development Quality of life, development models Development and economics

This exercise examined the same courses identified in the previous exercise (social science, physics, religion) and also discovered other courses offering concepts and content related to human rights: natural sciences, language, literature and history. Concepts outlined in the course descriptions reflect a rights approach, and the categories of rights are addressed in classroom instruction. The selected course concepts present this content both as knowledge or information, and as values or attitudes.

This analysis was conducted in only the 14 countries where explicit information was available (Table 10). It was enough to demonstrate the usefulness of the method for tracking content. The result, by country and by age (10-14 years), shows that degrees of inclusion are quite uneven among countries and classes of rights.

Table 10: Human rights concepts / number of school grades in which they were identified

	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dom Rep	Ecuador	El Salvador	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru	Uruguay	Venezuela
Right to life		2				3	1		1			2		1		1
Right to information and freedom of expression	3	2				1			1			2		1		
Right to property	5	2			1		1			1					1	
Right to health	5	2	1			3	2		1	4		4		4	3	1
Right to work	3	4	2		1	2			2	2		2			1	
Right to education		2				1	2		2	4		3	1		1	1
Cultural heritage, identity	3		1			1	1		1		1	1				2
Recognition of ethnic groups		2	1			2	1		2	1	2	3	1	1	1	1
Right to development	3				1						1	1		4		1

Curriculum content and relevant social issues

Issues	Age	Country
Drug use, Addictions	12	Argentina, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Venezuela
	13	Argentina, Mexico, Peru, Dominican Republic
	14	Argentina, Mexico, Nicaragua
Migration	12	Chile, El Salvador, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay
	13	Argentina, Costa Rica, Mexico, Peru
	14	Bolivia, Brazil, Panama, Peru
Poverty	12	Bolivia, El Salvador, Panamá, Paraguay
	13	Bolivia, Panama, Dominican Republic
	14	Argentina, Uruguay

As the IIHR educational proposal indicates, there is a different way to organize content, known as the problem-centered approach. Based on problem issues or situations of conflict in the world or local setting, it is typical of a more traditional means of teaching that was introduced when human rights education programs were first created.

Although this approach is of limited usefulness, it has proved valuable for identifying the ways in which human rights content is organized and developed in the curriculum, targeting the situations that students currently face in their daily lives. Ultimately, these situations are on students' minds and can be used to mobilize their interests and their efforts to learn.

The approach emphasizes both vulnerable groups and passive subjects of human rights violations.

The exercise of tracking program content in school courses was based on a catalogue of current problems that are recommended or proposed for inclusion in classroom discussion as part of the teaching-learning process. The tables record some of the course concepts and examples offered to different age groups.

Topics having to do with *drug use*, *migration* and *poverty* repeatedly turned up in many countries in courses starting at the age of 12. The following examples clearly show that the handling of these issues in the classroom is not necessarily based on a human rights approach. Instruction generally emphasizes knowledge and attitudes needed for responding to problems, processes or situations that are present in the social setting and that call for learning activities to develop awareness and foster prevention measures. In any case, they can be understood as appropriate settings for introducing human rights content.

Drug use, addictions

Civics, Panama- Violence, drug addiction

Physical education, Venezuela - Attitudes: Strengthening self esteem and self confidence as mechanisms for the prevention of smoking, drug addiction and irresponsible sex

Natural sciences, Argentina - Prevention of practices harmful to health (idleness, smoking, alcoholism, various addictions, malnutrition, abuse, pollution, etc.).

Civics and ethical development, Mexico - III. Adolescence and youth: being a student; sexuality; health and disease; addictions; youth and projects.

Person, family and human relationships, Peru - Prevention of addictions

Migration

Social studies, El Salvador

Suggested activities: Guide students to explore geographic, economic, sociological and anthropological vocabulary from the domain of natural and social science. - Use these concepts to expand the following glossary: indigenous, rubber, condor, piranha, similarity, homogeneous, migration, trade, heterogeneous, Patagonia, region, transculturation, mountain range, Amazon, culture, integration, Americas. Present to the rest of the class.

Geography, Panama - Migratory movements, causes. Internal and external migration.

Study and understanding of nature, Chile - Student learning will be evaluated on: recognizing birth rates, death rates and migration as factors in population dynamics useful in predicting future trends in a specific case.

Ethics and citizen development, Paraguay - Learning situations and strategies for evaluation: Immigrants raise the unemployment rate.

Social sciences, Peru - Local and regional human populations. Migration.

Social sciences, Uruguay - Migration to the United States and Europe.

Poverty

Cross-cutting themes, Bolivia - Feminization of poverty: differentiated consequences of poverty for men and women in the family and in society.

Social studies, El Salvador - *Suggested activities:* Neoliberalism and globalization of the world economy, impact on the Salvadorian population (poverty, unemployment).

Geography, Panama - Physical, human and economic problems of the Panamanian population: poverty.

Ethics and citizen development, Paraguay - Groupings, marginalization and poverty.

One particular aspect of real life that especially lends itself to introducing and developing human rights content in the curriculum of a variety of courses has to do with the organization of public life and associated situations and problems. The following table lists a number of topics offered in courses for students from 13 to 14 years of age, although the coverage tends to be extremely diffuse and uneven. All of them are useful for associating human rights knowledge, values and skills with the exercise of democracy and for developing the ability to perceive inequalities and learn to fight them.

Table 11: Other course topics for 13- and 14-year-olds

Topics	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Colombia	Costa Rica	Chile	Ecuador	El Salvador	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru	Dom Rep	Uruguay	Venezuela
Democracy, civics, citizenship	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Memory, dictatorships	✓		✓					✓					✓		✓	
Media	✓							✓	✓	✓				✓		
Gender equality					✓			✓	✓	✓			✓			
Women's rights	✓				✓			✓		✓	✓					

For obvious reasons, it is particularly fitting that the curriculum in Argentina, Brazil, El Salvador, Peru and Uruguay includes lessons on historical memory. Indeed, this should be taken up by all the countries in the region because of its potential for promoting a critical recognition of times and conditions where human rights were systematically violated. It is also a fitting way to promote democratic values and motivate new generations to become actively involved in strengthening these values.

One problem area that is critical in today's world is the press. Studies on the role of the media and its relationship to human rights can provide a useful vehicle for introducing significant content on rights and democracy, as can be seen in the following course listings:

Examples of course content on the media and human rights

The media and democracy: citizen political participation in a Republic. Politics as a calling. Political leadership. Ethics and politics. Political parties: history and features. The importance of the mass media in forming public opinion. Control of power.

Social sciences, Argentina

The importance of the media in the process of building democracy in our country.

Civics and social development, Nicaragua

The media and human rights: Person, society and the media. The media and the right to freedom of expression. Analysis and study of article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Analysis and study of article 6 of the Constitution of El Salvador.

Social studies, El Salvador

The media: Effects of drug use and drug trafficking on society and on the country. Role of the media.

Civics and ethical development, Mexico

Conscience and method: The mass media.

Religious and moral development, Dominican Republic.

Closer family, school and community relations through games and sports. Health: Understanding health as a personal and social good. (Argentina)

Promoting health. Living together with gender and ethnic differences (Brazil)

Special physical fitness activities for people with disabilities. (Dominican Republic)

An additional exercise for analyzing the volumes of available information is to explore concepts that are implicit in the lesson plans for courses apparently unrelated to the subject of human rights, but that may have a significant link to human rights issues. Relevant material was found in the statement of objectives for such courses as physical education or arts and crafts. Three countries of the region provide useful examples of such material in lesson plans for physical education.

Content and the educational proposal

The IIHR educational proposal, described in Section I of this report, brings together a large body of criteria for classifying course content that should be included in a human rights education program for a particular age group and grade level. It emphasizes content of various kinds (objectives, knowledge, attitudes and skills) that should be combined and should interact in such programs.

The proposal also suggests that this content be presented in different degrees of complexity and specification, that is, as broad themes (macro), as more developed groups of topics (meso) and as detailed concepts that underlie classroom teaching (micro). It adds that each body of topics should be introduced conceptually, historically, and in reference to social dynamics present in the lives of students, drawing on issues that normally appeal to students in each age group.

Curriculum studies performed for the educational proposal yielded an extensive catalogue of course concepts that lend themselves to introduction of different kinds of human rights content. Researchers for this study translated the concepts into a checklist that consultants in each country could use as a basis of comparison for analyzing material contained in the curriculum of specific courses and textbooks.

As an initial result of this comparison exercise, the checklist was fine-tuned with the addition of several items that turned up repeatedly in the countries but had not been considered in the original list. The exercise also produced a series of *curriculum maps* by country and age group, containing sufficient detail to reveal the presence or absence of human rights content in the overall set of courses for each level.

These maps are summarized below, in both tabulated and graphic form, to give a broad overview of what is happening in the region. The figures are useful for estimating the mean degree of incorporation of specific human rights concepts in courses.

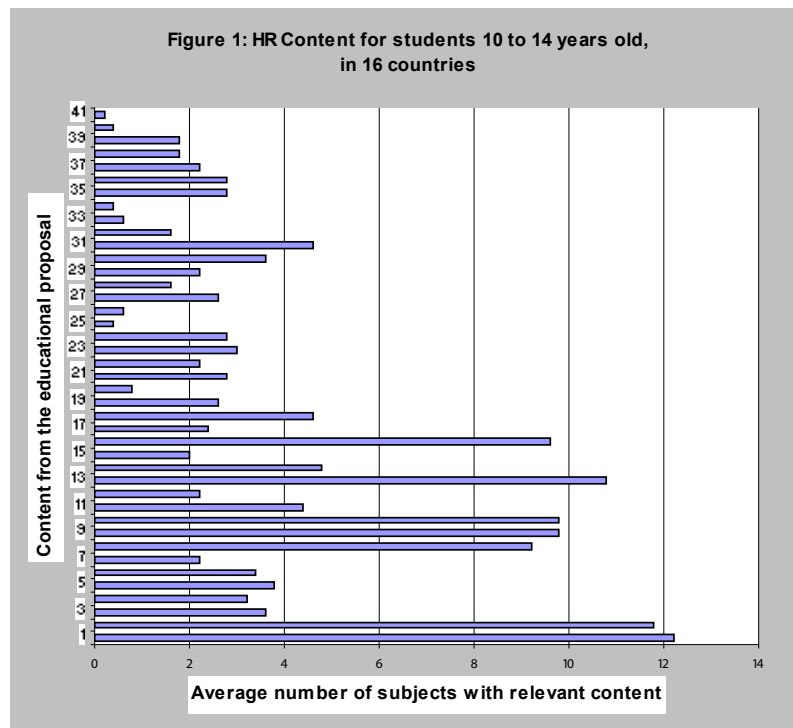
Table 12:
**Course content from the educational proposal,
found in the school curriculum**

Content (objectives, knowledge, values and skills) included in the IIHR educational proposal	Number of countries offering content, by age of students					
	14	13	12	11	10	mean
1. Society and culture, coexistence	11	8	11	16	15	12.2
2. Person and the rights of persons, human dignity	12	8	12	14	13	11.8
3. Environment	12	10	16	16	11	13
4. National and New World history from the perspective of human rights, cultural diversity and gender	4	10	12	12	11	9.8
5. Democracy, civics, citizenship	12	12	11	6	8	9.8
6. State and rule of law, individual guarantees, Constitution	9	10	8	11	10	9.6
7. Equality and difference/discrimination	5	8	10	11	12	9.2
8. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other international instruments	8	2	5	5	4	4.8
9. Children's rights	2	2	6	9	4	4.6
10. Sexuality	8	5	5	5	x	4.6
11. Democratic participation in educational management, student government	4	3	1	3	11	4.4

Table 12:
Course content from the educational proposal,
found in the school curriculum

Content (objectives, knowledge, values and skills) included in the IIHR educational proposal	Number of countries offering content, by age of students					
	14	13	12	11	10	mean
12. Right to work	5	3	3	4	4	3.8
13. Right to health	2	2	3	5	6	3.6
14. Ethnic groups today	5	8	5	x	x	3.6
15. Right to education	2	6	2	3	4	3.4
16. Health	4	8	4	x	x	3.2
17. Drug use, addictions	3	4	5	3	x	3
18. International organizations	3	6	3	2	x	2.8
19. Social rights	6	2	4	2	x	2.8
20. Media	5	5	4	x	x	2.8
21. Migration	4	4	6	x	x	2.8
22. Institutions for the protection of human rights	4	3	2	1	3	2.6
23. Freedom of expression/right to information	4	3	3	3	x	2.6
24. Memory, dictatorships	4	2	3	1	2	2.4
25. Right to life, value of life	2	1	2	1	5	2.2
26. Right to property	1	3	1	3	3	2.2
27. Right to development, development	2	3	3	3	x	2.2
28. Cultural heritage, cultural identity	5	2	4	x	x	2.2
29. Globalization	5	3	3	x	x	2.2
30. Vulnerable groups	1	2	2	2	3	2
31. Poverty	2	3	4	x	x	1.8
32. Gender equality	7	2	x	x	x	1.8
33. Hierarchy and classification of human rights	5	1	2	x	x	1.6
34. Sustainable development	4	3	1	x	x	1.6
35. Participation in community life	1	1	2	x	x	0.8
36. Political rights	1	1	1	x	x	0.6
37. Cooperative movement	0	0	2	x	1	0.6
38. Civil rights	0	1	1	x	x	0.4
39. Important historical figures in the fight for human rights	0	1	1	x	x	0.4
40. Copyrights	1	1	x	x	x	0.4
41. AIDS	0	1	x	x	x	0.2

This table and the figure given below suggest that since 1990, the schools have seen a general trend toward increased coverage of human rights themes and content. They do tend to focus primarily on those issues or basic rights that were already present (mean greater than 9), with much less growth in the introduction of themes related to economic, social and cultural rights (mean greater than 3). Detailed discussion of key social issues of the day is negligible.



The analysis of content from the educational proposal, per age group, found the following:

- *For age 10:* All the countries offer at least some of the topics suggested in the IIHR curriculum proposal, most of them concentrated in social studies. Courses in natural sciences provide certain openings for discussion of topics involving environmental rights, art classes tend to incorporate issues of cultural rights, and in some countries, language arts classes offer a forum for discussing other cultural rights, linguistic diversity and human rights as part of the teaching on some of their main curriculum content.
- *For age 11:* The subject of the environment continues to come up in natural science courses and is often portrayed as part of the right to health. Similarly, references to cultural rights are often made in social studies, art, language arts and music classes. Social studies courses generally take a historical approach associated primarily with teaching about the Spanish Conquest and the life of indigenous peoples at that time. Art, language and music instruction tends to focus more on the customs, folklore and languages of national groups. Although classroom teaching did not take a legal approach to cultural rights in any of the cases observed, the fact that these subjects are already being taught does suggest that an approach more compatible with human rights could be accommodated.
- *For age 12:* All the topics listed for ages 10 and 11 continue to be present and are addressed in more depth; in addition, new subjects are introduced to students in this age group and will continue to be developed in later years, including the study of vulnerable groups (the poor, migrants, addicts). In most cases, teaching on these subjects takes an approach that is more sociological than legal. Nevertheless, the curriculum for this age group holds great potential for addressing issues from the perspective of human rights.
- *For ages 13 and 14:* The topics listed above continue to be present, although they are beginning to decline, and human rights teaching tends to focus on types of rights or individual treatment of

a particular human right. As part of the curriculum, students in this age group study international organizations and, in some countries, also learn about international instruments such as the Universal Declaration, the Democratic Charter and others. The subject of democracy is on the agenda for students in every age group. An interesting and original approach found in this age group is the idea of combining human rights with the role of the media; such a combined approach leads naturally into a discussion of human rights associated with democracy, such as the right to information and the right to privacy.

Human rights content in instructional materials

Textbooks

The second stage of research for this report was to study the presence of human rights content in textbooks used for school classes in the grade levels attended by children from 10 to 14 years of age in 2000 and in 2005. Researchers proceeded in the same fashion as for the study of course curricula. They first examined the list of textbooks used for each grade and selected those that contained the most material on the topics of interest. They compared the tables of contents of the selected books to the checklist developed from the IIHR educational proposal and scrutinized the specific chapters, sections or paragraphs identified. Wherever possible, the study also included a review of exercises that the textbooks and lessons included as a tool to evaluate learning.

By examining textbooks as a source of information, researchers were able to gain a much more detailed picture of the scope and approach used for content they had identified as simple headings in the course curriculum. They also found themselves with a much clearer, more accurate picture of processes that take place in the classroom. They made the assumption that teachers adapt activities to the textbooks they use, and that the books are the main educational resource available to students and their parents or guardians, beyond lessons imparted by the teacher. The researchers in all the countries reviewed the following numbers of textbooks, by age, country and year of use.

Table 13: Textbooks by age, country and year of use

Age	Textbooks in use in:	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dom Rep	Ecuador	El Salvador	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru	Uruguay	Venezuela
10 years	2000	2	1	x	1	1	x	1	1	1	5	x	3	1	1	x	x
	2005	2	2	x	1	1	1	1	2	1	5	1	1	3	3	1	1
11 years	2000	2	1	x	1	1	x	1	2	1	4	x	3	3	3	x	x
	2005	2	2	x	1	1	1	1	2	1	4	1	2	1	4	3	1
12 years	2000	2	1	x	x	1	x	1	2	1	6	x	3	2	2	x	x
	2005	2	1	x	1	1	2	1	2	1	5	1	2	3	3	1	1
13 years	2000	2	1	x	1	x	x	1	2	x	4	x	3	3	3	x	x
	2005	2	1	x	2	1	2	1	2	2	8	1	4	4	4	1	1
14 years	2000	2	1	x	x	x	x	1	2	x	3	x	x	3	3	x	x
	2005	2	1	x	x	1	2	1	2	2	5	x	3	1	4	6	1

From 2000 to 2005, the schools made more changes in their textbooks than in their curricula. While some textbooks were replaced entirely, others were merely updated via re-editions, revisions, etc. It is quite likely that new textbooks developed during these five years reflected changes made in the school curriculum and educational programs over the previous five-year period.

The analysis of exercises and quizzes in the books generally showed the same basic results as the evaluation of lessons themselves. They did prove useful for developing a clearer idea of priorities and for identifying the type of associations being drawn between human rights material and other content.

For students 10 years of age, the textbooks containing the most material associated with human rights correspond to social studies and civics classes. In a few countries, certain other subjects also contained relevant material, although to a lesser degree: language arts (Argentina, Mexico, Peru), natural sciences (Mexico and Panama), history and geography (Mexico). Most of the human rights-related material found in textbooks for this age group in all the countries appeared under such topics as the nature and organization of the State, the constitutional system, environment and natural resources and, more as history than as human rights, issues involving indigenous peoples.

The 2000 textbooks address several other topics in some countries: the Universal Declaration and human rights (Argentina, El Salvador); equality and freedom from discrimination (Argentina, Dominican Republic); ethnic diversity in today's world (Ecuador, Argentina, Mexico, Dominican Republic); cultural heritage (Argentina, Ecuador); rights of the child (El Salvador, Mexico, Uruguay); and gender equality (Mexico, Paraguay, Dominican Republic).

The same general themes found in all the countries in 2000 continued to appear in 2005 textbooks. The most significant increase in human rights material was the addition of lessons on the rights of the child in five more countries. Several countries introduced new relevant themes in 2005: human rights,

Rights of the Child

Year	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dom Rep	Ecuador	El Salvador	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru	Uruguay	Venezuela
2000									✓	✓					✓	
2005					✓			✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓

Evaluation of textbook material in 2000 (10 years)

Care of the environment: In your notebook, list some elements of nature that have been transformed by human action, and others that have not (Argentina).

Equality and freedom from discrimination: Write sample sentences, indicate which are discriminatory, and explain why or why not (Argentina). Debate whether it is right or wrong for a country to refuse immigrants; select one student to argue in favor, and another to argue against (Argentina).

Spanish conquest and independence: Write out your opinion on changes in the rights of persons since colonial times. The text includes a list of guided questions to show the link to modern times (Argentina).

classification (Nicaragua, Panama, Venezuela); right to information and role of the media (Argentina); free elections, universal suffrage (Costa Rica, Nicaragua); student participation (Costa Rica); democracy (Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Peru); Inter-American Democratic Charter (Peru); modern social inequities (Argentina); unemployment (Bolivia); violence and domestic violence (Bolivia, Peru, Uruguay); malnutrition (Bolivia); MERCOSUR and cooperation agreements (Argentina, Uruguay); contributions of

immigration (Argentina, Bolivia); helping the community (Bolivia); taxes (Bolivia, Peru).

The examples in the boxes illustrate the types of practice questions given in the textbooks to test learning by students in this age group.

The most common type of content found in textbooks *for 11-year-olds* in all the countries of the region in the year 2000 had to do with the Spanish conquest, colonial times and independence; environment; human rights, democracy and dictatorial governments; indigenous people today and cultural heritage. Also present,

Evaluation of textbook material in 2005 (10 years)

Care of the environment: Research projects on actions being conducted by public and private institutions to protect vegetation in regions threatened by human intervention (Argentina).

Equality and freedom from discrimination: After studying the subhuman conditions in which indigenous people labored during colonial times, students are invited to ask: Are boys really inferior to girls? Are women inferior to men? (Paraguay).

Spanish conquest and independence: *Word puzzle:* A period when indigenous culture developed, prior to contact with Spain. Mixing of indigenous people, Spaniards and blacks. *Comparative chart:* Stages and characteristics of each period (Costa Rica).

but in lesser amounts, was material on: branches of government, the Constitution, globalization, class differences and social transformation.

The following table shows content identified in certain countries only, for 2000 and 2005. This information clearly shows that differences from one country to another were much more common than similarities in the region, and this applies across the range of ages. It also shows that innovations in school textbooks over the five-year period covered by the study occurred predominantly in a group of seven countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Panama, Peru and the Dominican Republic.

Table 14: Material and themes identified in 2000 and 2005, by country (11 years)

Content	Countries where content was recorded	
	2000	2005
International conflicts, world wars	Bolivia, Chile, Mexico	Bolivia, Chile, Mexico
Human rights	El Salvador, Mexico, Paraguay, Dominican Republic, Uruguay	El Salvador, Mexico, Paraguay, Dominican Republic, Uruguay, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Venezuela
Pollution and environment	Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay	Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay
Democracy and dictatorships	Argentina, Chile, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Dominican Republic	Argentina, Chile, Paraguay
Rights of the Child	Bolivia, Ecuador, Peru	Ecuador, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic
Colonial era, independence	Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Mexico	Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Mexico, Costa Rica, Panama, Dominican Republic
State, branches of government, government, Constitution	Argentina, Chile, Mexico, Uruguay	Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela
Globalization and its impact, class differences, social transformations	Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Uruguay	Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Uruguay, Colombia
Indigenous people today and cultural heritage	Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, Uruguay	Bolivia, Mexico, Ecuador, Uruguay, Colombia, Costa Rica
Human rights violations	Argentina, Chile, Ecuador	
International organizations	Panama, Paraguay, Uruguay	Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay
The Constitution as basic law; reforms, rights, guarantees		Argentina, Venezuela
Social and political rights		Argentina, Chile, Dominican Republic
Democracy: concept, evolution, suffrage		Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Nicaragua, Peru, Dominican Republic, Venezuela
Citizenship, citizen training		Argentina, Costa Rica, Peru, Venezuela
Right to vote and political parties		Argentina, Bolivia
Women's role and women's rights		Bolivia, Chile
School government		Colombia, Nicaragua, Dominican Republic
Community		Nicaragua

Textbooks used by *12-year-olds* in the year 2000 were examined for human-rights content in Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic. All these countries, with the exceptions of El Salvador and Paraguay, reported new textbooks in 2005. That same year, information became available from Brazil, Costa Rica, Chile, Nicaragua, Uruguay and Venezuela, whose textbooks had been unavailable in 2000, for various reasons.

As in earlier years, the textbooks containing relevant material on human rights correspond primarily to social studies and civics courses. Some countries also offer this type of material in textbooks for natural sciences, language arts, geography and history.

Material that appeared in both 2000 and again in 2005, by country, is listed below.

Table 15: Material and themes identified in 2000 and 2005, by country (12 years)

Content	Country	
	2000	2005
Renewable and non-renewable resources, environment, air and water pollution	Argentina, Mexico, Panama, Peru	Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay
Development of democracy: great civilizations of Greece and Rome	Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico	Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Mexico
Groups and social organization, family, school, community	Argentina, Panama	Argentina, Bolivia, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru
Rights: origin of the concept of rights, types of rights	Argentina, El Salvador, Paraguay	Argentina, Bolivia, El Salvador, Paraguay, Nicaragua
Human rights	Argentina, Panama, Dominican Republic	Paraguay, Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Panama, Peru, Venezuela
Intolerance and discrimination	Argentina, Bolivia	Argentina
Conquest and human rights	Bolivia, Ecuador	Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador
State, laws, Constitution	Ecuador, El Salvador, Panama, Paraguay	Argentina, Ecuador, Paraguay, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama, Venezuela
The media and their influence	Mexico	Colombia, Mexico
Indigenous influence in our language and culture	Mexico	Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico
International organizations for the protection of human rights	Paraguay	Paraguay, Argentina
Citizenship	Peru	Costa Rica, Peru

Table 16 shows that textbooks used in 2005 contained new content and addressed new themes that suggest a broader understanding of human rights. Coverage had expanded to include economic, social and environmental rights, address special-needs groups or populations that are more vulnerable, and examine emerging problems such as migration, globalization and poverty. This expansion is certainly still an exception, and was found in the textbooks of only a few countries.

Table 16: New material and themes in textbooks for 2005 (12 years)

Developed countries and developing countries	Argentina
Migration	Argentina
Meeting basic needs, standards of living, poverty	Argentina, Bolivia, Peru
Globalization and inequality	Argentina
Adolescence and sexuality	Mexico
Additions	Mexico
Democracy	Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, Peru
Afro-descendants	Colombia
Electoral process, student government	Costa Rica
Social rights: right to education, health, work Child labor Women's rights	Costa Rica
Civil society organizations	Costa Rica
Rights of the Child	Costa Rica, Peru

Material and themes identified in 2000 and 2005, by country (13 years)

Globalization, positive and negative consequences
International organizations: UN, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNESCO
Developed countries and developing countries
Migration
Environment
Spanish conquest and human rights
Historical development of democracy and concepts of democracy
State, government, Constitution, structure, branches
Multicultural and multi-linguistic nations
Additions
Suffrage, political parties
Types of democratic systems
Dictatorships and human rights violations
Colonialism
World wars
Media
HR, institutions for protection, international instruments
Values of coexistence
Participation in society, belonging to groups
Health
New material or themes in 2005
Rights of children and youth
Social rights in the Constitution
Afro-descendants
Student elections
Freedom of expression as a human right
Education and the school
Social inequality, poverty

The study of textbooks *for 13-year-olds* found that Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Peru and the Dominican Republic changed texts or introduced modifications between 2000 and 2005. Other countries on which information was obtained for 2005 included Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Uruguay, Paraguay and Venezuela. As was the case for the other age groups, textbooks with relevant material were mostly for social studies and civics, and in some cases, natural sciences, language arts, geography and history. The table at the left lists the types of material found most often in textbooks on these subjects for this age group.

Human rights content in textbooks *for 14-year-olds* follows a pattern very similar to that of the previous group. Changes were found between the 2000 textbooks and the 2005 textbooks in the following countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Dominican Republic and Uruguay. As in earlier years, most of the relevant books correspond to social studies and civics classes and, in some cases, natural sciences, language arts, geography and history. Below is a listing of some of the test questions found in practice exercises to evaluate learning in textbooks for this age group:

Evaluation of the role of women, democracy, the media and sexuality 2005

(14 years)

Complete the sentence, short answer, essay. Workshop on attitudes: "Women in the middle ages." (Panama)

What is the role of the media, and what should be its role? (Peru)

Complete: Good sex education is important because... (Paraguay)

Form into teams and prepare a collage that represents the meaning of the following phrase: "The Constitution and laws: instruments for living together in democracy." (Mexico)

Complete the following sentence: In order for participation to be truly democratic, various conditions need to exist. One of them is _____, because _____. Another is _____, because _____. (Mexico)

Content in non-classroom activities

These activities are part of the educational program and follow curriculum guidelines, but they take place outside the classroom. Consisting of field trips, museum visits and tours of government institutions, they provide a fitting opportunity to teach about human rights. They have a significant impact, offering a break from the routine and allowing students to interact with the subjects they are studying. Such trips permit students to make direct contact with social and political personages, government institutions, and

the like. Our concern on this subject is not merely to know whether such teaching activities are taking place outside the classroom in each country, but also to find out whether the ministries of education are recommending such strategies to teachers, particularly for teaching about human rights.

In general, we have found that the ministries offer no specific suggestions on educational activities of this kind. The only exception is in Uruguay, where the Council on Elementary Education recommends student visits to the National Congress. For the most part, national and provincial guidelines focus more on stipulations about how out-of-classroom activities are to be conducted: authorizations, chaperones, civil liability and other such considerations, as in the case of Argentina.

Activities taking place outside the school frequently entail visits to public institutions: the Congress, the ombudsman, museums, the courts. These visits are generally scheduled and planned by the schools themselves, and therefore it is impossible to obtain national-level information on frequency.

Special commemorations for dates of human-rights significance

One of the variables covered in this study was whether schools hold special activities to commemorate notable dates. Researchers asked whether the school calendar includes commemoration of days or dates recognized internationally in the field of human rights, and whether public education authorities had issued guidelines, instructions or suggestions on how to do it. The indicators selected for this subject include commemorations of ethnic diversity (indigenous and Afro-descendant), gender equality and human rights in general.

In the first case, celebration of ethnic diversity, the study found that April 19, the International Day of the World's Indigenous People, appears on school calendars in four of the 16 countries (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica and Mexico). Nicaragua commemorates the black race on May 30, international black women's day is held in Brazil on July 25, the day of the black race in Costa Rica is on August 31, and international indigenous women's day is recognized in El Salvador on September 5. At least Brazil, Costa Rica and Panama observe the International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination on March 21, while Argentina and Panama have set aside special dates to commemorate the abolition of slavery.

All the countries commemorate October 12, although under different names and with different types of emphasis. Some celebrate it as the day of the race (*la raza*), others as the day of Hispanic culture (*hispanidad*) or the day of the discovery of America, while Venezuela calls it the day of indigenous resistance.

Many countries hold special school celebrations associated with women. The school calendars in at least Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Venezuela commemorate International Women's Day on March 8. Argentina's school calendar recognizes September 22 as the day of women's suffrage, and Argentina, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Nicaragua celebrate November 25 as the International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women.

There are other special dates on the school calendar associated with human rights. For example, the Day of the Declaration of Human Rights is celebrated on December 10 in Brazil, El Salvador, Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama. Labor Day is an official holiday in all the countries covered by this report. Argentina, Costa Rica and Nicaragua celebrate the day of the Constitution and democracy. El Salvador, Argentina and Venezuela set aside special days to recognize the rights of the child.

School calendars in nearly all the countries call for other special observations as well, including: a week to commemorate the rights of the child in Venezuela, a week to celebrate freedom from discrimination in Argentina, and Peace Week in Costa Rica.

Some of the countries have special commemorations alluding to certain specific rights, such as World Health Day (Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama), International Day against Drug Abuse (Argentina, Costa Rica, Nicaragua and Panama); and World AIDS Day (Argentina, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Nicaragua). Finally, some school calendars designate commemoration of World Environment Day (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Panama), International Earth Day (Argentina, El Salvador and Nicaragua) and the Day of the Tree (Argentina, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Nicaragua).

Few countries have set explicit guidelines or recommendations for commemorating these dates. Costa Rica is an exception, with its “Handbook on Patriotic Celebrations” that contains guidelines for organizing and developing appropriate civic activities for the different grades and for schools in the various categories of the Costa Rican educational system. Another example is the following statement of objectives for celebrating some of these special dates, as established by the General Department of Culture and Education of the Province of Buenos Aires, Argentina:

Indigenous Day - Objective: to emphasize the meaning of indigenous culture in our national identity. To think about the current situation of indigenous people, their rights, needs and integration.

International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women - Objective: Develop free, non-violent places in a democratic setting.

Day of the Rights of the Child and Adolescent - Objective: raise awareness of the rights of children and adolescents, and spread all related information from the school into the community.

Options for curriculum enhancement

After researchers had studied the curriculum programs to gather as much information as they could, they proceeded to hold interviews with teachers and education authorities in all the countries. Their purpose was to hear professional opinions on the two methodological alternatives for incorporating the study of human rights: (i) into a specific part of the curriculum as a particular course or part of a course, or (ii) as a cross-cutting theme running through all existing course subjects. This was not intended as a rigorous survey. Instead it was simply an opportunity to talk to a few national education professionals in an informal setting and learn whether the different methods of incorporating human rights into the curriculum had been discussed, whether thought had been given to human rights education, and what their opinions were on the subject. These conversations yielded personal perceptions and feelings about the experience, but not necessarily expert views.

The first revealing conclusion from this interview exercise was that in fact the teachers were not unfamiliar with the subject of HRE. They had certain ideas and opinions on the subject and agreed on the importance of introducing it into the school curriculum “through the front door.” In general terms, most suggested that the best alternative would be to combine the specific disciplinary approach with the crosscutting approach, so that the two methods can complement and reinforce one another.

Significantly, they also agreed that the concept of “crosscutting,” so fashionable today in curriculum literature, has both advantages and disadvantages. As an advantage, they cite the possibility of approaching human rights from a multidimensional perspective, enriching various subjects with the information, values and attitudes typical of the human rights philosophy. They still recognize the risk that human rights themes could be diluted in the absence of clear teaching guidelines and specific evaluation mechanisms.

The suggestion made by interview subjects, based on their own experience and knowledge, is fully consistent with the expert recommendation that the IIHR has offered in its educational proposal.

Many of the educators from various countries contributed two additional factors that are critically important for the teaching of human rights, even beyond explicit curriculum inclusion. First, they cited the need to train teachers for imparting these subjects, noting that training should take place under some specific course required in the initial professional education of future teachers. They also recommended training courses and the development of materials, as well as specialized instructional guides for in-service teachers. Second, they stressed the importance of monitoring the effective exercise of human rights in school, because it would be of no use to teach human rights in the classroom while disrespecting them in everyday school life. These two points are also consistent with the position established in earlier inter-American HRE reports and the current IIHR educational proposal.

Section IV

Conclusions

Curriculum design

The countries in this study generally use an education management model that centralizes most of the power over curriculum decisions in the hands of national-level authorities. A few (especially Chile and Colombia) are adopting policies to delegate this authority to schools themselves. The study revealed a great deal of variation in the degree to which different countries encourage the educational community and local institutions to take part in making decisions on school life. It also found dissimilar patterns in management of financial resources for education, including decentralized systems and contract-based programs.

The curriculum is articulated in different ways from one country to the next, in terms of both specificity of content, and complexity of the instructions it contains. These different manifestations of the curriculum can be seen metaphorically as successive layers of curriculum, to be developed by entities at the different levels (national, provinces or departments, municipalities, and each individual school).

All the countries expect teachers to play a significant role in contextualizing content. It is the teachers who make instruction relevant to the needs and demands of educational processes in the classroom, although still respecting the indicative guidelines of the school and the laws and regulations of the overall public institutional framework. The countries use a variety of mechanisms to monitor teacher initiatives and their outcome.

All the countries have a department, division or section in the ministry of education responsible for developing and updating the curriculum. These entities have other tasks as well, such as developing instructional guides for teachers and educational materials for students, providing training and continuing education for teachers, and evaluating the application of school programs. These technical-administrative units are staffed by employees of the ministries of education, both administrators and professional educators, together with technical advisers specialized in a variety of subjects. Some may be members of the ministry staff, others may be on loan from other ministries and specialized public entities, and still others are outside contractors hired to take part in design processes.

Placement in the curriculum

The 16 countries that provided data for this report offer substantial coverage of human rights material in different areas of the school curriculum for students from 10 to 14 years of age. Despite the presence of considerable variation from one country to the next, it was clear that such content has been embraced throughout the region in courses taught during the final three years of elementary school and the first two years of secondary school. The region appears to have achieved some degree of political consensus on educating children about their rights. It is true that offering “broad, systematic and high-quality” HRE for all members of this age group¹⁸ requires much more than just adding human rights

¹⁸ The three concepts in quotation marks are taken from the IIHR definition of human rights education. It emphasizes not only the objectives and content of HRE, but also certain qualities that are essential if HRE is to be implemented in education systems. Without these qualities, it would be futile to attempt any program for authentic, widespread, effective teaching of rights. The IIHR believes that educating in human rights means that everyone should have a meaningful opportunity to be taught about human rights, regardless of sex, age, occupation, national or ethnic origin, or economic, social or cultural condition. This instruction should consist of a systematic, broad-based, high-quality education that will equip them to understand their human rights and corresponding responsibilities, to respect and protect the human rights of others and to understand the relationship between human rights, rule of

content to a few courses in the curriculum. Even so, this visible trend is an encouraging sign that the countries are no longer at the starting point. They now have a firm foundation on which to build.

Educators have diverse views on where to place human rights within the overall curriculum. Human rights material tends to be concentrated in two types of courses: civics and social studies. In some countries, the course offerings for certain ages include classes in civics and social studies, while in others, the two are combined into a single course. Certain more specific human rights-related content is offered in a variety of other settings. For example, many courses in the natural sciences include material on the environment and the right to a safe environment. Art classes discuss cultural rights, and language arts courses often address cultural rights and linguistic and cultural diversity.

Nevertheless, the syllabi for these courses as a whole paint a clear picture of near-invisibility of express human rights content in the explicit curriculum. They reveal the enormous differences among countries and the relative absence of such subjects in the overall educational process. These matters need to be considered for promoting human rights education in the region.

Course content tended to remain highly stable over the lapse covered by this study. This includes both courses that explicitly address human rights issues, and general curriculum content including human rights. Such stability is mainly due to the fact that sweeping curriculum changes in the region's formal education systems had already taken place during the second half of the last decade or the beginning of this decade as part of a broad education reform movement associated with the consolidation of democracy. Thus, most of the countries are setting up a relatively new curriculum developed only recently. Some have now been fully implemented, while others are being introduced gradually, moving one year at a time through consecutive grades of the school system.

Stability in the curriculum over these five years is thus understandable and positive. Indeed it is necessary if the new curricular programs are to become consolidated, better understood and better handled by all members of the educational community, including authorities, teachers, students and parents. It takes time for the ministries of education and private publishing houses to develop instructional materials for use by teachers and textbooks for students. Only in a context of stability can the education systems complete all the complementary processes entailed in adapting to a new school curriculum and changing the daily practice of teaching and learning in the classroom. While this is true for any country in the world, it seems to be particularly significant for Latin America. During most of the 20th century, conditions in our region fluctuated wildly. Education policy experienced major advances and severe setbacks as a direct result of political oscillations in our fragile democracies, held hostage by the ghosts of successive coups, authoritarianism and internal warfare.

Researchers for this study estimated the percentage of content directly associated with human rights imparted in courses that include human rights education in the syllabus. It was evident that the highest percentage of human rights content was to be found in the curriculum of countries teaching courses called "civics," such as Mexico and the Dominican Republic. Next in terms of frequency of human rights content are those countries that teach human rights under the heading of social science, such as Colombia and Peru. As it happens, the programs that offer the least amount of human rights content were found in countries that have adopted human rights as a crosscutting theme, such as Costa Rica, or as part of ethics training programs that run as a common thread through all courses, such as Chile. This quantification of content, while quite approximate, seems to confirm the theoretical position that human rights are taught most explicitly and completely when they are introduced under a specific disciplinary framework, that is, as part of a particular course or subject. The coverage is much more

law and democratic governance. As a result, they should know how to practice values, attitudes and behaviors in their daily lives that are consistent with human rights and democratic principles.

incomplete when human rights are woven through the curriculum as a crosscutting theme, distributed in a usually nonspecific way among all courses taught to a particular grade level.

Even more to the point, the data suggest that if human rights content is injected into a disciplinary framework, it fits most effectively and is best accommodated in courses on civics, citizen education or democracy, rather than courses on social sciences or social studies. We believe that this is because human rights are embedded inextricably in the concepts of democracy and good citizenship, with which they interact closely and logically. By contrast, when they are placed in a generic setting of “social affairs,” they must vie for attention and compete with many other areas of content – historical, geographical, political, economic, and so forth. Unquestionably, social sciences tend to be umbrella courses with extensive coverage of many disciplines, and decisions on how much human rights to include and how best to do so will depend on the vision and decisions of curriculum designers.

Even this decision is limited to which specific course can best accommodate the teaching and learning of human rights. It does not even consider the number of classroom hours the selected course requires. Data from various countries are consistent: civics courses, where they exist in the curriculum, generally occupy considerably fewer hours per week than courses on social science. This is understandable, since social science courses cover a much more extensive and varied body of content. The decision on including or reinforcing human rights content will need to be analyzed and negotiated by combining the two considerations: the most appropriate placement for this material, and how many hours are allotted.

Curriculum content

Human rights curriculum content for the 10-14 year age group was analyzed using the specialized proposal as a point of reference. It was encouraging to find that a significant amount of the proposal’s recommended content under *knowledge and information* is included, in one form or another, in the school curriculum for this age group. It remains to be seen what the specific content is, and how it is imparted.

In most countries in the region, material taught to 10- and 11-year-olds in their final three years of elementary school continues to cover primarily such themes as society and culture, coexistence, the human person and the rights of persons, human dignity, equality and difference, discrimination, national and New World history with at least some human rights perspective, gender and cultural diversity, democracy, civic values and citizenship, State and the rule of law, individual guarantees, the Constitution, environment, and the rights of the child. Starting at age 12, as students move into secondary school, the curriculum begins to address new issues that continue to appear in subsequent years. These include specific types of rights, especially some of the economic, social and cultural rights including the right to health, work and education; human groups in conditions of vulnerability, especially women and indigenous peoples; immigration, poverty, prevention of addiction and drug use; and national and international instruments and institutions for the protection of human rights.

Topics having to do with *drug use*, *migration* and *poverty* turn up repeatedly in many countries in courses starting at the age of 12. The handling of these issues in the classroom is not necessarily based on a human rights approach. Instruction generally emphasizes knowledge and attitudes needed for responding to problems, processes or situations that are present in the social setting and for which learning activities can be useful in developing awareness and fostering prevention measures. In any case, such courses can be understood as appropriate settings for introducing human rights content.

For obvious reasons, it is particularly fitting that the curriculum in Argentina, Brazil, El Salvador, Peru and Uruguay includes lessons on historical memory. Indeed, this should be taken up by all the countries in the region because of its potential for promoting a critical recognition of times and conditions where human rights were systematically violated. It is also a way to promote democratic values and motivate new generations to become actively involved in strengthening these values.

In general terms, the ages at which different types of content are introduced are consistent with suggestions contained in the IIHR educational proposal, which calls for a gradual increase in the complexity, abstraction and study of specific rights as students move from elementary school (10-12 years of age) into secondary school (13-14 years of age). This study identified relevant content in the countries and found certain recurring themes for the targeted age group. Nevertheless, from the specialized perspective of the IIHR, coverage in the countries falls far short of a comprehensive, sound approach to human rights suited to the needs and abilities of students from 10 to 14 years of age. In any case, current coverage does provide a minimum starting point from which to progress toward more extensive, profound development, bearing in mind that inclusion for the targeted group (10 to 14 years) is quite uneven among countries and among rights.

The most significant finding is that the region's formal public education systems are not ignorant of the subject and are not avoiding it. Quite the contrary, the analysts feel that today the countries clearly have the political will to introduce HRE onto their curriculum map. What they still lack is the academic specialization they would need in order to introduce human rights more effectively and thus more fully achieve the ethical, critical and political goals of HRE. It is important not to underestimate what the countries have already accomplished in adding HRE content to their programs. At the same time, the study revealed negative factors or shortcomings in the way content is approached and formulated in the curriculum. These factors appeared repeatedly in many of the countries studied.

The most visible shortcomings include:

- The programs make very little explicit use of the concept of *human rights* per se. Many topics relevant to human rights or closely associated with human rights are addressed, but not always called by their exact name. In other words, instruction generally fails to use the specific terms “right,” “human rights” or “subject of rights.”¹⁹
- The inventory of rights issues, or issues associated with rights, tends to be fragmented, and the curriculum fails to develop logical links among them.
- The programs do not explicitly assert the comprehensive nature of rights, and therefore fail to approach them comprehensively.
- Human rights knowledge and information are not clearly associated with the development of relevant skills or abilities. However, the programs do tend to clearly connect human rights knowledge to human rights values and attitudes.

¹⁹ An example makes this concept clearer. In curricula for 10-year-olds, one of the most frequently recurring topics is the right to a safe environment, which appears in several different courses. The explicit content on this subject was extracted from a total of 18 courses taught in 14 countries, and analysis of the material found 30 separate curricular concepts. Only one of them, a course in Venezuela on “Science of nature and technology,” used the explicit expression “recognition of the right to enjoy a healthy environment.” Doctrinally speaking, it is not the same to speak of “environment” as “right to a healthy environment,” “health” as “right to health or health care,” “sex education” as “sexual and reproductive rights,” “gender” as “gender equality,” “indigenous people” as “rights of indigenous peoples” or “right to cultural identity.”

Teaching resources

Textbooks

The study began with an analysis of textbooks used in the year 2000 for students from 10 to 14 years of age, with a focus on courses in civics and social studies, plus a few other courses in a small number of countries. Researchers found that in all the countries, textbook topics that most frequently took a human rights perspective were: periods or events in the history of the Americas, especially the Spanish conquest, independence and indigenous populations; democracy; the nation-state and the branches of government; the Constitution, and the environment and natural resources.

Occupying second place in terms of frequency, with an average of only five countries per topic, were: human rights and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; ethnic diversity in today's world, equality and freedom from discrimination; cultural heritage; gender equality, and the rights of the child. In conclusion, the textbooks that were in use five years ago already identified certain human rights issues or took a human rights perspective, albeit rarely and with an essentially historical or general conceptual approach.

A similar analysis was then conducted on equivalent textbooks in 2005 and found a significant increase in the amount of human rights related topics or the adoption of a human rights perspective. The issues appearing most frequently were: today's social inequalities; the right to information and the role of the media; immigration and its contributions; contemporary social problems, including unemployment, violence and domestic violence, and malnutrition; electoral freedom and universal suffrage; student participation; helping the community; identification and classification of human rights; MERCOSUR and the cooperation agreements (in member countries of MERCOSUR), and the Inter-American Democratic Charter (in the Andean countries). Clearly, the presentation of a human rights perspective in textbooks increased during the five years from 2000 to 2005, because more topics were covered in more countries, pointing to clear quantitative growth.

The analysis showed qualitative improvement as well. Course material is no longer confined to the history of the Americas or the macro concept of human rights and democracy. Today it is more closely associated with contemporary conditions in the countries and in the overall region, and with the daily lives of people. The textbooks are beginning to address broad socioeconomic issues affecting the population, such as cooperation among countries of the subregions, immigration, violence and unemployment. In short, the human rights perspective is being applied much more closely to people's real lives, situations and daily concerns, although this is not yet a widespread trend in all the countries, nor is it homogeneous.

Non-classroom activities

The curriculum dictates classroom work that should be performed in the schools. It is explicit, it covers the development of coursework in minute detail, it is firmly grounded, and at least in general terms, it is common to the entire country. By contrast, educational activities that take place outside the classroom are not always specified or developed pedagogically in an official document; even less are they universal in any country. As a result, they are difficult to identify and analyze.

Although the study was able to compile information on such activities, it is approximate. Non-classroom school activities take place in all the countries, but it is impossible to determine accurately how often they occur and what they are like. In general, they fall within the jurisdiction of specific schools, including both the management authorities and the classroom teachers. The Institutional Educational Programs (PEI) system used in some countries, including Colombia, contains

specifications for such field trips. Interviews with educators revealed that, for the most part, non-classroom activities are used as a last-minute recourse or derive from some specific project. In other words, they are not planned in advance.

Some ministries of education offer guidelines for field trips, mostly addressing the logistics and legal implications of such activities, but do not discuss the educational implications. This variable could be quite valuable for HRE, but for the time being, information gaps are considerable.

Special commemorations

The information compiled for this study confirmed that all the education systems in these countries call for and hold commemorative activities to celebrate certain special dates, sometimes as official ceremonies that take place simultaneously throughout the country, and in other cases, as small or simple activities in each classroom.

In reality, these commemorations have always been an important part of school culture. Today's schools continue holding activities to commemorate patriotic dates or to recognize national heroes. However, in a break from earlier practice, they have also begun to introduce more universal celebrations recognized across national borders and considered worthy of note all over the world: International Women's Day, International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, World Health Day, International Day of the World's Indigenous People, Labor Day, International Day for the Abolition of Slavery, World Environment Day, special days to recognize the black race, woman suffrage and the rights of the child, International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women, International Day of People with Disability and International Human Rights Day, to mention only those that are most commonly recognized in our region. These celebrations do not so much commemorate people or events, although their origin is associated with some particular individual or occurrence, but they observe more universal principles and causes.

They hold great potential for focusing students' attention on principles of human dignity, the dialectic of equality and diversity that is consubstantial with the human condition and values of fellowship and solidarity, and teaching them about such values. In short, these commemorations celebrate human rights. The evidence suggests, however, that the schools in most countries are not doing enough to exploit the educational value of such activities.

Special commemorations apparently serve to remind the school population about a certain concept or problem. This is good, but such opportunities are rarely used as a springboard for delving into a topic from an educational perspective, such as learning more about its origin, understanding its meaning, or probing its importance. This resource seems to be used more effectively in those countries that have very specific national-level guidelines or instructions from the ministries of education, such as Costa Rica; but very few countries have such guidelines.

Section V

Recommendations

A great deal of information was collected and analyzed for this Fifth HRE Report. In general, it paints an encouraging picture, showing that human rights courses and content have become more visible in the school curriculum and in educational resources for children from 10 to 14 years of age, in at least 16 countries of the region. This visibility is due in large measure to curriculum reform in the second half of the 1990s. It is encouraging because: (i) It reflects some degree of political consensus, albeit relative and uneven among countries, concerning rights education for the largest age group currently present in public school classrooms, and psychologically the most fertile ground for receiving such teaching. (ii) It gathered strength over the past five years, either by holding its ground, or by increasing from year to year as curriculum reform processes undertaken in the past decade have gradually been implemented. Nevertheless, a full reading of all the information compiled also reveals negative signs, including major shortcomings and inconsistencies in the curriculum and in teaching resources. Unless they are reversed, these shortcomings will hamper the achievement of the ethical and political objectives of HRE reform, and this could prove costly if it undermines social legitimacy and the financial resource base.

It is clear that the region has begun to lay a foundation of regulatory and curricular standards for educating children in human rights. Progress is very slow, and growth has been irregular and fragile, failing to keep up with historical changes. Education reform has yet to engender the intellectual, emotional and practical skills that citizens need in order to claim their rights. The current process of building an educational program is a delicate one. It needs to be erected on a scaffolding of expertise to help it grow strong and sturdy. It needs to be thrust forward toward what cognitive psychology knows as its “Zone of Proximal Development,” a term coined by Lev Vigotsky.

The IIHR would like to offer education authorities in the countries a few recommendations based on the findings of this research, drawing on its specialized perspective and developed through its experience in the field. These recommendations are offered with the intention of strengthening curricular content and courses and improving the resources available for teaching about human rights on a systematic basis.

- Instruct the curriculum department, or its equivalent, in the ministries or secretariats of public education in the region to carry out a detailed national study/assessment of HRE or related curriculum content present in all courses given during the final three grades of elementary school and the first two years of secondary school, attended by students from 10 to 14 years of age. This study should determine what critical points would be needed (i) to incorporate any HRE-related content that is still missing, and/or (ii) to strengthen existing HRE content that is incomplete, insufficiently developed or too fragmented to reflect the comprehensive, multidimensional perspective of human rights. The country-by-country results of this Fifth Inter-American Report, as well as the table used for collecting data, could provide useful input for designing and completing the national research recommended here.
- In conducting the assessment study recommended above, consider three areas of curriculum content: information and knowledge contained in the curriculum, values and attitudes that are being formed, and skills or abilities that students should develop. An HRE curriculum that omits any of this content will always remain incomplete.

- Use the findings of this national research and assessment as a basis for developing recommendations on how and when to fill in the gaps or shortcomings detected in the curriculum. The recommendations should suggest procedures for making curriculum enhancements or adjustments, describe the types of specialists whose input will be needed, outline the technical and political decision-making authority involved, and suggest timetables for completing these procedures.
- Introduce or gradually expand HRE content in courses offered during the final three years of elementary school and the first two years of secondary school. Take into account the meso-curricular suggestions made in the IIHR curricular and methodological proposal for incorporating human rights education into formal schooling for children from 10 to 14 years of age.
- Find ways to combine the two principle approaches to curriculum enhancement: (i) the specific or subject matter approach, in which human rights are taught as a separate subject or as a substantial part of other existing subjects; and (ii) the crosscutting approach, in which human rights objectives and content are woven into different school activities, both inside and outside the classroom, and underlie various curriculum subjects.
- When negotiating ways to introduce or expand HRE content in existing courses, combine all the following considerations: (i) what cognitive, affective and procedural content is most important for each grade level and age group; (ii) which course subjects or disciplines can most easily accommodate the selected human rights content in ways that are both logical and consistent, and (iii) what is the appropriate course load for the age group, in terms of credit hours.
- Begin tapping more actively into the great educational potential of HRE in non-classroom activities and school commemorations of special dates, making broader, more conceptually rigorous and methodologically systematic use of these educational resources. These are lacunae that can be filled without triggering any great conflict, because they do not compete for time or space with other subjects, and they pose no additional cost. They do, however, call for educational strategies that take a human rights perspective. As teaching resources, they would need to be introduced clearly to school authorities and classroom teachers, who have the most latitude for making decisions on how best to use them and who need encouragement to put them into practice.
- For the purposes outlined above, produce instructional materials that take an HRE perspective, for use by school authorities and classroom teachers; these could include handbooks, manuals and teaching guides. In addition, add HRE to in-service training programs for teachers.
- Design and conduct applied research on extracurricular activities as potential venues for learning about human rights. The objective would be to identify novel or valuable experiences in the countries of the region. The study could ask how these activities are being used to train students in human rights and what results and impact they have achieved. Targeted activities could include student government, student parliament, mock United Nations assemblies, rules for student life in each school, community projects, and more.
- For the purposes of this research, develop and apply progress indicators to identify whether the schools have made headway in conceptualizing and using human rights in education programs.

The IIHR reaffirms its commitment to continue its ongoing policy of cooperating with all public, civil society and academic entities in the countries of the region, and with other international and regional organizations, to promote processes for incorporating human rights education in the school curriculum in the countries of the Americas.

STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL GRADE: Preadolescence: 10-11-12 years - Last three grades of elementary school			
Goals <i>By the end of this stage, students should be able to:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • See themselves as worthwhile, valuable people and as "rights holders" on an equal footing with all other people. • Distinguish among wants, needs and rights. • Understand the concept of human rights in its dual dimension—ethical and legal—and identify in general terms the rights enshrined in the Universal Declaration. • Understand that the exercise of rights entails responsibilities. • Understand and adopt a sense of social responsibility. 			
Knowledge	Values and attitudes	Skills or abilities	Real-life situations and problems
Key concepts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human dignity • Human rights • The rights of children and adolescents • Society and culture • Cultural identity • Equality and freedom from discrimination • Democracy • Government • Law • Environment Conceptual developments: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The human person and the rights of persons. The person and human dignity. Human dignity as the foundation of human rights. Concept of human rights. Human rights as ethical principles, legal provisions and the ideal for coexistence with justice. • Human rights and the rights of the child. Implications of human rights as a legal concept: a) subjects, or holders of rights; (b) specific objects addressed in international or domestic legal provisions, and (c) legal guarantees of protection. Children's rights. Rights 	Values: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life and personal safety • Identity and self-esteem • Human dignity • Freedom • Responsibility • Equality / freedom from discrimination • Coexistence and cooperation • Fairness Attitudes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We value human life in all its dimensions: physical, 	For critical thinking <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distinguish between facts, inferences and personal opinions. • Detect bias, prejudice and stereotypes in our own and others' opinions. • Recognize the existence of different points of view. • Learn to "read" codes used in the media. For communication and effective argumentation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listen carefully to others, seeking to understand and retain their messages. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discrimination and prejudice, here and now. Who do we discriminate against? • Poverty, hunger and injustice in our country and in the world. How can we fight them? • The narrow view: ethnocentrism. • Selfish behavior: egocentrism and passivity. • Displacement and migration. Who immigrates into my country today? Who emigrates

<p>established in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) and an overview of human rights established by consensus in the Universal Declaration (1948).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Society and culture. Human coexistence. Society and culture. Cultures and cultural identity. Factors in the formation of a culture (ethnic identity, language, traditions, nationality, peer groups, communications media, generations). Cultural diversity as a source of wealth for the human race and for society. Introduction to cultural diversity in the world, the Americas and the country. • Equality and difference. Discrimination. Concept of equality. Equality and difference. Legitimate and illegitimate inequalities. Discrimination. The origin and effects of discrimination. Types of discrimination: by sex, age, race, ethnic origin or nationality, religion or ideology, economic status, culture, disability, sexual orientation. Prejudice and stereotypes. • Environment. Care and responsibility for the environment. The planet as the habitat of the human race. Relationship between people and their environment. Renewable and non-renewable natural resources. Irrational exploitation of natural resources and depredation of the environment: global impact and consequences for human life. Rational use of natural resources. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • psychological and social. • We respect the physical and psychological safety of persons and reject any aggression against it—whether to ourselves or others. We see ourselves as worthwhile, unique and important. • We recognize others as individuals different from ourselves, but equal in value, dignity and rights. • We understand that differences among people make life in school and in society richer and more interesting. We are learning to respect legitimate differences among people and to value diversity. • We reject unfair inequalities between people and discrimination. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Read with understanding various types of age-appropriate informational, argumentative and expressive texts. Expound, verbally and in writing, various types of information (facts, abstractions, opinions, feelings, etc.) in an orderly and clear fashion, seeking to be understood by listeners/readers. • Engage in dialogue. Seek and select evidence to support arguments. • Begin to organize arguments to present a well-reasoned case in any discussion, both inside and outside the classroom. • Begin to use resources of rational argumentation in discussions on matters of human rights and democracy. 	<p>from my country today? How migrants feel about the receiving community.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Addictions: alcoholism and drug addiction. • Violence as manifested in different ways and places: in the home, school and community. <p>Exclusion of young people, and the development of youth gangs.</p>
<p>History:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to the history of human rights as a conquest. Recognition of individual rights as a rein on the power of absolute authority. Background in antiquity and the Middle Ages. Development of the modern concept of human rights. Philosophical, political and legal foundations. • The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). Background, influences, importance. Signatory countries. Human rights defined in the Universal Declaration. American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man (1948). • Landmarks and protagonists in the battles for human rights. Key moments in the parallel history of human rights in the universal sphere and in this hemisphere. Individuals who stand out for their defense of human rights in the world, in the hemisphere and in each 			

<p>country (examples in the Americas: Fray Bartolomé de las Casas, Tupac Amaru, Eleanor Roosevelt, Monsignor Arnulfo Romero, Rigoberta Menchú).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> National and New World history from the perspective of human rights, cultural diversity and gender. Teaching national and regional history (according to historical periods set in the official curriculum for each grade level) with a human rights perspective, also including (a) the history and culture of indigenous and Afro-descendant populations, with an emphasis on ethnic groups that make up the national population, and (b) gender perspective. <p>Legal norms and institutions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Democracy. Democracy as a political system. Characteristics. National institutions of democracy. The branches of government. Organization and operation. Democracy as lifestyle and culture. Principles of democratic coexistence in daily life. The law. Equality before the law. Due process. Introduction to systems for the protection of human rights. Protection of human rights at the national level. Human rights in the national Constitution. Institutions that defend rights in the national legal system of each particular country: common courts, constitutional courts, electoral courts, the Ombudsman, etc. International cooperation organizations and the promotion of rights: United Nations; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization -- UNESCO; United Nations Children's Fund -- UNICEF. Democratic participation in the schools. Organizations for student participation. Family participation in the schools. 	<p>For participation and cooperative work</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make well-reasoned choices and recognize the consequences of our choices. Work in a group, making constructive contributions to the common objective. In group work, facilitate constructive dialogue and address differences of opinion using negotiation and compromise. Care for persons, relationships and things--both living and non-living. Recognize situations of discrimination and injustice, both inside and outside the school. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> We feel empathy toward others, especially their feelings and sufferings--locally and globally. We seek to be fair in our relationships with others. We are learning to be responsible for decisions we make freely, and to assume the consequences. We are learning to cooperate willingly with others and to perform volunteer work, at school or in the community. We take an increasing interest in public events and problems: local, national and world. We take an interest in the environment and feel responsible for the use of natural resources.
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STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT AND GRADE LEVEL: Adolescence: 13-14 years - Early secondary school				
Goals <i>By the end of this stage, students should be able to:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify and understand all types of human rights (civil, political, economic, social, cultural and collective), including the specifics of each one and the indivisible nature of them all. Understand the interaction between human rights, the rule of law and democratic governance. Understand in general terms the existence of mechanisms and institutions for protecting human rights in national and supranational jurisdictions. Understand the moral and social imperative of respecting the human rights of others. Evaluate their own attitudes and everyday behaviors using parameters of human rights and democratic principles, and learn to behave in consonance with them. 				
Knowledge	Values and attitudes	Skills or abilities	Real-life situations and problems	
Key concepts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Human rights are universal and indivisible Civil and political rights; economic, social and cultural rights; collective rights Democracy and the rule of law Sustainable development National and supra-national protection of human rights National and world citizenship Conceptual developments: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Introduction to human rights doctrine. Characteristics of human rights: universal and indivisible. Vocabulary of human rights (declaration, convention, covenant, protocol, resolution, recommendation, law, guarantee, etc.). Specific rights: <i>Civil and political rights</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Right to life Prohibition against torture Prohibition against slavery and forced labor 	Values: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Solidarity Local and global empathy Participation Pluralism Equity Human development Peace Security Attitudes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> We are sensitive to the needs and rights of others. We are concerned by injustice and 	For critical thinking <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make decisions based on information. Understand the logic underlying other points of view. Identify the perspectives and interests of other members of society in situations of conflict—historical and current, local and global. Interpret situations of injustice, discrimination and exclusion in terms of the principles and standards by which 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breaking the law: individual delinquency and organized crime. Are human rights also being violated? Structural violence and manifest violence. What are the characteristics of each one? What is its impact on 	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Freedom and personal safety Right to privacy Right to marry and form a family Right to nationality Right to property Right to juridical personality Equality before the law Freedom of thought, conscience and religion Freedom of opinion and expression Freedom of assembly and association Freedom of movement Freedom to participate in public affairs: right to elect and be elected 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> inequality in relations among people and in society as a whole. We are willing to take action that will remedy situations of injustice, inequality or disrespect for our own rights and those of others. We respect all people's right to have their own point of view. We are open to other opinions and we try to understand them instead of rejecting them out of hand. We increasingly value the act of thinking and deciding with intellectual and moral autonomy. We value peaceful, constructive coexistence with others—locally and globally. We are willing to find rational solutions to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> they must be reported and corrected. Critically analyze messages in the media—especially on subjects involving human rights and democracy. <p>For communication and effective argumentation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Construct oral and written messages of increasing complexity for different recipients. Read different types of text, of increasing complexity, with a high degree of understanding. Prepare messages using different media (oral, written, graphic, sound, photographic, etc.) to disseminate, promote and defend human rights and democratic principles (e.g., for the media, to petition authorities, to distribute in the school or community, etc.). Gather information and investigate real-life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> personal and social life? Indifference to the collective good and "public welfare." Ignorance, apathy, cynicism. Corruption. How do all these affect the exercise of human rights? Genocide and crimes against humanity (systematic practice of torture, forced disappearance, ethnic cleansing). How can we prevent them from recurring? Colonialism / imperialism Poverty and inequality in Latin America, the world's most unequal region.
<p>Economic, social and cultural rights</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Right to a decent standard of living: food, housing, health care and social services. Right to social security Right to work Right to just conditions of work Right to form and join trade unions Right to education Right to information Right to take part in cultural life and to enjoy the benefits of scientific progress Right of children and adolescents to participate in society <p>Collective rights</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Right to development Right to a healthy environment Right to have access to natural and cultural values, including the common human heritage 			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Power and legality. Power. Types and spheres of power (political, economic, social, cultural, family, institutional). Distribution of power in society. Conflicts. Means to regulate and limit power. Abuse of power. Legality and legitimacy in the exercise of power. 			

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The State and rule of law. Concepts of the State and historical contexts in which they developed. Functions of the State. Rule of law. Forms of representation. Suffrage. Types of citizen participation and organization in democracy (political parties, labor unions, cooperatives, social organizations, etc.). • Democracy and development. National and world citizenship Decent living conditions. Inequality within society and between societies. Factors that produce economic inequality and social exclusion -- locally and globally. Relationship between human rights, democracy and development. Development as a practice of citizen freedoms and capacities (Amartya Sen). Economic and social development -- locally and globally. Interdependence and globalization. Sustainable development. • History: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Digging deeper into the history of human rights. History and context of successive human rights developments in the 20th and 21st centuries (e.g. the "Cold War" and the two 1966 covenants -- civil and political rights and economic, social and cultural rights; suffragists, the feminist movement and women's rights; indigenous movements and the rights of indigenous peoples, etc.). ◦ Racism, sexism, xenophobia and other forms of discrimination--in history and today. Roots and historical manifestations of racism, sexism, xenophobia and other forms of discrimination. Consequences for individuals and for society. Ethnocentrism. Massive human rights violations produced by discrimination (segregation, the Holocaust, apartheid, ethnic cleansing). Modern manifestations of discrimination in the country and in the local community. Legal, social and educational resources for fighting discrimination. ◦ National, New World and universal history from the perspective of human rights, cultural diversity and gender. Continued instruction on national, hemispheric and universal history (according to historical periods set in the official curriculum for each grade level) with a human rights perspective, also including: (a) history and culture of indigenous and Afro-descendant populations and the 	<p>conflicts that arise in our personal, school and community environments.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We believe that participation--both individual and collective--can make changes in society. • We demand justice and equality in all relationships--for ourselves and for others. • We are willing to participate increasingly in collective affairs and matters of public interest--locally and globally (become informed, express our opinion, seek other opinions, join community and civic activities, etc.). • We increasingly take a stand on public problems--local, national and global. 	<p>problems and situations.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participate in debates, paying attention to the opinions of others and respectfully and clearly expressing our own. • Learn to develop or change our position by means of reasoned argumentation. • Convincingly present evidence to back up arguments and proposals. • Gradually incorporate the use of specific human rights and democracy vocabulary in oral and written communication. <p>For participation and cooperative work</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organize into groups with others, exercising greater degrees of autonomy, to achieve common objectives and share tasks. • Begin standing up to points of view that justify and perpetuate inequality, authoritarianism and other violations of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic and cultural globalization. What are the implications for the exercise of human rights--opportunities and threats? • Environmental degradation. What kind of home are we leaving for future generations?
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<p>world's other peoples, ethnic groups or cultures traditionally absent from official, Euro-centrist history; and (b) gender perspective.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Human rights in the recent history of Latin America and the country. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cases of massive human rights violations in this hemisphere and in the country. Dictatorships and political repression. Processes of remembrance, justice and redress: "Never Again." Becoming more attuned to problems with the current state of human rights in the hemisphere and the country. Obstacles to effective exercise of human rights (poverty, exclusion, corruption, domestic and social violence, insecurity, organized crime, etc.). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> We are concerned for the effects that our own life style may have on other people and on the environment. We care for and promote the care of natural resources out of respect for the needs and rights of those who live today and of future generations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> human rights and democratic principles. Mediate and help find creative solutions to situations of conflict (negotiation), respecting both the diversity of interests and conditions, and the dignity of persons. Become personally involved and make constructive contributions to the work of some entity for collective action in our school or community (student government, political grouping, volunteer association, organization for human rights training or promotion). Begin to critically evaluate our own prejudices, relationships and practices of coexistence with others—in the family, the school and the community.
<p>Legal norms and institutions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The democratic system and national institutions. Development of the concept of democracy. The State and civil society. "Good governance:" transparency, responsibility and accountability. National government and local governments. Organization and functioning of local government. Democratic, national and world citizenship. Concept of citizenship. Makeup of the country's citizenry: diversity in the national population. Being a "good citizen:" rights and responsibilities. Political participation by citizens and non-citizens. Mechanisms and procedures of participation, in national and supra-national settings. Political parties and civil society entities. Nongovernmental organizations. Principle and international NGOs defending and promoting human rights. Media. Human rights in the domestic system. Identification of international and regional human rights instruments that the country has ratified. Legal status. International human rights law. Digging deeper into legal protection of human rights: supranational standards, instruments and systems. How international human rights provisions are created and ratified. Responsibility of signatory States. Covenants and conventions: general (Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights) and for specific populations (children, women, refugees). CEDAW. International system and regional systems for human rights protection. The United Nations System. High Commissioners (UNHCHR, UNHCR); specialized commissions and special rapporteurs. The OAS System: the Inter-American Commission and Court. Organization and functions. Reference to European and African regional systems. 		

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