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## Introducing a New Grade 8 Curriculum in Children's Rights

*Existing research indicates that the effective implementation of new curricula depends on several variables including teachers' agreement with the goals of a new program, its impact on workload, and opportunities for professional development. The purpose of this research was to assess how far 31 grade 8 teachers implemented a new children's rights curriculum, whether the implementation of the curriculum changed their and their students' attitudes about children's rights, and to identify factors that encouraged implementation. Major findings were as follows: Workload, defined in terms of years of experience and class size, was predictive of curriculum use. The more teachers used the curriculum, the higher they rated it and the more they expressed attitudes supportive of children's rights. Students' support for the rights of adults, including ethnocultural minorities and those with disabilities, was positively related to their teachers' support for children's rights.*

*La recherche indique que la mise en œuvre réussie d'un nouveau curriculum dépend de plusieurs variables dont l'accord de l'enseignant quant aux buts du nouveau programme, son impact sur la charge de travail et les occasions de développement professionnel que l'on présente. Cette recherche avait trois buts : évaluer dans quelle mesure 31 enseignants de la 8<sup>e</sup> année ont mis en application un nouveau curriculum sur les droits des enfants, déterminer si la mise en vigueur a changé l'attitude des enseignants et des élèves face aux droits des enfants, et identifier les facteurs qui facilitent la mise en application. Les résultats indiquent que la charge de travail, définie en fonction des années d'expérience et de la taille de la classe, constituait une valeur prédictive quant à l'emploi que ferait un enseignant du nouveau curriculum. Plus les enseignants utilisaient le curriculum, plus ils l'appréciaient et plus leur attitude face aux droits des enfants était positive. Une corrélation positive a également été établie entre l'appui que manifestaient les élèves face aux droits des adultes, y compris ceux des minorités ethnoculturelles et des personnes ayant une déficience, et l'appui des enseignants pour les droits des enfants.*

The introduction of any new curriculum must be expected to bring with it a number of difficulties. The difficulties may be compounded when that new curriculum is in a sensitive area such as that under study here: namely, children's rights. Nonetheless, the introduction of children's rights education into

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the school curriculum is important for legal, public policy, and empirical reasons. As in the introduction of any new program, teachers play a key role. The major purpose of the research described here was to assess teachers' responses to a request to teach a new curriculum on children's rights.

The children's rights to which we refer are those described in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (the Convention), which was signed by the Canadian government in 1990 and ratified by Parliament and the provinces in 1991 (Canadian Heritage, 1991). By signing and ratifying the Convention, Canada is under a legal obligation to implement the rights of children, defined as all persons under the age of 18 years. These rights can be categorized into three main groupings: provision, protection, and participation (Hammarberg, 1990). Rights of provision describe rights to basic social and economic needs such as health care and education. Rights of protection refer to rights to be protected from harmful practices such as abuse, neglect, and exploitation. Finally, rights of participation refer to rights to be heard in matters affecting the child and to associated rights such as freedom of thought and freedom of expression.

Children's rights education in schools is desirable for several reasons. First, there is a legal obligation (Howe & Covell, 1998). Under the Convention, state parties are responsible for increasing public awareness of children's rights. Article 42 specifies that state parties are "to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike." Only the systematic teaching of the Convention in schools can ensure a widespread knowledge of children's rights. Indeed, in recognition of this the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child recommended to Canada in 1995 that children's rights education be incorporated into school curricula (UN Committee, 1995).

In addition to Canada's legal obligations, children's rights education is desirable from the perspective of the overall goals of Canadian public policy. A cornerstone of Canadian policy is one of advancing basic rights and freedoms and the related values of social equality, cultural diversity, and tolerance. These values are reflected in the Canadian *Charter of Rights and Freedoms*, human rights law, the official policy of multiculturalism, and the policy of improving the status of women. As part of the overall objective of advancing rights-related values, it is important that citizens become aware and supportive of the principle of basic rights. As many of the rights of the child described in the Convention overlap with existing rights and freedoms in Canadian law, children's rights education can be seen as an important agent of Canadian citizenship and public policy. In addition, as many educators in Canada lack knowledge about basic rights, particularly as they apply to education (Peters & Montgomerie, 1998), children's rights education may provide a means of increasing their own education in matters of citizenship.

Finally, empirical assessments suggest that children's rights education is desirable as a means not only of citizenship, but also of moral education. The effect of children's rights education on the attitudes and behaviors of children has been assessed in empirical studies by Decoene and De Cock (1996) and Covell and Howe (1999, 2001). The evaluation data gathered in these studies indicate that children's rights education is an effective agent of moral educa-

tion. Children who learn about the Convention and about the rights of children show more rights-respecting attitudes toward other children and toward adults. In particular, they indicate more positive attitudes toward minority children (Covell & Howe, 1999; Decoene & De Cock, 1996), and they show higher levels of perceived peer and teacher support (Covell & Howe, 1999, 2001).

One reason for the observed positive outcomes of children's rights education is the content. When children learn that they are worthy individuals who possess rights, they become more supportive of rights for others. In essence, the data suggest what may be called a "contagion effect" in which support for children's rights generalizes to other rights (Covell & Howe, 1999). A second reason is seen in the design of the curricula. The curricula that have been used involve critical thinking skills, positive peer interaction, and a democratic style of teaching in which the teacher models the rights that the students are learning about. Rights are taught through a variety of group activities, through participatory learning, and through critical discussion and debate. Students are encouraged to express opinions, to challenge ideas, and to explore values in an egalitarian and open manner. Although such teaching styles are known to promote a variety of positive outcomes (Berman, 1997; Kaplan, 2000), they may be unpopular among some teachers.

The existing research on teachers and the effective implementation of new curricula suggests the importance of the following, often interacting, four variables. First, implementation is easier when teachers believe in the goals of a new educational program (Fullan, 1991; Mabry & Ettinger, 1999; Sarason, 1990). This is important in the area of children's rights because some teachers believe that sensitive topics such as children's rights should be taught in the home rather than the school (Covell & Howe, 2001). In addition, there has been general reluctance among many teachers to educate children about their rights for fear this will result in lost authority in the classroom (Franklin, 1996). Moreover, widespread misunderstanding about the nature of children's rights provides a further potential obstacle (Howe & Covell, 1998). For example, children's rights may be wrongly understood as granting the child license to do as she or he pleases. Regardless of specific reasons, if teachers do not believe in the goals of a new curriculum, and particularly if they have considerable autonomy in its delivery, a new curriculum is particularly vulnerable to being subverted or defeated (Mabry & Ettinger, 1999).

Second, implementation is easier if the new program involves little extra workload. When the workload for teachers is particularly demanding and taxing, teachers' concerns about additional work may work to undermine a new program (Mabry & Ettinger, 1999; Mahan & Gill, 1972). Recently teachers in many provinces have expressed concern about new responsibilities in the context of larger classes, fewer resources, loss of support personnel, and inclusion policies. This has been particularly apparent in Nova Scotia (Nova Scotia Teachers Union, 1996), the site of the current research. The interaction of these two variables is exemplified in the findings of Lee (2000) in an assessment of teachers' responses to a new curriculum in environmental education. A key predictor of teacher attitudes was "perceived non-monetary cost-benefit," in essence the ratio between workload and perceived benefits of the curriculum.

Third is the issue of professional development. Generally, researchers have found that successful implementation of new curricula is more likely if teachers are given release time for workshops and training and if they are provided with a support system and extra assistance, especially at the beginning of the program (Katz, 1981; Lee, 2000; Mahan & Gill, 1972). Efforts to acquaint teachers with both the objectives of new curricula and their appropriate teaching practices are related to increased teacher efficacy, as is the teaching of classroom management techniques to complement new learning material (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Guskey, 1987; Robinson & Gorrel, 1994). There is evidence to suggest that teachers who exhibit high levels of self-efficacy and feel that their efforts are worthwhile are more likely to persist in the implementation of new curricula (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Fuller, Wood, Rapoport, & Dornbusch, 1982). However, inservice training has not always proven effective. In a recent study of teachers' responses to a new social studies curriculum, professional development was reported to be generally ineffective and often disregarded (Mabry & Ettinger, 1999). It may be that what differentiates the success of inservice training is teacher input into shaping the new curriculum.

According to Eisner (2000), professional development is more successful when teachers play an active role in shaping the direction and content of new curricula. If a program is seen to be top-down and insensitive to local conditions and the perspectives of teachers, resentment is created and implementation is made more difficult (Mabry & Ettinger, 1999).

We attempted to deal with these issues in the following ways. We developed a children's rights curriculum that would blend into the existing grade 8 social studies and personal development and relationships curricula, by matching articles of the Convention with existing topic issues. For example, activities designed to teach the Convention articles on equality (Articles 2, 13, 14, 15, 23, 29, and 30) were matched with the existing relevant units in social studies (in Nova Scotia, units 2, 3, 5, and 8) and health (in Nova Scotia, unit 3). Furthermore, we structured the curriculum in the same learning outcomes framework used in existing curricula. During the design phase of the curriculum, we consulted with both grade 8 teachers and students to ensure that directions were easy to follow, that teachers were comfortable with the activities described, that students found them relevant and interesting, and that learning goals were met. Greene (2000) notes both the importance of including students in the shaping of curricula and the value of curricula that address issues of relevance to students, such as the use of drugs or birth control. Moreover, she notes the importance of activities that engender empathy and a sense of community in the classroom. The rights curriculum has been shown to be effective in this regard (Covell & Howe, 2001).

Before implementation of the children's rights curriculum, we provided a one-day workshop for all grade 8 teachers in the district. The focus of the workshop was twofold. First, we introduced teachers to the Convention with an emphasis on the important role teachers play in raising awareness of it. Second, we introduced them to the curriculum using role play by having them form small groups and sample activities from the perspective of their students. In addition, a teacher who had pilot tested many of the activities talked about his experiences and addressed teachers' concerns.

The primary focus of the present research, then, was to assess teachers' responses to a request to implement a new curriculum on children's rights. To examine whether teacher cooperation would be affected by agreement with the goals of the curriculum, we assessed their attitudes toward children's rights, as well as their beliefs about teaching children's rights. To determine whether teachers' perceptions about the curriculum would influence its use, we asked them to evaluate it. In addition, we examined the impact of related variables such as class size and years of experience that might indicate the need for greater effort. Also, we assessed whether the contagion effect obtained earlier among students would also be evident among teachers. Would teachers' support for rights, especially children's rights, be affected by their experience teaching the children's rights curriculum?

As a further indicator of teachers' success with the children's rights curriculum, we examined student outcomes. Specifically, we investigated the relationship between teachers' reported use of the rights curriculum and students' knowledge about and support for rights. We also looked at the relationship between teachers' support for rights and the level of rights support observed among their students.

### *Method*

#### *Participants*

##### *Teachers*

All teachers of grade 8 health/PDR and social studies classes in the local school district were asked to attend a one-day workshop at the beginning of the school year to be introduced to the children's rights curriculum. A total of 35 teachers (80% of health/PDR and social studies teachers in the district) attended the workshop. Completed data were obtained on 31; both pretest and posttest analyses were restricted to these teachers. Demographic data indicate that 13 were male and 18 were female. Of these, 87% reported their highest degree to be a BEd, and 13% a master's degree. The range of years of teaching experience was from 2 to 30 years, with an average of 16 years. The class size varied from 8 to 33 students, with an average class size of 25 students. All schools represented in the sample are located in relatively small working-class neighborhoods.

##### *Students*

At the end of the school year, the 906 students (440 male, 466 female) of the 31 participating grade 8 teachers completed the Rights Values Survey described below during class time with the classroom teacher and a research assistant present. In addition, individual interviews were held with a subset of 83 students (47 who had regularly used the curriculum and 36 who had not). These 83 students were selected in the following manner. Over the course of the school year, four regularly spaced telephone calls were made to each teacher. During each call teachers were asked what parts of the curriculum they had used and if they required any additional information or resources. Responses were used to assess the amount of curriculum use. Teachers were rank-ordered by the amount of curriculum use, and the classes of the top two ( $n=47$ ) and bottom two ( $n=36$ ) ranked teachers were selected for interviewing. The intent was to interview for comparison those students who received the least and the greatest amount of children's rights education.

*Materials and Procedure.*

The curriculum used was the Children's Rights Curriculum Resource, pilot tested and evaluated in earlier research (Covell & Howe, 2001). The Children's Rights Curriculum Resource was developed to correspond with existing provincial health/PDR and social studies curricula. Consultation with teachers during the developmental stages helped to ensure that both the content and the process were appropriate and useful for teachers and students at the grade 8 level.

The curriculum is completely self-contained, with approximately 65 detailed lesson plans, each including learning outcomes, health/PDR and social studies curriculum tie-ins, suggestions for preparation and method, and relevant articles of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Subject areas include general children's rights issues, equality and discrimination, alcohol and drug use, sexuality, abuse, the environment, juvenile justice, education, and employment.

The curriculum requires a democratic approach to classroom management and involves learning about rights in a participatory learning environment where ideas are discussed openly and respectfully, and rights principles are applied to everyday issues of relevance to early adolescents. Through democratic teaching, teachers model respect for the rights of others. Also, when students are encouraged to interact with each other respectfully, they learn the values of tolerance and acceptance. The goal of the curriculum, then, is to take learning about rights beyond the abstract and help students to learn to function as both rights-bearing and rights-respecting citizens (the Children's Rights Curriculum Resource is available in PDF format on the Children's Rights Centre's Web site: <http://faculty.uccb.ns.ca/childrensrights/>).

At the beginning of the workshop, before introducing the teachers to the curriculum, a pretest was conducted. Each teacher was asked to complete a survey that comprised the following measures.

*Rights Values Survey (Covell & Howe, 2001, alpha=.93)*

This is a 30-item measure of support for the rights of adults (15 items) and children (15 items). The adult rights are from the Canadian *Charter of Rights and Freedoms* and human rights law and include rights of ethnic minorities, Native peoples, people with disabilities, and homosexuals. The children's rights items are from the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and include children's rights to protection, provision, and participation. Each item is a statement followed by a 5-point scale on which the respondent rates how important that right is (not at all important to very important). To avoid social desirability of response, the rights statements are presented in specific contexts such that there are competing considerations. For example, "The right of people with mental disabilities to special training and employment opportunities despite high levels of unemployment for others," and "The right of children in trouble with the law to be sentenced differently from adults even if they commit serious crimes." Ratings are summed such that each respondent receives one score for support for adults' rights and one for support for children's rights. In each case the higher the score, the more the rights are supported.

*Children's Rights Education Survey (alpha=.88)*

This 8-item survey asks for agreement ratings on a 5-point scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree) in response to statements about teaching children's rights at school. Statements are worded such that half are supportive of children's rights education in schools (e.g., "All teachers should incorporate children's rights education into their regular classroom activities") and half are not (e.g., "It would be better to focus on children's responsibilities rather than their rights"). In addition, a demographics page asked for sex, highest degree attained, years of experience, and number of students in the class. Before the workshop described above, each teacher was asked to complete the survey.

At the end of the workshop, each teacher was given a curriculum resource, our Web site address (supportive materials were on the Web site), and contact telephone numbers. Teachers were asked to start introducing the curriculum activities as soon as possible and to continue them on a regular weekly basis throughout the school year. School district officials wrote to each teacher asking him or her to use the curriculum throughout the school year. Each teacher was telephoned four times throughout the period of curriculum use to ask if further supports were needed and to assess use of the curriculum.

At the end of the school year, a posttest was conducted with the teachers. The posttest included the two surveys and demographics questions described above, as well as questions that asked the teacher to describe how much of the curriculum was used and their evaluation of the curriculum. There were three questions on curriculum use, (a) when it started, (b) how frequently it was used, and (c) what percent of activities were used. Each question was accompanied by a rating scale. Answers were added to give a use score. The curriculum was rated on six dimensions (age-appropriateness, ease of use, student response, benefits to cooperative work, benefits for critical thinking skills development, and enjoyable to teach). Again, each was rated on a 5-point scale and answers were added to yield one evaluation score. Space on the survey was provided for comments.

*Student Interviews*

Trained research assistants conducted the interviews on an individual basis. These lasted approximately 10 minutes and took place during the last three weeks of the school year. The questions asked were those used in earlier research to assess students' learning about children's rights (Covell & Howe, 1999). The students were asked the following questions: (a) "What do you think it means for children to have rights?" (b) "What's good about children having rights?" (c) "Should all children have rights? If not, who and at what age?" (d) "Is it really important for children to have rights?" Their answers were recorded verbatim. Responses also were coded as in earlier research (Covell & Howe, 1999): 1=process (enjoyable activities, learned skills through group work, etc.); 2=broadened knowledge (increased awareness of others' situations, learned that not all children's rights are respected etc.); 3=rights as justice and equality (equality with adults, equal treatment, children's opinions are important, etc.); 4=rights and responsibility (must treat others with respect, rights come with responsibility, etc.); 5=resources for children (help available if being abused, etc.); 6=rights as protection (rights protect children from abuse, etc.); 7=happy/healthy life (rights bring a brighter future, happier children,

etc.); 8=rights of provision (food, education, etc.); 9=children can do what they want (don't have to do chores, homework, etc.); 10=don't know; 11=nothing.

### *Results*

The number of teachers in the study precluded the use of regression analyses, so correlational analyses were performed on the survey data. Due to multiple analyses, the alpha level used for significance was 0.01.

In the pretest (conducted with only teachers at the beginning of the teacher workshop) a significant relationship was found between teachers' attitudes toward teaching children's rights and their support for adults' rights ( $r(n=31)=.503$ ), and their support for children's rights ( $r(n=31)=.462$ ). The greater the support for rights, the stronger the belief that children's rights should be taught in school. There was, however, no significant relationship between the pretest attitude measures and the subsequent use of the curriculum.

The overall rating of the curriculum was positive ( $M=25.3$ , maximum possible score=30). Approximately 96% of teachers said that the curriculum was age-appropriate, 80% said it was easy to implement, 70% said that their students enjoyed it, 80% said it was good for cooperative work, 84% said it was good for critical thinking and skills development, and 79% said that they enjoyed using the curriculum.

To examine the impact of teacher variables on student outcomes, the posttest data were analyzed using both teachers and their students. The following significant relations were revealed. Class size correlated negatively with the use of the curriculum ( $r(n=853)=-.267$ ), the curriculum rating ( $r(n=853)=-.381$ ), and belief in teaching children's rights ( $r(n=853)=-.260$ ). The smaller the class size, the greater was the use of the curriculum, the more positive its evaluation, and the greater the belief in teaching children's rights at school. Years of experience correlated with the use of the curriculum ( $r(n=853)=.095$ ) and belief in teaching children's rights ( $r(n=853)=.134$ ). The more years of experience the teachers had, the greater was their use of the curriculum with their students, and the greater the belief in teaching children's rights at school.

The more teachers used the curriculum, the higher were their ratings of it ( $r(31)=.767$ ), the greater their belief in teaching children's rights at school ( $r(31)=.163$ ), and the greater their support for children's rights ( $r(31)=.237$ ).

Correlations were performed also between teachers' posttest score for rights values and those of their students. These analyses showed that the greater the teacher's support for children's rights, the greater was their students support for adults rights ( $r(n=853)=.110$ ). Also, chi-square analyses indicated that the responses of children whose teachers had used the curriculum were significantly different from those in the non-curriculum group when asked, "What does it mean for children to have rights?" ( $\chi^2(7, n=83)=15.35, p<.04$ ) and "Why is it important for children to have rights?" ( $\chi^2(7, n=83)=17.61, p<.05$ ). For the former, children who experienced more of the curriculum were significantly more likely to give equality and justice answers, and those who received less of the curriculum were more likely to understand rights as license to do what you want, or not to know. For the latter, those who had little of the curriculum were more likely to answer that they did not know, whereas those who were taught more of the curriculum were more likely to answer in terms of equality and justice, protection, and provision rights.

### *Discussion*

Our analyses of teachers' responses to the introduction of the new curriculum in children's rights indicate that neither workshop attendance nor prior belief in the goals of the curriculum are predictive of the amount it is used. Consistent with Lee's (2000), findings, however, workload may be. Of particular note was the finding that the more teachers used the curriculum, the more positively they evaluated it and the more they expressed attitudes supportive of children's rights. As in earlier research, students who learned about their rights indicated greater support for the rights of others and a more accurate and adult-like understanding of the nature of rights.

Although all teachers attended a workshop to prepare them for the new curriculum, there was wide variation in how much the curriculum was used. Earlier data would suggest that this variation may reflect the variation in teacher involvement in curriculum design (Eisner, 2000). However, our findings suggest that factors that predicted use of the curriculum were having a relatively small class and a relatively greater number of years of experience. These factors are believed to reflect workload. Clearly teachers with smaller classes need to spend less time in such activities as grading, and those with less experience need to spend more time in preparing activities. In addition, greater experience may indicate greater confidence or interest in trying new curricula. The predictive power of experience and class size can be researched further in subsequent assessments of cooperation with new curricula.

The teachers in this study differed not only in class size and years of experience, but also in their a priori beliefs about rights. In the pretest measures, teachers who indicated an overall support for adults' rights were more supportive of the idea of teaching children's rights. However, posttest data showed that these a priori differences in attitudes to rights, or to teaching children's rights, were not predictive of subsequent curriculum use. This finding is in contrast to those in earlier literature in which teachers' beliefs in curricula goals were shown to predict cooperation with curricula use (Fullan, 1991; Mabry & Ettinger, 1999). It may be that some teachers used the curriculum because of a school board directive and a consequent sense of obligation.

Most noteworthy in the present study was that whereas attitudes toward rights did not predict cooperation with curriculum use, by the end of the year curriculum use predicted attitudes toward rights. The more the teachers used the curriculum, the more they liked it, the greater their belief in its goals, and the greater their support for children's rights. In essence, we did obtain the contagion effect obtained earlier with students (Covell & Howe, 1999, 2001).

While teaching their students about children's rights, teachers themselves became stronger believers in children's rights. Lowenstein (1996) and Wringe (1999), among others, have suggested that education in the appreciation of rights may be among the useful methods of values teaching. It would appear that the values of the teacher are as much affected as are those of the student. There are a number of possible explanations for teachers' increase in support for children's rights. It may have resulted from the knowledge gained by the teacher about the reality of children's rights under the Convention. As noted above, there has been little awareness of rights among educators (Peters &

Montgomerie, 1998). Misperceptions about the nature of children's rights may be overcome with use of the curriculum as the teacher learns about the rights of children. A second consideration is that the curriculum required the teacher to model the rights children were being taught; they had, for example, the right to expression of opinion. Perhaps as teachers responded to their students as rights bearers, they were persuaded of the benefits of such. A related possibility comes from teachers' observations of the positive impact of learning about their rights on the classroom environment and students' behaviors. Comments on the posttest survey included

They (students) realized that since all children are the bearers of rights, it is important to ensure that they respect the rights of others. This understanding was accompanied by a reduction in behaviors that infringe upon the rights of others.

and "As they began to understand diversity and realize that everyone is equal, students became more accepting of others. This led to a decrease in teasing and bullying." Such observations are consistent with those in earlier studies of the impact of children's rights education on students (Decoene & De Cock, 1996; Covell & Howe, 1999). Similarly, the interview responses of the students in the present study suggest the students' attitudes and behaviors may have improved when they learned about their rights.

Consistent with earlier research (Covell & Howe, 1999, 2001; Decoene & De Cock, 1996), the students in the present sample whose teachers used the curriculum most indicated a more accurate, adult-like understanding of rights as entitlements to fair treatment—to protection from abuse, to provision of health and education, and to justice and equality. Exemplary comments from the students were consistent with teachers' observations and included the following: "It is important for children to have rights ... if not they may not get what they need like education"; "It is really important for children to have rights because if we didn't have rights everyone could take advantage of us"; "Learning about my rights helped me to learn about myself and how to respect myself"; "Everybody's rights should be respected no matter what the situation is or what color your skin is, or your culture, or beliefs"; and "We learned that we need to respect other people's rights. Everyone is the same and has the same rights."

In addition, the students' supportive attitudes for the rights of adults, including ethnocultural minorities and those with disabilities, were significantly related to their teacher's support for children's rights. These findings suggest a classroom characterized by mutual respect between teachers and students as well as among students. In the words of one teacher, "The activities helped students to gain an understanding of the connection between rights and responsibilities." "The activities contributed to the development of more positive relationships among students." In the words of a student, "Children are happy to get up in the morning and go to school knowing that they have people that care about them."

The implications of the present research for the incorporation of children's rights education into school curricula are self-evident. The benefits to student attitudes and behavior found in earlier research (Covell & Howe, 2001;

Decoene & De Cock, 1996) were replicated, and the teachers who used the curriculum were positive about its use and its effect.

The data also provide some indication of how to facilitate the introduction of new curricula in general. Because class size and teacher experience predicted cooperation with implementing a new curriculum, it may be helpful to limit the initial implementation of new studies to teachers who meet these criteria. Evaluation research can then assess the new curricula and findings used to modify as necessary or to advocate more widespread implementation. Teachers who have positive experiences with new curricula may act as mentors to others, may assist at workshops in which curricula are introduced, or may provide testimonials that encourage more widespread adoption. Knowledge of how to gain teachers' cooperation with the implementation of new curricula is important. It is of particular importance to the success of new curricula in more sensitive areas such as sexuality and related life-skills training, curricula that are becoming increasingly acknowledged as globally important (Dakar Framework, 2000; Searle de Acevedo & Rubio, 2000).

#### Acknowledgment

The research described here was supported by a standard research grant from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada to Covell and Howe.

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