



**AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF HUMAN RIGHTS
EDUCATION IN TWO CONTRASTING SECONDARY
SCHOOLS IN THAILAND**

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ABSTRACT

Human Rights Education (HRE) is a growing research area which informs policy discussion and teaching practice development (Bajaj, 2011; Osler & Starkey, 2010). Thailand is one country attempting to integrate HRE into its school curriculum. However, recently, due to its having a military government, Thailand has been criticised for its human rights situation (Human Rights Watch, 2015). It is therefore of great interest to study the current situation of HRE delivery in a country where a democratically elected government does not exist.

There is a shortage of research into the practical delivery of HRE within secondary school contexts in Thailand. By employing case studies underpinned by ethnographic research methods, this study sought to explore the current situation of HRE in two contrasting secondary schools in the north-east of Thailand. School A has a good reputation for HRE while School B appears to follow the government guidance on HRE, but as yet, does not have a high profile. Three data collection methods were employed, including participant observation, document analysis, and interviews. Observation took place both inside and outside classrooms. Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was employed to analyse the data.

This study found evidence that human rights were implemented extensively in School A both inside and outside of the classroom while human rights were partly implemented in School B. However, in School B, there was still evidence of good practice of human rights learning in some classes of Civic Duties Subjects, even though there was reluctance to deliver HRE amongst many of the teachers. The findings in this study shed light on issues relating to building a model of how HRE should be presented in schools, which consists of eight key claims: 1) HRE needs to be embedded in every aspect of a school both inside and outside classrooms; 2) Contextualising human rights in the classroom makes the learning experience for students meaningful; 3) The knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of teachers have an impact on pedagogical practices; 4) Close collaboration and support between teachers is crucial to HRE; 5) Student council plays a vital role in bridging communication between students, teachers and school administrators and provide a resource for human rights; 6) Extra-curricular activities can have a significant impact on students' behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights; 7) Community engagement and partnerships with other organisations enhance the understanding of the wider implications of HRE for students; 8) The context of operating within a military regime creates a complex and contradictory environment for teachers and students in schools which endeavour to promote human rights.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1	1
1.1 Background and statement of the problem	1
1.2 Overall research aim	3
1.3 Research questions.....	3
1.4 Structure of the thesis.....	4
 CHAPTER 2	 7
2.1 Introduction.....	7
2.2 Human rights.....	7
2.2.1 Brief history of human rights.....	8
2.2.2 Definitions of human rights	11
2.2.3 Types of human rights	13
2.2.4 Criticism of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR).....	16
2.3 Human rights education (HRE)	18
2.3.1 Definitions of HRE	19
2.3.2 History and expansion of HRE	24
2.3.3 Associated forms of HRE	29
2.3.4 Models of HRE	33
2.3.5 Methodologies for HRE.....	37
2.3.6 Related studies about HRE	40
2.4 HRE in Thailand	47
2.4.1 Background of HRE in Thailand	47
2.4.2 HRE in national laws and policies in Thailand.....	50
2.4.3 HRE in national curriculum in Thailand.....	51
2.4.4 HRE situation after the governance of the National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO).....	54
2.5 Summary	57
 CHAPTER 3	 58
3.1 Introduction.....	58
3.2 Case studies employing ethnographic approaches.....	58
3.2.1 Case studies.....	58
3.2.2 Ethnographic approaches	59
3.3 Research methods	62

3.3.1 Participant observation	62
3.3.2 Interviews.....	64
3.3.3 Document analysis	66
3.4 Research stages	67
3.4.1 Stage 1 — Preparation stage	67
3.4.2 Stage 2 — Data collection.....	73
3.5 Data analysis	83
3.5.1 Anonymity of participants	83
3.5.2 Thematic analysis	85
3.6 Ethical consideration.....	91
3.6.1 Informed consent	92
3.6.2 Harm and privacy.....	93
3.7 Summary	93
CHAPTER 4.....	95
4.1 Introduction.....	95
4.2 Description of the school	95
4.3 How are human rights enacted in School A?.....	96
4.3.1 Inside the classroom.....	97
4.3.2 Outside the classroom.....	107
4.4 Factors influencing HRE in School A	133
4.4.1 Organisation culture.....	133
4.4.2 Education Act and school curriculum.....	137
4.4.3 Governmental policy and campaign	139
4.4.4 Human rights trainings for teachers and students	141
4.4.5 Community engagement and expectation.....	144
4.4.6 Maintaining a good reputation and securing awards given	144
4.4.7 Local, national, and international partnerships	146
4.5 Summary	147
CHAPTER 5.....	148
5.1 Introduction.....	148
5.2 Description of the school	148
5.3 How are human rights enacted in School B?	149
5.3.1 Inside the classroom.....	150
5.3.2 Outside the classroom.....	168

5.4. Factors influencing HRE in School B.....	194
5.4.1 Organisation culture.....	194
5.4.2 Education Act and school curriculum.....	197
5.4.3 Governmental policy and campaigns.....	199
5.4.4 Teachers’ personal beliefs and experiences.....	203
5.4.5 Administrators’ constraints.....	204
5.5 Summary.....	205
CHAPTER 6.....	207
6.1 Introduction.....	207
6.2 Key claims of findings.....	207
6.2.1 HRE needs to be embedded in every aspect of a school both inside and outside of classrooms.	212
6.2.2 Contextualising human rights in the classroom makes the learning experience for students meaningful.....	218
6.2.3 The knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of teachers have an impact on pedagogical practices.....	222
6.2.4 Close collaboration and support between teachers is crucial to HRE.	224
6.2.5 Student council plays a vital role in bridging communication between students, teachers and school administrators and provide a resource for human rights.....	226
6.2.6 Extra-curricular activities can have a significant impact on students’ behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights.	230
6.2.7 Community engagement and partnerships with other organisations enhance the understanding of the wider implications of HRE for students.	232
6.2.8 The context of operating within a military regime creates a complex and contradictory environment for teachers and students in schools which endeavour to promote human rights.....	235
6.3 Summary.....	240
CHAPTER 7.....	241
7.1 Introduction.....	241
7.2 Summary of the study.....	241
7.2.1 Review of approach and methods.....	241
7.2.2 Key findings.....	242
7.3 Contributions to the field.....	244
7.3.1 Theoretical contribution.....	245
7.3.2 Practical contribution.....	246
7.3.3 Methodological contribution.....	247
7.4 Practical implications.....	248

7.4.1 Implications for government.....	248
7.4.2 Implications for school administrators	249
7.4.3 Implications for teachers.....	249
7.4.4 Implications for student council	251
7.4.5 Implications for students.....	251
7.4.6 Implications for community and related organisations.....	252
7.5 Limitations	252
7.6 Recommendations for future research	253
7.7 Closing remarks	254
REFERENCES.....	256
APPENDICES	273
Appendix 1: Ethical approval document.....	273
Appendix 2: Set of consent forms.....	274
Appendix 3: Focus group interview questions.....	277
Appendix 4: Classroom observation form	280
Appendix 5: A summary/overview of the themes and example of coding process	282

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Evolution of educational responses to the needs of pluralist societies.....	30
Figure 2.2: HRE in relation to current educational responses to the need for informed and active citizens	31
Figure 2.3: Types of HRE.....	32
Figure 3.1: Map of Thailand with the Northeast in red	68
Figure 3.2: The red area represents Nakhon Phanom Province.....	70
Figure 3.3: The locations of School A and School B	72
Figure 3.4: The use of ATLAS.ti software for thematic analysis	87
Figure 6.1: Key Claims	211
Figure 6.2: Process of School A’s students’ communication and engagement	228
Figure 6.3: Different levels of engagement and partnerships between School A and other organisations regarding HRE	233
Figure 6.4: Impacts of Civic Duties Subjects on human rights teaching in School B	237

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: International HRE instruments and documents	27
Table 2.2: Typology of HRE and associated education formations	33
Table 2.3: Tibbitts' Models of HRE	34
Table 2.4: Revised version of Tibbitts' three HRE models	35
Table 2.5: ARRC's HRE methodology	38
Table 2.6: Tibbitts' HRE methodology	39
Table 2.7: Two strands related to HRE in the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008)	53
Table 3.1: Summary of observations from November 2015-April 2016.....	74
Table 3.2: Participants in focus group interviews in School A and School B.....	81
Table 3.3: Examples of candidate themes and subthemes between School A and School B ..	89
Table 3.4: Examples of candidate themes and their revised versions.....	90
Table 3.5: Examples of themes and specific features of data	91
Table 6.1: Summary of human rights learning topics in Civic Duties Subjects of School A and School B	220

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACHR	American Convention on Human Rights
AHRD	ASEAN Human Rights Declaration
AI	Amnesty International
AICHR	ASEAN Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights
ARRC	Asia-Pacific Regional Resource Centre
ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASP NET	Associated Schools Project Network
CDHRI	The Cairo Declaration on Human Rights in Islam
CRE	Child Rights Education
ECHR	European Convention on Human Rights
ESCR	Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights
HRCSA	Human Rights Commission South Africa
HRE	Human Rights Education
HREA	Human Rights Education Associates
ICESCR	The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
NCPO	National Council for Peace and Order
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
NHRCT	The National Human Rights Commission of Thailand
OBEC	The Office of the Basic Education Commission
OHCHR	The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
ONEC	The Office of the National Education Commission

SUHAKAM	Suruhanjaya Hak Asasi Manusia Malaysia (The Human Rights Commission of Malaysia)
TCFSP	Thailand Child-Friendly Schools Programme
TOT	Training of Trainers
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	The United Nations
UNCRC	The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNDHRT	The United Nations Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNWPHRE	The United Nations World Programme for Human Rights Education

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and statement of the problem

Human rights education (HRE) was first mentioned in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948 (Osler, 2016). The amount of interest and global support that HRE receives from scholars, educators and teachers has recently increased and it has become an evolving field (Kalenská, 2016; Kingston, 2012; Phillips & Gready, 2013; Tibbitts, 2018). HRE is also recommended as a precondition of a healthy democratic society (Kerr & Keating, 2011; Tibbitts & Fernekes, 2010). Furthermore, it has been considered as contributing substantially to a society's development (Nganga, 2011).

The importance of HRE in several aspects is clearly stated in many places including intergovernmental documents, and numerous organisations and publications of research related to HRE. The United Nations (UN) is a significant intergovernmental organisation with regard to the promotion of HRE. The UN has continuously supported HRE by explicitly announcing many initiatives regarding HRE. The four significant ones are the UN Decade for Human Rights Education (UNDHRE) (1995-2004), the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (1989), the UN Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training (UNDHRET) (2011), and the three-phase UN World Programme for Human Rights Education (UNWPHRE). Regarding the last of these, a three-phase scheme was created so as to support the implementation of HRE programmes across all sectors of society. Phase One (2005-2009) emphasised the implementation of HRE in primary and secondary school systems. Phase Two (2010-2014) called for integrating HRE into the higher education system and the training of teachers and educators, civil servants, law enforcement officials and the military. Phase Three (2015-2019) focuses on journalists and other media professionals, with emphasis on education and training in equality and non-discrimination. Following the UN initiatives concerning HRE, in such documents it is mandatory that all states promote human rights in all levels of education.

Thailand, one of the members of the UN, has recognised the value of HRE by, initially at least, developing the policy under the framework of the 1997 Constitution, the so-called "People's Constitution". This constitution was the basis of the National Education Act 1999

and the National Scheme for Education (Wongvaree, 2009). Deriving from the National Education Act 1999, HRE in Thailand mainly focuses on HRE in basic formal education (a duration of twelve years from 7-18 years old) and covers about 8-11 million children nationwide. Furthermore, as evidenced by the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (2008), eight core subjects form the curriculum, including Thai language, mathematics, science, social studies, religion and cultures, health and physical education, art, careers and technology, and foreign languages. It is clear based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum that a certain amount of HRE content is formally allotted to every level of education, particularly in the learning area of social studies, religion and cultures.

If measured in terms of the quantity of Education Acts and other national documents regarding HRE, HRE in Thailand appears to be flourishing since there has been a significant increase in the number of documents concerning HRE. However, based on the findings of several studies (Flowers, 2015; Muntarbhorn, 2003; Na Pombejr, 2003, 2008; Suwansathit, 2002; Wongvaree, 2009), it is notable that although Thailand has worked hard to integrate HRE in its school system with considerable success, there is still much room for improvement. In other words, while it can be seen that HRE has been clearly given its place in educational policy and curriculum at the national level, however; little research exists at the practical level not only of the implementation of the delivery of HRE, but of human rights themselves within the secondary school context. Furthermore, HRE still remains in need of serious attention if it is to be practised in secondary school contexts across Thailand. Recently, due to the presence of a military government starting from May 2014 up to the present time, Thailand has been criticised for its human rights situation (Human Rights Watch, 2015). The military government, focusing on the pre-existing policy concerning HRE, found that the subject of Civic Duties could be brought in line with its policies for solving the nation's problems. Therefore, Civic Duties was separated out as a standalone subject. It will thus be of serious interest to study the current HRE trends in a country where a democratically elected government does not exist.

This study takes the specific realities of HRE in a secondary school that has a high profile in HRE and compares them with a secondary school that does not have such a high profile. The term 'high profile' does not mean that one school values HRE more highly but rather than the school is well known for it and is often used as an exemplar; in contrast, the other school is working towards this status. This research can be of benefit in several ways. It has the potential to benefit those teachers and students nationwide who are promoting human rights in their local schools. The findings obtained from this research can help to uncover the

status of HRE in secondary schools in Thailand. Furthermore, this research represents a key grassroots educational opportunity to explore HRE in a secondary education context. Its findings can thus be used as initial information for the further development of strategic planning, teaching techniques and learning programmes to promote HRE in secondary education in Thailand, as well as enhancing public awareness and interest in HRE. In the wider context, the findings from this study might be transferable to the contexts of other countries which operate within military regimes. The findings might also contain lessons for other educational institutions outside Thailand to adapt to their particular contexts.

1.2 Overall research aim

To explore HRE in secondary schools in Thailand, it is essential to develop an understanding about HRE teaching and learning at the initial stage of the Thai educational system. It is important to pay attention to its position in educational policy both at national and school levels, and the interpretations this receives. In order to focus on HRE practice and how HRE is conducted within schools, it is necessary to limit the scope. In this thesis, HRE in secondary education was selected as the focus, so the emphasis will be placed on the elements related to secondary education. With secondary education selected as the context, this thesis focuses on one main objective,

“To explore the current situation of ‘human rights education’ in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand”

1.3 Research questions

In relation to this objective, the following primary research questions were posed for this study.

- 1) What do teachers do to promote ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?
- 2) What values and beliefs do teachers hold in relation to ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?
- 3) How do students experience ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?

The research questions addressed in this present study draw attention to varying dimensions of HRE at the secondary school level. One aspect of this is the differences in human rights teaching and learning between two secondary schools, between HRE policy and teachers, and to what degree the values and beliefs of teachers influence the support of HRE in schools.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. The structure and content of each chapter is summarised as following.

Chapter 1 — Introduction

Chapter 1 provides a background to and an initial statement of the problem. This includes a brief review of HRE in the global context and the current practices of HRE in Thailand. The overall research aim and research questions are articulated and an outline of the thesis structure is stated.

Chapter 2 — Literature review

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature to firmly ground the study. This includes a summary of the related sources and current state of knowledge taken into consideration when conducting this research. The following topics relating to human rights are explored including definitions and concepts relating to human rights, HRE in general, and HRE in Thailand. The sources mentioned provide the generally accepted existing knowledge with regard to this research topic on the current situation of HRE in Thailand.

Chapter 3 — Research methodology

Chapter 3 presents information concerning the way the present study was conducted. It starts with the methodology adopted in the study. This includes the selection of the ethnographic approach to underpin the case studies and how this impacted on the study's overall design. Then, the ethnographic methods are elaborated upon (participant observation, interviews, and document analysis) and the research stages are illustrated (preparation stage and data

collection). The chapter ends with an overview of the data analysis methodology selected, using a six-phase thematic analysis framework and including a section on ethics.

Chapter 4 — Human rights education in School A

Chapter 4 presents HRE in School A. This school has a high profile in HRE and human rights are recognised throughout the whole school. As the result of the data analysis using thematic analysis, the chapter develops understandings about learning human rights in the classroom in Civic Duties lessons, learning human rights outside the classrooms, and the set of factors influencing the promotion of HRE in School A.

Chapter 5 — Human rights education in School B

Chapter 5 presents the findings for HRE in School B. This school implements HRE, but does not have the same national reputation as School A. Three aspects of HRE are illustrated, including learning human rights lessons in Civic Duties classes, human rights practices outside the classrooms, and the set of factors influencing HRE in School B. A substantial contradiction is found between the support for human rights stated in the school policy documents and the actual practices of the school.

Chapter 6 — Discussion

Chapter 6 discusses the implementation of HRE in School A and School B in relation to the existing research studies. Through cross-comparison between School A and School B, the findings shed light on issues related to HRE through the eight key claims. These eight key claims address how human rights are implemented in both schools featured in this study, and how far the eight essential elements for building human rights-oriented schools have been utilised, as based on the findings.

Chapter 7 — Conclusion

Chapter 7 summarises the key findings of the study concerning HRE in School A and School B. It then delineates the contributions to theoretical, practical and methodological knowledge

made in this study. The implications of the research findings for practice and for the various stakeholders are then supplied. The final section of this chapter discusses the limitations of the study, as well as possible future research directions, and offers a number of closing remarks.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter offers a review of the significant documents and of the key points scholars have raised in connection to human rights and human rights education (HRE) and particularly of those directly pertinent to the research questions. It begins with an overview of the history of human rights, definitions of human rights, types of human rights and criticism of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (2.2). Further, definitions of HRE and the history and expansion of HRE are explored in order to clarify the meaning of the terms and to present the significant development of HRE in particular. It then introduces associated forms and models of HRE as well as related studies about HRE (2.3). Section 2.4 reviews the background of HRE in Thailand and illustrates its place among the national laws and policies in Thailand. Furthermore, it discusses HRE in the national curriculum and its position after the coming to governance of the National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO) in 2014. The final section (2.5) provides a summary of the chapter.

2.2 Human rights

Human rights have long been declared and become a dominant doctrine on a global scale. Orend (2002) notes the similarity to the modern concept of human rights in the way that all the major religions in the world “support some form of idea that each human person, as the creation of some Divinity, has worth and value, and accordingly should be treated with a measure of dignity and respect” (p. 191). Cole (2012) notes that the concept of ‘human rights’, phrased as such, is a comparatively recent phenomenon which is relevant to the prediction of Claude and Weston (1992) that the idea of human rights will shape the aspirations of people around the globe.

2.2.1 Brief history of human rights

The real origin of human rights has been controversial for decades. There are divergent views towards the foundation of human rights. Kenneth (2004) and Micheline (2004) mention that in the early civilisations of mankind, codes associated with rulers were found. For example, Menes, Hammurabi, Draco, Solon, and Manu each outline a standard of conduct for their societies, which existed within limited territorial jurisdictions. The code of Hammurabi, written on a clay tablet, outlines punishment based on ‘an eye for an eye’.

Many research studies (Boroumond, 1999; Morsink, 1999; Schmale, 1997) have traced the history of human rights that developed later on in the philosophy of the early classical period. Ishay (2004) states that the influence of Greek philosophers such as Plato and Socrates, as well as of the Stoa, is surely also of great importance in the context of the development of human rights. It is widely acknowledged that these philosophers illustrate their allegiance to a universal view of human goodness and in a sense of human rights (Ishay, 2004). In addition, “the Roman law can be considered as the foundation of today’s legal concept of human rights since the researchers have found the possible roots of human rights within the religions and great ancient law systems” (Flores, 2008, p. 18).

In the Middle Ages, evidence of the occurrence of human rights was discovered in the Magna Carta of the English nobility of 1215. This document comprises a series of written promises between the king and his subjects that he, the king, would govern England and deal with its people according to the customs of feudal law. As found originally in the Magna Carta, all subsequent charters outlined basic rights in which people should be treated equally and no one was above the law including the king. Among the clauses in the Magna Carta, some clauses relevant to human rights issues were the rights of the church to be free from governmental interference, the rights of all free citizens to own and inherit property and to be protected from excessive taxes, and the rights of widows who owned property to choose not to remarry, and it established principles of due process and equality before the law (Holt, 1992).

In the 16th and 17th centuries, more significant human rights declarations emerged such as the Petition of Right (1628), the English Bill of Rights (1689), the United States Declaration of Independence (1776), the American Bill of Rights (1789), and the French Declaration of the Man and Citizen (1789). The most researched period in the history of human rights, however, began with the establishment of the United Nations (UN) in 1945 after the Second World War. Soon after its foundation, the UN proclaimed the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948 in order to clarify the international obligation to promote human rights. It is

noted that the foundation of the UN and the associated UDHR in 1948 marked a prominent change in the history of human rights since they both led to a widening of the issues and an enlarging of the contexts of human rights (Morsink, 1999 and Laqueur & Rubin, 1979, cited in Osler & Starkey, 1996). It has also been proposed that “the tradition of human rights is, and its characteristics remain, distinctively Western” (Pettman, 2010, p. 133).

Prior to this period, “human rights was purely a domestic issue, internationalised only when transnational trade was involved—most notably in the nineteenth century anti-slavery moment” (Englehart, Mahmood, Nathan, & Philip, 2003, p. xx). Furthermore, preexistent to the formulation of the UDHR, individual human beings did not have internationally recognised legal rights; as such, a state’s treatment of its natural persons was not the business of any other state or the international community (Mutua, 2007). This is related to what Cerna (1994) and Mutua (2007) argue is the idea that the UDHR is the foundation of a human rights regime in which it serves as the basis for the development of human rights. Hoover (2013, p. 221) also points out that “it is a pivotal starting point for a more fully consensual and international human rights regime—for example, paving the way for the consensus reached on the 1993 UN Vienna Declaration on human rights (UN General Assembly 1993).” In other words, the UDHR has been considered as the initial impulse to generate the international dimensions of human rights (Irr, 2003).

It can be concluded, based on Mutua’s (2007) argument, that the shift of human rights as a western concept to a universal ideal, as found in the UDHR, is derived from the motivations arising in the aftermath of the Second World War. Here, “the difficulties lie in: (i) the inherent inequalities within the structures of international governance; (ii) the asymmetries of power between the North and the South; (iii) the imbalances between states in the global economy; and (iv) the lopsided military domination of the world by the United States” (Mutua, 2007, p. 553). Prior to the development of the UDHR, the doctrine of human rights had been considerably practised and highly influential in the context of Western societies as seen through the several significant movements for human rights mentioned above.

In other parts of the world, the human rights movement had not been found or reported before the UDHR was officially implemented. Accordingly, the occurrence of the UDHR marked a significant point of change in the concept of human rights as previously western concepts came to be more widely and globally held views. One of the objectives of the UN is to achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, and humanitarian character and in promoting and encouraging the respect for human

rights and for fundamental freedom for all without distinction as to age, educational background, income, sexual orientation, nationality, race, sex, language, or religion (United Nations, 2016). The UDHR is the most significant embodiment of a standard of human rights. Indeed, the UDHR has been described as “showing signs of having achieved the status of holy writ within the human rights movement or the spiritual parent of other human rights documents” (Glendon, 1998, p. 1).

Due to the establishment of the UDHR, this has led to the universal human rights practicalities and movements in different continents. Furthermore, Weissbrodt (1988) and Tomuschat (2003) both suggest that world-wide recognition of the human rights norms established by the UDHR should, in turn, lead to more widespread implementation. African states created their own Charter of Human and People’s Rights (1981) and later on in 1990 Muslim states produced the Cairo Declaration on Human Rights in Islam (CDHRI). The CDHRI was adopted by the members of the Organisation of the Islamic Conference and has been signed by 45 member states so far.

Regarding the Charter of Human and People’s Rights (1981), Adjovi (2012) states that the heads of African governments agreed to create continent-wide and unique human rights instruments so as to follow Europe (European Convention on Human Rights) and the Americas (American Convention on Human Rights) regardless of the application of the Universal Declaration of the UN. In 1993, representatives of Asian states launched the Bangkok Declaration on Human Rights which contained the aspirations of the region for the then forthcoming World Summit. Soon after that, in 1994, the governments of the Member States of the League of Arab States adopted the Arab Charter on Human Rights though no ratification followed. Blitz (2011) mentions that the dramatic changes in Eastern Europe, Africa, and Latin America since 1989 have powerfully demonstrated a surge in demand for the respect of human rights.

In more recent years, popular movements in China, Korea, and other Asian nations reveal a similar commitment to human rights principles. The government of China has implemented and completed on schedule the 2009-2010 “National Human Rights Action Plan” and announced its National Human Rights Action Plan of China (2012-2015) (Yongmei, 2013), while the government of South Korea implemented the National Human Rights Commission Act of the Republic of Korea in 2001. More significantly, the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) made considerable progress in developing a new regional human rights Act in 2007 called the ASEAN Human Rights Declaration (AHRD). AHRD takes its place as an

essential milestone which contributes to the arduous journey in the development of human rights in South-East Asia. It has been found that the rights mentioned in the AHRD go beyond those in the Universal Declaration. They include the rights to safe drinking water and sanitation, the rights to a safe, clean and sustainable environment, protection from discrimination in treatment for people suffering from communicable diseases, including HIV/AIDS, and the right to peace.

It is significant that human rights have now received world-wide acceptance and a growing recognition across the world (Bajaj, 2017; Mihr, 2009). Human rights principles have become recognised from early civilization to the modern time at present. Many charters and agreements have been formulated based upon the widely accepted universal declaration originated by the UN, which has been adapted within localised human rights documents across the world. In other words, despite the broadness of the UDHR's acceptance and application, particular human rights charters have been adapted to fit with the context of each region. Human rights principles are universal; however, the practicalities of human rights need to be adjusted for the specific context or setting over time and from place to place. It is important to note that human rights has become part of international relations, and most countries participate in human rights systems and in promoting moral standards for political organisations.

2.2.2 Definitions of human rights

Due to their wide range of practices, documents, and doctrines, there are numerous variations in conceptual perceptions about human rights. Different civilizations or societies have different conceptions of human well-being (Tomuschat, 2003). Hence, they have different attitudes towards human rights issues (Lee, 1985).

According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, human rights is defined as "one of the basic rights that everyone has to be treated fairly and not in a cruel way, especially by their government" (Human rights, n. d.). In the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, human rights is defined as follows:

Human rights are norms that help to protect all people everywhere from severe political, legal, and social abuses. Examples of human rights are the right to freedom of religion, the right to a fair trial when charged with a crime, the right not to be tortured, and the right to engage in political activity. These rights exist in morality and in law at the national and international levels.

(Nickel, 2017)

Obtained from the International Rights Covenants, human rights derive from the principle of the inherent dignity of the human person. These covenants include the UDHR, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. According to these international human rights treaties, each person has an inherent dignity and worth that arises simply from being human. This individual inherent dignity is restricted within a specific territory and subject to its jurisdiction without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property or birth. Thus each person has the same basic dignity, and human rights are held equally by all.

Apart from the definitions found on significant documents as mentioned above, prominent activists or scholars have also given their definitions of human rights. One of the well-recognised definitions of human rights is derived from a statement from Kofi Annan, ex-Secretary-General of the UN. This statement was delivered on the 10th December 1997, at the University of Tehran, on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary year of the UDHR. He described the meaning of human rights as follows:

Human rights are what reason requires and conscience demands. They are us and we are them. Human rights are rights that any person has as a human being. We are all human beings; we are all deserving of human rights. One cannot be true without the other.

(Annan, 1997)

If Annan establishes the principle of human rights as a human entitlement, Pope John XXIII adds detail to this by elaborating upon the spheres of human life these rights pertain to:

Human rights are the minimum conditions for life in community. In Catholic teaching, human rights include not only civil and political rights, but also economic rights. As Pope John XXIII declared, all people have a right to life, food, clothing, shelter, rest, medical care, education and employment. This means that when people are without a chance to earn a living and must be hungry and homeless, they are being denied basic rights. Society must ensure that these rights are protected.

(Cited in Mahoney & Mahoney, 1993, p. 33)

Reflecting on these definitions of human rights, human rights are bestowed equally upon all people simply because they are human beings, regardless of individual characteristics, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other social status. However, Garcia (1992), McNeilly (1993), and Ray and Tarrow (1987) state that human rights can be interpreted differently based on historical experience, value systems, ideology, jurisdiction and political and economic situation. Yamasaki (2002) says that different societies value human rights differently in that some societies tend to value certain groups and/or people instead of all groups and/or all people. It is therefore implied that human rights are not enjoyed by all people. However, the notion that human rights are an inherent right that do not require qualification i.e. by race, gender or being deserving does not contradict the idea that historically people have been denied these rights. Nor does it undermine the assertion that perceptions of how these rights are framed are historically or culturally contingent.

For Thailand, human rights are officially conceptualised in the current (2007) constitution drafted at the assignment of the military junta. Article 4 of the Constitution states that "dignity, rights, liberty and equality of the people shall be protected." Further content relating to human rights is found in Articles 26 to 69 in which some extensive areas of rights are purposively promoted such as criminal justice, education, non-discrimination, religion and freedom of expression.

2.2.3 Types of human rights

To build up a foundation for human rights in the current world situation, studying different types of human rights is necessary. To analyse the contents of human rights, some scholars have broken human rights up into categories. Vasak (1979), a French jurist at the International Institute of Human Rights in Strasbourg, proposed the division of human rights into three

‘generations’, namely, civil and political rights (first generation), economic social and cultural rights (second generation) and collective rights (third generation). Weston (2006) indicates that Vasak was inspired by the three tenets of the French Revolution: liberty, equality, and fraternity.

I. First generation of human rights: civil and political rights

Civil and political rights are considered as the first generation of human rights since they were first to be claimed by human rights activists. These rights are also found in Articles 18 to 21 of the UDHR. This conception of rights emphasises the notion that human beings are inherently granted certain rights that the state cannot take away. In essence, civil and political rights seek to protect the individuals from the state. In the American Convention on Human Rights, civil and political rights are also mentioned to be upheld officially by the American people as follows:

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought and expression. This right includes freedom to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing, in print, in the form of art, or through any other medium of one's choice.

(American Convention on Human Rights, Article 13.1)

In addition, it is also found in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (1981) that political and civil rights are warranted for Africans. The Charter highlights human equality and rights, including the right to a fair and timely trial and the right to participate in politics and of access to public property and services. Furthermore, an emphasis is also placed on respects for other humans i.e. respect for a person's life and the integrity of his/her person, respect for liberty and security of the person, freedom from arbitrary arrest and detention. This continental charter also emphasises a wide range of freedoms i.e. freedom of conscience and religion, information and expression, freedom of association, assembly, movement and residence, and freedom to political participation.

In this sense, civil and political rights are purposively used as a tool to limit the powers of the government in connection with actions affecting individuals as well as promoting individuals' participation in governmental activities or campaigns.

II. Second generation of human rights: economic, social, and cultural rights

In contrast to the above, social and economic and cultural rights claim concrete material goods and various social benefits such as a subsistence level of income, basic level of education and health care, sufficient food, clean water and air, and equal opportunity at work. These are called the second generation of human rights, since the Industrial Revolution caused many social changes, thus many issues about society were raised consequently (Orend, 2002). To many governments, Kelsey and Peterson (2003, p. 9) mention that “economic, social and cultural rights are of second importance to the implementation of civil and political rights”.

In parallel with the first-generation rights, the second generation of human rights are embodied in Articles 22 to 27 of the UDHR. Economic and social rights are listed in Articles 22 to 26 of the UDHR and cultural rights are listed in Article 27 of UDHR. It can be claimed that these rights should be guaranteed by the state in order to provide the necessary resources for the survival and development of its citizens.

In substance, social, economic and cultural rights play a vital role in securing an adequate standard of living that are at the core of economic, social and cultural rights. These kinds of rights are not directly obtained by individuals but rather depend upon a government to respect and provide them.

III. Third generation of human rights: solidarity rights

The third generation of human rights is sometimes called ‘solidarity’ rights or ‘collective’ rights. This generation is consistently related to the notion of fraternity, meaning brotherhood or solidarity. The difference between the third generation of rights and the first two generations of rights is shown as follows:

The third generation of human rights while drawing upon the reconceptualising the demands associated with the first two generations is best understood as a product of the rise and decline of the nation-state in the last half of the twentieth century.

(Weston, 2006, p. 23)

The third generation of human rights covers group or collective rights including the right to economic development, prosperity, benefit from economic growth, social harmony, and a healthy environment, clean air and water. The third generation of human rights is also embedded in Article 28 of the UDHR that “everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realised.”

Weston (2003) criticises the modern history of human rights arguing that the contents of human rights have been defined broadly regardless of the association with any generations of human rights. It is significant to note at this stage that there are some differences between these three generations of rights; however, the perspectives of the classification of human rights have had little influence on the nature of the state’s obligation to guarantee human rights.

2.2.4 Criticism of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)

In essence, the first part of this chapter has demonstrated the predominant influences on the development of the UDHR in the modern history of human rights. The benefits from the achievements secured by the adoption of the UDHR have been considerable; however, some criticisms have been made of the contents and practicality of the declaration. As Adams, Harrow and Jones observe,

However, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights has been called the world’s best kept secret. Few know what it contains. Fewer have seen a copy. Yet it is meant to be disseminated, displayed and expounded, principally in schools...

(Adams, Harrow & Jones, 2001, p. vi)

The very first criticism towards the adoption of UDHR is the document’s non-binding status. States voluntarily adjust their laws and practices to the agreed standards provided in the UDHR. Glendon (2004) states that even though UDHR is not binding in obligation on states, many states have incorporated the standards of human rights into their domestic laws especially the basic or well-known rights such as the rights to life, liberty, and personal security. Smith (2010) also argues, regarding the adoption of the UDHR, that there are no apparent guidelines for incorporating all rights into a state’s context. Individual states should therefore take into consideration the status of the particular rights needing to be implemented. In the case of

Thailand, since it is a member of the UN and had voted to adopt the UDHR, adopting the human rights Declaration has been taken into account as the mechanism to improve the human rights situation in the country. Wongvaree (2009) mentions that the 1980s is the starting point of Thailand's entering into the international human rights paradigm.

Another major weakness of the content of the UDHR is the idea that it is a Western-based document. Since this declaration is a milestone document mostly created out of western contexts, it might not take into account other cultures or norms existing in the rest of the world. Morsink (1999) states that at the time of UDHR was generated, thirty-seven of the member nations were Judeo-Christian, eleven were Islamic, six believed in Marxism and four were Buddhist. Morsink also mentions that the UDHR might impose Western values on everybody else. One notable critique related to the content of UDHR is the great emphasis it lays on the rights of individuals. That the Declaration mainly focuses on individual rights is evident from the opening phrases of the articles. Most of the articles in the UDHR begin with phrases such as "Everyone has the right ...", "Every human being...", "No one shall..." Moreover, there was a further criticism of the universality of the UDHR since eight nations abstained from voting in the final roll call. These eight nations were Byelorussia, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, the Soviet Union, Ukraine, and Yugoslavia. Regarding this criticism of the UDHR, it has been mentioned that:

It is inevitable that a document like the Universal Declaration of Human Rights should raise questions about the possibility of their being universal values. This questioning started before the document was even finished, has continued to this day, and will probably never end.

(Morsink, 1999, p. ix)

The UDHR might not be perfect, and certainly, there are issues regarding the enforcement of human rights. However, the subsequent history of the UDHR has explicitly shown that it is the human rights document globally recognised by most countries in the world. It has been widely accepted by countries which have participated in the human rights initiative and whenever human rights are mentioned, the UDHR is always referred to.

Based on the definitions of human rights presented at the beginning of this section, everyone has basic rights in distinct aspects of their lives. One of those basic rights is the right to education. Many important human rights documents also support the right to education such

as Article 13, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR); Article 2, Protocol One of the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR); Article 13 of the Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (ESCR) Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights (ACHR). According to Article 1 (3) of the UDHR, states are required to promote and encourage the principles of human rights. Smith (2010) also states that the key to maintaining the universality of human rights lies in the right to education. On this basis, it has been noted for all states to widely disseminate the importance of education for human rights. Efforts to promote HRE have been included in a number of international human rights instruments including: the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1965 (article 7), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966 (article 13), Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1979 (article 10), Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1984 (article 10), Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989 (article 29), International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, 1990 (article 33), Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006 (articles 4 and 8), and the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, 2007 (articles 14 and 15).

The argument put forward so far in this chapter explains the concept of human rights starting from history, definitions, and types. However, this needs to be more clearly contextualised through a more detailed exploration of HRE since HRE is considered as a key factor in maintaining peace and harmony in society.

2.3 Human rights education (HRE)

HRE is a continually developing field and has been of interest to people all over the world for several decades. Studying about HRE has become an area of growing interest in recent years (Ang, 2009; Banks, 2008; Hathaway, 2007; Osler, 2011; Tibbitts, 2002). Although still a developing field, there is increasing evidence that HRE is emerging in the work of non-governmental organisations at the grassroots level as well as in national systems of education (Buergethal & Torney, 1976). In order to explore the content of HRE, the following topics must be clarified at the outset.

2.3.1 Definitions of HRE

Throughout the history of HRE, no consensus on its definition has been found. This may be because “human right education varies in content, approach, scope, intensity, depth, and availability” (Bajaj, 2017, p. 5). Definitions of HRE are based on the activities of human rights educators themselves, and the varieties and scopes of the studies concerned with it. Educators from different groups may have held different goals and principles of human rights; therefore, their definitions of HRE may also vary. Flowers (2004) notes that HRE is defined differently according to the formulations and goals set for it. Bajaj (2011a) additionally notes that “definitions of HRE also reflect different histories and conceptions of the field” (p. 483). In this section, definitions of HRE are presented based on the different organisations and authorities presenting them, including intergovernmental organisations, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), and various scholars of HRE.

Regarding intergovernmental organisations, many definitions of HRE have been given by the UN. Given the global construction of HRE within the intergovernmental processes of the UN, the three most widely cited are the definitions given by UN World Programme for Human Rights Education (UNWPHRE), the UN Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training (UNDHRET) (2011), and the Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education (2010). One definition of HRE is found in UNWPHRE in 2005 which can be considered the significant UN initiatives to encourage its member states to implement HRE. Up to the present time, three-phases of the UNWPHRE have been launched to advance the implementation of HRE programmes in all sectors of society. The definition of HRE agreed for this initiative reflects how that original idea has grown and developed into a more substantive and all-embracing conception:

HRE can be defined as education, training and information aiming at building a universal culture of human rights through the sharing of knowledge, imparting of skills and molding of attitudes directed to:

- a) The strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- b) The full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity;
- c) The promotion of understanding, tolerance, gender equality and friendship among all nations, indigenous peoples and racial, national, ethnic, religious and linguistic groups;
- d) The enabling of all persons to participate effectively in a free and democratic society governed by the rule of law;
- e) The building and maintenance of peace;

- f) The promotion of people-centred sustainable development and social justice.

(UNESCO, 2006)

It is noted that “the UN Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training (UNDHRET) (2011) is the first instrument in which international standards for HRE are officially proclaimed by the UN” (Struthers, 2015, p. 53). The official definition of HRE as given by Article 2(2) of UNDHRET (2011) is:

1. Human Rights Education and training comprises all educational, training, information, awareness-raising and learning activities aimed at promoting universal respect for and observance of all human rights and fundamental freedoms and thus contributing, inter alia, to the prevention of human rights violations and abuses by providing persons with knowledge, skills and understanding and developing their attitudes and behaviors, to empower them to contribute to the building and promotion of a universal culture of human rights.
2. Human Rights Education and training encompasses:
 - a. Education **about** human rights, which includes providing knowledge and understanding of human rights norms and principles, the values that underpin them and the mechanisms for their protection;
 - b. Education **through** human rights, which includes learning and teaching in a way that respects the rights of both educators and learners;
 - c. Education **for** human rights, which includes empowering persons to enjoy and exercise their rights and to respect and uphold the rights of others.

United Nations (2011)

The Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education (2010) defines the meaning of HRE by providing aspects of desirable outcomes as follows:

Human Rights Education means education, training, awareness raising, information, practices and activities which aim, by equipping learners with knowledge, skills and understanding and developing their attitudes and behaviour, to empower learners to contribute to the building and defence of a

universal culture of human rights in society, with a view to the promotion and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

(Council of Europe, 2010, p. 6)

According to the previous definitions of HRE given by the UN and Council of Europe, similarities are found. It is clear in these definitions that education and training about HRE are stated together with its goals and guidance for how such HRE should be promoted. These definitions of HRE provide the core elements that HRE must promote. Despite many HRE definitions from intergovernmental organisations, this demonstrates that these organisations see HRE as fundamental to developing a universal culture of human rights.

Regarding HRE, apart from intergovernmental organisations, non-government organisations (NGOs) play a very important role in supporting HRE (BEMIS, 2011). More significantly, NGOs have regarded education as both a political and pedagogical strategy to facilitate democratization and active citizenship (Mihr, 2017). Bajaj (2011a, p. 484) notes that “NGOs have long been active in HRE and utilise human rights discourse as a strategy to frame the demands of diverse social movements...” Amnesty International (AI) is a significant NGO supporting HRE both internationally and locally. The HRE definition given by AI places the emphasis on grassroots level efforts to build a culture of human rights. It is also one of the most widely cited NGOs due its aim at producing human rights learners to become activists for human rights through the process of HRE by sharing information with others and actively working to defend human rights. It is defined as follows:

Human Rights Education is a deliberate, participatory practice aimed at empowering individuals, groups, and communities through fostering knowledge, skills, and attitudes consistent with internationally recognized principles. . . Its goal is to build a culture of respect for and action in the defense and promotion of human rights for all.

(Amnesty International, 2015a)

Through the works of HRE scholars, HRE is also defined based on scholars’ roles, responsibility, and research. Flowers (2003), Tibbits (2008), and Mihr (2009) are well-known scholars, activists, theorists, and practitioners of HRE who have defined HRE as follows. At first, Flowers explains that the definition of HRE can be elusive since:

today such a variety and quantity of activity taking place in the name of HRE that it is sometimes difficult to know where to set the boundaries of such definitions.

(Flowers, 2003, p. 1)

Flowers once analysed the definitions of HRE according to three distinct sources of origin, namely, governmental bodies, NGOs, and academics and educational thinkers. She wrote:

Governmental definitions emphasize the role of HRE to create peace, continuity, and social order and oppose socially disruptive behaviours and attitudes... [and] indicate that it is the responsibility of governments to see that HRE is accomplished properly... Definitions formulated by NGOs emphasize violations, stressing the potential of HRE to enable vulnerable groups to protect themselves, claim rights and challenge their oppressors... They see HRE as a tool for social change: to limit state power, to protect people from state power, and in some cases, to enable people to seize state power... The writings of academics and educational thinkers tend to shift the emphasis from outcomes to the values that create and inform those outcomes... emphasizing on principles, norms, standards, values, and moral choices.

(Flowers, 2003, p. 2)

Tibbits (2008, p. 99) defines HRE as follows:

Human Rights Education is an international movement to promote awareness about the rights accorded by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and related human rights conventions, and the procedures that exist for the redress of violations of these rights.

According to Mihr, HRE is defined as follows:

Human Rights Education is defined as a set of educational and pedagogical learning methods to inform people of and to train them in their human rights. HRE aims to provide information about the international or regional human rights norms, standards, and systems and to provide people with the skills and change their attitudes that lead to the protection and support of human rights.

Educating people in their human rights should empower them to know and use their human rights to protect themselves and others from human rights violations.

(Mihir, 2009, p. 177)

The HRE definition given by Mihir (2009) is the most similar to those given by the UN, Council of Europe, and AI. This strong similarity is the goal of HRE which includes knowledge, skill, attitudes, and action regarding human rights. Flowers (2003) presents HRE definitions differently by highlighting the varying roles of HRE issuing from three distinct groupings including governmental bodies, NGOs, and academics and educational thinkers. Among these three HRE scholars, Tibbits (2008) gives the shortest HRE definition but it illustrates the promotion of human rights as the mechanism of the UDHR and its related covenants.

In the case of Thailand, no consensus on HRE definition has been arrived at and officially adopted. This may be because there is a lack of support for HRE and the existing literature in the field of HRE in Thailand. However, in this present study, the definition that will be used is a combination of the HRE definitions issued by the UN since UN human rights initiatives are the main mechanisms to improve the human rights situation, promote human rights, and protect the rights of all people under international human rights laws. However, the emphasis will be placed on the HRE definition given by UNDHRET (2011) since it suits the context of this study better than the others. In other words, the focus of HRE in this study fits with the HRE definition of the UNDHRET (2011) in the sense that HRE in this present study is also about providing human rights knowledge, teaching in ways that respect students and teachers, and empowering students to protect their own rights and others' rights.

The researcher has so far presented some definitions of HRE. In the next section he goes on to explain the history and expansion of HRE. Since the importance of HRE has been widely accepted as a global norm, it is crucial to understand adequately how it has been developed over time.

2.3.2 History and expansion of HRE

In this section, the background of HRE in relation to its history and expansion is presented. Keet (2007) notes that during earlier times HRE was not originally referred to by its contemporary label and its current understanding and meaning is closely tied to the development of the concept of human rights itself. As Osler (2016) notes, the right to HRE was first mentioned in the UDHR in 1948. Osler (2012) also mentions that the invention of the UDHR linked human rights and education for the first time. Regarding human rights and education, Tibbitts and Kirschlaeger (2010) observe the attempts and increasing intentions of scholars, in the past few decades, to seek to understand the impacts of human rights discourse initiated by the UN in education systems around the world.

HRE is an endeavour to establish an essential contribution to the long-term prevention of human rights abuses. It is valued as a significant investment to provide insightful understanding of human rights and promote the wider practicality of human rights. Cassidy, Brunner, and Webster (2014, p. 20) note that:

The fundamental importance of human rights education (HRE) is acknowledged by a number of initiatives, such as the UN (UN) Decade for HRE (1995–2004), the World Programme for HRE (2005-ongoing) - currently in its second phase - and the UN Declaration on HRE and Training adopted in December 2011.

The literature on HRE points to a growing acceptance of HRE as the “unifying factor which cuts across current efforts to produce informed and active citizens” (Tarrow, 1992, p. 32). HRE is important in addressing widespread human rights and developmental challenges (Reardon, 1997). Moreover, Adams, Harrow and Jones (2001) note that “human rights education is a key and essential defense against the abuse of human rights” (p. vi).

The importance of HRE is apparent in the amount of intergovernmental documents, and numbers of organisations and publications and research related to HRE. Several international documents confirm the importance of HRE (Batelaan & Coomans, 1999; Bennett, 1995; Coomans, 1998). These documents establish a broad consensus over, and wide acceptance of, the importance of HRE. It is mandatory in these documents that all states promote human rights at all levels of education. The initial document presenting the importance of HRE can be traced back to Article 1(3) of the UN Charter. In this part of Article 1(3), it is noted that:

To achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and...

(United Nations, 1945)

The above Article of the UN seeks for co-operation to promote and encourage respect for human rights. Smith (2010) states that Article 1(3) of the UN Charter is the basis from which many international human rights instruments draw authority for respecting human rights. Smith also points out that “The General Assembly Declaration, when adopting the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, called on the international community to widely disseminate the contents of the Declaration (Resn 217, Part D)”. In terms of internationalisation, the adoption of human rights was not globally found in all countries in the world. Nevertheless, the UN Charter marked the wider implementation and marked the advance in setting the standard of human rights in many parts of the world.

Article 26 (2) of UDHR also mentions the importance of HRE as follows:

Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the UN for the maintenance of peace.

(United Nations, 2016)

According to the Vienna Declaration of the World Conference on Human Rights 1993, para 33, education should promote understanding, tolerance, peace and friendly relations between nations and all racial or religious groups. Additionally, the conference recommended that states should provide full education for the development of the human personality and the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Vienna Declaration was made at the World Conference on Human Rights officially held by the UN in Vienna, Austria. There, the representatives of 171 States adopted the agreement of the Vienna Declaration and the Programme of Action of the World Conference on Human Rights. It was considered the second conference on human rights, following on from the first International Conference on Human Rights held in Teheran, Iran in 1968. Based on the Office of the Higher

Commission of Human Rights, the Declaration reaffirmed the purposes and principles contained in the Charter of the UN and the UDHR.

Furthermore, the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action (1993) calls on states and institutions to include 'human rights, humanitarian law, democracy and rule of law' as subjects in all educational curricula as follows:

States are duty-bound, as stipulated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and in other international human rights instruments, to ensure that education is aimed at strengthening the respect of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

As found in the conference, it is the responsibility of the Commission of Human Rights and other organisations and agencies of the UN systems dealing with related human rights issues to find ways and means to achieve full implementation of the contents stated in the Conference. According to Article 29 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), 1989, the rights of the child include both education in human rights and intercultural education. Article 29 refers to the obligation by the nation-states which has ratified the UNCRC to promote education for peaceful coexistence with others in the community, the nation, and the wider world.

In the case of intergovernmental organisations related to HRE, Suárez (2006) mentions that HRE has been widely and greatly supported by significant organisations such as the Council of Europe and the UN. According to Ramirez, Suárez, and Meyer (2007), it is clear that the numbers of human rights and HRE organisations increased considerably from 1995-2000, and that HRE was supported by these organisations particularly by providing materials about human rights and introducing human rights topics into the educational curricula in many countries (Tibbitts, 1996).

HRE is included in numbers of international human rights instruments and documents as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: International HRE instruments and documents (Source: adapted from Russell and Suárez, 2017)

UN	
1965	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, (article 7)
1966	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, (article 13)
1979	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, (article 10)
1984	Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, (article 10)
1989	Convention on the Rights of the Child, (article 29)
1990	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, (article 33)
1994	UN Decade for HRE (1995-2004)
2005	World Programme for HRE (Phase 1: 2005-2009) UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014)
2006	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, (articles 4 and 8)
2007	International Year of Human Rights Learning
2007	UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, (articles 14 and 15)
2010	World Programme for HRE (Phase 2: 2010-2014)
2011	UN Declaration on HRE and Training
2015	World Programme for HRE (Phase 3: 2015-2019)
Council of Europe	
1950	European Convention on Human rights
1959	European Court of Human rights
1961	European Social Charter
1985	The EU Committee of Ministers issued Recommendation R (85) 7 to the Member States of the Council of Europe concerning teaching and learning about human rights in schools.
2010	Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and HRE
Organisations in America	
1969	American Convention on Human Rights

1978	American Convention on Human Rights
1979	Inter-American Court of Human Rights

Organisations in Africa

1981	African Charter on Human and People's Rights
1990	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
1996	Human Rights Commission South Africa (HRCSA)
1998	African Court on Human and People's Rights
2002	African Union

Organisations in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

2009	ASEAN Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights (AICHR)
2012	ASEAN Human Rights Declaration (AHRD)

The expansion of HRE is also marked by the number of HRE publications in the popular press and internet. Based on the report from the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNCHR, 2002), this marks the global acceptance of HRE through the reports on HRE from its members including Africa (18), Arabic-speaking countries (7), Asia-Pacific (12), Europe and North America (34) and Latin America and the Caribbean. Suárez (2007) notes that there was a considerable increase in the number of HRE publications from 1967-2010. Furthermore, in case of the expansion of HRE, Moon's (2009) study also points out the rise of HRE documents in more than 83 countries across different regions of the world that have adopted HRE in legislation. According to Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, and Losito (2010), human rights were incorporated into the educational curricula of twenty-five out of twenty-eight countries. Recently, the works of Russell and Suárez (2017) reveal that discussion of human rights in textbooks and discussion of human rights in textbooks by world region increased from 1945 to 2001, with the proportion of textbooks and countries mentioning human rights rising considerably over the same period and that the numbers of HRE documents in the OHCHR and HREA databases continued to grow from 2000 to 2012.

In this study, the focus is on HRE in Thailand. In Thailand, HRE was primarily organised in response to the UN Decade of HRE and the first phase of the World Programme for HRE (WPHRE) during 2005-2009. The first Phase of the World Programme for HRE was initiated as a follow-up campaign to the UN Decade for HRE (1995-2004) proclaimed by the UN General Assembly on 10 December 2004. During this phase of the Programme, the focus

was on HRE in primary and secondary education. The World Programme for HRE aimed at promoting the implementation of HRE in all the international community including Thailand. A more detailed discussion of Thailand is located at the last part of this chapter.

2.3.3 Associated forms of HRE

For decades, the field of HRE has received a prominent status locally, nationally, and globally. HRE has been employed in various contexts and plays a significant role in providing human rights knowledge, building up human rights awareness, and empowering HRE learners to protect against the various kinds of human rights violation. Regarding the forms of HRE, scholars of HRE have given explanations of and comments on formations of HRE as described in the following paragraphs. Regarding how to teach democracy and human rights, Tibbits (1996) and Kepenekçi-Karaman (2000) point out that knowledge of human rights can be taught in various interdisciplinary courses, such as history, civics, literature, religion, or ethics/moral education.

Tarrow (1992), from which Figure 2.1 has been taken, is one of the primary and initial sources regarding the forms of HRE. She notes that many associated kinds of education come under the forms of HRE, as illustrated in Figure 2.1 in which several forms of education are brought under the umbrella of HRE. The figure indicates that these educational formations are closely tied to one another, all aiming to provide education in response to societies with diverse populations, with HRE the central theme uniting the other forms of educational programmes.

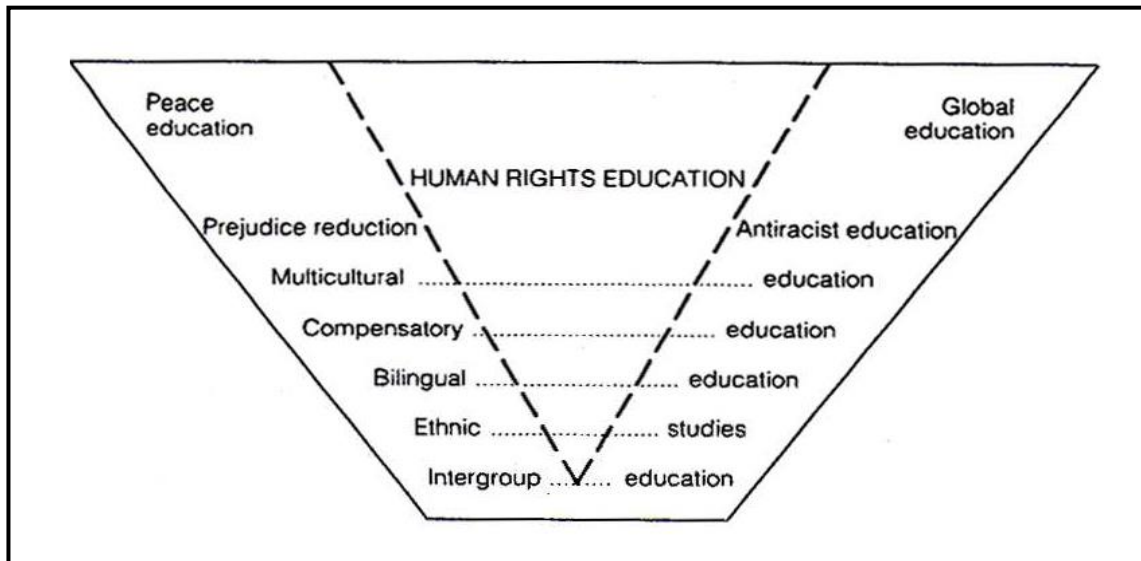


Figure 2.1: Evolution of educational responses to the needs of pluralist societies (Source: Tarrow, 1992)

In addition, Tarrow (1992) also proposed the format of educational programmes for the rationale of preparing learners to be informed and active citizens as shown in Figure 2.2. Here, HRE is associated with formats of educational programmes including peace, environmental and moral education, global and development education, civic education, prejudice reduction, antiracist education, and multicultural education. Figure 2.2 below also displays the interrelationship between the series of educational programmes related to HRE. This shows how HRE is underpinned by a number of overlapping perspectives of associated educational programmes.

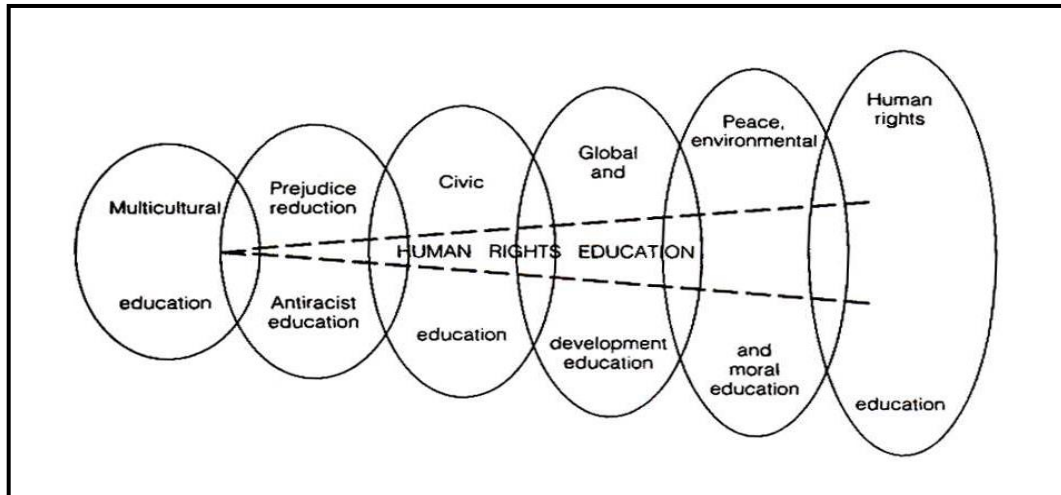


Figure 2.2: HRE in relation to current educational responses to the need for informed and active citizens (Source: Tarrow, 1992)

Flowers, Bernbaum, Rudelius-Palmer, and Tolman (2007), as shown in Figure 2.3, offer an alternative visualisation of the relationship of HRE to a range of other human rights-related educational fields. It is apparent from the inner circle that all associated forms of educational programmes of HRE are interrelated. It is noted that:

None of these themes is more important than another. Indeed, they are so interrelated that addressing any one of them provides a common link with any other. This is a direct consequence of the fact that human rights are indivisible, interdependent and interrelated: they cannot be treated in isolation, because all are connected to one another in various ways.

(Flowers et al., 2007, p. 29)

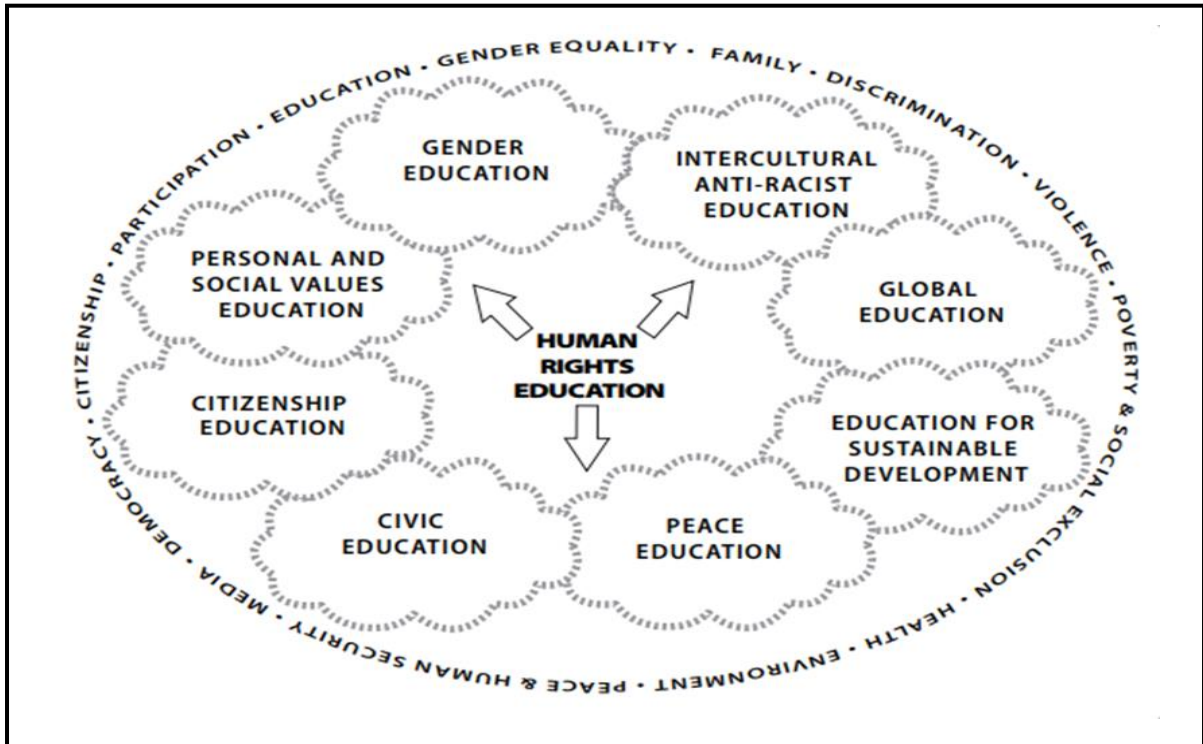


Figure 2.3: Types of HRE (Source: Flowers et al., 2007)

In Table 2.2 below, Keet (2007) presents the relationship between societal need/human rights challenges, human rights provision, and educational response. Admittedly, as depicted from the table below, HRE plays a significant role in response to most societal need/human rights challenges found. However, HRE is positioned in relation to other associated educational forms such as moral education, civic education, citizenship education, democracy education, and education for diversity, and education for development. It is prominent that the relationships between HRE and these associated forms establish a series of attempts to create educational formations as a reaction to societal ills such as inequity, socio-economic injustice, and poverty and imbalanced distribution.

Table 1.2: Typology of HRE and associated education formations (Source: Keet, 2007)

Societal Need/Human Rights Challenges	Human Rights Provision	Educational Response
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slavery • War and Conflicts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geneva Convention (1864) • Hague Convention (1899) • Humanitarian Law 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training on treatment of prisoners and foreigners
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiences of WWII • Gross Human Rights Violations • Need for free, just and peaceful world, labour practices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UDHR (1948) • CCPR (1966) • CESCR ((1966) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRE • Peace Education and Conflict Management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased pluralization of societies • Need to live humanely and justly with one another • Challenges in pluralist societies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instruments against discrimination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRE • Conflict Resolution • Anti-discrimination Education • Multicultural Education • Education for Diversity • Cultural Fluency Education • Education for Co-existence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human Rights and Democratisation • Need for active and informed citizens 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UDHR and instruments on judiciary and minorities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRE • Civic Education • Citizenship Education • Democracy Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased inequities and wealth redistribution • High levels of poverty • Lack of socio-economic justice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instruments on socioeconomic rights and development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRE • Education for Development • Social Justice Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased mobility of populations • Globalization • Information explosion • Environmental challenges • World peace and anti-war 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNESCO standards • World Conference Declarations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRE • Moral Education • Global Education • World Citizenship Education • Education for Sustainable Development

2.3.4 Models of HRE

Regarding models of HRE, over recent decades scholars, practitioners, and activists of HRE have presented a series of HRE models marking the rise and development of the field (Bajaj, 2011a; Flowers, 2004; Tibbits, 2002, 2017; Yeban, 1995). These models have offered different perspectives due to the differing theoretical beliefs, practices and social, economic, and political situations of the various presenters.

Tibbitts (2002) proposed the very first HRE model as depicted in the table below. Her overall model consists of three different models, categorised according to the principles they are organised around, such as values and awareness, accountability and social transformation. Tibbitts' models are useful conceptual starting points but, as far as HRE is concerned, they assume that the target audience can determine its conceptual structures and definitional frameworks.

Table 2.3: Tibbitts' Models of HRE (Source: Tibbitts, 2002)

Models			
Features	Values and awareness	Accountability	Transformation
Approach	Philosophical-historical approach	Legal/political approach	Psychological-sociological approach
Means	Formal schooling and public awareness campaigns	Trainings and networking	Informal, non-formal and popular education and self-help
Typical topics	Information about the content and history of human rights documents, international court system, global human rights issues	Procedures for monitoring, court cases, codes of ethics, dealing with the media, public awareness	Human rights as part of women's development, community development, economic development, and minority rights
Common audiences	General public, schools	Lawyers, human rights advocates and monitors, professional groups working with vulnerable populations, civil servants, medical professionals, journalists	Vulnerable populations, victims of abuse and trauma, post-conflict societies
Strategy	Socialization, cultural consensus, setting expectations for social change, legitimizing human rights framework	Human rights laws and codes as tools for structural/law-based social justice and social change, fostering and enhancing leadership, alliance development within certain professions and target groups	Personal empowerment leading towards activism for change (personal, community, societal), creation of activists, leadership development
Remarks	-	Related to problematic relationship between the individual and the State/authorities	Focuses on healing and transformation, the role of the individual and community-building

As shown, each model fits with particular target groups, contents and strategies in relation to a human development and social change framework. As the field was then developing, these three HRE models were the most important ones for HRE educators and practitioners. The models were regarded as the basic point of reference when designing or choosing HRE programmes to fit with practices and contexts. However, fifteen years later, Tibbitts revisited her HRE models and revised them based on thirteen years of her own experiences and scholarship, documentation and observation of practice across a range of teaching and learning settings globally, as illustrated in Table 2.4. Tibbitts (2017) proposes amendments to the models including a stronger association of the Values and Awareness Model with socialization, the Accountability Model with professional development, and the Transformation Model with activism as depicted in the Table below. Modified from the 2002 version, new components are added to this revised version including the nature of the sponsoring organisations, whether learner participation is voluntary or involuntary, integration of critical stance, application of human rights norms, learner outcomes in relation to agency, and transformation, and teaching and learning strategies.

Table 2.4: Revised version of Tibbitts' three HRE models (Source: Tibbitts, 2017)

Models	Values and Awareness - Socialization	Accountability - Professional Development	Activism - Transformation
Features			
Sponsors	Typically government agencies or authorities	Both government agencies & civil society orgs, sometimes in partnership	Typically sponsored by civil society organisations
Kind of learner participation	Usually involuntary	Both voluntary and involuntary	Usually voluntary
Education sector	Usually in the formal education sector	Both formal (pre-service) and non-formal (in-service) sectors	Usually in the non-formal education sector, including youth and community development
Common target audiences	Students, sometimes the general public	Law enforcement officials, lawyers & judges, civil servants, health & social workers, educators, journalists, religious leaders	Marginalised populations, youth
Incorporation of critical stance	Non-critical stance	Critical view of one's professional role in relation to prevention of HR violations	Critical stance towards one's society or local environment, the nature of power, the human rights system itself

Orientation	Transmission of information	Development of capacities related to work roles and responsibilities	Personal transformation, human rights activism, social change
Key content	General human rights theory, history and content, with some attention to learner's rights	HR content relevant for group, with links to national protection systems and professional codes of conduct	HR content relevant for learner, with strong focus on learner's rights and contemporary, local human rights violations
Treatment of human rights norms & standards	General treatment, with reference to norms to promote positive social behaviour	Selected as relevant for professional group; may include appeal to personal value systems	Selected as relevant for the learners, with strong appeal to personal value systems
Teaching and learning strategies	Didactic to participatory	Participatory to instrumentally empowering	Instrumentally to intrinsically empowering/transformational
Strategy for reducing human rights violations	Passive: socialization and legitimization of human rights discourse	Active – agency: application of human rights values & standards within one's analytical framework,	Active – transformational: integration within one's analytical framework,

This shift in models and approaches to HRE marks the development and constructions of conceptual meanings regarding HRE. Keet (2007) notes that the engagement with, and reflection on, these models and approaches coupled with a critical take on the typologies of HRE seem to facilitate the emergence and surfacing of these new conceptual meanings of HRE. In the context of the discussion of HRE models in this thesis, this present study may help determine whether HRE in two Thai schools favours one specific model, or a combination of models.

In this present study, the revised version of Tibbitts' three original HRE models (Tibbitts, 2017) is the focus due to two main reasons. One reason relates to the fact that Tibbitts' original 2002 HRE model is widely discussed and cited in HRE research studies conducted in schools (Ang, 2009; Bajaj & Bartlett, 2017; Çayır & Bağlı, 2011; Gaudelli & Fernekes, 2004). As the original features of that model were amended based on its weaknesses perceived as a result of Tibbitts' experiences regarding HRE, Tibbitts' three revised HRE models have become the latest conceptual model for HRE specialists to follow. As such, this present study may help determine whether and to what extent this latest HRE model aligns well with HRE as practised in the two schools.

2.3.5 Methodologies for HRE

Within the theoretical debate surrounding the global discourse of human rights, the problem of defining HRE is addressed. Based on a consideration of the definitions given by the UN, governmental bodies, NGOs and educationalists, an array of different pedagogical and theoretical approaches to HRE are discussed (Bajaj, 2011a; Baxi, 1997; Bernath, Holland & Martin, 2002; Dembour, 2010; Flowers, 2003; Fritzsche, 2004; Lenhart & Savolainen, 2002; Lohrenscheit, 2002; Magendzo, 2005; Meintjes, 1997; Misgeld & Magendzo, 1997; Osler & Vincent, 2002). UNESCO (2012) reports that the best approach to HRE should be one that ensures all the components and processes of education including curricula, materials, methods and training are conducive to the learning of human rights. It is notable that the methodologies presented as following are varied in terms of target group, curriculum, learning environments, and levels of formality. However, it was commonly found that many of the individual methodologies are appropriate for certain groups of HRE learners.

HRE learning activities can be conducted through a variety of activities. These include brainstorming, case studies, debates, discussion, dramatising activities, mock trials, and media-related sources (McQuoid-Mason, 1995; Flowers, Bernbaum, Rudelius-Palmer, & Tolman, 2000); the use of community-resource persons, field trips, games, hypotheticals, lectures, open-ended stimulus, opinion polls, question and answer, ranking exercises, participant presentations, values clarification, visual aids, folk stories and songs, and exhibitions (McQuoid-Mason, 1995); closings creative expression, negotiations, energisers, field trips, games, hearings and tribunals, icebreakers and introductions, interpretation of images, interviews, jigsaw activities, journal writing, open-ended stimulus, presentations, research projects, ranking and defining exercises, simulations, storytelling, surveying, opinion and information gathering, and webbing activities (Flowers et al., 2000); and project-based learning (Flowers et al., 2000; Froese-Germain, Riel, & Théoret, 2013).

These methods are very much aligned with the notions of the interactive democratic classroom and of collaboration between teachers (Goddard, Goddard, & Tschannen-Moran, 2007; Killion, 2015). Furthermore, some of the literature suggests that extracurricular activities are important in the way that they support human rights learning in schools (Amnesty International, 2012; De Leo, 2005; Keser, Akar, & Yildirim, 2011; Lunenburg, 2010; Panda, 2001; Tsui, 1999). Keser et al. (2011), among other scholars supporting extra-curricular activities in democratic and human rights learning, propose six themes considered as the benefits of extra-curricular citizenship activities in schools including active citizenship

perception, social accountability, intercultural awareness, awareness of democracy and human rights, thinking and research skills, and interaction and intrapersonal skills.

According to the Asia-Pacific Regional Resource Centre for HRE (2003), it offers the kinds of methodologies and objectives regarding HRE as shown in Table 2.5. This set of methodologies is specifically employed to teach HRE to different groups of HRE learners. Based on the objectives for each methodology, it can be inferred that they are more applicable for adult learners of HRE.

Table 2.5: ARRC’s HRE methodology (Source: Asia-Pacific Regional Resource Centre, 2003)

Methodologies	Objectives
Experiential and activity-centered	Involving the solicitation of learners’ prior knowledge and offering activities that draw out learners’ experiences and knowledge
Problem-posing	Challenging the learners prior knowledge
Participative	Encouraging collective efforts in clarifying concepts, analysing themes and doing activities
Dialectical	Requiring learners to compare their knowledge with those from other sources
Analytical	Asking learners to think about why things are and how they came to be
Healing	Promoting human rights in intra-personal and inter-personal relations
Strategic thinking-oriented:	Directing learners to set their own goals and to think of strategic ways of achieving them
Goal and action oriented	Allowing learners to plan and organise action in relation to their goal

More recently, Tibbitts (2017) proposed a set of methodologies that fits with her revised HRE models (Table 2.6). Each methodology is accompanied with its objectives and learning process and activities. Each individual methodology produces different understandings, and awareness of human rights among learners. Student engagement in ongoing learning is also varied.

Table 2.6: Tibbitts's HRE methodology (Source: Tibbitts, 2017)

Methodologies	Objectives	Learning Process and Activities	Associated HRE Models
Didactic methodologies	Oriented towards the delivery of content to learners	Learners better understanding human rights content and applying these values to issues at hand. Memorization and rote learning/critical reflection is not encouraged. Learners are not given opportunities to influence their own learning, for example, through open discussion.	Values and Awareness Approach
Participatory/interactive methodologies	Oriented towards the cultivation of agency in learners, through specific capacities	Motivating and engaging learners in the learning process/Critical reflection on human rights values and standards and social problems may be addressed.	Accountability and Transformative Models
Empowerment methodologies	Oriented towards the cultivation of agency in learners, through specific capacities	Developing concrete skills, such as developing organisational or leadership skills or Reflecting and recognizing that one's personal values are consistent with those contained in international human rights standards or that one's personal experiences of discrimination are shared by others.	Accountability Model and the Transformative Model
Transformative methodologies	Intended to cultivate agency in learners	Learning is associated with critical pedagogy and Paulo Freire (1968, 1973). The HRE literature is strongly associated with critical pedagogy, which encourages learners to think critically on their situation, recognise connections between their individual problems and the social contexts in which they live and to take action against oppression.	Transformative Model

2.3.6 Related studies about HRE

It is noticeable that HRE has been supported and practised widely across the globe. Due to the substantial growth of its practices and popularity, HRE has been critically examined. Scholars, practitioners, and activists of HRE conducted research at different levels. Some studies focused on the whole school; some placed emphasis on teachers; and some paid particular attention to students. It is found that such studies employed different methodologies to gain the data.

I. Whole-school oriented

It is important to pay attention to HRE in different parts of the world. Since HRE has been implemented globally, the publication of research and studies regarding the success or impacts of such HRE courses/programmes/school has increased. Research studies have been conducted to evaluate or investigate the status or impact of HRE in a variety of contexts. The results of research in this field into different historical and political contexts, and different educational systems might provide a better understanding of HRE in wider contexts.

In the global context, the study of Jerome, Wernham, Lundy, and Orr (2015), supported by UNICEF, highlights the implementation of child rights education in twenty-six countries¹. The study consists of an online survey in twenty-six countries distributed to eighty-eight in-country experts and a series of case studies in seven countries² with a UNICEF National Committee presence. It is apparent from the study that there were fifteen countries without curriculum entitlement for all children to learn about child rights in schools whereas there were eleven countries with a curriculum entitlement to learn about children's rights. Problems relating to the implementation of child rights in school include teachers' lack of knowledge and lack of training (54%), lack of policy commitments (38%), need for participation and for CRE to go beyond learning about rights (36%), inadequate curriculum (26%), and lack of political leadership (19%).

¹ Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Republic of Korea, Scotland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, The Netherlands, USA

² Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Scotland

In the continental aspect, one significant part of the world where HRE is promoted extensively is Europe, where there are significant research/studies investigating the implementation of HRE. In Germany, Muller (2009) conducted a survey evaluating the application of the recommendations for the integration of HRE in forty-three German primary and secondary schools. Thirty-six of these schools were already participating in the UNESCO Associated Schools Project and the others were ordinary schools. The findings revealed that human rights were implemented more intensively in UNESCO project schools than regular schools; however, the students at the project schools did not express significantly more knowledge of human rights than those in ordinary schools. Regarding the methodology of human rights teaching, teachers commented that project-based learning, discussion, and action-oriented instruction were the methods most likely to encourage students to get involved in learning. Furthermore, the teachers rated the human rights content based on its importance. The first three important topics were human rights violations, tolerance of others, and universal equality. It was also concluded in this study that implementing HRE is not easy. In particular, teachers of HRE must be intensively trained in both human rights knowledge and teaching methods.

Employing the same research method, Waldron, Kavanagh, Kavanagh, Maunsell, Oberman, O'Reilly, Pike, Prunty, and Ruane (2011) conducted a study with Irish primary school teachers regarding their knowledge and understanding of human rights and HRE. It was clear that teachers expressed positive attitudes towards human rights and HRE. Furthermore, the strong support for HRE was emphasised due to its positive influence on children's experiences. Similar to Muller's study (2009), Waldron et al. (2011) pointed out teachers' concern about a lack of knowledge of human rights and emphasised the importance of human rights training for teachers. However, Waldron et al.'s study revealed the most serious barriers perceived by teachers, which were time constraints and curriculum overload.

In other parts of Europe, several studies were conducted in Finland (Matilainen & Kallioniemi, 2012), Denmark (Decara, 2013), and Scotland (BEMIS, 2013). These studies focus on the situation and status of HRE in primary and secondary schools. The findings of these studies corresponds to the German and Irish studies previously mentioned regarding the importance of incorporating HRE in the curriculum and the barriers to development of HRE in schools including limited knowledge about human rights and teaching pedagogy and limited opportunity for human rights training. However, a study by Bron and Thijs (2011) investigating HRE in the Netherlands revealed a slightly different perspective. Even though this study did

not investigate teachers' and students' feedback on HRE, it revealed that human rights learning is indeed not a prominent topic in the educational curriculum in the Netherlands due to ambiguity in its policy and the absence of a formal curriculum framework at the micro level.

In the context of Hong Kong, two significant main studies were conducted in order to study the impact of HRE in schools. Leung (2008) investigated the impact of liberal studies where human rights were implemented in senior secondary schools by analysing related documents. It was found that the key factors having an impact on the success of HRE included a lack of sincerity in the government to support HRE, and teacher education and training about human rights. Teacher education and training about human rights was also found as one factor in the development of HRE in the study of Leung, Yuen, and Chong (2011) regarding the impact of a school-based HRE curriculum in two schools. However, by employing different research methods (interview, classroom observation, and survey), this study also revealed some other influential factors in developing HRE in Hong Kong schools. These included strengthening teacher education through both pre-service and in-service programmes, exploring the use of community and professional resources in HRE, and enhancing student interest in HRE by employing issue-based learning and experiential learning.

In addition to European countries and Hong Kong, significant studies evaluating impacts of HRE programmes or schools were conducted in an English context (Covell, 2010; Covell, Howe & Mcneil, 2008; Covell, Howe & Polegato, 2011; Covell, McNeil, & Howe, 2009; Howe & Cowell, 2010). Here, schools implemented the rights described in the UNCRC and this campaign was called the Rights, Respect and Responsibility initiative (RRR). These studies revealed the positive outcomes of implementing explicit HRE through participatory and empowering processes and the recognition of child rights in schools. They revealed the significant impacts of rights-respecting schools on the high engagement of students. However, there were some other benefits of rights-respecting schools found in this set of studies. In addition to the improvement of student engagement, Covell et al. (2009) also pointed out that teacher burnout in rights-respecting schools was reduced. The findings of Covell et al. (2011) showed improvements in the school atmosphere, citizenship values and behaviours and the decrease of unwanted social behaviours like bullying. Howe and Cowell (2010) stressed the importance of the leadership and commitment of head teachers to the implementation of HRE and supported the incorporating of child rights and child rights education into teacher trainings. Another significant study conducted in an English context was Carter and Osler (2000) regarding classroom relationships and the perception of rights and identity in an all boys'

comprehensive school. This study disclosed that implementing children's rights in school requires support not only from individuals but from the school as a whole and fundamental change in the school culture must occur.

In addition, there are numbers of studies investigating the status or impacts of HRE in other parts of the world. A large amount of studies have explored HRE implementation in schools in different contexts (Abu-Nimer & Kadayifci, 2011; Ang, 2009; Bağlı, 2013; Bronson, 2012; De Leo, 2005; Gaudelli & Fernekes, 2004; Gurusinga, 2003; Hayashi, 2011; Kepenekci, 2005; Lo, Leung, & Yuen, 2015; Magbitang-Chauhan, Dalangin, Santos, & Reyes, 2000; Miswanto, 2012; Munongi & Pillay, 2017; Nordin, 2010; Shekarey, Zare-ee, Haji Rashidi, & Sedaghat Rostami, 2010; Yeshanew, 2004; Yuen & Chong, 2012; Yuen, Leung, & Lo, 2013). These studies included surveys, students and teachers' interviews, and classroom observations of HRE. They provided empirical data confirming the positive outcomes of HRE. Yet, some limitations that restrict HRE implementation were also found in these studies. Still, they produced a significant contribution internationally in terms of HRE.

In this section, the studies examined have explored the implementation of HRE in school contexts in diverse parts of the world. Most studies revealed the positive outcomes of intensive human rights implementation in schools. Furthermore, the studies illustrated how child rights were incorporated at the core of the educational approach. However, those studies also draw attention to the challenges concerning insufficient implementation. These challenges include the low status of HRE in the national curriculum, lack of teacher competence about human rights knowledge and human rights teaching pedagogy, limited opportunity for human rights training, and low motivation to teach human rights. Even though the studies in this section have provided a picture of HRE in various aspects at the national level of HRE, there is a lack of insightful and authentic information about how students actually learn human rights, which is central to the research questions of this study.

II. Teacher-oriented

Even though a large number of studies focus on the situation/status of human rights in national education or HRE implementation in schools, several studies have focused on the impacts of HRE on teachers or the opinions of teachers towards HRE. The following section summarises the significant research studies focusing on HRE and teachers.

Most studies of HRE and teachers focus on teacher experience, perception, and the opinions of teachers towards HRE. These kinds of studies have been conducted widely across the world using a survey method. Pandey (2005) investigated the human rights awareness of primary and secondary teachers and teacher educators in India. It was notable in this study that teachers lacked awareness of even basic human rights concepts and the study emphasised the need for HRE programmes for teachers. Similar results were obtained in the survey conducted by Stockman (2010) at the University of Connecticut, USA. These two studies reveal a lack of teacher awareness of HRE and their need to receive HRE programmes or training for teachers. In contrast, teachers in both the Canadian study of Froese-Germain et al. (2013) and the Hong Kong study of Leung and Lo (2012) recognise and value the importance of HRE and of promoting HRE. Furthermore, these two survey studies reveal the challenges of supporting or teaching human rights in schools. These challenges were lack of knowledge and professional development, time stress and workload. In particular, Leung and Lo (2012) called for urgent HRE policy formulation and preparation for teachers of HRE.

In addition to surveys with teachers, there were a significant number of studies examining student teachers' knowledge of HRE. Surveys conducted by Cassidy et al. (2014) and Messina and Jacott (2013) compared the level of knowledge of students with no specific training and of students with specific training. The results of these studies are not surprising because most student teachers identified similar challenges to HRE including lack of human rights knowledge and emphasised the importance of incorporating human rights into teacher training programmes at university. Student teachers in the former study revealed one remarkable further barrier to teaching human rights in addition to lack of knowledge of human rights which was the fear of parents' reactions.

Apart from the survey method, a mixed-methodology approach was used to examine teachers' understanding and experience of human rights and HRE in a study by Zembylas, Charalambous, Lesta, and Charalambous (2015) conducted with twenty-five Cypriot primary teachers. Regarding their understanding of human rights and HRE practices, teachers' confusion about HRE was found and the causes of such confusion were a lack of experience of HRE among the teachers and of training on human rights teaching. Teachers in this study also mentioned the absence of clear policy and guidelines on HRE as another challenge for human rights teaching. This is similar to the findings of Zembylas, Charalambous, and Charalambous (2016) focusing on only three Cypriot elementary school teachers. The three teachers shared significant challenges regarding HRE including teachers' confusion of human

rights, difficulties in preparing HRE lessons and HRE teaching practices. It was apparent at this point that teachers' lack of knowledge was the main hindrance for developing HRE and professional training for teachers is needed. Many other studies support these claims (Best, 1991; Gündoğdu & Yildirim, 2010; Sommer, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2004; Stellmacher, Sommer, & Brähler, 2005; Pimentel, 2006; Sainz, 2018; SUHAKHAM, 2005; Zembylas, Charalambous, Charalambous, & Lesta, 2016).

Apart from studies focusing on the experience, perception, and opinions of teachers towards HRE, another interesting aspect of research concerns the impact of HRE on teachers. It was found in Bajaj's study that "teacher training is essential for HRE and it should be appropriate, contextualised and engaging, which incentivises participation and legitimises both message and messengers of human rights" (2001, p. 218). Furthermore, with appropriate HRE teacher training, a transformation in teachers was found which had an impact on students, schools and communities.

In sum, the studies in this section bring to light significant suggestions for effective HRE through the perspectives of teachers. It is apparent from the above studies that teachers' knowledge of human rights and human rights teaching pedagogy is central to developing HRE. Teachers are therefore essential to the success of HRE. It was also found that HRE not only influences learners but it also shapes teachers to be transformative.

III. Student-oriented

Considering previous studies about HRE, students were another point of focus, with the impact of HRE being central to those studies. Bajaj (2004) is one significant HRE educator who has investigated HRE impacts on students. In this study of a three-month HRE course in the Dominican Republic and of its students' resulting self-conception/behaviour/attitude/skills, students of the 8th grade were placed in experimental and control groups using a pre-post-test and survey with open questions. Certain changes were found in students' responses after receiving the course. Apart from the increase of student knowledge of human rights, it was found that students indicated a sense of human rights agency to tackle human rights abuse. Moreover, this study marks the importance of particular human rights knowledge and HRE pedagogy training for teachers because teachers with limited knowledge and few opportunities for HRE training resulted in inaccurate information being delivered to students. In 2010, Bajaj also investigated the impacts of HRE on students but this time with a NGO course in the state

of Tamil Nadu, India (Bajaj, 2010). This study found similar findings. After studying the HRE course organised by the NGO, students became transformative agents demonstrating attempts to intervene in situations of abuse, reporting abuse, and spreading awareness about human rights. Students took action to address human rights abuse in school, family, and community. This was in contrast to the findings of two Turkish studies conducted by Cayir and Bağlı (2011) and Bağlı (2013). Even though the findings indicated that students learned some human rights knowledge, HRE courses played little significance in serving the purpose of empowering the individual.

In English school contexts, Struthers (2017) investigated students' empowerment-related skills in the HRE of English primary schools and the challenges to its practice. It was apparent from students' responses that students were taught to be transformative and become empowered human rights activists to a certain degree. However, two main barriers were found including teacher attitudes towards empowerment and current government curriculum policy. The study also suggested a possible way to improve students' empowerment-related skills by organising human rights training for teachers and the shift of government policy towards greater learner engagement with empowerment-related skills and relevant community engagement. A similar finding was found in the study of Dunhill (2016) investigating impacts of HRE on primary school students. It was clear that HRE empowered students to address human rights issues and promote the rights of others within their school grounds. This was in contrast to the English primary and secondary school students in the study of Wyse (2001) that found that children's rights in practice were limited particularly children's participation in school management.

Clearly, all these studies of HRE draw attention to its impact on students. In this regard, students can become transformative to a certain extent after receiving HRE or learning human rights. Therefore, an emphasis is placed on students when exploring the effectiveness of HRE.

Based on these previous studies on HRE, it is notable that the scholars have marked the contributions of several significant points including the effectiveness of HRE in diverse contexts, teachers' experience about HRE, and the impact of HRE on students. The main focus is particularly on providing evidence from the existing research studies and drawing lessons for the further development of HRE. In terms of research methods and designs, they are diverse. It is apparent that a wide range of research methods has been employed to shed light on HRE development both quantitatively and qualitatively. This diverse range of research methods

includes surveys, interviews, observation, and mixed-methods research. Individual research methods produce different levels of depth of information and evidence. It can be noted at this stage that few research studies have been carried out by spending time in an actual school and exploring what naturally occurs in schools regarding HRE in Thailand, in particular. The use of fieldwork might reinforce the significance of the study the researcher is undertaking. This study will help fill a gap in the area of HRE in Thai secondary schools.

2.4 HRE in Thailand

In this study, the focus is placed on the context of HRE in secondary education in Thailand. It is therefore important to provide sufficient understanding about aspects of HRE in Thailand. In order to understand the implementation of HRE in the Thai school system, it is necessary to understand the development of HRE in Thailand from the very beginning to the current situation of HRE.

2.4.1 Background of HRE in Thailand

“The roots of human rights can be found in Thai society, as elsewhere, in age-old traditions” (Muntarborn, 2000, p. 2). Human rights issues were perceived informally through daily life interaction without any particular courses or taught programmes. In other words, Thai people normally learn human rights from the human rights issues which occur at any particular time. Based on Suwansathit (2002), two significant events prompted the recognition of human rights in Thai history. One was the “paternal rule” originated by King Ramkhamhaeng in the Sukhothai period (1240-1483) described as a concept in which the King governs his people as a father would govern his children. The other was the abolition of slavery during the reign of King Rama V (1868-1910). These two events in the past led to the recognition of human equality, freedom and dignity in Thai society.

Human rights was introduced widely into Thai society since Thailand became a member of the UN after the Second World War and voted to adopt the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1984. Prior to this, human rights in Thailand had never been systematised. Wongvaree (2009) mentions that the 1980s is the starting point of Thailand’s entering into the international human rights paradigm. Being a member of the UN, Thailand pledged to take into account the UN human rights mechanisms in order to improve the human rights situation in

the country and, considered of utmost importance, the promotion and protection of the rights of all people under international human rights laws. These international human rights laws have urged Thailand to adhere strictly to the absolute prohibition of human rights abuses such as torture. Additionally, Thailand has been motivated to take all necessary measures to minimise all ill-treatment against human rights. A positive contribution to establishing human rights in Thai society has been noted following the UN and its Universal Declaration of Human Rights. However, Suwansathit (2002, p. 95) summarises that

Although the declaration was not legally binding, the government incorporated the principles of human rights in the Constitutions and many international laws. Many lawyers and students of international relations and international laws learned about them, but the general public or school population did not.

Among several UN agencies and initiatives, Thailand has cooperated with four main sectors including the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), UN Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004), UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) in 1998, and the first phase of the World Programme for Human Rights Education (WPHRE) (2005-2009). At the initial stage in 1958, Thailand became one of the partners trialling one strategy of UNESCO's Education for Peace, International Understanding, Human Rights, Tolerance, and Sustainable Development. This campaign was the promotion of an international network of schools called the Associated Schools Project (ASP NET) implementing activities related to UNESCO's focus such as peace and respect for cultural diversity, human rights, and culture, among others, in the participating schools. This brought many new ideas and inspired many changes and developments in the Thai educational system in terms of HRE. Later on, in response to the UN Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004), Sangboonnum (2002) notes that the Thai National Commission for UNESCO, the Ministry of Education in cooperation with the UNESCO Associated Schools Project in Thailand initiated a HRE Programme. Several activities were conducted such as organising HRE workshops and testing HRE lesson plans and this became the foundation for the further development of HRE in Thailand.

Chaimuangdee (2004) found that, in 1998, there were initiatives taken by the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) and several NGOs to promote the UNCRC (1989) in Thailand. These initiatives included training and published materials related to the UNCRC. Also in this

year, the Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC) launched the Thailand Child-Friendly Schools Programme (TCFSP) in twenty-three primary and secondary schools to create rights-based child-friendly schools.

In addition, another significant development of HRE in Thailand was its adopting the first phase of World Programme for Human Rights Education (WPHRE) (2005-2009). This project was supported by UNESCO and the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) emphasising the implementation of HRE in primary and secondary school systems. At the end of the first phase of WPHRE in 2009, a multi-country project reported the national-level assessment of HRE in the school system of the countries included. Thailand was one among four countries, the other three being Cambodia, Indonesia, and Laos PDR.

This national-level assessment of HRE is the most significant major report on HRE in Thailand carried out by Wongvaree (2009). It was conducted by exploring policy papers, the school curriculum, textbooks of the Ministry of Education and other organisations working on HRE, and case studies. This report revealed several perspectives on HRE in Thailand. Plantilla and Sae Chua (2009, p. 197) summarised the assessment that “human rights are seen as part of the objectives of education in Thailand. They are, therefore, to be integrated into every course, mostly in the Social, Religious and Cultural Subject Area, and in teaching method.” Remarkably, Wongvaree (2009) reveals the conditions leading to effectiveness of HRE in Thai schools as follows: 1) the understanding, interest and commitment of individual teachers 2) political will and support from a school’s administration 3) availability of time, textbooks and other resources.

In reference to tertiary level, Muntarbhorn (2003) examines HRE at university level and finds that each university is allowed to design its own course and its contents on human rights. Human rights issues are mainly taught in Faculties of Law and Political Science. There is only one specific postgraduate degree on human rights in Thailand which is at Mahidol University (Johns, 2010).

In terms of non-governmental organisations, Wongvaree (2009) comments that the two main NGOs playing a significant role in the development of HRE in Thailand were Amnesty International (Thailand) and the Peace and Justice Commission. These two NGOs cooperated with various governmental and other non-governmental agencies to organise HRE training sessions for teachers, representatives of local organisations and NGOs, comprehensive training of trainers (TOT), youth camps for students, and translated and published a HRE manual.

2.4.2 HRE in national laws and policies in Thailand

In the previous section, the overall background of HRE in Thailand over the last decades has been presented. Since the 1990s, there have been considerable changes in Thailand especially in politics. These changes have been observed in the forms of internal armed conflict and political violence (Amnesty International Report, 2013). The importance of human rights in Thai society and the Thai school system has also been recognised in several ways. Significant pieces of evidence of how Thailand supports human rights are several UN international core human rights instruments including the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and its Optional Protocol; the Convention on the Rights of the Child and its two Optional Protocols; the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment; and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Furthermore, the National Human Rights Commission of Thailand (NHRCT) was created by the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand (1997). Its main functions were to monitor the human rights situation in the country, receive complaints on human rights violations, promote human rights awareness and education, and make recommendations to the parliament and government on ways to ensure better promotion and protection of human rights.

Regarding HRE, key mechanisms signifying support for HRE can be observed through national education documents. Based on the questionnaires on the implementation of the first phases of the World Programme for Human Rights Education done by the Permanent Mission of Thailand to the United Nation (2010), it was clear that in Thailand, the 1997 Constitution, the National Education Act 1999, and the National Scheme of Education provide the framework for HRE. This is congruent with the emphasis of Warnset (2009) and Wichitputchraporn (2004) that the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand (1997) and The National Education Act 1999 are the key significant elements in the development of HRE in Thailand. The National Education Act (1999) (with an amendment in 2002) stressed the importance of education in relation to HRE as follows;

Section 7 The learning process shall aim at inculcating sound awareness of politics and democratic system of government under a constitutional monarchy; ability to protect and promote their rights, responsibilities, freedom, respect of

the rule of law, equality, and human dignity; pride in Thai identity; ability to protect public and national interests; promotion of religion, art, national culture, sports, local wisdom, Thai wisdom and universal knowledge; inculcating ability to preserve natural resources and the environment; ability to earn a living; self-reliance; creativity; and acquiring thirst for knowledge and capability of self-learning on a continuous basis.

(ONEC, 2003)

Another national document related to the support of HRE is the National Scheme of Education (2002-2016). Wongvaree (2009, p. 118) notes that the National Scheme of Education (2002-2016) “serves as a strategic plan to ensure harmonization of the efforts for education reform throughout the country during the 15-year period of 2002-2016.” This national document presents three objectives and 11 policy guidelines for implementation including 1) to develop an all-round and balanced human development to enable harmonious living; 2) to build a society with morality, wisdom and learning; and 3) to enhance the development of a social environment.

In the latest national economic and social development plan called ‘The Eleventh National Economic and Social Development Plan (2012-2016)’, six development strategies are proposed, strategies for: promoting a just society; human development toward a sustainable lifelong development society; strengthening the agricultural sector, food and energy security; restructuring the economy toward quality growth and sustainability; creation of regional connectivity for social and economic stability; and managing natural resources and the environment toward sustainability. The strategy for human development toward a sustainable lifelong development society states that one of the indicators of the overall quality of life is that students at every level of education possess moral values, virtue, and citizenship (Office of National Economic and Social Development Plan Board, 2012).

2.4.3 HRE in national curriculum in Thailand

The Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) increased the provision of free state education to fifteen years, consisting of two early years, six primary and six secondary years of schooling. All children aged seven to sixteen must be enrolled in basic education institutions, except those who have completed Year 10. Basic education in Thailand is divided into six years of primary schooling called Pratom Suksa (one-six). There is lower secondary

(one to three) and upper secondary (four to six) which is called Mattayom Suksa. In 2003, basic education was extended to nine years, with all students expected to complete Mattayom Suksa (one to six).

Eight core subjects form the Basic Education Core Curriculum including Thai language, mathematics, science, social studies, religion and cultures, health and physical education, art, careers and technology, and foreign languages. It is apparent that human rights content is mainly found in the subject of social studies, religion and cultures. Specified as part of Social Studies, Religion and Culture, are five important strands; 1) religion, morality and ethics, 2) civics, culture and living, 3) economics, 4) history, and 5) geography. Each strand is accompanied by its standards. The strands which are most related to human rights are strands 1 and 2 as illustrated in Table 2.7 below;

Table 2.7: Two strands related to HRE in the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008)

Social Studies, Religion, and Culture			
Strand 1: religion, morality and ethics	Standards	Strand 2: civics, culture and living	Standards
<p>Fundamental concepts about religion, morality, ethics and principles of Buddhism or those of learners' religions; application of religions, principles and teachings for self-development and peaceful and harmonious coexistence; ability to do good deeds; acquisition of desirable values; continuous self-development as well as provision of services for social and common interests and concerns</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standard 1.1 Knowledge and understanding of the history, importance, of the Masters and moral principles of Buddhism or those of one's faith and other religions; having the right faith; adherence to and observance of moral principles for peaceful coexistence • Standard 1.2 Understanding, awareness and self-conduct of devout believers; and observance and furtherance of Buddhism or one's faith 	<p>The political and administrative system of the present society; democratic form of government under constitutional monarchy; characteristics and importance of good citizenship; cultural difference and diversity; values under constitutional monarchy; rights, duties and freedoms in the peaceful co-existence of Thai society and the world community.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standard 2.1 understanding self-conduct in accord with the duties and responsibilities of good citizens; observation and preservation of Thai tradition and culture; and enjoying the peaceful coexistence of Thai society and world community; • Standard 2.2 understanding of political and administrative systems of the present society; adherence to, faith in and upholding of the democratic form of government under constitutional monarchy

In addition to the Social, Religion and Culture Subject area, human rights content is also found in the Health and Physical Education Subject area covering issues related to the topic of consumer rights morality and appropriate values in the achievement of a society of quality. The Occupations and Technologies Subject area covers the study of consumer rights and the right to work and recognition of the importance of morality, ethics and a favourable attitude towards occupations.

It can be seen that the current status of HRE in Thailand is mainly derived from the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008). The specific contents of HRE are formally specified for every level of education. This illustrates the support from the government for HRE at the national level at large. However, such support from the government has not become fully embedded. Arguably, it has been watered down or is simply a policy without genuine practicality. It should be made more certain or become more fully part of the education system.

2.4.4 HRE situation after the governance of the National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO)

Since the political crisis in Thailand during 2013-2015, Thai politics has been increasingly unstable. Anti-government protests have taken place widely across the country and political pressure groups have formed. The protests eventually resulted in the removal of the incumbent Prime Minister Yingluck Shinawatra, a coup d'état and the establishment of a military junta, known as the National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO) (Amnesty International, 2015b). Michael (2018) pointed out that Thailand is amongst the world's countries with a record of the most military coups in recent history including 1981, 1985, 1991, 2006 and 2014. Chetchotiros and Prapruttum (2005) note that the military government has the absolute power to run the country, backed up solidly by military force. It is also apparent that there have been a number of reform initiatives created by the military government.

According to NCPO's mission statement and policies published in the website of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, one of the administrative policies is about education. Among four education policies, one significant aspect of education is about building a sense of patriotism among schoolchildren as follows;

The NCPO will develop ways to promote among Thai youths a sense of patriotism and duty to protect national interests, as well as hold the institution of the monarchy in the highest esteem. They will learn and take pride in our history and the roots of our ancestors, and realise a sense of gratitude for the country. They should not move forward by neglecting past virtues.

Together with such a policy, one of the very first things the NCPO did on the educational front, after all, was to revive History and Civic Duties. The government proceeded to take control over the educational policies and curricular planning. “The military leaders have imposed and instilled in Thai children a sense of being a ‘good’ citizen by following ‘Thai values’ and of patriotism via the educational reform, and through the policy of ‘Returning the happiness to Thailand’ as well as speaking in the programme ‘Reconciliation to Build the Nation’” (Jatuporn, 2016, p. 133). Previously, History and Civic Duties were just parts of the social studies and humanities segment in the school curriculum. The subject of Civic Duties is in line with the policies of NCPO to solve the nation's problem. This might be related to what Davies, Evans, and Reid (2005, p. 83) conclude that “national citizenship is still a strong force and education still largely serves the nation state.” According to NCPO policy, therefore, History and Civic Duties were separated as standalone subjects. This policy was put into practice in the second semester of the school year 2014, starting in November, which was about six months after NCPO initiated governance. Jirakittikul (2014) describes that, regarding the subject of Civic Duties from Pratom Suksa 1 to Mattayom Suksa 3 (Grades 1-9), students are required to learn 40 hours per school year. As for students of Mattayom Suksa 4-6 (Grades 10-12), Civic Duties is learned for 80 hours throughout the three years. Based on Thongnoi (2014), regarding the subject of Civic Duties, this has led to the concern among educators that a strong emphasis on History and Civic Duties could mean students have less time for other social studies. It was noted that Civic Duties needed to be taught in conjunction with democratic principles and institutions, the rule of law and human rights. By separating the subject, it might narrow down the students’ ability to view the world from various angles. Jatuporn (2016) additionally criticised that, as can be observed, the military government, through the curriculum reform, has been exercising a domination project to control their population.

So far, information recently obtained from the policy of the military government, indicates that a considerable change in the content of the human rights curriculum in Thailand is about to be introduced. The latest policy is to separate the content about citizenship into another new subject called ‘Civic Duties’. The administrators of schools across the country

have been introduced to the principles of the new subject and been given the course syllabus as well as the course description. It provides flexibility for individual schools to design the whole content of the course independently. It poses a challenge to the implementation of human rights content in the subject. It is not expected that every school and every teacher in every course will be well-versed in human rights principles and able to integrate human rights values into their teaching.

In addition to revising History and Civic Duties in order to make students learn about the duties of Thais, discipline, morality and patriotism, 12 main Thai values were introduced for schools across the country to incorporate into their school communities. Maxwell (2014) notes that schools across the country were required to place great emphasis on teaching these 12 main values. These so-called 12 traditional Thai values illustrate the support for nationalism. The list below represents the desirable image for being good Thai citizens. According to NCPO policy these 12 main values are as follows:

1. Love for the nation, religions and monarchy
2. Honesty, patience and good intentions for the public
3. Gratitude to parents, guardians and teachers
4. Perseverance in learning
5. Conservation of Thai culture
6. Morality and sharing with others
7. Correctly understanding democracy with the monarchy as head of the state
8. Discipline and respect for the law and elders
9. Awareness in thinking and doing things, and following the guidance of His Majesty the King
10. Living by the philosophy of sufficiency economy guided by His Majesty the King
11. Physical and mental strength against greed
12. Concern about the public and national good more than self-interest.

Overall, there is good reason to doubt the direction of HRE in Thailand. A set of questions might be raised, such as the following; “Will the current policy last long?” Will this policy be continued if Thailand has a democratically voted government? Are human rights only consistent with certain forms of government? or Are human rights consistent with government by military junta? These questions are beyond the scope of this present study. However, this study intends to provide more encompassing insights into HRE practices in secondary education in Thailand.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has presented a summary of the current state of knowledge within the field of HRE and its sources. The following topics have been explored: human rights, HRE, and HRE in Thailand. The sources mentioned have provided information about existing knowledge and the current situation of HRE in Thailand. Through the process of reviewing existing knowledge the researcher has developed a more nuanced understanding of his research interest. Furthermore, this chapter has developed the line of argument the researcher has established and outlined the particular understanding of HRE the researcher now has.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This research seeks to explore the current situation of HRE in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand. To pursue this overall purpose, the research sets out to answer three sub-questions: 1) What do teachers do to promote ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?; 2) What values and beliefs do teachers hold in relation to ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?; and 3) How do students experience ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?

This chapter consists of seven main sections. The following section, 3.2, describes the selection of the research methodology used-case studies employing ethnographic approaches- and its background in cultivating educational research. The research methods selected are described in detail in Section 3.3. These include observation, interviews, and document analysis. Section 3.4 presents the research stages (preparation stage and data collection). Data analysis, including the method of anonymizing the participants, and thematic analysis are presented in Section 3.5. The emphasis on ethical considerations in this study is outlined in Section 3.6. Finally, the chapter ends in Section 3.7 with a summary and concluding remarks covering the whole chapter.

3.2 Case studies employing ethnographic approaches

3.2.1 Case studies

As the purpose of this study is to explore the current situation of HRE in secondary schools in Thailand, an in-depth investigation of how human rights are embedded in Thai schools is required. This is congruent with Sastry (2013, p. 1) who, by making comparison with other general research, notes that

the methodology and study of human rights need in depth, inclusive investigative approach in view of the fact that the aim and objective of human rights is not only to bring in peace and prosperity across the various actors of it, but also to guarantee equality, life and liberty of individuals through different dimensions

With this regard, Sastry also considers the case study as one significant methodology for conducting human rights research.

A case study approach is defined by Yin (2003) as “empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 13). Another significant definition is given by Collis and Hussey (2009). They define case study as “a methodology that is used to explore a single phenomenon in a natural setting using a variety of methods to obtain in-depth knowledge” (p. 82). Yin (2014) notes that data in case study research can be obtained from many sources. Flyvbjerg (2006) also remarks that for researchers, the closeness of the case study to real-life situations and its multiple wealth of details are important. As such, in this study, ethnographic approaches were selected as the research methods to collect the data underpinning these two case studies since ethnographic approaches allow the researcher to obtain in-depth data from different sources (Angrosino, 2007; Brewer, 2000; Denzin, 1970a). The following section will present the rationale for selecting the ethnographic approach to collect data in this study.

3.2.2 Ethnographic approaches

Ethnography has been widely used in many fields such as social anthropology, education, health, business, nursing, and many others. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995, p. 1) state that “in recent decades ethnography has become a popular approach to social research, along with other kinds of qualitative work”. Angrosino (2007, p. xv) also states that “ethnographic research was pioneered by anthropologists...it has since become part of the toolkit of qualitative researchers in many disciplines, including sociology, social psychology, communication, education, business, and health.”

Ethnography emphasises the close observation of social practice and interactions. In this research, social practice and interactions refer to how teachers introduce the subject of human rights in their classroom and school, how students learn the subject of human rights in

the classroom and school, and what teachers' attitudes and beliefs are in regards to HRE. Ethnography is both a product and method of social research that uses a variety of tools, including long-term observation, interviews and reflection to construct a 'thick description' of a particular cultural organisation in order to generate insights and understandings (Anderson, 1989). Wax (1971) states that ethnography has a very long history of exploring the routine ways in which participants live their daily lives. In the context of this research, the routine ways mentioned by Wax are the activities naturally found in schools including teaching and learning the subject of human rights, school activities related to human rights and other human rights practices implemented by school staff and students.

Delamont (2012, p. 343) states that "ethnography has a long history in both social anthropology and in sociology." As originally found in the field of social anthropology, ethnography is traditionally regarded as the method in which the researcher lives within a culture in order to study it over a certain substantial period of time. By being in the natural setting, the researcher observes and interacts with participants in areas of their everyday lives. Based on these characteristics of ethnography, ethnographic approaches are the most suitable methodology to address the research questions in this study since these attempt to explore the beliefs, values, and experiences of teachers and students in relation to HRE. However, although the research study was informed by ethnographic approaches, it was not necessary for the researcher in this study to live with the participants.

In terms of its epistemological tenets, Pole and Morrison (2003, p. 5) state that "ethnography is located within the approach of naturalism". O'Connell-Davidson and Layder (1994) also mention that contemporary ethnography is the study of people in their natural context rather than in an artificial context, such as a laboratory. When explored in its natural context, the researcher was able to observe how teachers and students interacted in the school, how school activities were actually organised, and how school staff normally did their jobs.

Over time ethnography has been developed based on diverse underlying theoretical perspectives held by different groups of researchers (Brewer, 2000). However, the main features of ethnography, as Atkinson and Hammersley (1994) conclude, are an intensive focus on exploring the nature of particular social phenomena, with a primary aim to obtain the key factors, the investigation of a small number of cases, and the explicit interpretation of the meanings and functions of human actions. The findings are presented in the form of a description and explanation of how a particular cultural context shapes people's experience

and knowledge, which, in turn, influences their lifestyle and behaviour (Aamodt, 1991; Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994; Leininger, 1985). Thus, the ethnographic method is pertinent to the aim of this research in exploring and providing an insightful description of the current situation of HRE in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand.

Based on Agar (1986), Geertz (1988), and Walcott (1990), the researcher's topic in ethnographic education is primarily related to the basic research question, namely, 'what is going on here?' Pole and Morrison (2003) also define that "doing ethnography has a primary objective to collect data that conveys the subjective reality of the lived experience of those who inhabit 'educational' locations and for various purposes" (p. 17). Pole and Morrison (2003) also mention that the curiosity of an ethnographic educational researcher might relate to a school, college, university, department, classroom, lesson, teacher or pupil's career. Anderson (1989) also notes that in educational research, the logical site for ethnographies is the school, and indeed most ethnographic investigations in the education field bear out this trend. Complementary work began to examine the interactional order of educational settings by focusing on practical action, discourse, and talk-in-interaction often through an examination of naturally occurring data as well as detailed ethnographic observation (Hammersley, 1977). In relation to ethnography in educational research, this research is an educational research in which ethnography was instrumental in gaining an in-depth insight into the secondary school contexts in which teachers and students work and their social contexts are embedded.

Based on the previous paragraphs, the ethnographic method has been practically and widely used in educational research. In this research conducted in an educational context, ethnographic methods were also employed due to the following reasons. Firstly, based on the research questions mentioned earlier, the research focused on a particular educational organisation, namely, two secondary schools in the context of Thailand. This is relevant to the conceptual schema of ethnographic research that ethnographic research focuses on organisations or communities which consist of defined groups of people who interact in regular and structured ways. Secondly, as the main objective of this research is to explore HRE in the secondary school context, the natural setting must then be secondary schools. Ethnographic methods are thus the most appropriate since ethnographic research is normally conducted in a natural setting and the ethnographic researcher observes what is happening as it naturally occurs. In other words, ethnography allows the researcher to carry out research in the everyday life environments of participants. This helped the researcher identify discrepancies between what school administrators, teachers, and students say they do regarding human rights and what

they actually do. Thirdly, the process of ethnographic research is more integrated than the procedures of other research methodologies. As this research aims at gaining in-depth information about human rights practices in the secondary school context, the research data gained should be derived from integrated data collection methods over the period of the study including observing, interviewing and reviewing relevant documents.

In summary, due to the main characteristics of the ethnographic approach of producing descriptions and explanations of particular phenomena over a period of time and the integration of data collection methods, this research thus employs the ethnographic research method to describe the current situation of HRE in two secondary schools in Thailand. More detailed information of how the ethnographic method was used in this research is explained in the following sections.

3.3 Research methods

In an ethnographic approach, a range of specific data collection methods is typically employed in order to seek strong conclusions drawn from more than one data source. In other words, the various means of data collection play a very important role in promoting the quality of ethnographic research. Brewer (2000) and Denzin (1970b) mention that it is the multiplicity of methods and their triangulation that has been described as the routine hallmark of ethnography. Furthermore, data derived from several angles can increase the validity of the research results.

It is worth noting that good ethnography is usually the result of triangulation or the use of multiple data collection techniques to reinforce conclusions (Angrosino, 2007). Therefore, the following techniques were used in combination in this research; participant observation recorded by field notes, interview, and document analysis. The following paragraphs provide some brief descriptions, discussions and the rationale for selecting the individual methods involved.

3.3.1 Participant observation

Participant observation has been accounted as a major form of data collection in ethnographic research (O'Reilly, 2005; Reeves, Peller, Goldman, & Kitto, 2013; Simmons, 2007). This

technique provides a thorough understanding through experiencing patterns of behaviour over time. In this present study, there are three main focuses regarding participant observation.

I. Roles of researcher in participant observation

In terms of the role of the researcher, participant observation is classified according to the degree of involvement of researchers with people and activities in the field of study, ranging from complete observer to complete participant (Germain, 1993; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; Hopkins, 2002; Mulhall, 2003; Roper & Shapira, 2000; Simmons, 2007; Spradley, 1980). Angrosino (2007) states that ethnographic fieldworkers often become participant observers who balance objective collection of data with the subjective insights that result from an ongoing association with the people whose lives they seek to understand. Moreover, as stated by Roper and Shapira (2000), taking the role of ‘observer-as-participant’ can strengthen the relationship and trust between researcher and participants. The researcher thus sometimes interacted with participants and took part in some particular activities considered to be beneficial for gaining the participants’ trust, enabling him to grasp a wide range of information in his research. Such activities included a student council election, sports activity, other social activities, and school activities dealing with the local community including helping the local government promote any campaigns launched, such as an anti-drug campaign, an anti-violence in the family campaign, a stopping ‘teenage mother’ campaign and many others.

II. Field notes

Field notes are the traditional means of obtaining data derived from observation in ethnographic research (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). Grbich (2013) mentions that “observational field notes are the most common form of data collected in classical ethnographies, followed by interviewing and document collation” (p. 43). Corwin and Clemens (2012) suggest that the contents of field notes are determined by a myriad of factors, including research questions, site selection, participants, and length and time of study. To write effective field notes, two scholars (Angrosino, 2007; Spradley, 1980) had suggested specific strategies, which were adapted in planning and organising the field notes in this research. For example, in one school’s staff meeting about student behaviour, the researcher noted the place of the meeting, the members attending, the objective, order, and topics discussed in the meeting, and significant

conversations related to human rights. In addition, the researcher also noted what was displayed unofficially in the meeting such as the feeling of the meeting's members. Nevertheless, it was not always easy to observe this as people were usually good at hiding their feelings. This is why the researcher needed to conduct interviews with the participants as well.

III. Time spent in participant observation

In terms of the time spent in the observation period, several studies refer to the optimal period of observation (Christian, 2005; Fetterman, 2010; Ware, Tugenberg, Dickey, & McHorney, 1999). According to Fetterman (2010), fieldwork, the traditional element of ethnography, typically lasts from six months to two years or more in most ethnographic research. However, as this research aimed to explore the context of secondary schools in Thailand, the observation was conducted during the second semester of the school academic year which started on November 2015 and ended on April 2016. The researcher made observations from different places or angles in the schools spreading himself around the various cliques.

3.3.2 Interviews

During the fieldwork, in addition to observation, interviews were also employed to collect the research data. According to Wisker (2001), "interviews can provide both the detailed information you set out to collect and some fascinating contextual or other information" (p. 165). In this research, interviews helped explore issues concerned with the values and beliefs teachers hold in relation to HRE, and also revealed students' experiences about HRE. Since beliefs and values cannot be directly observed, the interview is accordingly used to comprehend the teachers' values and beliefs. Interviewing some students in relation to their experience of HRE provided the researcher with a clearer picture of how students experienced HRE in both schools, such as interviewing the student council's staff and interviewing some students in Civic Duties classes.

Fetterman (2010) notes that interviews are the most important data-gathering technique in ethnographic research. Angrosino (2007) also states that "ethnographic interviewing is indeed conversational in the sense that it takes place between people who have grown to be friends as the ethnographer has been a participant observer in the community in which his or her respondent lives" (p. 42). In this present study, three different kinds of interview were

conducted including unstructured interview, semi-structured interview, and focus-group interview. Each is described in the following paragraphs.

I. Unstructured interviews

Pole and Morrison (2003) mention that the “unstructured interview has become a powerful tool in the ethnographer’s kit, not surprisingly because it adheres closely to ethnography’s main claim to explore the educational worlds of actors from their own perspectives” (p. 30). It was also mentioned by DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006) that this kind of interview is rooted in the ethnographic tradition of anthropology. In this research, the researcher employed unstructured ethnographic interviews whenever he had the opportunity to do so during the course of participant observation. As unstructured interviews can be carried out in different forms (Jamshed, 2014), the researcher employed the one which was most suitable in the research context, which was the non-directive interview. This form of unstructured interview allowed him to obtain in-depth information from the participants without a pre-planned set of questions. To plan and conduct unstructured interviews the researcher employed the steps suggested by Punch (1998) and Fontana and Frey (2005). Throughout the period of data collection, he conducted both individual and group unstructured interviews. The individual unstructured interview no doubt helped the researcher capture a participant’s emotions and behaviours while the group unstructured interview with all participants in one session can reveal patterns of communication and assertiveness among participants.

II. Semi-structured interviews

In addition to unstructured interviews, Angrosino (2007) states that while the classical ethnographic interview is open-ended in nature, it is possible to conduct semi-structured interviews, which use predetermined questions related to ‘domains of interest’. Charmaz (2006) describes the semi-structured interview as a “directed conversation” (p. 27). Also, Newby (2014) notes that the semi-structured interview has the potential to produce abundant, rich and deep data. According to the previous scholars, it is evident that semi-structured interviews are also widely employed as one significant data collection mechanism for qualitative studies. In this present study, a semi-structured interview was conducted, where the researcher had prepared a set of questions beforehand but did not necessarily strictly follow the

prepared questions. He rather used the set of prepared questions as the guidelines to produce the conversation and discussion. The semi-structured interview was conducted throughout the data collection period both with individuals and with groups.

III. Focus group interviews

One of the most significant interview mechanisms used in the study was focus group interviews. Gorman and Clayton (2005) consider focus group interviews as a qualitative technique for obtaining rich research data. Anderson (1990) defines focus group interviews as “a group comprised of individuals with certain characteristics who focus discussions on a given issue or topic” (p. 241). Moreover, Casey and Krueger (2000) refer to the focus group as allowing the researcher “a more natural environment than that of individual interview because participants are influencing and influenced by others-just as they are in real life” (p. 11). Focus group interviews, as found in Stewart and Shamdasani (1990), also allow the researcher to obtain “a rich and detailed set of data about perceptions, thoughts, feelings and impressions of people in their own words” (p. 140). As such, the present study employed this kind of interview to elicit information from different groups of participants including groups of students and teachers.

3.3.3 Document analysis

Bowen (2009) states that “document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing and evaluating documents both printed and electronic materials” (p. 27). He also notes that “documentary evidence is combined with data from interviews and observation to minimise bias and establish credibility” (p. 30). As stated by Denzin (1970b), document analysis is fundamentally used in combination with other qualitative research methods for the purpose of triangulating the findings in qualitative research. In ethnographic research, document analysis is widely used in combination with other qualitative research methods to create the triangulation of the research data (Reeves, Kuper, & Hodges, 2008; Reeves et al., 2013). In this research, document analysis was therefore used with the emphasis on discovering, describing, and searching for contexts and information regarding HRE in various forms of documents in the two school settings.

3.4 Research stages

3.4.1 Stage 1 — Preparation stage

I. Population

In this research, the population was the secondary schools in Northeast Thailand and the samples were two secondary schools in the province of Nakhon Phanom. The criteria used for the selection of population and samples are shown as follows. The Northeast is the largest region of Thailand with a population of 18,970,000 recorded in 2010 (the total size of the Thai population is 65,980,000)¹. Northeast Thailand, shown on Figure 3.1, is better known as the I-Saan region bordering with Laos and Cambodia. The region consists of twenty provinces out of the seventy-eight provinces across the whole country. As this area takes up nearly one third of Thailand's total land mass, the region is noted as the major area in which the focus of development is particularly placed by the government and many stakeholders.

¹ This data was collected by National Statistical Office of Thailand. The population and housing census collects the data of the population and the place of residence of everyone who currently resides in the country every ten years.

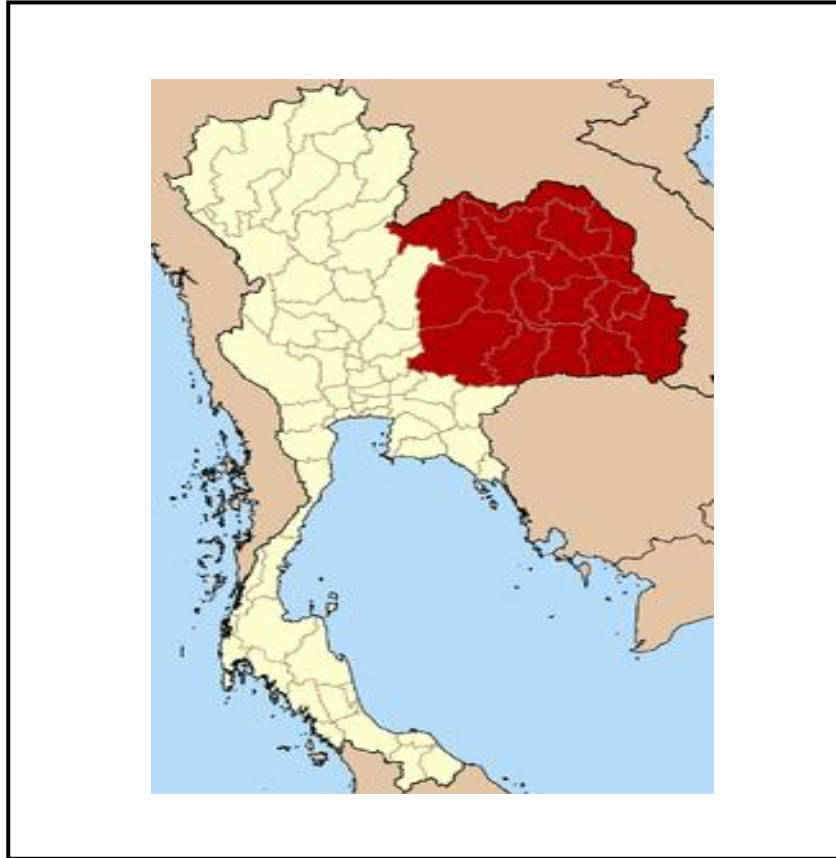


Figure 3.1: Map of Thailand with the Northeast in red

In terms of education, due to its much greater size of area and population, 15 Secondary Educational Service Areas (out of 42 across the whole of Thailand) are scattered around the region. Their responsibilities include the administration of secondary education and supervision of secondary schools in their areas. Across the region, there are 931 secondary schools under the supervision of the 15 Secondary Educational Service Areas.

II. Samples and fieldwork settings

The selection of fieldwork sites and participants in ethnographic research is driven by the research questions which shape the selection of a place and a people or programme to study. Delamont (2012) mentions that “good fieldwork comes from being interested in some aspects of the setting and its sectors, and on having some foreshadowed problems grounded in social science” (p. 344). In terms of sampling technique, purposive sampling is the most common technique in ethnographic study (Fetterman, 2010). Bryman (2012) also mentions that the

purposive sampling technique can enable researchers to obtain detailed exploration and thorough understanding of the topic of research. Henceforth, this made the present study more rigorous since the significant matters were covered, enough diversity was included and relevant themes were explored.

In this research, the main objective was to explore the current situation of HRE in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand. Therefore, the researcher sought information from the Office of the Basic Education Commission of the Ministry of Education who are responsible for Basic Education, which includes secondary education in Thailand. The first school has a national reputation for its work on promoting human rights and democracy. This school has therefore been seen as one in which human rights are highly valued. The second school is a more conventional school in which human rights are taught in line with government guidance, but which does not have a public profile for this work.

The two schools selected are located in Nakhon Phanom Province, shown in Figure 3.2. Nakhon Phanom possess a total area of 5,512.7 km² (2,128.5 sq mi). The total population is 703,392 (data recorded in 2010 by the National Statistical Office of Thailand). This province shares similar characteristics with other provinces in the Northeast in terms of education. Secondary Educational Service Area 22 covers the area of Nakhon Phanom and provides the educational supervision and management of 45 secondary schools across two provinces including Nakhon Phanom and Mukdahan.



Figure 3.2: The red area represents Nakhon Phanom Province

A. School A

School A was purposively chosen as a human rights-oriented school. The school argues that the way it organises the school council engages students in learning about democracy and leadership. The school additionally claims that its student council displays a high level of performance providing the students with the opportunity to become involved in the affairs of the school, working in partnership with the school management, staff and parents for the benefit of the school and its students. The student council of School A has received many awards at provincial, regional, and national levels. Some outstanding awards include the gold medal in the Student Council Competition for many years, being selected as the national role model of a student council, the national role model of a democratic school, and for best practice in student council. All the awards received are honourably held by the Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC). Most of the competitions attended were nationally held, in which secondary schools across the whole of Thailand joined the competition.

As it is widely accepted as the award winning school in organising student councils, a number of schools and other organisations across Thailand visit School A in order to study its

student council as a role model for the best practice of a student council. Moreover, the school is now building up a student council network among ten countries of ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations). Recently, the student council and some teachers of School A have been to one secondary school in Laos PDR to create a relationship between the two schools and especially their student councils. Based on the evidence previously mentioned, this school can be seen as a secondary school that predominantly recognises human rights.

B. School B

School B was purposively chosen in contrast to School A in terms of HRE. This state-funded school is mainly organised according to the national curriculum launched by the Ministry of Education, Thailand. School B is similar to School A in several aspects such as school size, number of teachers, number of students, and study programmes. In terms of human rights, this school appears to follow the government guidance about HRE, but as yet, it does not have the high profile of the other school.

C. Other criteria for selecting the two fieldwork sites

To select both ‘School A’ and ‘School B’ as the fieldwork sites, some other criteria were taken into consideration. These are as follows:

➤ *Entry to settings*

Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) state that difficulty in gaining access to data is a problem with ethnography and the degree of difficulty may increase throughout the steps of data collection. The researcher therefore selected two schools which were located not too far from each other. It was then possible to conduct observations in one school on Monday and Tuesday and move to the other school on Wednesday and Thursday. School A is located in Nawa District (shown in Figure 3.3) while School B is situated in Sri Songkram District (shown in Figure 3.3). The red area in the map on the left is Nawa District where School A is situated and the red area in the map on the right represents Sri Songkram District where School B is located. Additionally, School A is approximately only 30 kilometres from School B and as such the

distance between them was not so great that it impacted on the researcher's ability to conduct fieldwork.

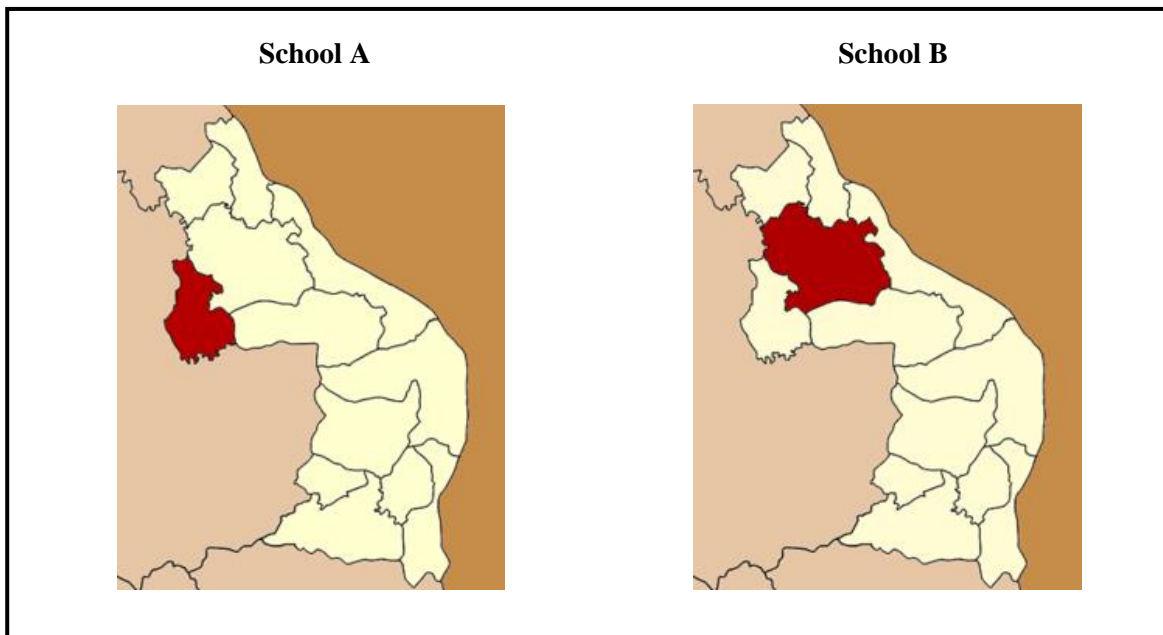


Figure 3.3: The locations of School A and School B

➤ *The similar backgrounds of both schools*

As the regular basis of secondary education in Thailand, both schools provide six years of secondary education including three years of lower-secondary level and three years of upper-secondary level. The lower secondary level of schooling consists of Mattayom Suksa 1-3 (Grades 7-9) for age groups 13 to 15. The upper secondary level of schooling consists of Mattayom Suksa 4-6 (Grades 10-12) for age groups 16 to 18. Furthermore, the amounts of teachers and students in both schools are not significantly different (School A with 1,219 students and 54 teachers and School B with 1,363 students and 53 teachers). In terms of geographic information, both schools are located in plains where rivers flow through the area. As a result, most of the area is utilised predominantly for agricultural and fishery purposes. As for demographic information, the population of the two districts is made up of five different tribes including Phu Thai, Saek, Yau, Kalueng and Thai I-san. The students in the two schools therefore share similar ethnic and cultural backgrounds. The researcher deliberately chose two schools of a similar size, in the same region, and serving a similar cohort of students since it

gives a firm basis for claiming that the research findings resulting are based on the different practices of HRE and not influenced by other factors. In other words, since the researcher wanted to be able to draw comparisons or see noticeable differences between the two schools in how they understand and implement HRE, other factors should therefore be similar.

3.4.2 Stage 2 — Data collection

I. Observation

In this study, the focus was on HRE in secondary schools. Teachers and students were the primary sources of research data. As such, observation in the schools was imperative. As mentioned in the previous section, the two fieldwork sites were located in School A and School B. Throughout the six-month data collection period, Mondays and Tuesdays were spent observing at School A and Wednesdays and Thursdays at School B. Fridays were used to recheck, edit, and type up the field notes and keep as computer files. Participant observations were conducted where HRE was found in both schools as illustrated in Table 3.1. This observation took place both inside and outside of the classrooms as shown in the following paragraphs.

Table 3.1: Summary of observations from November 2015-April 2016

Time	Observation				Fridays
	School A		School B		
	Mondays	Tuesdays	Wednesdays	Thursdays	
07.00-08.00 am	At the school gate with the duty teachers				Rechecking, editing, and typing up the field notes
08.00-08.40 am	Flag ceremony				
08.40-09.30 am	Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents	Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents	Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents	Civic Duties class/lower secondary level	
09.30-10.20 am					
10.20-11.10 am					
11.10-12.00 am					
12.00-13.00					
01.00-01.50 pm	Civic Duties class/upper secondary level		Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents	Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents	
01.50-02.40 pm	Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents	Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents	Civic Duties class/upper secondary level		
02.40-03.30 pm			Data collection activities e.g. observing student activities, attending series of meetings, conducting unstructured, semi-structured interviews, and studying related documents		
03.30-04.20 pm					
	Flag ceremony				

A. Inside the classroom

To conduct classroom observations in particular, the researcher selected one subject taught in both schools on suggestions made by staff from both schools. These were the Deputy Director of Academic Affairs and the Head of Department of Social Studies, Religion, and Culture. These two persons were most closely related to the subjects and school curriculum in the schools. In this case, they agreed that the most human rights-related subject was Civic Duties. According to the military government under the name of the National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO), History and Civic Duties were separated out into stand-alone subjects. This policy was put into practice in the second semester of school year 2014, starting in November 2014. This present study took place in November 2015, just a year after its implementation.

The researcher selected two classrooms of Civic Duties subjects from each school. One was a classroom of Mattayom Suksa 2 (Grade 8) representing the lower secondary level and the other was a classroom of Mattayom Suksa 5 (Grade 11) representing the upper secondary level. Mattayom Suksa 2 was selected since this is the middle level of the lower secondary level in which students normally have the most time to study, compared with Mattayom Suksa 1 (Grade 7) and Mattayom Suksa 3 (Grade 9). As the students of Mattayom Suksa 1 are the new students, they normally spend time attending orientation activities and trainings. In the case of Mattayom Suksa 3 students, they are going to finish the lower secondary school level and are about to take the formal entrance examination for the new schools and take the national test. They therefore are normally placed in tutoring programmes organised by the schools. In upper secondary education, Mattayom Suksa 5 was selected to represent the upper secondary level due to the same reasons as Mattayom Suksa 2 was selected. Mattayom Suksa 4 students are the new students while Mattayom Suksa 6 are the last level of the school and are compulsorily required to attend tutoring programmes and other preparatory programmes for university life.

The researcher conducted four sets of classroom observations across the two schools; two sets in School A and the other two in School B. However, the Civic Duties Subject of the lower secondary level in School A was cancelled due to the latest policy of the military government. Resulting from the so-called “Moderate Class, More Knowledge” policy initiated by the military government, School A was chosen by the Ministry of Education to participate with more than 4,000 other secondary schools across the country. The participating schools, based on this policy, were required to find time for the students of lower secondary level to

learn on their own independently, as well as encouraging them to learn vocational skills, which would be beneficial to them when they have to compete in a tough job market. As a result of this, the participating schools were required to take out the Civic Duties Subject at lower secondary level. The subject of Civic Duties at lower secondary level was therefore withdrawn. As a result, the researcher observed only one Civic Duties class at upper secondary level in School A, but was able to conduct the observation at both lower and upper secondary levels in School B. Through the Civic Duties classroom observation, the focus was placed on curriculum implementation, pedagogical style, classroom activities, student participation, and teacher and student interaction during the classroom period. It was suggested by Wajnryb (1992) and Wallace (1991) that observation sheets can provide meaningful tasks and offer an opportunity to collect focused data for reflection on the area of concern. As such, observation sheets were produced for the purpose of this study as shown in Appendix 4.

Whilst observing in the classrooms, the researcher normally placed himself at the back of the classroom at the table provided and took notes on the observation sheets. After the observation, his usual practice was to chat informally with students about the lesson they had just participated in, or, on the following day, to speak to some of the students who had been in the session to ask them for their views on what was discussed.

B. Outside the classroom

Paying attention to only what happens in students' learning in the classroom was not deemed sufficient to understand all of the schools' practices on students' learning. By observing the experience of learning outside the classroom, the researcher was able to develop a greater sense of the way how the school supported students' learning on one particular policy or campaign. In a similar manner, observing how human rights were valued outside the classroom in addition to inside the classroom should be another focus. In this regard, there were certain places outside the classroom where HRE was taking place. This included a series of meetings in the schools regarding HRE, staffrooms related to human rights such as the Social Studies Department and the Division of Student Affairs, school activities, and students' activities, the flag ceremony, school gate, and the student council office. The following paragraphs provide examples of some significant places and their points of focus regarding HRE.

In the case of the flag ceremony or morning assembly, this was one of the significant areas where a commitment to human rights was and was not found. This ceremony, as

mentioned by Boontinard and Petcharamesree (2017) is “the daily morning assembly, during which the ritual of saluting the flag and singing the national anthem is arguably the most important element” (p. 40). In these two schools, the flag ceremony finished with a range of activities or events. This could include a speech from the school administrators, a talk about students’ behaviour and ethics, school activities and general news updating, announcements of awards, inspection of students’ hairstyles and school uniform, and introductions of new members.

In addition, observation was also conducted in a series of meetings in the two schools. This set of meetings included school staff meetings, school board meetings, association of ex-pupils meetings, association of parents meetings, meetings of other departments related to human rights such as the Department of Social Studies, Religion, and Culture, the Division of Academic Affairs, and Division of Student Affairs. Apart from meetings inside schools, the researcher also observed some human rights-related meetings outside the schools in which students and teachers were invited to be involved, such as community meetings about human rights-related affairs in the community and meetings of local organisations about human rights. Another important place the researcher found related to HRE in the two schools were staffrooms. Staffrooms related to human rights were the staffrooms of the Social Studies Department, the Division of Student Affairs, and Division of Academic Affairs.

Regarding observation with students outside of the classrooms, the student council was the place where human rights were highly apparent. Therefore, the office of the student council was another significant place to focus on. In relation to the student council, the observation took place in a series of events organised by the student council. This included meetings of student councils and a variety of activities. To explore HRE and students further, it appeared that many student clubs organised were closely related to human rights. Therefore, human rights-related clubs organised by students in both schools were observed. However, observations also took place of school activities in all areas of the school in which all school members were required to partake in. This included sport activities, scout activities, and school inspections.

To avoid ending up with lots of notes that did not help address research questions, the researcher provided clear guidelines about what to observe based on the places where HRE was found. To write the notes, the researcher used abbreviations and mnemonics which he could decipher and aimed to record as much as he could. These notes were not in beautifully

grammatical English and they were not in full sentences. As Denscombe (1998) mentions, since memory is selective and frail, the ethnographer should make notes wherever possible in the field, as well as making further notes outside the field as soon as possible after the observation, preferably at the end of each day or half day. Therefore, the researcher planned to finish the field notes at least at the end of each day of observation to avoid the loss of detailed information. In other words, as soon as the researcher arrived home, he wrote up those notes in the format of A4 paper while everything was still fresh in his mind.

II. Interviews

In this present study, three different types of interviews were employed. These include unstructured, semi-structured, and focus group interviews. Each type of interview will be delineated in the following section.

A. Unstructured interviews

In case of unstructured interviews in which the opportunities emerged naturally from the situation, the researcher mostly asked the participants about what he had seen. Informal interviews were then conducted immediately after an event with a brief introduction of himself and the purpose of the research. These unstructured interviews were conducted with the consent of the participants. In other words, the researcher just chatted with them about some of his emerging ideas or about what he had seen regarding human rights issues. The unstructured interviews were conducted with a variety of people including school administrators, teaching staff, non-teaching staff, parents, community members, and students.

For example, the researcher discovered in one Civic Duties classroom that the teacher had picked some controversial issues to discuss in class. He just simply asked the teacher after class about the reason for choosing such issues. Another example was about students' feelings towards a student council election. The researcher approached many students after the announcement of the winner about their feelings and what they had learned from participating in a student council election. In the case of the flag ceremony, the researcher just simply approached students individually or in groups and asked about what they thought about the school uniform inspection organised during the flag ceremony period. Unstructured interviews were also carried out with some teachers after the school staff meeting regarding students'

hairstyles. In the case of interviewing teachers informally, the researcher had to be very mindful of the school's timetable since teachers might be rushing to another class. To avoid such problems, the researcher went to the staffrooms which teachers would retreat to between duties in order to ask the questions raised during the classroom or meeting observations.

B. Semi-structured interviews

In addition to informal interviews, more formal ethnographic interviews also occurred when a relationship with the participants had been developed and such interviews were conducted at an appointed time. These interviews were conducted with school administrators, teachers and students both individually and in groups. This kind of interview was done with school administrators for the purpose of getting to know school policies and missions related to HRE. For example, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a group of school administrators about their perspectives towards the school policy regarding students' different sexual orientation and gender identity. Through interviewing teachers, this kind of interview sought to gain evidence of teachers' beliefs and attitudes on teaching human rights or supporting and organising human rights activities in schools. Regarding the issues about students' different sexual orientation and gender identity, semi-structured interviews were also conducted with a group of teachers in the Division of Student Affairs about how this group of students were treated. This kind of interview was carried out with students so as to obtain students' feedback towards human rights-related school policies and students' experience on human rights learning and human rights activities in schools. On the same topics, a group of gay students was interviewed about their feelings in schools and how they perceived they were valued.

Overall, organising semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions with individual participants can elicit a deeper and broader picture of HRE in schools. Organising semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions in groups can stimulate some degree of debate among school administrators, teachers and students, which helped the researcher explore a wide range of each group's opinions, attitudes, beliefs, and experience about HRE. With regard to the interviewing location, both the place and time of interview were suggested by the participants. Administrators and teachers were normally interviewed in their staffroom or offices while students preferred being interviewed in the areas where they normally gathered such as canteens, a botanical garden, basketball court, or just in the school grounds or outside the school.

C. Focus group interviews

Morgan (1997) suggests that “the simplest test for whether the focus groups are appropriate for a research is to ask how actively and easily the participants would discuss the topic of interest” (p. 17). Focus group interviews were conducted during the final period of the study. Entering the final period of the observation, the researcher had developed relationships with some school members and had explored certain aspects of HRE in both schools. As such, he had enough information to know who could provide rich and sufficient data about HRE in both schools. Prior to conducting the focus group interviews with the participants, a pilot interview was conducted.

This pilot interview was conducted in March 2016. A pilot study is defined as “the pre-testing or 'trying out' of a particular research instrument” (Baker, 1994, p. 182-183). According to Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) and Berg (2001), conducting a pilot study allows the researcher to evaluate whether the research instrument is realistic and workable, highlight the ambiguities and difficulties of the research questions, and determine whether each question elicits an adequate response. As such, a pilot study is conducted before the main focus group interview. This interview pilot study was conducted with three groups each of five participants; a group of students, a group of teachers, and a group from a student council in one secondary school which was neither School A nor School B. Then, based on the information obtained from the pilot study, the interview questions were adjusted as shown in Appendix 3.

In this present study, the main focus group interviews was conducted in April 2016. The interview participants were divided into four categories, each of which had two groups of six. Regarding the optimal number of interview participants, many authors (Anderson, 1990; Denscombe, 2007; Morgan, 1997; Patton, 2002; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990) suggest that the size of the focus group should range from six to twelve participants. Detailed information of the participants in both schools is illustrated in Table 3.2. Throughout these interviews, digital audio-recording devices were used with the participants' consent since many ethnographers take the view that practically all structured and semi-structures interviews should be recorded with audio equipment (Dewalt & Dewalt, 2010; Morphy & Banks, 1997). The length of the interviews ranged from one and a half to two and a half hours in different locations based on the participants' preferences.

Table 3.2: Participants in focus group interviews in School A and School B

School A																
Lower secondary level				Upper secondary level				Student council				School staff				
No.	Level	Age	Gen der	No.	Level	Age	Gen der	No.	Position	Age	Gen der	No.	Position	Yrs. of working experience	Age	Gen der
Group 1				Group 3				Group 5				Group 7				
(1)	M. 1	13	M	(13)	M. 4	16	M	(25)	President	18	M	(37)	Director	27	56	M
(2)	M. 1	13	M	(14)	M. 4	16	F	(26)	Head of Student activities	18	M	(38)	Deputy Director/ Student affairs	18	45	M
(3)	M. 2	14	F	(15)	M. 5	17	F	(27)	Secretary	18	F	(39)	Advisor of Student Council 2	21	56	M
(4)	M. 2	14	F	(16)	M. 5	17	F	(28)	Treasurer	17	F	(40)	Teacher of Civic Duties subject/ Lower secondary level	15	52	F
(5)	M. 3	15	F	(17)	M. 6	18	M	(29)	Head of Community affairs	17	F	(41)	Head of Dept. of Social Studies, Religion, and Culture	20	53	F
(6)	M. 3	15	M	(18)	M. 6	18	M	(30)	Head of M.2	14	F	(42)	Advisor of Human Rights Club	18	48	F
Group 2				Group 4				Group 6				Group 8				
(7)	M. 1	13	M	(19)	M. 4	16	F	(31)	Vice-President 1	16	M	(43)	Deputy Director/ Academic affairs	10	39	M
(8)	M. 1	13	M	(20)	M. 4	16	M	(32)	Vice-President 2	16	M	(44)	Head of Student affairs	19	38	M
(9)	M. 2	14	F	(21)	M. 5	17	F	(33)	Historian	15	F	(45)	Advisor of Student Council 1	8	45	F
(10)	M. 2	14	M	(22)	M. 5	17	F	(34)	Head of Public Relations	16	M	(46)	Teacher of Civic Duties subject/ Upper secondary level	15	39	F
(11)	M. 3	15	M	(23)	M. 6	18	M	(35)	Head of M.4	16	M	(47)	Advisor of Public-mindedness club	12	31	M
(12)	M. 3	15	F	(24)	M. 6	18	F	(36)	Head of M.5	17	F	(48)	Head of Community affairs	9	35	F

School B																
Lower secondary level				Upper secondary level				Student council				School staff				
No.	Level	Age	Gen der	No.	Level	Age	Gen der	No.	Position	Age	Gen der	No.	Position	Yrs. of working experience	Age	Gen der
Group 1				Group 3				Group 5				Group 7				
(1)	M. 1	13	M	(13)	M. 4	16	M	(25)	President	18	M	(37)	Director	29	59	M
(2)	M. 1	13	F	(14)	M. 4	16	F	(26)	Vice-President 1	17	F	(38)	Deputy Director/ Academic affairs	15	47	F
(3)	M. 2	14	F	(15)	M. 5	17	F	(27)	Treasurer	18	F	(39)	Head of Student affairs	18	54	M
(4)	M. 2	14	M	(16)	M. 5	17	F	(28)	Head of Public Relations	17	M	(40)	Advisor of Student Council 2	21	51	M
(5)	M. 3	15	F	(17)	M. 6	18	F	(29)	Head of M.3	15	M	(41)	Teacher of Civic Duties subject/ Upper secondary level	6	29	F
(6)	M. 3	15	M	(18)	M. 6	18	M	(30)	Head of M.4	16	F	(42)	Advisor of Human Rights Club	5	28	F
Group 2				Group 4				Group 6				Group 8				
(7)	M. 1	13	F	(19)	M. 4	16	F	(31)	Vice-President 2	16	M	(43)	Deputy Director/ Student affairs	15	37	M
(8)	M. 1	13	M	(20)	M. 4	16	M	(32)	Head of Community affairs	17	F	(44)	Teacher of Civic Duties subject/ Lower secondary level	5	28	M
(9)	M. 2	14	F	(21)	M. 5	17	M	(33)	Secretary	16	F	(45)	Head of Dept. of Social Studies, Religion, and Culture	24	54	F
(10)	M. 2	14	F	(22)	M. 5	17	F	(34)	Head of Student activities	16	F	(46)	Advisor of Student Council 1	21	43	M
(11)	M. 3	15	F	(23)	M. 6	18	F	(35)	Head of M.2	14	F	(47)	Head of Community affairs	17	45	M
(12)	M. 3	15	M	(24)	M. 6	18	M	(36)	Head of M.6	18	M	(48)	Advisor of Youth Club	3	25	F

III. Document collection

In relation to collecting human rights related documents in the two school settings, there were four main sources. These included school documents, teacher documents, student documents, and student council documents. In case of school documents, the significant human-rights-related documents were the National Curriculum, the school curriculum, school plans, school mission statements, school meeting minutes, and school reports. Regarding teacher documents, some important documents relating to HRE were collected such as lesson plans, teacher self-evaluation reports, and teachers' handbooks. The researcher also asked for documents from students such as students' self-report documents and student handbooks. Collecting from the student councils, the major documents were student council handbooks, meeting minutes, and project reports. All these documents were reviewed and thoroughly examined in detail for the analysis.

3.5 Data analysis

Gibbs (2007) states that there is no single formula accepted by all ethnographic researchers that can serve as a strategy for the analysis of data collected in the field. However, Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) suggest that the researcher should read through all data sources, participant observation records, interview records and other material to make sense of the information and to seek for interesting patterns relevant to the study focus prior to analysing the data.

Based on Miles and Huberman (1984), one of the challenges found in qualitative analysis is how to extract the most significant information from a huge amount of raw data. Since this research comprises three distinct sets of data including documentary analysis, interview data, and on-site participant observation, the data thus gained were analysed using thematic analysis. More detail regarding thematic analysis is presented in the following paragraphs.

3.5.1 Anonymity of participants

Throughout the present study, the names of both the schools and participants were frequently found in both the observation notes and interview transcripts. Therefore, for research ethical

reasons, the confidentiality of the participants had to be maintained so that the risk of potential disclosure was then minimised. In this regard, codes were created by using abbreviations to signify the type of interview and participant. In the first part of the code was the source of the data. The second part included the participants' genders and the order in which the interviews occurred, as shown below.

1: 2 3

- 1 represents the data sources
 Observation = OB Individual Conversation = IC, Group Conversation = GC
 Focus Group Interviews = FG
- 2 represents the types of participants and their gender
Observation/ Individual conversation/Group conversation
 Female Teacher = FT Male Teacher = MT Community Leader = CL
 Female Student = FS Male Student = MS
Focus Group Interviews
 Student = ST Student council = SC School Staff = SS
- 3 represents the order in which the interviews occurred

This can be illustrated as the following;

FG: SS45

This excerpt is taken from focus group interview with school staff no.45.

3.5.2 Thematic analysis

As mentioned by Thorne (2000), data analysis is considered to be the most complex step of qualitative research and different means of analysing qualitative research data are suggested by various scholars (Alhojailan, 2012; Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Boyatzis, 1998; Bryman, 2012; Gibbs, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Among a wide range of data analysis techniques, thematic analysis is proposed as an effective data analysis technique (Braun & Clarke, 2006; King, 2004; Leininger, 1992; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017; Nowell et al., 2017; Thomas & Harden, 2008; Thorne, 2000). Nowell et al., (2017) note that “thematic analysis is a qualitative research method that can be widely used across a range of epistemologies” (p. 3). In this present study, a thematic analysis framework derived from Braun and Clarke (2006) was employed. This six-step framework involved the researcher familiarising himself with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and finally producing the report. This method of thematic analysis was applied to the interview transcriptions, the field notes from the participant observations, and the textual sources. Each phase will be described in the following six sections.

1. Familiarising with the data

In an early stage of analysing the data, the audio recordings of the interview data were replayed and transcribed. This process enabled the researcher to make sense of the information gained and plan what next to look for. As Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 50) note that “the data have been transcribed to an appropriate level of detail, and the transcripts have been checked against the tapes for accuracy.” The transcripts in this study were then rechecked against the tapes for accuracy. Since the interviews were conducted in Thai, the Thai interview transcripts were then translated into English by the researcher and were cross-checked by two Thai university lecturers who are both experts in English language translation.

The other sources of data were field notes and relevant documents. Prior to translating them, the researcher read through the papers of field notes and relevant documents several times, marking off with a pencil units that cohered together because they dealt with the same topic then dividing them into sub-topics for further analysis. In particular, Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) propose a set of ethnographic questions to ask about texts and this helped the researcher become focused on what he was looking for in the documents selected for this

research. Then data from the field notes and relevant documents were selected and translated into English. Then, the translated data were also crosschecked by the same group of Thai university lecturers.

II. Generating initial codes

Corwin and Clemens (2012) mention that the most frequently used form of qualitative data analysis is data coding. Richards and Morse (2007) also mention that coding is the process to move from “unstructured and messy data to ideas about what is going on in the data” (p. 133). Richards and Morse additionally note that codes enable researchers to describe data, categorise data by topic, draw connections, and consequently, develop theoretical concepts and identify themes.

Pink (2001) suggests that “electronic media are also used increasingly to produce, store, represent and view ethnographic material” (p. 155). As such, computer software was selected to manage and analyse the huge amount of data in the present study. In terms of coding data, Fetterman (2010) proposes several database software programmes considered as useful helpers to analyse data with, including ATLAS.ti, HyperRESEARCH, NVivo, AnSWR, and EZ-Text. In this present study, ATLAS.ti was used to analyse data. This kind of programme helped store and code the data efficiently. In this case, the transcripts of School A and School B were processed in different files. To use the programme, the interview data of school administrators, teachers, and students were inserted and assessed first. This was followed by the field notes and relevant document data. An example of coding using the programme is shown in Figure 3.4. The first stage of coding using the programme created a certain amount of initial codes. These initial codes then went through a process of redefining and revising. Consequently, similar codes were merged and some were deleted. When codes were deleted, this was done retaining overlaps across certain codes.

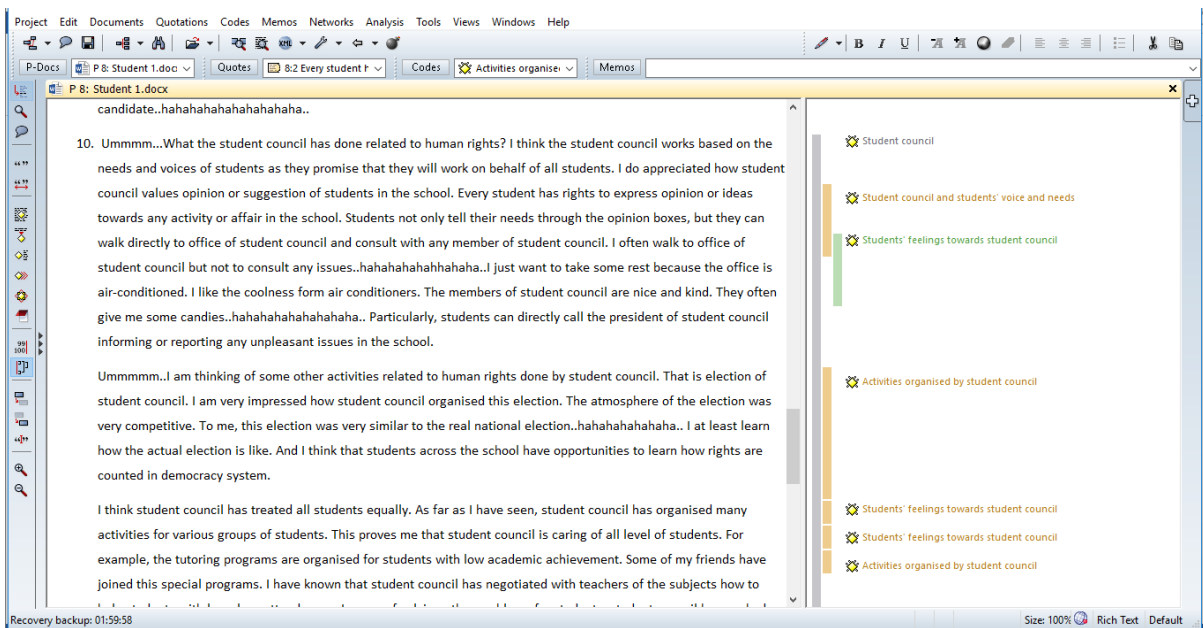
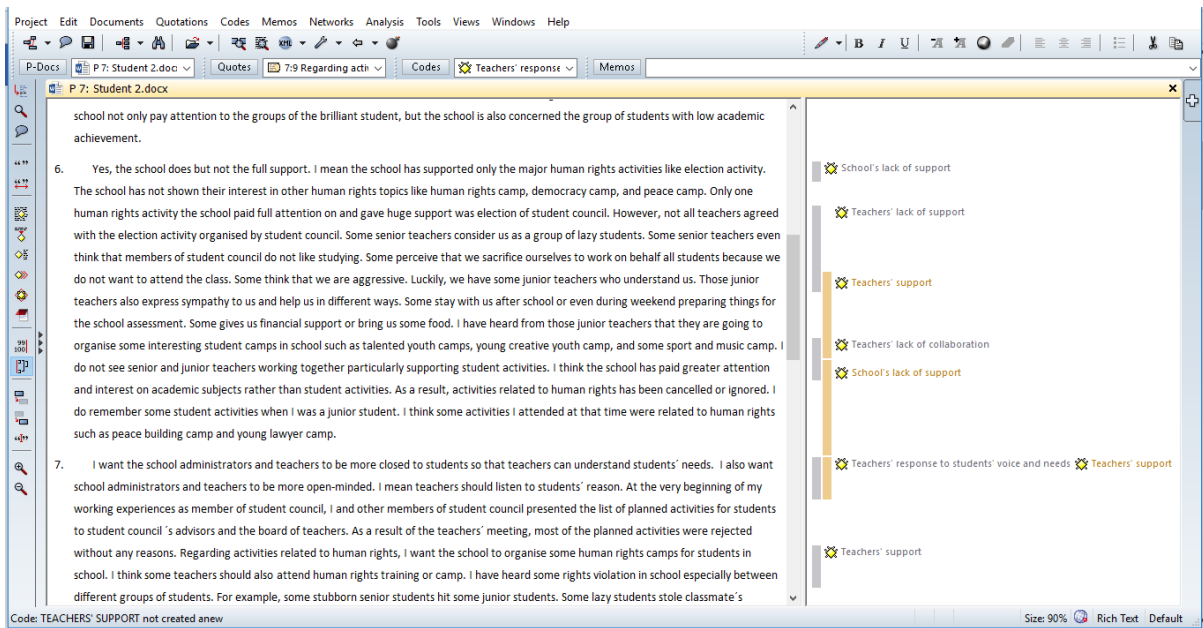


Figure 3.4: The use of ATLAS.ti software for thematic analysis

III. Searching for themes

After finding repeated patterns of meaning in the transcripts and producing the revised initial codes, the next stage is the process of connecting and integrating the codes into candidate themes which were the initial themes emerging from the data. Then, these candidate themes

were used for further analysis. In this process, visual representations including mind mapping and tables are recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006) to employ sorting the different codes into themes.

As such, mind mapping was then used by the researcher to assign the relevant initial codes to sub-themes or main themes. Accordingly, in this present study, the initial codes from the interview data, field notes, and pieces of relevant documents were connected to form the themes. In other words, all codes obtained from the three sources of data were significantly integrated and this process of integration established the initial core themes. At this stage, different sub-themes and candidate themes were found for School A and School B. The final period of this stage ended with a collection of candidate themes and sub-themes with all extracts in relation to them from both schools. This helped the researcher to analyse the differences in the findings between the two school settings further in the findings chapters, 4 and 5. Table 3.3 illustrates an example of similar themes but different subthemes and codes between School A and School B.

Table 3.3: Examples of candidate themes and subthemes between School A and School B

School	Themes	Subthemes	Codes
School A	Organisation culture	➤ Warm and caring relationship among staff in school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Closeness among school staff - Encouragement from school - Social activities for school staff - School administrators actively listen to teachers. - Consideration of teachers' feedback - Praise - Democratic leadership
		➤ Achievement orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - School goals were applied throughout school. - Teachers were committed to school mission. - Positive attitude toward practice and learning - Performance orientation
		➤ Trust in own effectiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sense of belonging and achievement in school - Acceptance of difference among teachers - Decentralisation in school - Trusting environment
School B	Organisation culture	➤ Lack of collaboration among school staff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individual work - Different attitudes - Distance among school staff - Lack of connection - Low teachers' satisfaction in school - Low team working environment
		➤ Certain degree of complacent satisfaction in its success	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Satisfaction on school performance - Time for sharing and discussing - Comfort zone - Fear of sharing - Fear of change

IV. Reviewing themes

In this stage, the candidate themes and sub-themes developed in the former stages were checked and reviewed thoroughly. Later on, those well-checked candidate themes and sub-themes were combined if they were related and were separated if they were not connected to others. Then, all themes were reviewed and refined again in order to make sure that they were clear, concise and effectively organised. So, robust and clear sets of themes were produced as the final product of this stage. In this present study, the themes and sub-themes between School A and School B were similar in terms of their structures but they were considerably different in specific sub themes and codes due to the differences in school performance. Table 3.4 below depicts examples of candidate themes and their revised versions.

Table 3.4: Examples of candidate themes and their revised versions

Candidate themes	Revised themes
School administration	School governance
School culture	Organisation culture
Military policy and campaign	Governmental policy and campaign
Teachers' attitudes and perception	Teachers' personal beliefs and experiences
Partnerships	Local, national, and international partnerships

V. Defining and naming themes

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest in this stage that the themes should be processed through refining and defining their names. In this case, coherent and internally consistent accounts were particularly focused on. Each theme was backed up with specific features of the data. Examples are shown in Table 3.5 following.

Table 3.5: Examples of themes and specific features of data

Themes	Specific features of the data
School governance	Refers to roles in governing the school. This set of data includes roles in planning, inspecting, and evaluating school policies and activities.
Organisation culture	Covers the underlying norm values and beliefs that teachers and school administrators hold about teaching, learning and organising school activities. These school cultures include a warm and caring relationship among school staff, achievement orientation, and trust in their own effectiveness.
Governmental policy and campaign	Relates to the course of action through which the military government intends to change the particular situation of HRE in schools. The data show the impact of the military government on human rights teaching and learning in schools.
Teachers' personal beliefs and experiences	The data reveals how personal beliefs and experiences of teachers affected the level of effort put into and support for HRE.

VI. Producing the report

As the final stage, this allowed the researcher to write the thesis as the result of the thematic analysis previously mentioned. This was done by organising the themes and providing the data excerpts as evidence. This can enhance the reliability and consistency throughout the findings. However, it was necessary to review them again and again for the purpose of refining the overall picture of the findings. To finish this stage, the two findings chapters were produced, comprising Chapter 4 on HRE in School A and Chapter 5 on HRE in School B. Data from both schools were then compared as part of the process of developing the Discussion Chapter.

3.6 Ethical consideration

The ethnographic paradigm insists on the researcher starting from face-to-face encounters instead of abstractions and reductions (Conquergood, 1991). It situates ethnographers within the delicately negotiated and fragile “face-work” that is part of the intricate and nuanced dramaturgy (sociology) of everyday life (Goffman, 1967). Moreover, as stated in Fetterman (2010), ethnographic researchers work with people and usually spend a long period of time capturing participants' lives. Consequently, preserving participants' rights is crucial issue in doing ethnography. Throughout this research, ethical awareness was practised as a significant concern.

Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) states that ethical issues can be found in all social research since this kind of research is always done with human activity. In most ethnographic research according to Hammersley and Atkinson (1995), five ethical issues should be taken into consideration, including obtaining informed consent, maintaining privacy, avoiding or preventing harm to or exploitation, of participants, and preventing negative consequences for future research. In this present study, particular attention was paid to three issues which were informed consent, privacy, and harm. However, harm and privacy were seen as two aspects of the same principle, since both these topics entail similar ethical issues. Each will be described in the following paragraphs.

3.6.1 Informed consent

Hammersley and Atkinson (1995, p. 264) state that “it is often argued that the people to be studied by social researchers should be informed about the research in a comprehensive and accurate way, and should give their unconstrained consent.” Typically, it would not be possible to carry out ethnographic research without the participants’ consent. Pole and Morrison (2003) state that respect for ‘personhood’ in educational ethnography is often associated with the importance of ‘informed consent’. Therefore, obtaining consent from the schools, teachers, and students was crucial in this ethnographic research.

As data was collected in the schools, written consent forms were presented to the schools, teachers and students. Even though this research was conducted with students who were under 18 years old and the consent of both the child and parental permission are standard requirements, the head teacher or school director has the authority to provide consent in loco parentis in Thailand. Despite this, the researcher sent parents an additional letter providing information about the study and giving parents the opportunity to let the researcher know if they did not wish their child to participate by using an ‘opt-out’ slip that they could return to the school.

As for the individual students or teachers specially selected for interview, a consent form for the use of digital audio-recording devices was presented to the participants. In the case of the students or teachers whom the researcher spoke to, he asked for permission informally since it might be more complex and require a written exchange to obtain formal permission. In case of meetings where unanticipated people arrived for the meeting, the researcher also asked for their permission informally.

3.6.2 Harm and privacy

As this research had the potential to cause some harm to people, particularly through putting them under emotional pressure, the researcher had to be very careful conducting the research. In order to avoid or limit this issue, the researcher made the assumption that every moment of his observation may disturb the teaching and learning of the classroom. In other words, the researcher was the unfamiliar foreign body in the routine classroom environment and as a result the whole classroom dynamic might change. Therefore, it was essential for him to witness the reactions of students and teachers and make adjustments to any changes.

To avoid disturbances in the interview periods, the researcher chose periods of time which were appropriate for interviewing or times which were convenient for the participants to be interviewed. For example, he interviewed the school administrators regarding school policy on human rights after they had finished working or during the last period of school time. As for the teachers, the researcher arranged interviews when they did not have class or when they were available. To interview students, he made an appointment with the students and did the interviews when they were available. Moreover, during the interviews, the researcher watched out for any negative expressions of discomfort in the participants. Whenever he saw that the participants felt uncomfortable, he just asked for clarification to check his assumptions. Then, the interview was stopped immediately if the participants felt annoyed or inconvenienced. Anonymising the data was also used in this study as earlier mentioned. Coding was created to replace the personal information of participants in this thesis such as names and positions. This helped maintain the confidentiality of participants.

3.7 Summary

In order to address the research questions regarding what teachers do to promote ‘HRE’ in secondary schools in Thailand?, what values and beliefs do teachers hold in relation to ‘HRE’ in secondary schools in Thailand?, and how do students experience ‘HRE’ in secondary schools in Thailand?, case studies employing ethnographic approaches were carried out in this study. Two contrasting secondary schools in the north-east of Thailand were purposefully selected as the fieldwork sites. One school had a good reputation for HRE while the other school, although appearing to follow the government guidance about HRE, does not, as yet, have a high profile. Three data collection methods were employed, including participant observation, interviews

and document analysis. To maintain the reliability of this present study, the Thai interview transcripts were translated into English by the researcher and were crosschecked by two Thai university lecturers. The translated version of selected field notes and documents were also crosschecked by the same group of Thai lecturers. A six-phase thematic analysis framework (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was employed to analyse the data including familiarising with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report. Ethical considerations were given due attention throughout. In the following two chapters, 4 and 5, the findings resulting from the data analysis will be presented, first for School A and then for School B.

CHAPTER 4

HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION IN SCHOOL A

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data collected from School A. The findings within this chapter aim to answer the following three main research questions: 1) What do teachers do to promote ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?; 2) What values and beliefs do teachers hold in relation to ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?; and 3) How do students experience ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand? The chapter is divided into five main sections. It begins with a description of the school in Section 4.2, followed by a description of the locations and contexts where its HRE is offered (4.3). The chapter continues by presenting the set of factors that are the most influential in promoting HRE in School A (4.4). A summary of the key arguments and the central themes is provided at the end of the chapter (4.5).

4.2 Description of the school

School A is located in Nawa municipality, Nawa district, Nakhon Phanom province, in the north-eastern part of Thailand. This state-funded secondary school is situated in an area predominantly noted for its agriculture and fisheries; it is 70 kilometres from the Thai-Laotian border. The school falls within the remit of Secondary Educational Service Area 22. At the time of writing it holds a total number of 1,219 students and 54 teachers. In line with the regular policy for secondary education in Thailand, the school provides six years of secondary education including three years of lower-secondary level and three years of upper-secondary level. Its student body includes members of five different tribes: the Phu Thai, Saek, Yau, Kalueng and Thai Isan.

In terms of its location, the school is situated in a picturesque 34 acre site and draws pupils from all sections of the community. The school is attractive and inviting, with beautiful gardens, established trees, seating areas, and expansive fields.

Based on the data obtained during the six- month data collection period, one of the focal points of the school is the HRE it provides and the interesting ways in which it practises this. School A has embraced human rights not only inside the classroom, but also as an integral part of its activities and practices outside the classroom. With regard to its classrooms, human rights are evidently being taught and learned. In addition, the school has constructed a human rights-oriented community by providing a democratic environment and supporting student activities related to human rights. The school can also boast a strong record of awards related to human rights activities. The student council of School A has received many awards at provincial, regional, and national levels. Some outstanding awards include winning the Gold medal in the Student Council Competition for many years, being chosen as the National Role model of a student council, the National Role model of a democratic school, and the award for Best Practice in a student council. All these awards were honourably granted by the Basic Education Commission of Thailand. Most of the competitions the school entered were national, therefore putting itself in competition with secondary schools from across Thailand. Thus it seems apparent that the school has genuinely been supporting human rights and making a strong contribution to human rights. The following section describes how human rights are enacted in School A.

4.3 How are human rights enacted in School A?

Based on the empirical data obtained from observations, field notes, one-to-one and focus group interviews, and document analysis, it seems evident that human rights are being enacted both inside and outside the classroom in School A. In Civic Duties lessons, human rights are regarded as the central learning theme, where students also experience learning activities which create a sense of concern for human rights. The researcher will first of all explore human rights inside the classroom and demonstrate from the data how the specific lessons taught aim to develop a human rights profile in the school and are consistent with a way of teaching that protects human rights. These ideas provide a strong basis for the development of human rights ‘inside’ classroom spaces. Then how human rights are enacted outside the classroom will be explained.

4.3.1 Inside the classroom

Throughout the data collection period, the researcher followed one set of Civic Duties sessions as taught across the semester. This was one particular Civic Duties class at Mattayom Suksa 5 (Grade 11), a subject in which all classes were typically taught about the same issues. The subject was taught for one period of fifty minutes per week and lasted twenty weeks. After the observation, the researcher's usual practice was to chat informally with students about the lesson they had just participated in, or, on the following day, to speak to some of the students who had been in the session to ask them for their views on what was discussed. It was apparent from the data collected from this class that human rights were embedded in two major observable practices. First, human rights were used as the main learning theme/topic throughout the semester. In addition to human rights being utilised in this way, human rights awareness was also created through learning activities. In other words, learning activities found in the pedagogy as well as through the curriculum content employed in the classroom helped generate human rights awareness.

I. Upper secondary level: Mattayom Suksa 5 (Grade 11)

The classroom observation took place in one Civic Duties class at Mattayom Suksa 5 (Grade 11), representing the upper secondary level. Throughout the semester, two main human rights themes/topics, those of building a human rights community and the protection of rights, were presented and discussed during the class period, as will be explained in the following sections.

A. Human rights-related learning themes/topics

➤ Building a human rights community

Building a human rights community was the first learning theme in the class observed. As derived from the interview data given by the teacher of the subject, the issue of making a human rights community was purposefully created to raise student awareness of the human rights situation in the students' own communities. It was additionally mentioned that students, by the end of the lesson, were expected to be able to create a human rights-oriented community where everyone could enjoy peace and be treated with respect and dignity as an individual. To do this activity, students were encouraged to work in groups according to their preferences. The

students actively worked in these groups, brainstorming ideas and opinions, and were asked to write down ten kinds of behaviour that might be used to build a human rights community on the chart papers given. It was found that different groups of students used different sentence patterns to present their ideas and opinions. However, all groups were able to convey their ideas and opinions through the ten sentences differently produced. In terms of the variety of sentence structures, the first group started their sentences with “People should not...”; the second group built up their sentences from “People should ...”; the third group produced their first five sentences with “People have the rights ...” and the second five with “People have a responsibility to...”; and “People must ...” was used as the beginning part of the fourth group’s sentences.

Based on the lists produced, some similarities and differences were found. It can be summarised from all the groups’ lists that there was a shared agreement about what human rights-oriented communities should be. These shared agreements were mainly related to the protection of rights and participation in rights. All groups emphasised protection of community members’ belongings and property. In addition to this, a number of forms of rights participation were highlighted, such as participating in elections and taking part in community development activities. Another requirement of human rights-oriented communities, as based on student opinions, was being free of rights violations. In other words, rights violations, as stated in the lists, were remarked on by all groups of students as requiring eradication if human rights-oriented communities were to be constructed. Such violations started from simple cases such as gossiping and looking down upon others to more severe forms such as deceiving others and committing crime. The following interview extracts show how students regarded freedom from rights violations as another significant theme for a human rights community.

“In my group, we have agreed that community rights must be protected since we have seen several forms of rights violations in our community such as gossiping, unfair treatment between rich and poor people, and unequal opportunities for the services provided by the government. Many community people have been treated unequally for several reasons, especially different social status. Therefore we have put freedom from rights violations as one of the essentials for a human rights community.” (GC: MS3)

“Many members in my groups have experienced rights violations in their lives. When discussing necessities for a human rights community, rights violations

were then raised as the main concern. I am one who has witnessed some forms of rights violations in my community. So I think without rights violations, my community would be a better place to live in terms of human rights practices.”
(GC: FS5)

However, it was found, based on informal interviews with representatives of all the groups, that different groups of students had different opinions about how intensively people should act to build human rights-oriented communities. One group said that creating a human rights community was a kind of obligation or duty for all community members, so the group agreed to start their sentences with “People must...”. On the other hand, the other groups pointed out that helping to build a human rights community should be a matter for individual community member consideration and willingness. It was additionally noted that building a human rights community was optional since there were several different ways to accomplish it; therefore, these groups agreed to present choices covering the range of desirable behaviour that community members thought might have an effect on building human rights-oriented communities.

More interestingly, the teacher of the subject also introduced a number of points to the data. One of the most interesting issues related to a critical topic raised by the teacher. The teacher selected one particular theme from the lists produced by the students and highlighted it as the critical issue. This theme was the right to express opinions. A number of criticisms were made by students in response to the idea of freedom to express opinions. The observation data shows that having real freedom to voice opinions remains a concern since many students commented and expressed extreme worries about how intimidating adults could be when children asserted opinions. The most interesting opinion was given by one female student who had had her opinions aggressively rejected by adults in her community. She raised the issue of whether or not adults knew and were aware of children’s rights to express opinions, as shown in the following interview extract.

“Based on my personal experience, I used to express my opinion in the meetings in my community. I raised an issue about sport activities for children in the community. My idea was rejected immediately. The adults told me that my idea was not good enough. I... ummm... dared not share my opinion during the community meetings after that. My point is that we know that we have rights to

express opinions freely. How about adults? Do adults know and realise children have rights to express opinions?" (OB: FS8)

In addition, the teacher drew students' attention specifically to the verbs used in the lists, such as respect, maintain, protect, participate, sacrifice, strengthen, promote, equalise, support, and develop. In the discussion, students agreed that most verbs found in the lists were key words in terms of human rights and that such verbs could represent actions or behaviour related to human rights. Even more interestingly, the teacher placed further emphasis on these verbs by highlighting the fact that most of those on the lists could also be found in significant human rights documents, especially in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The teacher tried to stress this learning point of there being a link between the students' lists about building human rights communities and the international human rights documents by stating clearly the following.

"If we look closely at the lists produced by all of you, some verbs can be found in the sentences written by many groups. And you might be more surprised if you know that such verbs are also found on international human rights documents, particularly the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This means that human rights are applied to all levels of people and all levels of area, including local, regional, national, and international levels." (OB: FT1)

➤ *Protection of rights*

To continue the lessons, the protection of rights was chosen as the following topic to discuss with students as a result of a mutual agreement made by the teachers of the subjects. In this case, it was mentioned by the teacher that students' views were not taken into account regarding the learning topics selected. In regards to protection of rights, this lesson was divided into three different levels which are local, national, and international. The lesson started from the local context where students actually live and then expanded to the global context which was further from students' lives.

In the local context, students discussed many interesting points regarding rights protection. One of the meaningful discussions was related to rights protection in the students' own communities. A thoughtful discussion followed upon many rights protection cases raised by students. The most argumentative case was a case concerning annoying levels of loud noise

caused by a male teenager in one student's community. In response to this case, students expressed two different opinions. The majority of students agreed to protect their rights by informing the police when such irritating noises were caused while some students proposed an alternative way to lessen such problem by talking to the trouble maker. Some interesting pieces from the related interviews are as follows.

"I myself used to experience such annoying noise from the modified motorbikes of the gangsters in my community. That was horrible for all community members especially at night time. The head of community used to approach those gangsters and told them to stop making a loud noise at night. However, they did not change their behaviour. I think those gangsters might be afraid of being caught by the police. We therefore should tell the police the problem these gangsters have caused." (OB: FS11)

"The most effective way to deal with this problem is to tell the police and let the police solve the problem. Those gangsters are a large group of teenagers from different backgrounds. Some are drug-addicted. Some used to commit crime. I think it is dangerous to approach them and warn them." (OB: MS9)

"I think we are all the members of the community. We are close to those gangsters. We can talk to them and warn them. If we tell the police, they might be caught. That is worse because those gangsters are the students. If they are caught, that might affect their status of being students." (OB: MS14)

At this point, the teacher had shown the significant role of reconciler by pointing out to students the advantages and disadvantages of both solutions. As for students, they did listen to them and take them seriously as shown from the observation data. Furthermore, the teacher highlighted to the students a way of solving rights violations in community through compromise and by stopping conflict and living in harmony and peace. Nevertheless, it was stressed that students should not let go when they were violated because if wrong things were left unchallenged over and over again, the latter such acts would be seen as a right. It was also suggested by the teacher to use hi-technological devices including taking pictures and recording voice or video to back up their claims when students' rights are violated.

Based on the data derived from informal chatting with students, this lesson about rights protection in local context signified the importance and necessity of reducing rights violations and increasing rights protections in the students' communities by applying hospitality, kindness, and respect when rights violations were found. The result from an informal talk additionally showed that, as a result of attending HRE classes, students had become more aware of rights protection and the effects of negligence of rights violations in their communities as clearly shown in the following piece of interview.

"To be honest, I have realised that rights protection is necessary for the human rights community or democratic society. I could see from the classroom discussion that violations of rights have tremendously affected community people. I think we should pay attention to all cases of violations of rights in the family and community. I will do things against such rights violation even though I am just a student. I mean I can report the cases of rights violation to the head of the community or even to the police." (IC: MS17)

This lesson provided students with opportunities to share their experience and opinions towards rights violations and rights protection in their communities. What is more, this lesson provided the students with guidance regarding the solution of rights violations, particularly those found in the students' home contexts.

In relation to the protection of rights at the national level, many cases of rights protection were discussed. Students still chose to discuss cases of rights protection in their communities and such cases were also generally found across the country particularly the rights of people in the country to access natural resources. In other words, students tried to make the local connect to the national level and wanted to see that their local experience resonated and was replicated across the national level. It emerged from the discussion that students expressed concerns on the development of industries which made an impact on the natural resources and environment surrounding the community and the whole nation. Serious criticism was made of the issue regarding whether a referendum should be held when launching a development project related to natural resources. Regarding referenda, students agreed that most of the development projects, whether locally or nationally organised, did not mention about a referendum at all.

Upon this concern, the teacher drew the students' attention to the use of referenda in Thailand. A number of issues regarding referendums in Thailand were then raised. Yet while

students valued the idea of a referendum highly, there were two different standpoints. On the one hand, some students expressed concerns regarding the rareness of referendums in Thailand. Furthermore, the same groups of students proposed an alternative way to increase the use of referendums by supporting a law to enforce a referendum as the qualification for any development project in the country. On the other hand, another group of students tended, however, to emphasise different aspects. This group of students held the strong belief that to look for a referendum in Thailand was like looking for a needle in a haystack. It was also emphasised that it was useless to ask for a real referendum in Thailand since legitimate decisions affecting Thai citizens were taken by the political elite not by ordinary people. It can be stated based on the interview that students placed a particular value on referendums as the primary way of rights protection. However, it was found that the enforcement of the law regarding referendums remained a concern among these students.

Further to the protection of rights at the national level, cases of rights protections at the international level were discussed. It was apparent that even though the scope of the discussion topic was far from the students' lives, the students tried to raise the issues which they were familiar with and such issues were also considered as international human rights protection cases. Among two international human rights protection cases discussed, the low level of the Mae Khong (Mekong) River in Thailand due to the dams in China was placed in particular focus. In seeing the Mae Khong River as a boundary-crossing river which influenced their lives and livelihoods, the students expressed concerns regarding the equity of China drawing water from the river, since the Chinese dams had caused changes of water levels and droughts in the Lower Mae Khong including Myanmar, Laos, Thailand, Cambodia, and Vietnam. A serious discussion was made on the rights to use an international river such as the Mae Khong River. In this discussion students expressed disagreement over building dams on the upper parts of the Mae Khong River. Grave concern was expressed by some students regarding the impacts caused by this powerful country. Many students shared to the class the direct effects of the dams in China and made the request that no more dams be built. Every country where the river runs through has the right to use the river. One strong comment was given by a male student that the dams benefited the Chinese but affected citizens of the countries of the lower Mae Khong.

"I think Mae Khong is an international river. It does not belong to any particular country. No country is authorised to take advantage from the river and make trouble for other countries. Every country where the river runs through has rights to use the river." (OB: MS18)

Another topic to be discussed as an international rights protection case was the stateless Rohingya, in Myanmar, one of the world's least wanted groups of people. In regard to this human rights case, students expressed deep sympathy towards this minority group of people. Interestingly, one group of students tried to make a criticism of the case of the stateless Rohingya and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The failure of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to protect Rohingya people from rights violation was criticised by students. One of the most interesting comments was given by one female student. She expressed her disappointment with this international human rights document of the United Nations as follows.

"I can remember that one Article of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights we learned last semester is about how all individuals have rights based upon their race, colour, gender, language, religion, property, and others. I think this does not apply to Rohingya. Not everyone enjoys all of these privileges." (OB: FS21)

In addition, it was considered by students that serious and immediate action against the violence and abuse being directed towards the Rohingya people, and to alleviate the hunger they were suffering was crucially needed. At this point, the teacher linked the situation of Rohingya people to the duties of being world citizens. A number of world citizens' qualifications were listed by students. Nevertheless, the teacher emphasised one qualification concerning respecting and valuing diversity. It was pointed out for students that respecting and valuing diversity encouraged people to recognise and acknowledge any differences existing in the world. By accepting those differences and respecting diversities, it may decrease conflict and fighting across the world.

B. Learning activities generating human rights awareness

Based on the data taken from the six-month data collection period, a firm sense of human rights was created as a result of classroom activities, classroom management, and teaching techniques provided by the teacher of the subject as shown in the following excerpt from a teacher interview.

"I have tried to make sure that the senses of human rights have been embedded in my students through participating in classroom activities, classroom management, and teaching techniques. And I think that I was quite successful to do so since my students showed positive behaviour in the classroom and I also was told by students their feelings in my Civic Duties classroom. Some examples of these positive feedbacks were that students respected each other in the classroom and students felt comfortable and happy to participate in learning activities." (IC: FT1)

Derived from classroom observations and interview data, it was apparent that classroom activities, classroom management, and teaching techniques helped promote child-centred learning, provide equal access to opportunities, and prevent discrimination.

In terms of child-centredness, it was apparent from the observation data that students were given major roles in organising their own learning activities. In other words, students were given rights and the freedom to direct their learning by discussing issues or topics raised by themselves. In addition to organising their own learning activities, students were given freedom to organise their own working groups. Students therefore stayed in the group where they felt familiar and comfortable.

Another significant aspect of human rights provided was equal access to opportunities. Derived from the observation data, the teacher ensured that students fully participated in the learning process. As could be seen, every opinion raised was counted by the teacher. In other words, students were given multiple opportunities to share ideas or opinions in the class without intervention from teachers and classmates. It was stated by the teacher as shown from the following interview that it was better to cover a few topics but make every student's opinion count rather than to cover many topics but leave a single opinion of any student unattended to.

“When discussion was chosen as the main learning activities in the classroom, I think the teachers should be open-minded. I mean teachers should listen to every opinion or idea given by students. In my case, I waited until all opinions or ideas were raised even though it took time. I wanted my students to feel that their opinions or ideas were valued. Every single opinions or ideas of students are important in my opinion.” (IC: FT1)

In the case of students, it was also apparent from the interview data that students felt valued when their topics were mentioned in the class and when their opinions counted. Some students expressed their feelings when their opinions and ideas were listened to during the classroom discussion as follows.

“I am always shy especially when expressing opinions in the classroom. But I have been more confident presenting ideas or opinions in the classroom after my opinion was mentioned by the teacher of the Civic Duties subject. I remember that many of my friends had presented opinions to the class and I still had something to say to the class. So I raised my hand and luckily I was permitted to express my feelings and opinions to the class even though the class time had been over.” (GC: MS13)

“Ummm...I always feel happy when my opinions are valued. And that encourages me to share my opinions or ideas in the class. Particularly in the Civic Duties subject, the teacher was open-minded. I like the way she accepted all students’ opinions. That was superb in my opinion.” (GC: MS19)

The final interesting human rights aspect found in this class was non-discrimination. The learning processes used did not discriminate between students in the class. Based on the interview data from the teacher, the class was a mixed-ability class where students of different learning ability studied together. The policy of having mixed-ability classes was applied to all classes in the school. Clearly, the teacher had prevented it from causing feelings of awkwardness and frustration in the classroom. From the observation data, classroom activities including pair-work, group-work and whole class-mingles helped students to be involved in talking or interacting with many different members. This allowed the weaker students to work with the stronger students at different levels. It was evident from the interviews with students

that classroom activities in this class helped create a positive learning environment as is shown in the following.

“I think this Civic Duties class is effective in terms of getting students involved in classroom activities. I feel engaged and responsible for my own learning as well as being comfortable enough to actively participate in individual and group activities.” (GC: MS8)

“In my personal view, this Civic Duties class was supportive, caring, and challenging. I felt comfortable to express opinions in the class. The class has fewer lectures but more interaction both between teacher and students and students and students. Student engagement level is high in this class.” (GC: MS21)

4.3.2 Outside the classroom

It was found in School A that human rights outside the classroom were as important as human rights inside the classroom. School A not only encouraged teachers to teach and students to learn about human rights in classroom. It was apparent that respecting human rights was practised effectively outside the classroom on a daily basis. Throughout the data collection period of six months, it was clear that human rights were also embedded in the following aspects outside the classroom. These aspects included school governance, the school environment, the morning assembly or flag ceremony, extra-curricular activities, the student council, and relationships with local organisations.

I. School governance

One of the first aspects reflecting human rights values in School A was its governance. School members in School A were given roles in governing the school such as planning, inspecting, and evaluating school policies and activities. In addition, it was found that the school ensured that school members made a significant contribution to the development of the school and school life. The following section is provided to display the various elements of school governance through which human rights were meaningfully valued including: school values, school policies, and participation and transparency.

A. School values

When School A was founded in 1972, its missions, visions, and ethos were also created. At the beginning, the core human rights were rarely found in the set of the school's major operational objectives or commitments even though this school had been working hard supporting human rights for a decade. The school had not updated any of these documents. However, it was found that one of the school's missions was already aligned with human rights-the provision for school members' participation in planning, taking action, solving problems, and taking responsibility. As a result, an agreement had just been made among the school administrators, school board, teachers, students, representatives of parents and community members to update the school's mission and vision statements in response to the human right values the school had been practising. More interestingly, it was mentioned by the school administrators and teachers that the school does not necessarily need to change its existing vision and mission statements, or operational principles, but the school rather should reflect its human rights values by explicitly promoting human rights to all school members in the daily life of the school and the wider community. The following extracts of interview showed the school administrators' and teachers' perceptions towards the present visions and missions of the school regarding human rights.

"To be honest, we have discussed about reviewing our visions and missions many times. Inevitably, these reviews created further conversations about the new visions and missions. However, we have agreed that the present visions and missions are good enough even though they do not cover all the practices we have outstandingly achieved regarding human rights or democracy. I think we should leave such visions and missions aside and we are here to ensure that all students learn successfully and happily." (IC: MT2)

"Even though human rights or democracy are not fully stated in our mission or visions, it does not mean that we do not support human rights or democracy in school. I think we should move forward making the school to be more human rights oriented." (IC: MT3)

"We should ask ourselves what is the focus of the school? This question is interesting. If we have the well-written visions and missions but we have never achieved those visions and missions. That is bad. In the case of human rights, we can do things supporting human rights even though human rights do not exist in

the school missions and vision. I think we should continue to better ourselves by providing that our school is the best place where human rights are valued on a daily basis. I think our school has a collective commitment that we have made to ourselves, to each other, and to students and families that we will do whatever it takes to ensure that our school will be a happy place for students.” (IC: MT4)

B. School policies

In terms of school policies, it was clear that many school policies reflected human rights values including student discipline policy and policies promoting equality and non-discrimination. As apparent in the data from the interviews with the school administrators, the school policies were developed and set based on the four basic rights of the child stated in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child including the right to survival, the right to development, the right to protection, and the right to participation as demonstrated from the following piece of interview.

“We had studied many human rights documents to find the principle of organising a school to be a human rights-friendly school. We finally have come up with these four basic rights of the child because these are derived from articles stated in the Convention. All articles stated in the Convention can be grouped into four main basic rights as found in the documents of UNICEF. Furthermore, these four rights of the child were written and mentioned in the student council handbook given out by the Organisation of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC) that all schools should employ these four main rights of the child as the principles for operating their student council. As a result, these four main rights of the child are regarded as the principles the school have to take into account when organising activities or planning any educational policies for our students.” (FG: SS37)

Furthermore, human rights values and human rights principles became the major concern when developing the new school policies. Some school policies promoting human rights will be delineated in the following paragraphs.

Regarding the discipline policy, it was found that student discipline policy reflected how the school respected the rights of its students. As clearly seen throughout the six-month data collection period, the key element in maintaining students’ good behaviour was through the process of reminding and encouraging students to follow the list of students’ desirable

behaviour prescribed in the students' handbook. It was found from the field notes that students, during the flag ceremony which was organised every morning, were repeatedly told to study the students' handbook, carefully read the list of students' desirable behaviour in the handbook, and to use this handbook as the guideline for how to behave in the school. Some examples of students' desirable behaviour are that students should not talk or play while listening to teachers inside or outside the classrooms, students should not break the playground safety rules, students should not use inappropriate language such as rude and insulting words or cursing, students should not use code words or symbolic language to represent something inappropriate, students should not imitate others in a deliberate and patronizing way, students should not speak to others in a condescending or mocking manner. This list of students' desirable behaviour was created based on the recognition that children should be taught in a safe and nurturing school environment that supports their social and emotional as well as academic development. More importantly, as stated by its school director, this list of students' desirable behaviour was consistent with international human rights principles including Article 26 of the UDHR stating that "education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms." The following interviews revealed students' feelings towards how the school maintained students' good behaviour.

"I think it was effective and easy for us to follow. Students can just study by themselves the school rules and regulations and students' desirable behaviour from the handbook. I like the way the teachers remind us of students' desirable behaviour. It was like they told us to read the book... hahahahaha. That was nice. I do not like being punished. I do not like being warned in front of others. This kind of technique works successfully regarding keeping students in good discipline." (IC: FS5)

"To be honest, I thought, at first, it did not work to shape students behaviour just by only keeping telling students the desirable behaviour. Now, I have experienced by myself that students in my school are well-behaved. I see less student misbehaviour. I think we also have good examples of well-behaved students. The senior students are also good examples for us. They behave as written in the students' handbook." (IC: MS5)

Punishments could range from a warning to a long-term suspension. However, only warnings were found as the punishment for cases of misbehaviour throughout the six-month data collection period. Based on the record of the Department of Student Affairs, 65 students were warned as a result of three major kinds of misbehaviour including making a loud noise, being late to school, and wearing inappropriate school uniforms. The low numbers of misbehaviour cases may result from the effective counselling programmes ranging from individual counselling, small group counselling, and classroom guidance. These counselling programmes were committed to enhancing the social and personal development of all students and providing students with consulting services that could change student's misbehaviour. These counselling programmes were organised through cooperation between the student council, teachers, and other professionals. The following interviews showed students' attitudes towards the school' counselling programmes.

"I think I am very happy with the counselling programmes provided by the student council and teachers. I myself used to be addicted to playing computer games. I quitted playing games because of my classmates and my advisors. The head of my class went to see me at the computer games café and convinced me to go to school. He told me to play games with him at home after school. They were kind and nice to me even though I was absent from school for 3 consecutive days to play games at the computer games café. No one mentioned about that."
(IC: MS8)

"In my opinion, there has been less punishment in my school due to the counselling programmes provided by the student council and teachers. As can be seen, when students with misbehaviour are noticed, students and teachers helped each other solve the problem by talking, guiding, warning, demonstrating, or doing as an example. Sometimes, I see some professionals outside the school come to school and work collaboratively regarding students with misbehaviour such as police and hospital staffs." (IC: MS11)

Another interesting area of school policy was the policies promoting equality and non-discrimination. Based on the data derived from observing school activities and school practices and teachers' and students' interview data, the school treated all school staff and students equally. In other words, school staff and students were respected on the grounds of their abilities, gender, ethnicity, religion, socio-economic status, or sexual orientation. There were a

number of activities apparently supporting non-discrimination in School A which were in line with the school policy regarding anti-discrimination.

One of the significant policies regarding anti-discrimination was organising mixed-ability classrooms. It was found in all the classrooms that students of different learning achievements were placed together. It was mentioned by the Head of Department of Academic affairs that such classrooms allowed the opportunity for students to accept, discuss and listen to each other's diverse perspectives. Furthermore, it was additionally noted that the classroom with students of a wide range of abilities contributed immensely to the social development of students. However, it was stated by the Head of Department of Academic affairs that disagreement was found among senior teachers and some parents who were worried about the differences in learning speed between advanced students and slow students. However, to solve the problems, the school had organised pedagogical training regarding teaching mixed-ability classes for teaching staff across the school. Such trainings and support from the school encouraged teachers to seek out strategies that would help all students learn effectively in mixed-ability classrooms. Based on the classroom observation data, a wide range of teaching techniques and learning activities were employed such as student-centred teaching, group work, and project-based learning. More interestingly, based on the interview data from the Head of Department of Academic affairs and many teachers, such teaching techniques and learning activities helped avoid putting weaker students "on the spot". As a result, the weaker students felt safer and less stressed learning in mixed-ability classes.

In addition to the anti-discrimination policy in the classroom, student activities were also organised to support anti-discrimination. The annual School Sports Day displayed a number of positive signs of social connectedness of a school with no discrimination. Also, it presented the sight of combination and cooperation among school administrators, teaching-staff, non-teaching staff, students, parents, and communities. Since students were randomly divided into teams of different colours, students from different levels, classes, genders, and abilities were required to work together as a team. Interestingly, school administrators, teaching-staff, and non-teaching staff were also randomly assigned as the advisors of each colour team, while parents and community members were invited to join the event as the cheerleading team and food and drink providers.

Apart from the sport competitions between students of different team colours, sport competitions among the school staff and sport competitions between school staff and students

were also organised. It was regarded by the school administrators, other school staff, and students that this sport event brought out noticeably positive behaviour and a good atmosphere in students and all the school staff, particularly enabling bonding among friends, teammates, all school members, parents, and community members as shown in the following interviews.

“We organise sport competitions once a year. To me, this kind of event helps keep students active and healthy as they grow. This also helps students learn important life lessons about teamwork and fair play. I think my students like team working. I am always happy seeing them help each other prepare stuff for the sport event, cheering their team, taking care of the athletes, and cleaning the sport fields. I also support the sport events among teachers and teachers and other school staff. This also helps build stronger bonds and relationship among staff in school. Furthermore, we also invited parents and community to join our sport events.” (FG: SS37)

“I have witnessed that sports competitions can help deter negative behaviour, such as joining a gang, because competitive sports provide an outlet for expression, friendship and controlled aggression. Such competition teaches students to make their best effort, I think. Anyway, I should mention about parents and the community. I also appreciate the cooperation of parents and the community nearby. Without their support, our sport activities might not meet the success.” (FG: SS44)

“Of course, there is no doubt in my mind that students benefit from joining sports competitions particularly making new friends and building strong relationships among friends and students from different classes. They learn the feeling of being winners and losers. They should learn what one does after a failure, how they cope, that will determine future positive outcomes.” (IC: MT9)

“I think that the discipline and goal setting learned in competitive sports is useful for my fellow students. I have found less fighting or conflicts among students in school. I think this might partly result from the bonding built from joining in the sport events in school.” (FG: SC25)

Another significant policy regarding anti-discrimination was the recruitment and promotion systems. It was apparent that the recruitment and promotion of students and teachers

in School A were fair to all. In other words, the school provided opportunities for everyone to achieve on the basis of their abilities and appropriateness. In the case of students, apart from equal opportunity in learning, individual students were given the chance to receive scholarships and grants. These scholarships and supports were given to different groups of students such as scholarships for students with high learning achievement, poor students, students with talent, students who contributed to building the school's reputation, and well-mannered students. In terms of the selection process, the criteria were announced formally and publicly for students while the selection process included school administrators, the school board, teachers, students and parents. Regarding the promotion of teachers, it was evident that promotion was based on performance and responsibility. In considering promotion for each candidate, individual performance was considered in relation to the criteria set including contribution to teaching and students' learning, contribution to students' behaviour, and contribution to other school affairs. More importantly, student feedback was also valued as another criterion for promoting teachers.

In addition to the major policies relating to anti-discrimination, the school also took into consideration a small aspect of discrimination reflecting its human rights values. It was found that School A was sensitive to how students' names were called both inside and outside the classroom. The school emphasised that teachers should call students by their full names and not to call them by nicknames indicating their outstanding characteristics or ethnic background, which was not liked by students since such name-calling might create an intimidating environment for an individual student. For example, teachers must not call students from very rural areas 'Dek-Ban-Nok' (rustic students) or call students by their ethnic background, such as 'Kaleung, Phu-Tai or Yau'. Teachers must not devalue students' home languages and call students who cannot speak standard central Thai fluently 'Lao', which means people from Laos. Teachers must not call chubby students 'Auen' or thin students 'Joy'. Also, the spelling of school staff's names (teaching and non-teaching staff) and their preferred titles were also asked for carefully and were displayed on the staff lists. This marked the basic demonstration of respect for a person without discrimination found in School A.

C. Participation and transparency

Another outstanding aspect that School A had developed relating to human rights was participation and transparency. In terms of participation, the school showed respect to all the

voices of school members, parents, and community members by inviting them in as parts of the decision making process regarding any school affairs and policies. In the case of setting new school policy, the school board, student council, representatives of parents and community members were given space to discuss the pros and cons of any new policy based on the benefits to students as the priority. The same happened when opinions or issues raised by students were tackled. The opinions from students were presented through student councils and then such opinions such as complaints about insufficient drinking water, insufficient sport equipment, old musical instruments, and the slippery canteen floor were discussed in the school meeting including the school board, student council, representatives of parents and community members. Any new policies launched were then announced formally to all school members, parents and community through many channels including announcing during the flag ceremony or morning assembly activity, distributing school letters, making notice boards or producing vinyl boards. As a result, students were more informed of the issues relating to their school and had a greater voice in the decision making processes.

With regards to transparency, it was an essential way to ensure that the school policies were fair to all school members. It was found that School A had created channels through which school members, parents or community could have more say on the revision of school policies. As for students, any feedback on school policies was normally passed through the student council. However, students were allowed to make a direct call to the school administrators if they wanted to since the contact numbers were available on the notice boards around the school. It was noted by the school director in the following that this channel allowed students to reveal their needs even though only a few students called him.

“As far as I can remember, only four students called me through my mobile number. When they called, they paused for a long while before they started talking to me. Most of them tried to change their voice or tone in order to be unrecognised. Anyway, I have known what they wanted such as more budget on sport events, more playing area, more variety of competitions in school such as dance battles and cooking competitions, and some others. That was lovely and nice listening to students’ opinions. I then brought those opinions into the school meeting. I have provided some more playing areas for students and I told them that this idea was raised by one student through phone calling. I want them to know that their voice and opinions are always heard. That may encourage students to express more their needs or opinions in school.” (IC: MT2)

Thus, all students were aware of what was happening in the school, and decision-making processes were more transparent. As for parents or community members, they were allowed to visit the school anytime or make a phone call for informing any issues relating to school affairs or policies. In addition, the school also organised parent-teacher meetings which created an important channel for parents or community members to express opinions or raise any issues regarding school affairs or policies. It was mentioned by the Deputy Director who was responsible for student affairs that the school had organised parent-teacher meetings more frequently to ensure the good communication and greater involvement of the wider school community. Throughout the six month period of data collection, eight parent-teacher meetings were held. Two meetings were held for parents of lower and upper secondary students and the other six were held for parents of students of each level (M.1-M.6 or Grade 7-Grade 12). It was found in the report of the Department of Student Affairs that 85% of parents attended the meetings. The remaining 25% of parents did not attend the meetings because they do not live with their children. Four main issues were discussed during the meetings including ways to support students, student behaviour, school expectations and parents' expectations, and students and social media usage.

II. School environment

In terms of the school environment, it was apparent that human rights were valued throughout the school. The school supported and promoted the school area where equity, non-discrimination, inclusion, respect and dignity were values to be lived by. In other words, the school provided its physical spaces as the focus of human rights values. In so doing, these provided opportunities for promoting human rights values to students. There were a number of features of the school environment reflecting human rights values. These things were school buildings, school facilities and equipment, and, above all, the overall atmosphere.

Regarding school buildings, it was found that all school buildings and areas such as playgrounds, the canteen, offices, corridors, sports fields, the school hall, classrooms and library were accessible to all school members regardless of position, educational level, gender or any other status. It was apparent that all the school offices were always open during school hours with a welcoming message and images displayed in front of each building. Those were written in different styles; however, all represented a warm-hearted welcome for all school members and visitors. The interview data from students showed that these welcoming messages

encouraged them to access school offices. It was stated by many students that they felt welcomed and comfortable entering the school buildings or school offices as a result of the kind and warm-hearted welcoming messages and images provided. Apart from the messages and images provided in front of school buildings, a plan to improve access to school buildings and other areas of the school for students with disabilities was being discussed among the school board, representatives of students, and representatives of community members. Being invited to consider ways to achieve this plan made students with disabilities feel valued and ensured that normal students would understand how the school valued human rights. Another significant aspect regarding how the school placed emphasis on human rights was the main communal areas including playground, canteen, corridors, sports fields, and school hall. It was found from both the observation and interview data from students that such communal areas were in good condition. Some students had expressed their concerns about students with disabilities using such communal areas and other school buildings as in the following;

“I think my school is good at providing its buildings and area to be nice for all students. Even though some students with disabilities are uncomfortable to enter the building or to go up the building, I see some school staff are standing by to help those students. I have heard from the duty teacher during the flag ceremony that a plan to build access to school buildings and other areas of the school is being discussed.” (IC: FS14)

“Talking about school buildings... ummmmm... I broke my leg last year. That made it difficult for me to walk up the stairs to my classroom on the third floor. I was helped by the school staff provided. I have just learned that that man was a male nurse particularly assigned to help students with disabilities. Anyway, I think the school buildings and its area were good enough and I have heard that access to school buildings and other areas of the school is going to be built soon.” (IC: MS16)

In the case of school facilities and equipment, the school had provided the basic facilities and equipment for students reflecting its human rights values. For example, the access to clean drinking water was sufficient. During the six month data collection, two cold water drinking dispensers were provided for students in response to the increasing demand from students. The toilets were another basic facility the school had improved to be sufficient and clean for students. Regarding toilets, the school had placed value on two main aspects including equity

and safety. In terms of equity, it was interesting that, apart from the toilets for male and female students, another toilet was built to serve the group of third gender students. Third gender students or Kathoey¹ students refer to male students who identify themselves as female. Based on the interview data from the school administrators, this toilet was built as a result of concerns over how comfortable third gender students felt using the same toilets as the male students. It was found that the school had discussed with the school board, representatives of students, parents, and community members the need for schools to build special toilets in respect of third gender students. It was additionally stated by the school director that one more toilet would be built for third gender students due to the increasing number of third gender students in the school. In addition to equity, it was confirmed that the school had taken the safety of students very seriously when designing and building the toilets. From the observation data, the toilets were open and accessible to all students throughout the hours the school was open with adequate lighting, fixtures and fittings. In line with the whole-school anti-bullying policy, the toilets were one of the first places in school where bullying was prevented within the confines of the toilet areas.

In the same way as school facilities, school equipment was also provided for students in response to students' needs and in respect of students' rights. The clearest case was related to sports equipment. As could be seen, there was sufficient sports equipment for every student to use. It was mentioned by the Head of Department of Physical Education that sports equipment was provided for all students based on the belief that every student has potential and talent in learning and practising to be excellent in any field including sports. To maintain the safety of school facilities and equipment, it was found that all facilities and equipment provided for students often undergo safety and security checks particularly sports equipment, cold water dispensers, and lights and water taps in the toilets.

In addition to school buildings, facilities and equipment, another human rights value was reflected through the overall atmosphere of the school. It was mentioned by students that notice boards with the dimension of 600Hx450W (mm) were one of the important sources of information for students to learn human rights outside the classroom. Organising notice boards under the theme of democracy and human rights was done in accordance with the policy of the school. From the observation data, all the notice boards regarding democracy and human rights were attractive, updated and made accessible information about women's rights, child rights,

¹ A local category of a person who is third gender

International Human Rights Day, democracy in school, the human rights-friendly school and many others. It was additionally found that the small message boards located around the school also displayed written information or messages regarding human rights such as friendship, sportsmanship, kindness, peace, respect, harmony, unity, and many others. Based on the interview data derived from students, this made students feel the importance of the human rights the school had placed emphasis on and students at the same time had learned human rights adequately outside the classroom.

III. Flag ceremony or morning assembly

In addition to school governance and school environment, the flag ceremony or morning assembly was mentioned by students to be the most human rights-related activity on a daily basis. This activity was organised every day in the morning allowing administrators, teachers, and students to gather at the assembly point to raise the national flag and do Buddhist chanting. Regarding human rights, this ceremony served an important purpose in providing the means for organising two major activities which were updating and announcing human rights events and news and providing short human rights activities.

In the matter of updating and announcing human rights events and news, the duty teachers, teachers from the Department of Social Studies, and advisors of the student council were in charge of this duty on a rotating basis. It was found that many local, regional, and national competitions and events related to human rights were often announced for students to participate in such as a drawing competition on the topic of human rights community, essay writing on the topic of the human rights friendly school, human rights quizzes, a debating competition on the topic of human rights and the current world situation, a human rights and democracy camp, and a young creative leaders camp.

In addition to announcing human rights competitions and events, the flag ceremony was also used as the channel to deliver current local, regional, national, or international news relating to human rights. Not only human rights competitions and events were announced during the flag ceremony, but many short human rights activities were performed by students such as story telling on the topic of how to bring peace back to the world, a role play about corruption in Thai society from the role play club, a puppet show about the duties of children in a democratic society from the puppet club, and many others. It was also found that many guest speakers were invited to deliver a short speech to students on topics relating to human

rights such as violence in communities, migrant workers in communities, cyber-bullying, women's and children's rights, and many others.

IV. Extra-curricular activities

In terms of extra-curricular activities, it was apparent that a wide range of extra-curricular activities was organised related to human rights. Even though these activities were outside the compulsory timetabled elements, it was found from the six-month data collection period that extra-curricular activities played a significant role in generating strong interest and providing sufficient understanding towards human rights. Such extra-curricular activities relating to human rights were normally organised by students, staff, or the wider community.

A. Election activities

Among the numbers of extra-curricular activities, one significant school activity related to human rights was the set of election activities organised in school. This set of election activities included an election of the student council, head students for each class, heads of the student clubs, and heads of student activities. Based on the interview data from students, it was apparent that several benefits in relation to human rights were generated from these election activities. They served to engage students in learning about democracy, to familiarise students with elections, making them more comfortable with the election process, and teaching sportsmanship.

It was explicitly derived from student interviews that students essentially learned about democracy through the set of election activities organised in school. It was reported that elections were emphasised as displaying the fundamental values of the school in which every student was given the opportunity to participate in or stand for these elections. Particularly, students felt valued when their voices were heard, and the right to hold political opinions respected, through the voting process organised. This reflected the values of democracy students were being equipped with through participating in the set of election activities provided. The following interviews revealed the values of democracy students learned through series of elections in School A;

"I do like the sets of elections in my school especially election of student council. It is like we have the mock election in school. I saw candidates doing poster campaigns and several forms of advertisement. I felt like the whole school talked about the elections during the weeks of the elections. I think it is a very good student activity in which students across the school can learn how their rights are valued in school. I myself feel that my rights are important for the school." (IC: FS17)

"I'm very politically active in my school. Hahahahaha... I have participated in all the elections organised in the school. I think learning elections in a democratic system through participating in the elections organised is better than just reading from the books or listening to the teachers". (IC: FS21)

"I think this kind of activity can demonstrate what elections in a democratic system are like. Students across the school realise how their rights are valued for the school. I like how the student council organises this big event. Everyone in the school pays attention to the election. Everyone in the school is interested in the election. I like how the two candidates publicise themselves. Not only students and teachers were involved, but the community people, parents, and the school nearby also participated in the election. I like the final part of the election when the school director announced the winner and then the winner and the loser shook hands signifying that they were still friends." (IC: MS22)

Another benefit of the election activities was familiarizing students with elections and making them more comfortable with the election process. This was reflected through the use of real electronic voting machines, such as students would vote on as adults once they had turned eighteen. It was also mentioned that by attending the set of election activities in school shaped students to become positive and contributing members of school society and this may lead to greater engagement with the wider community later on.

Interestingly, sportsmanship was significantly marked out as another learning point derived from joining in election activities. It was found from the observation data that the atmosphere around the elections in this school, particularly the student council election, was good humoured and less competitive. Two candidates and teams worked hard promoting themselves and announcing their campaigns without any argument and conflict. More importantly, the election process was carried out under the kind guidance and close supervision of teachers especially the school director. The director's speech on the student council Election

Day was explicitly mentioned by students, who found that the director's message was meaningful and thought provoking about the truth of winning and losing, as in the following.

"Our life is full of competition. I would like to mention to all students that winning and losing cannot make us better or worse, greater or smaller. We have to bear in mind the result of the competition. We have to accept the victory and defeat... Both winning and losing teach us lessons. If you win, you are given the great chances to lead students across the school and also bridging between students and teachers. If you lose, you are still part of the working team since the winner will bring you to the student council team. You will also have the chance to work for the school as members of the student council. However, every student in school is important in driving the school to meet the success. Everyone counts."
(OB: MT2)

Another interesting point in relation to the impact of election activities organised in school was reported by the Head of the community nearby the school. It was mentioned that students got involved more in community affairs particularly when elections occurred in the community. Students were volunteering to help organise the election for the Head of the community. Furthermore, it was mentioned that the amount of voters in community was considerably higher than in the past because students were more interested in elections and they encouraged their parents to vote as shown in the following extracts from interviews.

"I very much appreciate the election activities in this school. Students are very active participating in the elections organised particularly the student council election. I come to observe the student council election every year. I also think that students have got direct experience about the voting process and democracy system. ...I also would like to mention one thing about students and election. I have seen that students become more active in elections in the community. Many students joined in the election in the community even though they are not eligible to vote. They helped prepare election booths, observed the election and cleaned the election booths. It was also interesting that those students encouraged their parents to come to vote so the voting rate was higher and higher." (IC: CL)

B. Students clubs

In line with school policy, students were encouraged to take the initiative and organise their own clubs in the school. This was reflected in the freedom and rights given to students to create

their own student clubs. Based on both the observation and interview data, a wide range of student clubs promoting human rights was found. It was also mentioned that student clubs were another important human rights resource, where students of the club and students outside the club learned and explored human rights or things related to human rights. The interesting student clubs relating to human rights existing in this school included the Human Rights club, the Public-spiritedness club, Volunteering club, Peace club, and Anti-violence club.

Regarding the Human Rights club, this student club's goals were to create a supportive environment, to raise awareness for basic human rights, and to know the rights and responsibilities of students and exercise them in daily life. It was found that this club benefited its students through discussing social issues regarding human rights which were regarded as the main club activity. More importantly, this Human Rights club benefited the school as a whole by taking on the role of the human rights thermometer of the school as clearly stated in the following interview.

"We work closely with student council regarding any issues about human rights in school. We take the role of the human rights thermometer of the school critically reflecting the human rights situation in school and developing an action plan to improve the human rights situation within the school." (FG: SS41)

In other words, members of this club helped monitor and reveal human rights problems in school such as disproportionate forms of school discipline, bullying, bias, safety measures, and injustice. Any human rights issues arising from this 'taking the temperature' of human rights in the school were then developed as action plans to sort the problems out. These action plans were thereafter presented to the student council and school board in order to find solutions.

Another interesting student club was the Public-spiritedness club. It was believed based on the aim of the club that children cannot simply be told about good behaviour such as kindness and sharing; they must meaningfully experience learning. The interesting array of club activities included picking up rubbish, watering the garden, cleaning toilets, cleaning classrooms and teacher offices, and decorating the school hall. This club allowed its members to practice offering help to others, without receiving any benefit in return. It was additionally

found at the personal level that the club members developed the human development skills of empathy, and kindness, and sharing through participating in the club activities.

Similar to the Public-spiritedness club, the Volunteering club was another student club mentioned by students that served to build empathy, and promote self-sacrifice. In recognition of its humanitarian value, the Volunteering club was a great venue for students who were interested in working for charity in the local community. It was found that members of this club worked closely with local community organisations to use their skills to make a real and positive impact in their communities. A wide range of club activities included hosting book and clothing donations for needy students in school or children in more rural areas, helping clean communities, painting the fences of many childcare centres in communities, helping the officers of the healthcare centre in the community carry out a health survey, and organising a small exhibition for community members regarding diseases, illness, elections, democracy, human rights, and many others.

In an effort to lessen violence in society, the Anti-violence club was organised for students who were interested in working on the issues of violence. It was stated by its president that it was important to not just teach students the effects of violence, but to also teach them to take a stand and do things to stop or reduce violence. It was particularly mentioned that the club was also geared towards helping children in vulnerable areas and supporting peace building activities in order to make more respectful communities. Members of the club additionally opined that students should act as role models for anti-violence and students should encourage a culture of peace in society. The great variety of club activities helped members of the club learn about the different forms and levels of violence and they were given chances to organise anti-violence activities for their communities. The club activities included designing posters for anti-violence, writing slogans for anti-violence, producing anti-violence stickers, doing role-plays about anti-violence, and marching around communities on an anti-violence campaign. It was mentioned by the advisor of this club that members of the club were more interested in the current situation of violence in society, and especially violence in the family, after the members explored several issues about violence in the family from listening to a guest speaker who used to suffer from such violence. It was also mentioned that the members of the club had initiated a campaign of no violence in the family and they were marching around the school and the community advertising this campaign. They also worked in partnership with the Public-spiritedness club in giving help to the victims of the violence such as donating money

or clothes for mothers and children who were hit by drug-addicted husbands and fathers or for wives hit by drunken husbands.

In sum, a wide range of human rights-related student clubs in School A enabled students to gain direct experience in joining the variety of activities organised by each student club. The student clubs not only benefited their members but also students across the school. As could be seen, all activities organised were open widely. Students of all levels were welcome to participate in activities. The following are some interesting students' interview excerpts regarding their opinions towards joining student club activities and the opinion of the Head of Department of Student affairs.

"I am not a member of the Public-mindedness club but I like joining in donation activities done by the club. I think it is a good activity because students can see the power of sharing. I also invite my parents to donate clothes and books for these clubs. I like to join them when they go to donate stuff to the children in the rural primary schools but I never have a chance. I also have witnessed that my friends in the neighbourhood joined the donation activities organised in the community. I think the Public-spiritedness club will be glad if they know that students are more interested in donating stuff to others because of them.... hahahahahah..." (IC: FS36)

"To be honest, I actually do not understand about the military government. I do not have any idea about its form. I mean I do not understand why Thailand is ruled by the military. I have found the answers I have question about the military government from the Human rights club. I really like how the club showed me the YouTube video about military governments in other countries. The club members described to me the necessity of having the military government. I have a better understanding about military government. I also told my parents what I learned about military government. They intently listened to me and asked me questions. I then brought such questions to ask the members of the Human rights club... hahahahahahaha. The question is when will Thailand have full democracy? The club said when Thailand has the right quality of citizens... hahahahahahaha... It seems abstract but it is true, I think." (IC: MS45)

"I think student clubs related to human rights have done their best in supporting and promoting human rights in the school. The advisors of the clubs have reported that about 80% of students have participated in human rights-related activities organised by student clubs. It might be the results of such activities that influence students' behaviour and attitudes. I have seen no bullying cases in

school and fewer cases of fighting have been found. Students are well-disciplined. I think students have become more aware about human rights issues in school and even in the wider community. I have read some essays about human rights in daily life written by students. There were about 450 essays sent to join the competition. This essay writing was organised by the Human rights club. I was quite surprised when students mentioned that the school is human rights-friendly. Students were happy with learning human rights in school. I think student clubs related to human rights in my school are effective. The clubs have been significant part in moving the school towards being human rights-oriented.” (FG: SS44)

V. Student council

In this school, the student council was regarded as an important student organisation connecting the students and the school. The student council played a major role as a communication channel between the students’ needs and the school administration. Regarding human rights, it was several times mentioned by students that the student council served as a significant source of human rights themes and as a place where human rights were valued, as demonstrated from the following interviews.

“I think the student council plays a very important role in organising activities for students in school particularly activities regarding human rights such as sets of elections and competitions related to human rights. As can be seen, the student council team take into account the values of human rights when organising student activities. They have provided several channels to listen to the voices of students I think they have focused on students’ participation and involvement. To be honest, I like the way the student council have created or organised activities for students.” (IC: FS25)

“I can remember that the student council is organised based on the principles of the rights of the child. That is brilliant in my opinion because the student council pays full attention to students’ rights. Particularly, the student council has organised lots of students’ activities supporting human rights in school such as organising sets of elections, providing channels for students to express opinions, organising activities for helping poor students or students, and organising student camps regarding human rights, leadership and democracy.” (IC: MS17)

Throughout the six month data collection period, human rights were incorporated in a broad array of aspects of the student council including its principles, its administration, its activities, and its training and workshops.

In terms of its principles, the student council was organised based on the four basic rights of the child stated in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child including the right to survival, the right to development, the right to protection, and the right to participation. This showed that the student council employed the approved international child rights document as binding commitment to be achieved. Interestingly, it was found that the four basic rights of the child were promoted widely across the school both orally, in writing and in print signifying the principles of the student council. As a result, it was apparent to teachers, students, and visitors that the four basic rights of the child were placed in emphasis within its principles by the student council.

In the matter of its administration, it was evident that the student council had a clear purpose and focus on encouraging positive outcomes for all students at school by enabling students to take an active part in school decision-making and giving students the experience of being valued and heard. Regarding school decision making, individual students were allowed to say yes or no to school policies such as cutting down the big trees, removing the botanical garden and building a basketball court instead, submitting assignments via email instead of papers. To do this, students were required to fill in questionnaires on each school policy decision, asking students whether they would accept or reject it. This showed that the process of working on any policy issues encouraged students to voice their opinions and ideas. All students were given the opportunity to make their views heard and negotiate to have issues debated in the student council, through several channels available ranging from the most to the least private. These included writing an email, writing in the opinion boxes provided, making a direct call, passing through student council members or heads of the class, and making a visit to the office of the student council. A range of opinions was then raised during the regular meeting of the student council in the presence of the student council advisors. Any opinions or issues were always tackled depending on their urgency. If the issue was urgent, then it was directly sent to the school director to solve the problem. If the issue was not urgent, it was normally then discussed along a process starting from the student council meeting to the school meeting until the issue was successfully resolved.

Regarding its activities, human rights were incorporated into many activities organised by the student council. These activities not only showed the student council's human rights

values, but also raised students' awareness on human rights. A wide range of such activities included opinion boxes, fund-raising and donation activities, a human rights corner, and other competition activities related to human rights themes.

In the case of the opinion boxes, these were created as another channel for students to express their opinions or make suggestions on any issues in the school. These boxes were specially designed by students of the Arts club. The boxes were interesting with various shapes and colours. They were situated around the school where they were prominently visible and accessible to students. It was found that student council members frequently introduced and encouraged their friends to use the boxes. The student council regularly checked the boxes and worked with teachers and the school board to solve the issues raised. Significant issues raised and successfully solved were mostly related to students' safety and wellbeing such as, laying tiles on the canteen floor, installing more cold drinking water dispensers, more toilets, more shoe shelves, more First Aid kits in the corridors.

In addition to the budget supported by the school, it was necessary for the student council to find more money to support activities organised for particular urgent purposes relating to human rights. As a result, a set of fundraising and donation activities were purposively created. This allowed all school members across the school to help raise funds and donate things by giving money or doing a wide range of donation activities. These fundraising activities included auctions of items collected from teachers and students, selling garbage collected from garbage passport activity¹, selling paper baskets made by students from the Handicrafts club, selling cookies made by the Cookery club, and guitar-busking from the Music club in school and in community markets. It was found that the money raised and things donated were used to help both school members and wider communities who were in troubles caused by disasters, sicknesses, house fires, lack of winter clothes, and to answer other charities' requests.

In response to the increasing human rights interest among students in school, the human rights corner was created as a result of an agreement made between the student council and its advisors. This private place served as a comfort zone within which students could freely and spontaneously address issues of general human rights concern. Furthermore, this corner was used for an informal exchange of views in relation to human rights themes. Two members of

¹ This activity requires students of all levels to pick up any litter found around the school and put it in the bin. By doing such activity, the students are then allowed to leave the school at the end of school time.

the student council who were well-trained regarding human rights and consultation were always in the corner. It was found that the frequent human rights topics discussed and shared in this corner were related to rights under the military government and Section 44 of the Interim Constitution of Thailand (2014). As mentioned by students, this corner brought about a clear and positive change towards the human rights issues raised and discussed. This marked another important channel for students to have more say or express their opinions relating to human rights in school.

Apart from organising activities regarding human rights, a broad array of competition activities related to human rights themes was organised. These competition events were set to raise students' awareness of the human rights themes given. This set of human rights competitions included designing a poster on the topic 'Stopping violence', essay writing on the topic 'The importance of democracy in daily life', a debating competition on the topic 'Should freedom of speech sometimes be restricted?', a public speech competition on the topic 'How to make peace?', a song composition about stopping violence in Thai society and equity in Thai society, shooting movies on the topic of democracy in school. Based on the observation data, good feedback was shown through the high numbers of participants in each competition. Interestingly, the works produced from some competitions including posters and essays were publicly displayed as an exhibition in the school for students, the wider communities or school visitors. Moreover, all activities organised were open for all school members to take part in and people outside the school were welcome to observe the activities. As a result, the participants in the activities were students, teachers, parents, community members, and networking schools.

Another significant work of the student council related to human rights was conducting a series of training. These trainings made a substantial contribution to the student council's promotion of human rights. Most of the trainings organised were related to peace, democracy, violence, and social justice. These trainings played an active part in promoting democratic and electoral processes as well as the importance of resolving conflict fairly and maintaining peace. From the interview data, the participants were given opportunities to practise a wide range of human rights skills including negotiating, problem solving, coping with stress and emotions, developing interpersonal and communication skills and skill in making compromises.

However, based on the interview data, there were some comments given on the performance and duties of the student council through the eyes of other school members, including teachers who were not closely related to student council, some students and student

council members themselves. Among the comments from teachers who were not closely related to the student council, it was mentioned that the student council played a significant role in organising school activities and driving the school towards being fully human rights-oriented; however, the student council team often missed classes since they were required to work on behalf of the school to do several things during the school period such as preparing and organising the school activities, presenting the work of the student council to visitors, and attending seminars and workshops outside the school. This resulted in low class attendance of student council members. One teacher even expressed concern about the student council's success and student council members' learning achievements as follows.

"I think the student council team have put their full focus and paid attention on their duties as student council members rather than their duties as students. I am afraid that the student council team will have low grades which may affect their learning achievement results. I am not happy to see that they do best regarding student council responsibilities but they are not good at academic subjects in the classroom." (IC: FT15)

This was consistent with the opinions given by some student council members regarding the burden of being on the student council. It was stated that it was likely to be particularly hard for student council members to pay attention in class due to the great responsibilities they held as the student council team. As a result, they were often warned by the subject teachers regarding their poor class attendance. It was additionally noted by some student council members that student council members were considered by some teachers to be lazy students since they had spent more time organising school activities outside the classroom than paying attention to lessons inside the classroom. One of the worries expressed was shown as the following.

"With the great expectation from school, the student council team were required to spend the school time organising activities on behalf of all students in school. As a result, we often miss the class since we have to prepare things before the actual events or activities happen. Sometimes, we are invited to organise activities for other schools nearby or to join workshops or seminars organised by government agencies or NGOs. To be honest, I need more time to focus on my study. Anyway, I think the student council team is like the Spiderman in this school. I like the quote from Spiderman that Uncle Ben said to Spiderman that

with great power comes great responsibility. That is why I have to work hard on behalf of the students and for the benefits of all students.” (FG: SC29)

In addition to the concerns relating to the student council members’ low class attendance and academic learning, it was noted by some teachers that creativity and innovation were not often found regarding activities organised by student council. It was mentioned that the student council have been using the same formats of activities year after year. This was similar to the suggestions of some students who were not members of the student council that more creative activities should be organised for students. The data previously presented showed the relationship between student council and other school members was not easy even though they have been working hard organising student activities, and working collaboratively with teachers, administrators, and communities.

VI. Relationship with local organisations

Based on the belief and realization that school alone cannot prepare students in all aspects of knowledge, School A developed and grew in partnership with local and national organisations to enhance students’ learning capability and achievement. There was a wealth of active organisations dealing with a variety of human rights issues in the communities around the school. Regarding human rights, it was evident that School A benefited from partnerships with local and national organisations through training and invitations for experts to speak on a variety of topics. This was done to educate students or raise students’ awareness about the human rights themes at that particular time. Furthermore, school staff were also encouraged to take part in such activities. This variety of organisations included government organisations, non-governmental organisations, and community-based organisations.

In the case of government organisations, it was found that officers from several government organisations were invited to organise trainings or activities on human rights topics related to their organisations. Based on the observation data, those human rights trainings or activities were organised in two parts. The first half of the activity was used for human rights presentation and the other half was used for students to ask questions or express opinions towards the previous presentation. Those human rights trainings or activities included road safety and the rights of road users from officers of the Department of Land Transportation, consumer rights from officers of the Office of Consumer Protection Board, democracy and

elections from officers of the Office of the Provincial Election Commission, short movies relating to corruption from the Office of the National-Anti-Corruption Commission. Regarding non-governmental organisations, only one non-governmental organisation was invited to give information about a new sugar factory and potash mine in the nearby provinces since the two projects were controversial in terms of violating the rights of local people and destroying local natural resources. Interestingly, even a small community-based organisation could be, and was, also invited to be a part of the human rights learning resources for students. This community-based organisation was the Homeless Pet Foundation. Officers from this non-profit animal rescue organisation spoke to students to raise students' awareness about the increasing numbers of abandoned pets and to raise funds for helping those homeless pets.

Working with local and national partner organisations helped create a deeper and more thorough understanding of human rights issues for students and teachers as found in the interview data from both teachers and students as follows.

"In my opinion, it was such a great opportunity for students to learn human rights from the experts of other organisations. Those experts are keen on human rights in particular topics related to their work. Furthermore, they also have their own techniques to present human rights in different ways. That is beneficial for students. Students might be bored with teachers' teaching techniques because they are familiar with teachers. As can be seen, students were interested in joining the workshops or seminars organised by organisation outside the school. And students also paid attention to the human rights lessons given by those experts." (FG: SS42)

"Inviting parents/carers and local and national partner organisations into school can all help develop global perspectives of human rights. Moreover, experts from other organisations can expose teachers and students to very different learning and teaching contexts regarding human rights. Teachers can update themselves their human rights knowledge or human rights issues through participating in the workshops or seminars organised by these organisations. Students can also benefit from experts of other organisations such as learning the deeper contents of human rights, planning human rights activities in school, and raising their awareness of human rights problems or human rights issues outside school." (FG: SS45)

"I have attended many human rights activities organised by other organisations. My favourite is the activity organised by Office of the National-Anti-Corruption

Commission. Throughout the activity, I watched several short movies relating to corruption. Many teachers also joined this activity. Students also were assigned to create the plot of their short movie regarding anti-corruption in society. I did like creating the plot of my short movie because I used the corruption situation in my community as a plot.” (FG: ST6)

“Based on the evaluation forms, students gave positive feedback on the human rights activities organised by organisations outside the school. In my personal views, the experts of those organisations were good at presenting human rights in interesting and creative ways. As a result, students enjoyed taking part in those activities. As was seen, the experts provided a variety of teaching materials to teach about human rights such as pictures, video clips, and short movies.” (FG: SC26)

In the future, local partnerships can also be interconnected through future projects with different aspects of democracy and human rights as stated by the school administrators, for example, selecting subjects and training related to democracy and human rights taught by community-based organisations and human rights school trips organised by school and community-based organisations.

4.4 Factors influencing HRE in School A

It was clear that School A encompassed a wide range of human rights values in school. These human rights values were reflected through teaching and learning management, the school environment, and school governance. Regarding the school’s success in promoting HRE, a number of factors directly derived from the data analysis were considered as the main factors influencing the integrating of human rights in School A. These include organisation culture, governmental policy and campaigns, education acts and the school curriculum, human rights trainings for teachers and students, community engagement and expectations, the wish to maintain a good reputation and local, national, and international partnerships.

4.4.1 Organisation culture

Based on the observation data and interview data, it was apparent that the school culture influenced the school’s performance regarding HRE. School culture in this study refers to the

underlying norm values and beliefs that teachers and school administrators hold about teaching, learning and organising school activities. In other words, school culture had a significant impact on teachers' performance and motivation levels in integrating human rights in school based on the interview data. These school cultures included a warm and caring relationship among school staff, an achievement orientation for both staff and students, and building trust in their own effectiveness. The following section is used to provide evidence for all of these.

I. Warm and caring relationship among staff in school

In the case of the quality of relationship among the staff in school, different forms of warm and caring relationships were found including the relationship between school administrators and other school staff, the relationship between senior teachers and junior teachers, and the relationship between teaching staff and non-teaching staff. These warm and caring relationships helped support human rights activities and human rights values in School A.

In relation to the relationship between school administrators and other school staff, it was apparent that this helped encourage school staff to work to organise human rights activities, in which this contributed to the success of such activities. For example, the school director and other deputy directors always stayed with teachers and other school staff at every stage when organising activities relating to human rights starting from planning, preparing places and materials, organising the actual activities, and assessing the activities. More interestingly, the school director and other deputy directors always stayed late in the evening helping teachers and other school staff to prepare the venue for organising activities. They normally brought some food and drink for the teachers and working staff and they even had lunch with all the working team. Moreover, the administrators normally came early in the morning to the venue helping teachers and working staff welcoming parents and visitors or even helping to ensure that the place and all the equipment e.g. microphones, speakers and chairs were ready to be used.

In addition, it was apparent in School A that senior teachers and junior teachers had built a strong relationship through many activities such as the orientation activity for junior teachers emphasising the school's background, school pride, the school mission, and ice-breaking activities between senior teachers and junior teachers, the dual-teachers policy (one senior teacher and one junior teacher), and the team-coaching policy. Apparently, the good

relationship between senior teachers and junior teachers helped support HRE in School A in two major ways. One way, it was found, was by sharing human rights knowledge and exchanging human rights teaching experiences between senior teachers and junior teachers. This included teachers of all subjects in the school. This helped the junior teachers learn problems and effective ways to integrate human rights in the classroom from the experienced teachers, while the senior teachers also learned updated human right stories, teaching techniques or activities related to human rights. In the second way, senior teachers and junior teachers helped each other planning human rights themes and preparing materials for Civic Duties classes and organising human rights activities in school.

Maintaining the warm and caring relationship between teaching staff and non-teaching staff was also considered another significant feature of the culture of School A. Non-teaching staff such as cleaners, gardeners, security officers, and the school repairman were involved in all school activities and they were always valued and recognised in the school. For example, all non-teaching staff's birthdays were recognised and some birthday gifts were given, or when non-teaching staff were in hospital due to sickness or delivering birth, some teaching staff visited them with some gifts given to show love and care. As a result, this provided psychological support for non-teaching staff working for the school, including supporting HRE. As could be seen, these non-teaching staff, including janitors and technicians, helped support HRE by producing instructional materials and human rights activity materials. These janitors and other technicians had repair and maintenance skills and they were good at carpentry and masonry, using them for example, to help make the small wooden boards with human rights sentences written on them and organise the notice boards or exhibitions related to human right themes. Regarding the student camps related to human rights, the non-teaching staff worked hard at night as security guards ensuring the safety of all campers.

II. Achievement orientation

Another organisational culture influencing HRE in School A was its achievement orientation. It was evident that School A emphasised both the academic and social achievements of students. In other words, a high expectation of excellence was directed towards students' learning and behaviour. As a result, the school reinforced these high expectations by supporting all school members to pay close attention to students learning inside and outside the classroom. To equip students with a knowledge of democracy and human rights was one of the

achievement orientations of School A. Thus, all school staff had to put their efforts into integrating human rights in the school as well as making the school as democratic as possible. This also contributed to the success of HRE in School A. The following extracts come from the interview data of two teachers; one was the main advisor of the student council and the other was a Civic Duties teacher who brought human topics into her class. These two teachers pointed out how the school achievement orientation on democracy and human rights influenced their performance on supporting human rights in school.

“I think the school’s high expectation of making the school to be human rights friendly and democratic has forced all school staff to work hard and put their full effort into integrating human rights and democracy in the classroom and providing meaningful human rights experiences for students outside the classroom. I think once the goal is set, we have to make it possible and achievable.” (IC: FT5)

“We have to accept that the individual teacher cannot make the whole school successful. Since we have a specific goal set and we have the achievement orientation. This has immensely driven us to make it true. In the case of human rights, the administrators have placed human rights as the first priority for the school to accomplish. We have a clear destination to go to so we have the passion to do it as well.” (IC: MT9)

III. Trust in own effectiveness

Apart from the achievement orientation of the school, the school emphasised trust in the effectiveness of all school members particularly teachers and students. This encouraged all school members to work hard and this also convinced school members of being able to realise their high potential. The speeches given by the school directors reflected how the school stimulated all school members to work as well as possible at their own pace given their potential. Regarding human rights, the school director gave a meaningful speech which was considered by teachers and students to be particularly effective in implementing human rights in the school. Part of this inspiring speech regarding organising human rights activities given by the school director was as follows.

"I hold the strong belief that my students are competent and can successfully complete the human rights activities provided. For students, these activities are fun and challenging. I am very sure that you all will be happy and enjoy gaining the knowledge and skills related human rights provided in each activity. Do not worry that you will be alone. The school administrators and teachers will join in the activities as well. I and the other deputy directors will be the activities' supporters while some teachers will be the moderators and activities helpers. Particularly, your parents will also be invited to join the activities as observers." (FG: SS37)

In addition to speeches given by the school administrators and teachers, trust in their own effectiveness was also reflected through human rights activities organised by students. It was apparent that most of the human right activities were led by the student council. The student council was trusted by the school board and teachers to organise human rights activities, even some activities the school council had never done before. Based on the interview data from the Head of the Student council, it was clear that such trust from the school and teachers had forced the student council to work and try hard to accomplish the human rights activities planned. The following participant remarked on how much influence the trust the school had in the student council's effectiveness had had on the performance of the student council.

"We were encouraged and trusted that we were able to organise human rights activities for all students in school. The school administrators showed us their trust in our potential. I then delivered these such supportive messages to all the working team in the student council. That created the power for us to plan and organise human rights activities. The school administrators and teachers trust us so we have to trust ourselves." (FG: SC25)

4.4.2 Education Act and school curriculum

Based on the interview data from school administrators, the Head of Academic affairs, and teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures, it was clear that HRE in School A was mainly influenced by the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008). This national education core curriculum has influenced HRE in several ways. Regarding human rights learning content, it was found that human rights content was insufficiently and unclearly stated in this National Education Core Curriculum. It was also mentioned by the teachers that the amount and range of the new human rights content specified was only slight

among the wide range of general content. The wide range of general content included the political and administrative system of the present society; the democratic form of government under constitutional monarchy; the characteristics and importance of good citizenship; cultural difference and diversity; values under constitutional monarchy; rights, duties and freedoms in peaceful existence between Thai society and the world community. This brought difficulties in implementing human rights into the school curriculum and classrooms, in the national curriculum. To solve this problem, the school made their own interpretation by organising a particular seminar among the teachers discussing human rights learning contents and incorporating human rights into all school subjects. It was additionally mentioned by the Head of Academic affairs who was the key person in designing the school curriculum that the highly ambiguous human rights content in the national curriculum had influenced the integration of human rights in school curriculum, in the following extract of interview.

“The National Curriculum was the touchstone of quality in which the topics or key learning themes of each subject were already stated. All schools in the country are required to follow it. In other words, it is highly suggested that the school should use the National Curriculum as a model for designing topics or subjects taught in school including human rights topics. I found it is hard to just pay particular attention to human rights and ignore the other significant topics which are clearly stated in the national curriculum. As a result, human rights were not immensely integrated much in our classrooms but human rights were remarkably integrated in school activities and student activities outside the classrooms instead.” (FG: SS43)

However, it was clear from both the interview and observation data that the urgent educational policy given by the military government allowed more opportunities for the school and teachers to incorporate human rights into the school curriculum and the classroom. Even though human rights were not directly stated in the policy, the school was given broad guidelines and a wider area for human rights in school. This also marked another influential factor regarding HRE in School A, the details of which will be provided in the following section.

4.4.3 Governmental policy and campaign

School A has demonstrated its contributions to HRE as shown in its school policies and practice, student activities, and the awards it has won regarding its contributions to human rights and democracy. These contributions have driven another remarkable development the school has made towards human rights. Interestingly, there are some influencing factors that have both a direct and indirect effect on its HRE. Government policy and campaigns were considered as another factor that has a direct effect on teaching human rights in the classroom in School A. It was found from the interview data with the Head of Academic affairs that the urgent educational policy of the military junta known as the National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO) had a huge impact on HRE in many ways. Initially, the urgent new policy of teaching Civic Duties in schools through focusing on the creation of reconciliation and a sense of patriotism among schoolchildren has changed the content of teaching human rights in School A.

Previously, human rights was found as one topic to be learned in the subject of Social Studies, as stated in the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008). The policy of teaching Civic Duties compelled the school to teach content related to civic duties, and so human rights were chosen as the main learning themes within the Civic Duties classes in School A. Also, the teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures agreed that the policy of teaching Civic Duties launched by the military government provided a space for the school to incorporate more human rights into classroom learning. It was mentioned by the Head of the Department that all teachers of the department took part in the process of building Civic Duties into being a properly human rights-oriented subject, starting from choosing the theme, selecting the sub-topics, finding the materials, discussing problems found in the classroom, and evaluating its effectiveness. Moreover, it was evident from the students' interview data that the Civic Duties Subject had provided more opportunities to explore human rights knowledge more widely and deeply. Previously, students had mainly learned human rights contents as one of the topics in Social Studies, and partly learned it in some other subjects, but students could now fully learn human rights content in Civic Duties. Some students even pointed out that the Civic Duties Subject should be called the Human Rights Subject since the main learning themes were dedicated to human rights.

However, due to the latest policy of the military government, the Civic Duties Subject at lower secondary level was cancelled. Resulting from the so-called "Moderate Class, More

Knowledge” policy initiated by the military government, School A was chosen and forced by the Ministry of Education to participate with more than 4,000 other secondary schools across the country. The participating schools, based on such a policy, were required to find time for the students of lower secondary level to learn on their own independently, as well as encouraging them to learn vocational skills, which will be beneficial to them when they have to compete in a tough job market. As a result of this, the participating schools were required to take out the Civic Duties Subject at lower secondary level. This created a negative reaction among teachers who teach Civic Duties at the lower secondary level and students in the lower secondary level. It was found from the interview data that both teachers and students expressed positive responses to teaching and learning human rights in Civic Duties even though this subject had just been taught for only one semester. Some expressed strong disagreement with the cancellation of this subject while some gave feedback on the policy and practices of the military government and human rights learning as following.

“I think the policy of the military government is not stable. The Civic Duties Subject started last semester but it just ended this semester. I think this subject was very useful because it focused on democracy and human rights. I do not know why the military government do not allow the school to teach Civic Duties for lower secondary level this semester. I just feel that the military government is not sincere with students. They do not listen to students.” (FG: ST14)

“I really do not understand the policy of the military regarding the Civic Duties Subject. It should not have been deleted from my learning schedule. It seems like the military government does not see the importance of students of lower secondary level. To be honest, I did not agree with this subject at the very beginning but it became massively interesting when learning this subject with my teacher. It was all about rights.” (FG: ST20)

“I admit that human rights learning in my school are effective but I am quite confused when experiencing human rights situations in the wider society particularly in the national level. Students are emphasised to have rights to express opinions or needs in school but we have no freedom of expression outside the school. People have very limited rights.” (FG: ST4)

"I can say that human rights are fruitful in my school. As you can see, everyone is aware of rights in school. Teachers have been working hard to promote human rights and students have been meaningfully supported to learn and experience rights and democracy in school. But I think what I have learnt in school and the situation in the country is quite... ummmmm... quite different. Our rights are protected in school but our rights are restricted in society outside. I mean we have student council elections in school but national voting does not exist. We are told to protect our rights but our basic rights including the rights to vote and rights to express opinion are violated by the military government." (FG: ST10)

4.4.4 Human rights trainings for teachers and students

Another key element supporting HRE in School A was human rights training for teachers and students. It was found on the record of the school that frequency of attendance in human rights training of both teachers and students was high. The wide range of trainings included trainings organised by the local community, the national organisations, and the international organisations. This support was in line with the school policy of developing teachers' and students' knowledge of human rights and skills in teaching and learning human rights. This training benefited both teachers and students in several ways.

In the case of teachers, not only teachers who were related to teaching human rights were given the chance to attend the human rights training sessions, teachers of other learning areas and advisors of the classrooms were also encouraged to learn human rights. To teachers who teach human rights directly, such human rights training enabled them to be more confident in implementing human rights in the classroom. Moreover, they were equipped with the knowledge of human rights and techniques of designing teaching materials for human rights themes. To teachers of other learning areas and advisors of the classrooms, such training provided them with the knowledge to conduct a human rights classroom and the techniques for promoting and building human rights behaviour in students. Derived from the observation data, these human rights trainings were held during weekends so teachers of all subjects were able to attend. Throughout the trainings, teachers were grouped by their subjects and human rights teaching techniques and how to incorporate human rights into the classroom were presented. After that, teachers were required to plan their own lessons incorporating human rights and present them to other teachers with feedback given. The final period of the training was used for sharing experiences of teaching human rights or implementing human rights in the classroom. Further than that, teachers who attended the trainings were also trained to be the active organisers of human rights activities. This resulted in a variety of human rights activities

being organised for students. The following extracts from interviews illustrate how teachers regarded themselves in terms of human rights knowledge;

“To be honest, human rights is very abstract and difficult for me as a teacher to teach students because I am a teacher of Thai Language. Previously, I never learned human rights before even when I was in university. I started learning human rights seriously in this school from the trainings organised by the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures. I learned human rights knowledge and how to incorporate human rights in the classroom. I think I am able to incorporate parts of human rights themes in my Thai Language classrooms. Ummmmm... I also want to say that I learned human rights from TV programmes and information available on the Internet. I think I should learn more about human rights because there are many more human rights topics or contents I do not know. That is why I should explore human rights more.” (IC: FT8)

“I can say that I am much better than in the past regarding human rights knowledge. I used to think that human rights are something far from my life and from students’ lives. I teach Computer studies and I did not see the importance of why I had to teach human rights in my Computer Study classrooms. That was unnecessary. Up to the present time, I have been more aware of teaching human rights in school and particularly in the classroom. Teachers in this school have been trained about human rights and teaching human rights. Although I am not that expert in human rights or human rights teaching, I think I am able to talk to my students about human rights or human rights-related topics. However, I think there is a lot more about human rights to learn and explore.” (IC: MT10)

“When I was first in this school which was fifteen years ago, human rights topics were strange in this school. Human rights were very new at that particular time. Very few teachers were interested in teaching human rights or even talking about human rights. It took many years to promote human rights among teachers. Many teachers did not even know the exact meaning of human rights. Many teachers thought that human rights equalled elections or voting. It is drastically different from the present situation. Teachers in this school are confident in teaching human rights although their subjects are not directly connected to human rights. I think they have learned sufficiently about human rights and human rights teaching.” (IC: FT1)

As for the students, a core group of students including student council members and the heads of the classes were required to attend the human rights trainings. It was evident from the

interview data that students were equipped with knowledge of human rights and were inspired to stand up for human rights and get involved in human rights activities both inside and outside the school, as shown in the following interviews.

“To be honest, I previously never attended any community meetings organised in my community before. After being told about the importance of all levels of meetings regarding opinions of members in society or community, I become more aware of joining the community meetings because the community meeting is one channel through which community members can express opinions and share their needs. I also told my mom to pay attention on the issues discussed during the community meeting because my mom liked talking to other community members around her while the head of the community was talking... hahahahaha... My mom is talkative.” (IC: MS29)

“I see the importance of the participation and involvement of people in the community and in school so I encourage my fellow students in my class to express more opinions or say what they like or dislike in school through several channels provided by the student council. Ummmmm... I also joined the election campaign in my community. I walked around my community with a group of community members to tell other community members to go to vote or participate in the local elections. Do you know? I was the only student who joined the campaign. I was very proud of myself at that time.” (IC: FS32)

“Being the head of a class, I was given many chances to join democracy and human rights trainings, I think those trainings were inspirational because I have been more aware of human rights problems in school and even in my community. I used to help my primary school organise its democracy camp and I was given a chance to talk about democracy and human rights in school. That was fantastic for me since I could use the knowledge and skill I learned from democracy and human rights training to organise the camp for primary school students.” (IC: FS36)

In addition, these students were trained how to organise human rights activities in school. It was found in the final stage of research that these students spread the knowledge and techniques given amongst their peers in different forms such as organising a small exhibition about the knowledge learned from the trainings, organising human rights activities for other peers, and organising other trainings for the rest of the students in school.

4.4.5 Community engagement and expectation

In addition to the human rights trainings for teachers and students organised by other organisations outside the school, community engagement and expectations were another important key factor supporting School A in improving its HRE. Significantly, the community made a positive contribution towards the human rights learning process in School A in several ways. It was clear that the environment of the communities around the school was favourable and advantageous to the school in terms of HRE. It was found that the students learned many human rights topics through exhibitions organised by the communities such as the human rights community, democracy and community, basic rights of community members, and how to deal with rights violations in a community. Moreover, the school was frequently invited to be part of the decision-making process in important community policies or projects since the school was regarded as a part of the community. As a result, teachers and students had opportunities to learn democratic ways of community governance as well as realising that their voices were valued by communities. In addition to being a human rights learning resource, the school was recognised as a community hub that demonstrated and supported the realization of human rights. This allowed community members to learn human rights and participate in all human rights activities in school such as the student council election, human rights and democracy camps, exhibitions related to human rights, the school's Open House, and student activities and the Academic Fair. Interestingly, the heads of communities and some community members were invited as the judges in many student competitions relating to human rights and community such as the drawing competition on the topic of 'My Human Rights Community' and the public speech competition on the topic of 'How to Make Peace in the Community'. By being given high expectations by the communities as a human rights learning centre, this considerably encouraged the school to improve the quality of its HRE and to work hard to meet the expectations of its communities.

4.4.6 Maintaining a good reputation and securing awards given

School A has a good reputation for outstanding practice in being a role model of a democratic and human rights school in offering a wide range of democratic and human rights activities for its students. The school also won several awards regarding student councils. Some outstanding awards included the Gold Medal with the First prize in the Student Council Competition, being named the National Role Model of a Student Council, and Best Practice in a Student Council.

Based on both the observation and interview data, it was evident that maintaining a good reputation and securing the awards given indirectly influenced HRE in School A. Regarding the school administrators and teachers, they admitted that the good reputation forced them to work harder to support democracy and human rights in school. They additionally pointed out that the fear of losing their reputation motivated them to put more effort into supporting democracy and human rights in school. The following is an extract from an interview given by one advisor of the student council emphasising how maintaining this good reputation and securing awards given influenced his working ambitions for human rights in School A.

“I admitted that reputation represents the way others look at us and as such is at once critically important for us. As an agreement made by all teachers and students, we will use reputation as a tool for creating and maintaining our attempt and inspiration to develop democracy and human rights in our school. However, we are not afraid to lose our face or lose our reputation or awards. We just do our best on a daily basis. I believe in the saying that a good one smooths out the journey somewhat, a bad one causes doors to slam in our face and tests our confidence in ourselves.” (FG: SC32)

In the case of students, it was apparent that the increasing pressure on maintaining the good reputation of the school regarding democracy and human rights was found. These pressures are shown in the following extracts from interviews with students.

“I know that maintaining high standards of human rights and democracy education is critical and it is important that all the sectors are required to work hard supporting democracy and human rights for my fellow students. Being the head of students across the school, I feel worried about my capability to maintain the good reputation and awards given. Anyway, I will learn from my senior students and work collaboratively with teachers regarding democracy and human rights in school.” (IC: SC1)

“We had done very hard work before being given this award. I am lucky enough to be a student of this school and particularly a member of the student council. Any school can organise a student council but not every school can organise an effective student council. We always tell ourselves that we have to do our best to secure our reputation regarding democracy and human rights. This pressure has driven us to work harder.” (IC: SC2)

“The school has been working hard more than 7 years to build its reputation regarding democracy and human rights. We will spend every second from now to seriously work and support human rights and democracy in our school. We will never lose our reputation.” (IC: SC6)

However, it showed from these students’ interviews that students understood the nature of earning and losing a reputation or awards. The Head of the student council who was one of the core group of students expressed his concern on this point that the student council had communicated with all students in school in regards to doing far more to manage and maintain the school’s reputation. This resulted in the students’ high ambition and effectiveness in organising, providing, and participating in school activities related to democracy and human rights.

4.4.7 Local, national, and international partnerships

School A has partnered with other schools locally, nationally and internationally. These different levels of partnership have benefited the school in different aspects. In terms of local partnership, it was found that School A was seen and recognised as the democracy and human rights hub for the network of schools in the area. The networking schools were frequently invited to participate in the school activities related to democracy and human rights as both participants and observers. This enabled School A to work hard supporting human rights and democracy not just for its benefit but also for the benefit of the other networking schools. In the case of partnerships at the national level, the school has co-operated with another nine provinces whose provincial name begins with Na-Khon. As a result, the Sa-Pha-Na-Khon organisation, in other words student council partnerships among schools of provinces with names beginning with Na-Khon was set up. This student council partnership was set up for students in different regions and areas to work together towards developing democracy and human rights in schools. It also provided a place where students from different regions could exchange knowledge and experiences regarding democracy and human rights in schools. Annually, the workshop and seminar related to democracy and human rights was organised for student councils in Sa-Pha-Na-Khon which was hosted on a rotating basis. Student council

members of School A remarked that they have applied the lessons learned from the workshop and seminar organised by Sa-Pha-Na-Khon and these were beneficial for their school.

At a wider level of partnership, School A also has a good relationship with one secondary school in Laos PDR. This good relationship provides richer and wider learning experiences to students relating to democracy and human rights. Even though it was just the beginning of the relationship, one human rights and democracy camp was organised in cooperation between the two schools in the last semester. It was stated by the school director at this stage that partnerships with different levels of schools helped, supported, and forced School A to develop itself and maintain its good performance regarding democracy and human rights.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has presented HRE in School A including learning interesting human rights lessons in the classroom, learning human rights outside the classroom, and the set of factors influentially promoting learning human rights. Regarding learning human rights lessons in the classroom, the students in the classroom observed learned two different human rights themes over a semester including building the human rights community and the protection of rights. In addition to the human rights themes learned, human rights awareness was generated through learning activities in the classroom including child-centredness, equal opportunities, and non-discrimination. In terms of learning human rights outside the classroom, human rights themes could be seen to be also embedded in the following aspects including school governance, school environment, extra-curricular activities, the student council, and relationship with local organisations. The end of the chapter remarked on the significant factors influencing integrating human rights in School A including organisation culture, governmental policy and campaigns, the Education Act and school curriculum, human rights trainings for teachers and students, community engagement and expectation, maintaining a good reputation and securing awards given, and local, national, and international partnerships.

CHAPTER 5

HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION IN SCHOOL B

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the data obtained from School B. The chapter is classified into five main sections making an attempt to answer the following three main research questions: 1) What do teachers do to promote ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?; 2) What values and beliefs do teachers hold in relation to ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?; and 3) How do students experience ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand? Section 5.2 provides a description of the school, giving some general information about the school. Then, the locations and contexts where HRE was enacted are presented both inside and outside the classroom (5.3). Section 5.4 then continues by presenting the set of factors that are most prominently influential in promoting HRE in School B. A summary of the key arguments and the central themes is provided at the end of the chapter (5.5).

5.2 Description of the school

School B is located in Sri Songkram municipality, Sri Songkram district, Nakhon Phanom province, in the north-eastern part of Thailand. This state-funded secondary school is situated in a predominantly agricultural and fishery area, 35 kilometres away from the Thai-Laotian border. The school is under the supervision of Secondary Educational Service Area 22. The school is currently staffed by 1 school director, 3 deputy directors and 53 teachers. The school roll is currently 1,363. The school recognises its responsibilities to provide six years of secondary education including three years of lower-secondary level and three years of upper-secondary level as the regular basis of secondary education in Thailand. The school is made up of students from different tribes from the surrounding area including Phu Thai, Saek, Yau, Kalueng and Thai Isan.

School B is located in a well-designed 31 acre site and serves students from all sections of the community. As a result, School B is widely regarded as an educational centre in the area

which provides good-quality education to its students. The school environment is utilised to provide meaningful learning experiences and contains a botanical garden, a local museum, and an agricultural demonstration farm. Regarding other learning resources, School B is a well-resourced school where students are given sufficient access to a wide variety of resources and technologies free of charge since this school is the educational hub of other schools in the area. As an educational hub, it is a centre for providing tools, resources and support for other secondary and also primary schools in the area, particularly regarding academic development. The main services of this educational hub are organising professional trainings for teachers and tutoring programmes for students in the school network.

Based on the data obtained from the six-month data collection, this school is mainly organised based on the National Curriculum (2008) launched by the Ministry of Education. In terms of human rights, this school appeared to follow the government guidance about HRE. In other words, it was found that the school supported human rights primarily based on what was stated in the National curriculum. However, it was found that some groups of teachers had tried to teach human rights more intensively within the subject of Civic Duties. In terms of outside-the-classroom elements, human rights were reflected through several aspects of practices but not at an intensive level. The research data revealed some of the problems the school has encountered regarding HRE.

5.3 How are human rights enacted in School B?

Based on the empirical data, it was evident that human rights were enacted both inside and outside the classroom. In the Civic Duties classes observed, human rights were regarded as the central learning theme while students also enjoyed learning activities creating awareness of human rights. In this section, human rights as taught in the classroom observed are presented and such data can illustrate how the school supports teaching human rights in the classroom. In the case of ‘outside’ classroom spaces, human rights values were reflected in several practices both in school policies and school activities. However, it was found that there was a degree of discomfiture in taking the position of supporting human rights in School B. Some aspects of the school created limitations in their ability to fully enact HRE within the school.

5.3.1 Inside the classroom

It was mostly found in School B that human rights were incorporated into the teaching and learning lessons in some classrooms of the Civic Duties Subject. Throughout the data collection period in the particular classroom observed, it was apparent that human rights were embedded in two major observable practices. Interestingly, human rights were set as the learning theme/topic throughout the semester and human rights awareness was also created through additional learning activities. In other words, the learning activities employed in the classroom helped generate human rights awareness for students. Based on the interview data of the Deputy Director of Academic affairs, Civic Duties was the most significant source of human rights learning in School B since other academic subjects were not available to have human rights content incorporated in them, as demonstrated in the following interview data.

"...Since HRE has no official place in the National Curriculum, it is likely hard for the school to incorporate HRE in the school subjects, particularly academic subjects such as Maths, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics. There are many topics to cover in these subjects so it becomes difficult to integrate human rights into them...So Civic Duties is regarded by students as the major source for HRE learning in this school since human rights are taught in some Civic Duties classes."
(FC: SS38)

This was consistent with the opinions of students who studied in this particular Civic Duties class that they significantly learned some human rights from Civic Duties while other students in other Civic Duties classes learned something different.

The classroom observation took place in two Civic Duties classrooms; one was one of the seven Civic Duties classroom of Mattayom Suksa 2 (Grade 8) representing lower secondary level and the other was one Civic Duties classroom of Mattayom Suksa 5 (Grade 11) representing upper secondary level. These two Civic Duties classrooms were taught one period a week which equalled fifty minutes per week. Throughout the semester, this subject lasted twenty weeks. The researcher followed the two Civic Duties sessions as taught across the semester. These Civic Duties classes were not typical examples of the subject since the Civic Duties teachers were allowed to select teaching and learning topics by themselves. The classroom observation was done in these two Civic Duties classes where human rights were regarded as the main learning theme. After the observation, the researcher's usual practice was

to chat informally with students about the lesson they had just participated in, or the following day the researcher would speak to some of the students who had participated in the session to ask them for their views on what had been discussed. It was found from the observation data that different teaching techniques and learning activities were employed in these two Civic Duties classes. The details of each classroom will be presented in the following sections.

I. Lower secondary level: Mattayom Suksa 2 (Grade 8)

The classroom observed was one Civic Duties classroom of Mattayom Suksa 2 (Grade 8). This Civic Duties classroom was filled with forty-eight students and taught one fifty-minute period per week. In School B, a class with forty-five to fifty students is typical and this is a typical size for a class in Thailand. Throughout the semester of twenty weeks, students learned human rights themes implicitly through doing project work by themselves.

Based on the interview data given by the teacher of this subject, project-based learning was chosen as the main learning activity because project work is a learning experience which aims to provide students with the opportunity to synthesise knowledge from various areas of learning, and critically and creatively apply it to real life situations. The teacher also mentioned that students of Mattayom Suksa 2 were too young to learn something very abstract like the concepts of citizenship, law, and the constitution so learning by doing projects might be more suitable.

"I think learning by doing projects can provide students with real life experience. Furthermore, students can apply the knowledge gained and use it in their daily life. Importantly, I will try to encourage students to do projects which are closely related to their lives and experiences." (IC: MT1)

To do the project work, students went through different stages including choosing group members, selecting the topics of interest, discussing the steps of doing the projects, doing the actual projects, and presenting the projects. The detail of each stage will be elaborated in the following section.

A. Human rights-related learning themes/topics

➤ *Choosing the group members*

Regarding how group members were selected, both the teacher and students displayed various things significantly related to human rights. In the case of the teacher of the subject, it was found that the teacher's grouping technique was just based on his preference. In other words, the teacher just grouped students by their numbers without asking students how they wanted to be grouped. As for the students, it was clear from the observation data that they strongly disagreed with such a grouping technique by producing some forms of bad behaviour indicating their unwillingness to join the groups. Some refused to move and kept sitting in their places. Others looked unhappy while moving to the group assigned.

Based on the interview data collected after this class, the students strongly disagreed with such a grouping technique for two main reasons, including the unfamiliarity of the group members assigned together and the inconvenience of doing the project during weekends with group members assigned arbitrarily. It was also mentioned by some students that they were afraid to interrupt the teacher while he was grouping students or respond to the teacher right away. Therefore, they preferred to talk and discuss this matter after the class. Some of the interesting extracts from the interviews showing students' dissatisfaction towards their teacher's grouping technique were as follows.

"I do love working with others. But I prefer choosing by myself who I want to work with. The teacher does not know us. It was just the first time we met in class. He should not put us in a group like he did this morning. It is not fair for us." (G1: MS2)

"I do not like to be assigned to work with the ones I am not close to." (G1: MS3)

"We are afraid of teacher. We are afraid of being punished by teacher. If we say something different or against teacher, we might lose marks. We want to have a good image so we just normally follow teacher's instruction." (G1: FS6)

"In my opinion, the teacher might think that his grouping technique is easy and saves time. If he let us choose the group ourselves, it might take an hour."

However, we need to spend the whole semester for completing the project work. If we are randomly grouped together, that may cause problems. For example, I and Meena (pseudonym name) are placed together but our houses are far away from each other. That might be a problem for working together during weekend. Commuting from my house to Meena's house is difficult and far. I need to work with friends whose houses are close to me." (GI: MS9)

As a result of an agreement made among themselves, the students went to meet and tell the teacher how they wanted to be grouped by choosing the group members by themselves. It was interesting that the teacher then gave permission for the students to choose the group members by themselves right after he realised the students' reasons. Furthermore, he expressed his deep apology to all of the students for not asking them prior to grouping them and then had the students choose the group members by themselves. The following excerpt shows how the teacher responded to the students after having been given their feedback.

"I am very sorry for grouping you by your numbers. I just thought that you all are familiar with each other and close to each other. I should have asked you how you want to be grouped. Anyway, thank you for letting me know how you feel towards my grouping technique. Your feedback is always valuable for me. So I will let you choose your group members by yourselves and tell me the next time we meet." (OB: MT1)

➤ *Selecting the topics of interest*

Regarding project topics, students were allowed to select projects they were interested in as long as these were related to the affairs or activities of the community and would help people in the community. The six projects chosen were cleaning the temple and its area, playing guitar and entertaining the patients in the hospital, helping with exercise activity for elders in the community, feeding homeless dogs, fund-raising for youth activities, and painting the fence of the child care centre. Based on the presentation of the students' project topics, three main criteria were used when selecting the topics including contribution to the community, engagement of group members, and increasing recognition of the school's contribution to the community.

Regarding contribution to the community, all groups showed they were attempting to help make the community a better place to live. Additionally, all six projects demonstrated the

students caring about the community they live in. The projects were considered as a great opportunity for students to help their communities. The following extracts are from two significant interviews showing reasons why contribution to the community was regarded as the first priority in choosing the projects.

“As we are members of the community, we would like to help improve our communities. This class gives us an opportunity to do something for our own community. We have chosen feeding the homeless dogs in the community as our project since we have known that hungry homeless dogs are dangerous and always attack the passers-by. Thus, we want to provide some food for them so they will be tamer.” (OB: MS1)

“Our project is about painting the fence of the child care centre. This project will help provide a better environment for children to learn in. We think that children are the future adults. If children learn in a good and safe environment, this may result in shaping them to be good members of the community when they grow up.” (OB: FS5)

In addition to contributing to the community, the engagement of the group members was also considered when selecting the students' project topics. All groups mentioned that it was possible for all group members to take part in the projects chosen. Every group member was given an opportunity to choose and vote for the most appropriate projects. This was done to make sure that all group members agreed with the project chosen and were willing to participate in it.

Interestingly, doing project work was expected by the students to increase recognition of their abilities and value by other community members, especially adults in the community. All the groups stated that children were rarely given the opportunity to take part in community activities since children were considered not mature enough to carry out community activities like adults. One male student expressed his feelings regarding children' roles in community as the following;

“Another reason why we choose to help the exercising activity for elders is because we want to prove that we can help organise community activity even though we are young. Children always feel forgotten when organising community

activities. This project work might change adults' attitude towards children regarding doing community activities. Children want to have more roles in developing the community. We want to tell adults that we are able to help develop our community." (OB: MS12)

➤ *Discussing the steps of carrying out the projects*

When discussing the stages of carrying out the projects, each individual group was asked to present the particular steps of doing their project from the very beginning to the final stage. Then, the steps were discussed and approved by the teacher and the whole class. Apart from discussing the steps of the projects, the teacher highlighted some interesting human rights aspects derived from each project and discussed these with the whole class. One interesting human rights aspect was raised from the project regarding cleaning the temple and its area. The teacher picked one particular issue related to the religious places of other religions. The teachers elicited from students some other different religious buildings in addition to the temples of Buddhism. He also singled out how multi-religious Thai society is, as follows.

"Our national religion is Buddhism since the majority of Thai citizens are Buddhists. But as you know, we have some other religions in Thailand including Christianity and Islam. Even though we believe differently, we can live happily together." (OB: MT1)

In response to the teacher saying this, one female student expressed a different attitude by mentioning the conflict between the Muslims and Buddhists in the South of Thailand, which is generally known as a Muslim region and particularly focused on the Buddhist monks and Buddhists killed in the South. The student further pointed out that it cannot be overgeneralised that people of different religions live happily together in Thailand since violence in the south of Thailand is still occurring. It was clear that the student reacted similarly to the problems and expressed concern over the rioting in the South and remarked on possible solutions. One significant solution was negotiation. It was suggested strongly that the local government should call the leaders of both Muslims and Buddhists to come to talk and find a solution together. It was also remarked on by many students that living in harmony should be promoted widely among people in the South where Muslims are the majority while Buddhists are the minority. But the most profound opinion was given by one female student whose father is a soldier who

had been sent to work in the three southernmost provinces of Thailand for eight years. She said that

“My father is working there protecting the teachers and students in one primary school in the district of Ra-ngue, Nara Thiwat province. Some days, he and his friends are assigned to walk after the monks while the monks go on an alms-round in the morning. When I and my mother call him, he always tells us that he does not know when he will die because his life is hanging by a thread. He always mentions that he is in a highly precarious state. I miss him so much. I want him to stay with us.” (OB: FS15)

In response to such a sad story, the students were allowed to express their sympathy to the female student whose father was far away from her and her mother working in the unstable and unsafe area of the South. It was concluded by the teacher at the end of the class that lots of people believe in lots of different things; however, no one is allowed to hurt anyone when his or her belief was against the others.

➤ *Presenting the results of the projects*

To present the result of the students’ projects, each group was required to come up to the front of the classroom and report to the teacher and whole class the result of the projects and the lessons learned from the projects. It was apparent from the presentations that students had learned certain things related to human rights from all six projects. These things were equity, inequity, and humanity.

Regarding equity, it was reflected from the presentations that there was a growing recognition of the importance of equity to development in the community and showing concerns about inequity in the community. At this point, all the groups expressed their appreciation of examples of equity found during doing projects. For example, students who did the projects at the hospital mentioned that they saw how people from every walk of life were treated equally in the hospital. One of the most interesting interviews is the following.

“Patients are from different social statuses but doctors and nurses treat them equally. As seen, some were very poor. They come to hospital wearing only shorts

and shirtless. Some came alone. Some walked from their houses to hospital for about 5 kilometres with weakness. I saw how people expressed sympathy for others. Different level of people but they received the same treatment. This proves to me social justice exists in my community.” (OB: FS21)

In the case of the project of cleaning the temple, it was mentioned by one group member that the temple was the place where people of all social classes were treated equally since they were all Buddhists. The following interview extract shows how students felt when being in the temple regarding equity.

“I see people come to temple with the luxurious costume while some with the normal costume. And some are with dingy costume. But they come to temple with the same goal which is making merit. The temple is the place where everyone is equal regardless of how poor or rich you are, how handsome or beautiful you are, or how strong or weak you are, you are treated equally by the monks.” (GI: MS1)

In addition, the students who worked with children, teenagers, and the elderly also said that the quality of life of all groups of people in the community was improved fairly regardless of age or social status. It was apparent that the development agencies in the community paid particular attention to improving conditions for people in all stages of life. In other words, many development agencies recognised equity as a central goal for their programming.

However, while equity was practised in the community, some inequities found while doing their projects were mentioned by students, including access to community services, adult literacy, and poverty. This was reflected by the group of students who entertained people at the hospital, who noticed that it was difficult for local people who lived far away to come to hospital. When arriving at the hospital, those local people were also required to wait in a long queue due to the lack of doctors and the large numbers of patients. It was suggested by the group that more health centres should be built in more rural areas so that those local people could access the health care service easily and sufficiently. Another inequity found in the students’ project was adult literacy. It was reported by students that many parents did not send their children to the child care centre in the community. This resulted from those parents’ negative attitudes towards education since they themselves were illiterate. Based on the interview data given by the teachers of the child care centres interviewed by students, illiterate

parents were not involved in the education system since it was not compulsory in the past to go to school. Furthermore, poverty was mentioned by students of all groups as another inequity found in the community. It was mentioned by all groups that poverty had become one of the fundamental causes of the problems in the community particularly adults' moving to work in Bangkok and leaving children, teenagers, and the elderly to stay alone. This resulted in a huge number of children in the child care centre, the big number of elderly in the exercising activity, and the large number of teenagers with problems in the youth activity. At this point, the teacher raised the question of the causes of poverty in the community and had the students discuss it. It was agreed by the whole class that the two main causes of poverty in the community were low education and over population but limited resources, and low paid work.

In terms of encouraging humanity, it was evident that the students had learned humanity from doing the projects. In other words, students experienced several forms of humanity while doing their projects. These were derived from what students had done by themselves and what students had witnessed while doing their projects. For example, it was apparent from the group with the project of playing acoustic guitar in the hospital that they were proud of themselves for having had an opportunity to do something for people in their community, as follows.

"Do you know? Some villagers were from the community in the deep forest. They could not use central Thai quite fluently. They normally use their dialects. I was born in the community where people speak different dialects so I sometimes helped them talk to doctors and nurses. Even though my projects did nothing related to making peace or maintaining peace, I think I did something for making others feel relieved and comfortable. Patients, patients' relatives and hospital staff might feel more relaxed listening to our music. I am proud that I at least helped people in my community." (G1: MS15)

As for the project to feed homeless dogs, it was claimed that this project empowered them to be responsible to their community and encouraged them to be more caring for homeless animals like the dogs found in the community. All members of this project also expressed their profound sympathy for the hungry homeless dogs. The following are extracts from two interesting interviews showing how caring students had become after doing the project.

“To be honest, I never thought that there were a lot of homeless dogs in my community before doing the project. I never fed them since I thought other people might feed them. I have just realised when doing this project that there are more than fifty homeless dogs and most of them are sick. I can see from their eyes that they are happy after having been fed. I promise myself I will continue feeding them even though I have finished this subject.” (GI: MS22)

“I was told that the homeless dogs were mad and dangerous. I was told not to get close to the homeless dogs. I have just realised by myself that those homeless dogs are very pitiful. They walked to me very quickly to eat food even though their legs were broken. They are tame. We are now friends. I will invite my parents and my neighbours to take care of these homeless dogs and we will find a safe place for them to stay.” (GI: FS16)

Another example of the humanity students learned from doing the project was seen through the project of raising funds for youth activities. It was mentioned that youth activities were purposively organised for teenagers in the community ‘by adults’ who want to give something back for community. Furthermore, the youth activities were aimed at any teenagers who do bad things such as abusing drugs and stealing. Those teenagers were given chances to do good things for the community. They were treated the same as other teenagers and no one talked about the bad experience of those teenagers. Some students of this group mentioned the benefit of the youth activities as follows;

“I am very impressed with how teenagers were engaged in community activities. All teenagers are given equal chances to develop themselves by participating in these youth activities such as getting involved in the youth radio programme, being part of a youth advisory group through the local council, and joining the local environmental or clean-up group.” (GI: MS15)

“I think teenagers are the future of the community. They are very lucky that the local government has supported activities for teenagers in community. They have spaces or stages to do something for the community in return. Some teenagers who are young offenders are given the chance to do good deeds. I can learn that young people can grow from an understanding of how they fit into society to how they can help solve social problems performing community service projects. And I think that youth activities can help teenagers become great citizens in the community, country or even become good global citizens.” (GI: FS12)

In addition, students learned humanity from witnessing incidents while doing the project. One example was given by the group cleaning the temple. One student said they had experienced many forms of humanity while spending time cleaning the temple. The following was an example of the kindness human beings can give to others witnessed by one member of this group.

"I and my friends went to the temple to clean the temple buildings. We cleaned the meditation area in the temple. I saw two little boys who came to the temple to get some food from the monks. I was told that the two boys live near the temple. They are orphans. They live with their old grandmother in the small hut. I feel impressed with this kind of giving! How lucky the two boys are and how kind the monks are." (GI: MS15)

Apart from being a peaceful place that local people can rely on as a spiritual anchor, it was mentioned that one section of the temple is reserved as a shelter for passers-by to stay overnight if they cannot afford a hotel or any other kind of accommodation. This showed the benevolence of the monks and community members to others who do not belong to the community. One member of the group expressed surprise towards discovering these multiple functions of temples, as follows.

"I have just found out that the temple has benefited a variety of people not just only people in our community. It is like the centre of kindness of the community. The temple teaches us to live together with kindness and harmony. I had a chance to talk with one monk after cleaning the meditation area. The monk mentioned that acts of kindness nurture humanity." (GI: FS23)

At the end of the lesson, the students of all groups were encouraged to summarise the knowledge and skills they had learned from doing the projects. It was interesting that no particular knowledge or skills were mentioned by students. Instead, it was frequently remarked that the students had developed their understanding about many local issues through doing the projects. These local issues included equity and inequity, violence in the community, poverty, low income, safety, and friendship. Apart from these, it was apparent that the students were proud to have contributed to their community and they expressed the strong urge to fight against any unethical domestic issues in the community.

B. Learning activities generating human rights awareness

In addition to human rights themes, it was apparent from the interview data that, greater human rights awareness was also created as a result of the students doing the project themselves. This awareness of human rights included issues around child-centred learning, the appreciation of diversity and of the feelings of people involved, and an increase in the visibility of values and acceptance.

In relation to child-centred learning, it was clear that all phases of learning in this subject were directly organised by the students starting from choosing group members, selecting the topics of interest, discussing the steps of doing the projects, doing the actual projects, and presenting them. In other words, the learning activity in this subject encouraged the full participation of the students. It was explicitly mentioned by the students that they appreciated their self-directed learning as facilitated by the teacher of the subject as stated in the following interview.

"I feel like I am the teacher of this subject since I was given the opportunity to design my own learning. I put my full effort into working on my project since it was initiated by me and my group members." (G1: FS21)

In terms of increasing appreciation of diversity and of the feelings of people involved, it was remarked by students that their project work had created respect for diversity. This meant that students recognised and appreciated individual differences among members in their group. Through working with team members who were chosen by each other, this encouraged each student to express his/her ideas without fear of being judged or rejected.

Another aspect of human rights generated from participating in the learning process in this subject was an increase in the visibility of values and acceptance. It was apparent from the students' interviews that they felt more valued by doing the projects since their ideas and opinions had been accepted by other group members. They felt that they had made a contribution to the success of the group. In addition to being valued by the group members, it was frequently remarked on that they felt valued after having the opportunity to give something back to the community.

II. Upper secondary level: Mattayom Suksa 5 (Grade 11)

A. Human rights-related learning themes/topics

This classroom observation took place in one Civic Duties classroom of Mattayom Suksa 5 (Grade 11) representing upper secondary level. This Civic Duties classroom was filled with forty-five students in this class and taught for one fifty-minute period per week. Throughout the semester, several human rights themes/topics were presented and discussed during the classroom period as explained in the following paragraphs.

➤ *Migrant workers*

The first topic presented in this class was about migrant workers since a recent killing committed by a Laotian migrant worker was readily discussed in the community. The lesson started by looking at a piece of this news on the projector screen. The teacher then summarised that the female employer was killed by a Laotian migrant worker in the district of Tha U-ten which is twenty-five kilometres from the school. The police had mentioned that the migrant worker had been furious due to low pay. Moreover, the migrant worker had always been looked down on by the female employer.

Through this news item, the teacher drew the students' attention to the issues about migrant workers. Students were allowed to work in groups formed by their preferences discussing four different topics created by the teacher. Each group discussed one topic chosen by themselves from the list given. These four different topics included i) the benefits of migrant workers, ii) the drawbacks of migrant workers, iii) If you are an employee, how should you treat your migrant worker/s?, and iv) If you are a migrant worker, how should you behave towards your employers?

After discussing within their groups, each group was required to present the result to the whole class. It was found from the presentation and discussion that students hold two different opinions towards migrant workers. It was believed by one group of the four that migrant workers were beneficial for the community while the other groups thought that migrant workers were dangerous and disadvantageous. The main benefits of migrant workers given by the group were that vacancies and skills gaps can be filled, economic growth can be sustained, and the country is enriched by cultural diversity. In relation to the disadvantages perceived, it was apparent that several concerns were raised including that depression of wages may occur,

increases in population of migrant workers can put pressure on public services, there may be integration difficulties and friction with local people, and this might cause crime and people trafficking.

However, the teacher did not judge whether the migrant workers were good or bad. Instead, she drew a conclusion by writing the word ‘Human Rights’ on the screen. She then made links between the situation of migrant workers and human rights. It was emphasised that there were numerous kinds of rights, and the rights of migrant workers were one of many rights people should bear in mind. Throughout the summary, the teacher also pointed out to students how students should treat migrant workers in order to meet the standards of the Act of human rights, as shown in the following.

“We are equal as human beings no matter who you are. The migrant worker has his rights to live, work, and get a fair salary while the employee herself had the right to live longer. The migrant worker had no rights to kill her. Some students may think that migrant workers do not belong to Thailand. They are alienated. I would like to mention here that we all are equal as human beings. Treat others like you want to be treated.” (OB: FT2)

➤ *Sugar factory*

Another topic discussed by students in this Civic Duties classroom was related to the effect of a sugar factory. This topic was controversial news widely discussed in the community. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher summarised to students the plan of one company to build a sugar factory in the neighbourhood area that would start its operation the end of the following year. With this, the longstanding demand of farmers of the region for a sugar factory would be realised. The establishment of a sugar factory had been the election plank of politicians of various parties for the past 20 years. About a decade ago, some politicians had declared that they would establish a sugar factory in this province and had bought 190 acres of land for the purpose at a throwaway price.

To continue the discussion, students were told to work in groups of three according to their preferences and to judge whether they agreed or disagreed with the new sugar factory and also to give their reasons. Ten out of the fifteen groups disagreed with the plan to build such a factory. Their reasons related to the effects on the community, such as potential effects on health, the environment, transportation, and local farming. At this point, the teacher highlighted

the effects a sugar factory might have on the local environment and discussed with students this issue. It was apparent that the students expressed concern related to the impact of the sugar factory on the forest area, the wet land in the area, and the atmosphere. As a result of the discussion, it was agreed that waste from a sugar factory can cause extensive damage to the environment in the form of water and air contamination. Generally, this kind of factory gives off harmful emissions to the atmosphere, contributing to global warming. To respond to the effects of the sugar factory on the local environment, the teacher presented to students the right to a clean and healthy environment. The importance of the right to a clean environment was suggested by the teacher as follows.

“A healthy environment is an essential aspect of the rights to life, not only for human beings but also for other animals on the planet. Violation, therefore, of the right to a healthy environment is potentially a violation of the basic right to life.” (OB: FT2)

In the case of the five groups of students who agreed with the plan to build a new sugar factory, they raised the issue about the benefit of the sugar factory on job opportunities creating a higher rate of employment. It was additionally mentioned that local people would not need to go to the big city like Bangkok to seek work if the sugar factory was built. At the end of this lesson, the teacher emphasised that students should take into consideration the advantages and disadvantages of the new sugar factory. Furthermore, she encouraged the students to be aware both of local people’s right to a clean and healthy environment and the benefits of such a sugar factory on local people.

➤ *Stateless Rohingya*

Stateless Rohingya were chosen as another discussion topic in this Civic Duties classroom due to two main reasons given by the subject teacher. One reason was to keep students up to date with current topical issues in the news related to human rights. The other reason was to raise students’ awareness of human rights issues in the neighbouring country like Myanmar. The discussion was divided into two parts including how students would like to be treated if they were Rohingya and the rights of refugees.

To understand the feelings of Rohingya people, the teacher described to students the life conditions and status of Rohingya at the present. She then urged students to think that if the students were Rohingya, how they would like to be treated. It was clear from the opinions shared in the whole class that the most crucial thing needed if they were Rohingya would be to have a place where their ethnic community could live. It was also found that the students would reject global sympathy and attention but they just wanted to live their simple lives sufficiently and peacefully. The following are some interesting opinions the students raised in the class.

“If I were Rohingya, I would prefer to stay in my ethnic community. I should have legal rights to be protected as a citizen of Myanmar since I was born in this country.” (OB: FS9)

“I do not like to be growing up in a country filled with conflicts, discrimination, and hatred. If the nation hates us and the country thinks we do not belong to them, I will move to other places. I just want to point out that I cannot choose where to be born but I can choose where to grow up.” (OB: FS13)

“I will ask for equity from all human beings in the world. We are also citizens of the world. We are indigenous people of Myanmar but the country does not need us. More importantly, we are seen as unwelcome guests in other countries. We just want a place to live.” (OB: MS6)

“We are a minority group of people in the wide world. We hope for a better life abroad. We do not need global sympathy and attention. We just need a simple place to live.” (OB: MS14)

To continue discussing the topic relating to the rights of stateless people, the teacher raised the issue about refugees and presented to students the number of refugees in the world. Then the teacher asked students ‘what should be the rights of refugees?’ As a result of the discussion, five rights were mentioned as the significant rights of refugees including the right to choose their place of residence, the right to move freely within the country, the right to seek asylum and find a safe place, the right to receive medical assistance; food aid; and to restore links with separated family, the right to seek and enjoy asylum from persecution. The teacher ended this lesson by pointing out the importance of knowing and understanding human rights

issues in both the local and global context. The main benefit of knowing human rights mentioned by the teacher was how knowing human rights helps protect people from human rights violations and encourages people to stand up for their own rights, and increases our responsibility to respect the rights of others.

➤ *Transgender people*

Like other topics previously discussed in this class, the topic of transgender people (in the sense of people who have actually had gender-reassignment) was presented to the class and students were encouraged to discuss it. At the beginning of the lesson, students were encouraged to share their feelings towards transgender people in Thailand. Interestingly, the teacher then made the connection between the concepts of citizenship and transgender people by asking students ‘What is the relationship between the concept of citizenship and transgender people in your opinion?’

Based on the opinions given by students, it was agreed that all transgender people are still human beings, even though they have lost their inborn gender identity. Therefore, the right to equal citizenship should include the issues regarding the exclusion and discrimination of transgender people in society. Some interesting opinions are shown as follows.

“We believe that transgender people are creative. Popular representations of transgender are apparent in TV drama, sitcom and reality TV. We think that people in society should bear in mind the relationship between sexuality and citizenship. We should accept and treat transgender people as equal to heterosexual people.” (OB: FS14)

“Based on our opinion, we suggest the school should enable students to recognise the differences found in society including transgender people. All people in society should be equipped with the concept of gender diversity.” (OB: FS25)

“We think that transgender people should be included in full citizenship in Thailand and in the world. However, this is being controversial and challenged by a number of different groups in society. We also want all people to enjoy equal rights and protection under the law regardless of their sex.” (OB: MS13)

The highlight of this lesson was marked when one female student shared her experience to the class about her older brother, who was bisexual, which, she thought, had some similarities with the issues faced by transgender people. She told how her parents were extremely furious as soon as they knew that her brother was not entirely heterosexual. Since then, her brother had escaped from home and never returned until now. Students then were allowed to express sympathy to this female student. The teacher concluded this lesson by signifying the importance of parents, classmates, co-workers, neighbours, and friends accepting and understanding transgender people.

B. Learning activities generating human rights awareness

In this Civic Duties classroom of Mattayom Suksa 5, it was found that students also learned aspects of human rights from the learning activities provided by the subject teacher. Derived from students' interview and observation data, awareness of human rights was generated through learning activities in the classrooms, the sense of students' opinions being valued and of respect for diversity.

The students' interview data made clear that they felt their opinions were valued by the teacher of the subject. The students mentioned in addition that the teacher ensured the full participation of everyone without exception. This was confirmed by the observation data that the teacher always allotted a certain period of time for students to express their ideas towards the topics or questions raised. Every student had the same importance, the same rights, and the same opportunities. This was meaningful to all the members in ways that contributed to the positive functioning of the class.

Regarding respect for diversity, it was found to a great extent that the discussion activities employed in this class helped students learn respect for diversity since a variety of opinions were given by students and such opinions were all listened to. In addition to the diversity of opinions respected, the discussion topics were also related to diversity, including ethnicity and gender-orientation. This made students aware of different forms of diversity around the world.

5.3.2 Outside the classroom

Throughout the data collection period of six months, it was evident in School B that human rights values were also encouraged and supported outside the Civic Duties classroom. Support for human rights was reflected through several aspects and activities outside the classroom including school governance, the school environment, extra-curricular activities, the flag ceremony, the student council, and relationships with local organisations. The following sections describe how School B valued human rights outside the classroom.

I. School governance

In terms of school governance, it was found that there were certain things School B did that were related to human rights. School governance, in particular, played a very crucial role in the way School B supported human rights. The following section displays the various elements of school governance through which human rights were meaningfully valued including: school values, school policies, and participation and transparency.

A. School Values

Regarding school values, it was apparent that School B had incorporated some aspects of human rights into their school values. Among the five values, including excellence, courage, creativity, respect, and friendship stated as the main values required to be promoted to students in School B, two values related to human rights were respect and friendship. Based on the interview data given by the School Director, there were two main reasons why respect and friendship were selected to be school values. As a result of an agreement made between the school boards and parents' representatives, students were required to be able to understand each other despite any difference. Therefore, respect and friendship were crucially needed. The other reason was closely related to the current situation in Thailand where contradiction and conflict exist widely. These particular values were expected to mould students to live their lives peacefully and fully after graduation.

However, it was apparent from the observation data that these two values were not promoted widely across the school. There were only a few places in School B where the school's values were promoted or advertised. These few places included the big board in front

of the school and the notice board in front of the Director's office. In addition, it was found from the researcher's participation in school events and activities that the five values were not frequently mentioned, showing the lack of effective support from the school. This was similar to the data from student interviews showed that most students interviewed did not even know or remember all the five values promoted. The following are extracts from two interviews showing students opinions on the school values.

"I do not even remember the five school values. I think five values are too many and the school has not placed an emphasis on them as far as I have experienced."
(IC: FS5)

"I think the school has not focused on the five values since I have been told some other things rather than these five values. I think the school has paid more attention on students' academic excellence rather than desirable students' behaviour." (IC: MS8)

Moreover, it was clear from teachers' opinions that they were not deeply aware of these five values either and that might affect the support for and implementation of such values to students. Supplementary to this, it was mentioned by the interviewed teachers that the teachers were not assigned to ensure that students were equipped with five school values. The teachers were only told to train students to be equipped with the five school values without any supporting action plans or any example of activities created. That might influence the level of success of the implementation of the school values. The following are two opinions of school staff regarding school values. One was the Deputy Director responsible for Student Behaviour and the other was the Head of Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Culture.

"I do agree with these five school values particularly the last two related to human rights. However, I have found some problems regarding the implementation of these five values to students. I think the school is not sincere enough to support students to learn these five values. I have talked with some teachers and they do not even have ideas how to incorporate the school values in their lessons. To support these five values outside the classroom, I cannot see any formal support from the school regarding the school values. The school administrators did not even mention these five values to students. I am a new

school member at this school. I cannot do much regarding the school policy or plan.” (FG: SS43)

“When this set of school values was launched three years ago, that created a surprise for me since these five values were fundamental values students should be equipped in my personal view. I played a very active role at the beginning supporting all teaching and non-teaching staff to promote these five values to students across the school. Unfortunately, I was not fully supported by the majority of teachers. I was told that the teaching responsibilities were heavy enough. Teachers should pay serious attention to the job of teaching in the classroom rather than any other responsibilities. Since then, I have not seen sincere support regarding these five school values.” (FG: SS45)

B. School policies

Regarding school policies, it was apparent from the data derived from analysing the school policies and school administrative documents that some school policies were based on human rights principles including participation, accountability, and non-discrimination. These school policies were the student discipline and behaviour policy, and the equality and non-discrimination policies. The details of each policy will be elaborated in the following sections.

In terms of the student discipline and behaviour policy, it was found that all the kinds of good student behaviour desired were formally stated in the school rules given in the student handbook. Every student was given this book as a comprehensive guide covering a wide range of topics relating to school discipline. Based on the interview data from two teachers whose names were written as the producing team of this handbook, it was claimed that all topics relating to school discipline found in the book were derived from agreements made between the school board, school administrators, representatives of teachers, representatives of parents, and representatives of students. Additionally, this handbook was typically used as the reference point when promoting good behaviour to the students or when bad behaviour was found. As often heard during the school assembly every morning at School B, the duty teachers normally reminded students to go back to read the student handbook again in order to behave properly as written in the book.

To maintain good school discipline among students, it was found throughout the six-month data collection that two major ways were employed, promoting good behaviour and inspecting for bad behaviour. In the case of promoting good behaviour, it was found that two

different ways were chosen. Presenting examples of good student behaviour was normally done during the morning assembly or flag ceremony which all students were required to attend. As observed, students with good behaviour were asked to present themselves in front of the other students, showing role models of various kinds of good behaviour, particularly wearing appropriate hair styles and school uniforms. In addition to showing the other students good examples through oral presentations, good examples of student behaviour were also displayed in the form of poster presentations on notice boards around the school. These posters included images of students with appropriate hairstyles, correct school uniform, school bags, queuing, having good manners in the classroom, and many others. Moreover, it was interesting that the students demonstrating the desired behaviour were acknowledged and recorded in a range of ways including letters to parents, phone calls home, and oral praise.

Regarding inspecting for bad behaviour, it was clear that this kind of process was often used so as to protect from or deal with student bad behaviours. The inspection process was carried out by the advisors of each class with the assistance of the student council advisors and members of the student council. Throughout this process, individual students were inspected by the advisor of a particular aspect of school discipline assigned by the student council, including advisors for school uniforms, hairstyles, weapons, and drugs. Based on the observation data, school uniforms and hairstyles were frequently inspected. Students with inappropriate behaviour were normally sent to the student council which is made up of students. So students were involved in disciplining other students. The Department of Student affairs, led by the two main advisors of the student council, then took a disciplinary role dealing with those students who were misbehaving. To modify and ultimately change students' bad behaviour, there were four different stages starting from verbal warnings for the first three instances of misbehaviour, informing parents for the fourth, setting a fixed period of exclusion for the fifth, and permanent exclusion for the sixth instance of misbehaviour even if it was for minor misbehaviour such as having an unacceptable hairstyle. In the case of an unacceptable hairstyle, the teachers normally took direct action and cut the hair of students themselves on the spot whenever they found students with an inappropriate hairstyle.

In response to the maintenance of discipline through the inspection and enforcement of students' behaviour, different opinions were expressed by both students and teachers. Among the teachers interviewed, two different opinions were found towards the disciplinary use of regular inspections. Based on the interview data given by the advisors of the student council, it was believed that the maintenance of discipline through inspections of students' behaviour

helped deter students' misbehaviour even though it might take time and that might interfere with the relationship between teachers and students. The following are extracts from the interviews with the student council's advisors regarding the discipline inspections of students and behaviour;

"I have been using the inspection process to shape students misbehaviour for more than ten years. I think this kind of process is not the most effective but it is the most suitable for students in this school. Since there are more than a thousand students in our school, it is crucially needed to do this inspection process during the school assembly in the morning when all students gather at the same time." (FG: SS46)

"I know that this inspection process takes a long time since all students are required to be checked. Sometimes, the first period of the students' learning schedule is taken. That might irritate some teachers and some students. It has been reported to me that some teachers do not agree with this kind of inspection. However, no one is volunteering to work in relation to students' behaviour since you have to deal with various forms of students' misbehaviour." (FG: SS40)

Contrary to these opinions of two student council advisors, some disagreement over the disciplinary inspection of student behaviour was found in the interview data from some teachers. It was strongly stated that the way discipline was maintained through this inspection of student behaviour was too aggressive for the students and that it might create a reaction of hatred in the students. The teachers interviewed also mentioned that this kind of inspection can be carried out but it should not be done as often as it was normally done. Some significant concerns were shown by two junior teachers, one senior teacher, and one administrator as follows.

"I think this inspection of student discipline and behaviour is hard since all students in the school are required to be inspected at the same time. It takes time and many teachers are needed. As far as I have seen, most students do not like this kind of inspection as they feel that this inspection process is boring and stressful. Some students even do not come to school on the day the inspection is organised. Some students feel humiliated when they were spotted during the inspection process particularly the hair inspection. I do not agree with cutting students' hair just because their hair is a little bit long. It is not a good image for

a teacher to walk around with scissors in his hands. That has frightened students. Some students are afraid of attending the flag ceremony because of this inspection of students' discipline and behaviour." (FG: SS39)

"I understand that students with good behaviour are desirable but we have many other options to help students change their behaviour. This kind of inspection is not appropriate for students in my opinion. I do not say that it is not good but I can say that it is not effective. I still see the same students repeatedly misbehave. If such inspection was good enough, the number of students with misbehaviour would decrease. I think many teachers do not agree with this inspection but they are afraid of interfering with the duty of the two student council advisors. They have been closely working with student behaviour for many years." (FG: SS42)

"I totally do not agree with the policy of inspecting student discipline and behaviour especially hair inspection. As can be seen, teachers from the Department of Student affairs, student council advisors, and members of the student council regularly conduct hair inspections and those students whose hairstyles do not comply with the school rules are given haircuts on the spot by the teachers themselves throughout the semester. These students end up with poorly-cut hair, serving to warn their schoolmates of the consequences of not conforming to the rules. That is unacceptable for me." (FG: SS47)

"I as one of the administrative team have received complaints from both students and parents about the very strict rules for school uniforms and hair styles. I have realised that students want to be given more opportunity to express themselves and participate in the decision making on matters that concern them or discussing rights and responsibilities. But some senior teachers mention that after all, learning about rights and responsibilities can never start too young. I have tried hard the previous semester to support any activities generating awareness of human rights, equality, justice, or democracy in school. Only a few teachers support me (most of them are junior teachers). As far as I have heard, many senior teachers are afraid of the aggressiveness. They hold the belief that if students know about equality and their rights, students might do things against the school rules and regulations in order to protect their rights. I think it is such a nonsense opinion. Teachers do not want students to obtain democratic ways of thinking." (FG: SS38)

Similarly, it was reflected from students' interviews that they held a negative attitude towards the discipline inspections of their behaviour. The students interviewed mentioned in addition the humiliation they felt caused by this inspection. This humiliation damaged the

students' self-esteem and sometimes this made students embarrassed, scared or isolated. The following are some interesting extracts from the interview data displaying the students' humiliation from this kind of inspection in school.

"I am poor and my family is poor. I have one school uniform. After arriving home every day, I have to wash them and dry them because I have to wear them again the next day. Sometimes, I do not wear socks to school since they are not dry enough. I have been warned several times but I do not know what to do. I want the teachers to understand me. I was told to stand up while other friends kept sitting." (IC: MS5)

"I was punished, made to stand alone, since I have not changed the level strips. I am an M.5 student. I must have two blue stripes but I have only one strip on my shirt collar. I think my case is minor misbehaviour. I should not be punished that way." (IC: MS6)

"In my personal view, it is not the matter of school uniforms that influences students' learning ability or intelligence. I wear slippers and jeans to school and I can be a good student. I need fair and appropriate punishment and that should be commensurate with the cause." (IC: MF5)

"I saw students with inappropriate school uniforms stood in front of the rest of the students as punishment. I know that the teachers want the other students to learn a valuable lesson from those misbehaving. One of my friends was one who was spotted this morning. She just came to school late this morning since she went to see the doctor before going to school. She told the teacher at the school gate but her reason was just ignored. That made her felt humiliated and she was disappointed with that teacher for not listening to her reason." (IC: MS4)

Furthermore, it was found from students' interview and observation data that some forms of human rights violations were found during the flag ceremony in addition to the school inspection. These forms of human rights violations were punitive, insulting, humiliating to students, forcing them to do things against their will, making them obey rules they considered arbitrary and unfair. These human rights violations were committed by some school administrators and some senior teachers. Among several forms of human rights violations, punishment was considered as the worst case, based on students' interview data. Punishment

ranged from the students being called names by their outstanding physical features or personal characteristics, having to kneel in front of other students, and standing under the strong sunlight, running around the football field, and having their hair cut. According to the students' opinions, being punished by the teachers in front of other students was humiliating and such punishment was unacceptable to the students. The following come from the interview data of both teachers and students towards the forms of punishments found during the flag ceremony;

"I personally think that punishment is not effective in terms of changing students' behaviour. Any forms of punishment should be deleted from my school even from the Thai educational system. Some forms of punishment are too aggressive for students." (IC: FS8)

"I agree with the teachers to employ some forms of punishment with students with misbehaviour. However, the form of punishment used must be reasonable. Teachers should punish students with kindness not aggressiveness. I have known that many students are not happy with teachers' punishment but they are afraid to express such disagreement." (IC: FS10)

"As far as I have heard, many teachers do not agree with the kind of punishment carried out by the two student council advisors and their team. However, no one wants to interrupt them. They have been working and dealing with students' behaviour for more than ten years. They have power in the school. Even though I am one of the school administrators, I have not had enough power to warn teachers since I have been here in this school." (IC: FT2)

"I totally disagree with the punishments found during the flag ceremony. I would call these forms of punishments violence. Some forms of the punishments are too violent for students especially kneeling under the strong sunlight. Many students told me that they were not happy with such punishments. If I had enough power, I would stop such nonsense punishment and I would make myself work closely with the students on their behaviour. I think punishment does not work to change students' misbehaviour at present." (IC: MT5)

In addition to the school policy regarding student discipline and behaviour, other policies related to human rights were the equal opportunities and anti-discrimination policies. In connection with the equal opportunities and anti-discrimination policies, School B supported

another two practices related to human rights including organising mixed-ability classrooms, and promoting an understanding of different cultures, views and beliefs. On the subject of organising mixed-ability classrooms, it was found that only regular classes were filled with mixed ability students. These mixed ability classrooms were combinations of students with different learning achievements, ethnicities, and genders. It was confirmed by the Head of Department of Academic affairs that such classrooms allowed students to develop their academic and social skills. It was additionally mentioned that these mixed ability classrooms increased interaction among students particularly when students with different learning ability helped each other, as shown in the following interview extract.

“We have been organising mixed-ability classes in the regular classrooms for five years. Based on the report from the teachers, the overall learning achievement was higher and students also gave the positive feedback.” (IC: MT8)

However, it was found that the school also organised special programmes for students with outstanding abilities. These special classrooms served only students with academic excellence, such as were on the EIS programme (English for Integrated Study) and Gifted Student programme. To get on to these special programmes required a special application process and parents had to pay extra money for the programmes. It was found from the observation and interview data that varying levels of support were found between the special programmes and regular programmes. Regarding classrooms, students on the special programmes were placed in separate classrooms with air-conditioners and modern facilities while students of the regular programmes were placed in conventional classrooms as found in general public schools. This created a sense of inequality among the students of the regular programme as shown in the following interviews.

“I’m speaking in regards to the special programmes only offered in my school. I am a student of the common programme. I understand that people can take advantage of the best educational opportunities if it is affordable for them. However, I do not see the importance of having the special programmes in the school. We are a school in a rural area not an urban area. Special programmes do not fit with the needs of parents and children in the area. Importantly, that may create a sense of injustice among students and parents.” (IC: FS12)

In relation to promoting an understanding of different cultures, views and beliefs, it was evident that the school was committed to supporting a variety of activities as stated in the school policy documents. However, among the wide range of activities found in the school policies, only three plans were organised to promote an understanding of different cultures, views and beliefs, based on the observation data throughout the six-month data collection period. These three plans were i) to make an exhibition of photographs of people of different ethnicities and cultures in ASEAN countries (Association of South East Asian Nations), ii) display and celebrate the different festivals and cultures of the world, and iii) hold an awareness-raising week.

The exhibition of photographs of people of different ethnicities and culture in ASEAN was organised in order to help students recognise the essential humanity and value of different types of people in the region as stated by the junior teacher who was the head of the organising team. There were six different topics displayed in this exhibition including different ethnicities, food, costumes, languages, religions, and politics and economies. Based on the evaluation report of this activity, 60% of students attended the exhibition and positive comments were given by the participants. In congruence with the evaluation report, the following interviews revealed the students' attitudes towards the exhibition of the ten countries in ASEAN.

"I do like the photographs of people, food, and costumes in the ten countries. I have become more respectful of those differences found after attending the exhibition. I think I will have chances to interact with people in the ten countries in the future. This kind of exhibition not only helps me see differences among the people in ASEAN countries but I also see some forms of similarities. I think people should appreciate others' cultural, political and social differences. All differences in the world should be valued in my opinion." (IC: FS14)

"I think this exhibition is successful in terms of providing students with information about the variety of people and cultures in the ten countries of ASEAN. This exhibition has shrunken the big picture book of ten countries in ASEAN. I just walked around the exhibition for 30 minutes and I could see the lives of people in ten countries. I think showing pictures is more effective than just telling students to value others' differences." (IC: MS16)

"I am more aware of the different ethnicities, language, and religions in the countries of ASEAN. This exhibition gives students the opportunity to see people

who speak, dress, and believe differently from themselves. I think this exhibition can help humanise types of people that students have never had an opportunity to personally interact with. We should value people from different cultures.” (IC: FS16)

In addition to helping students appreciate different aspects of lives in the ten countries of ASEAN, students were also given opportunities to explore the wider aspects of differences found globally through the ‘Festivals and Cultures of the World’ activities. Several festivals and cultures from around the world were displayed and demonstrated throughout the semester including learning to say hello in ten different languages in the world, kinds of dance around the world, national flags around the world, and fairy tales around the world, dining etiquette around the world, Christmas Day, Chinese New Year, and Halloween. To organise this set of cultural activities, a group of junior teachers was given authority to plan, create, and carry out the activities with the help and cooperation from students. Throughout participating in the activities, students were provided with a variety of activities such as painting the various national flags, matching countries with their flags, making Chinese lanterns, tasting roast turkey, taking their picture with Santa Claus and a snowman, watching role plays about famous fairy tales in the world, and learning to dance in different styles from around the world. Based on the interview data from a junior teacher who was one of the organising team, this set of activities served as a method for demonstrating to students that people of all genders, ethnicities, and appearances can have a positive influence on the world and deserve to be respected and emulated. Regarding student feedback, it was apparent that these cultural activities helped students realise the positive contributions of cultural differences in the world and students were more likely to respect and value such diverse cultural backgrounds.

Apart from the two main cultural activities previously mentioned, awareness raising days were done in order to help students to be aware of particular issues assigned to those particular days. These included: World Freedom Day on the 9th November, Universal Children's Day on 20th November, International Day for the Elimination of Violence against Women on 25th November, Human Rights Day on 10th December, National Human Trafficking Awareness Day on 11th January, Street Children’s Day on 31st January, World Hijab Day on 1st February, International Day of Zero Tolerance to Female Genital Mutilation on 6th February, World Day of Social Justice on 20th February, International Women's Day on 8th March, and International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination on 21st March. To present these awareness raising days, one student was assigned to talk to the other students in the school

during the flag ceremony about each awareness raising day. It was mentioned that the awareness raising days were selected using two criteria. They had to be international awareness days that were related to human rights, justice, and equality. The following extracts from interviews with the students showed how they felt towards these awareness-raising-day presentations.

“It is such a very informative activity in my opinion. Those international awareness days’ presentations are interesting in terms of their importance and contributions related to human rights. I had never known about these awareness raising days before and I had never realised about them. I like the story of National Human Trafficking Awareness Day because this day highlighted for me the effects of human rights abuses found in the world. I also think that the presentation of these international awareness days was another important source for students to learn human rights or other topics related to human rights.” (IC: MS15)

“Those international awareness days are very new to me. They are very important in terms of human rights and issues related to human rights. This might also help students to be aware of the major human rights issues in the past through the story of these international awareness days.” (IC: FS18)

C. Participation and transparency

Regarding participation and transparency, it was found from the school policy documents that School B supported full participation and transparency in all school affairs and practices. However, it was found based on the data obtained that the school did not show full respect to all students’ voices in school. It was apparent that the decision making process regarding any school affairs and policies mainly involved the school administrators, school boards, and teachers. Students were not allowed to take part in any school meetings, even the meetings related to student affairs and benefits. Throughout the six month data collection period, three different topics related to students were discussed in the school meetings including students’ hairstyles, punishment for students displaying some forms of misbehaviour, and the policy on student activities. When the result of the school meetings related to student affairs and benefits came out, such results were announced officially by the duty teachers during the flag ceremony in the morning. Students who did not attend the flag ceremony might miss the chance to listen to the new or updated school policies relating to themselves. Students were given very limited

chances to respond or give feedback on the policies launched by the school. The students' interview data showed that students were afraid to give any opinions towards any school policies because students were afraid of being blamed and punished. This is shown in the following extracts of students' interviews.

"To be honest, I think the school administrators have the authority to design the school by themselves. I do not see the importance of how my feedback will help shape the school policies. If I give any feedback, I will be spotted by other students and teachers. The school administrators might not be happy with my opinions. They might blame me." (FG: ST14)

"I think students should be involved in any school policies particularly policies related to students' benefits. Representatives of students should be given chances to present ideas or opinions on behalf of all students in school. I really want to take part in the school meetings discussing the topics related to students because I want to tell teachers my needs and what I want school to be in my opinion. Anyway, it is difficult because teachers might not be happy with students' opinions because the students' opinions might be different from the teachers' opinions. That might disappoint the teachers especially the administrators." (FG: ST4)

"I think the freedom to express opinions in my school is very limited due to the control exerted by some senior teachers. I mean some senior teachers do not listen to students since they think that they are teachers and teachers are always superior to students. I sometimes want to approach the director and tell him what I want as a student but I am afraid that he will not listen to me. I was taught that good students must follow the teachers' instructions. If I say something against the teachers, I will be considered as a bad student. I think some senior teachers are overpowerful in the school and they do not listen to others' opinions." (FG: ST22)

Regarding transparency, it was found that School B did not implement its transparency policy in full, which contradicted the school policy documents. School B did not provide sufficient channels for school members to critique the school policies or to take part in the revision of school policies. In the students' case, they were given restricted space to express their thoughts or opinions towards the school policies or practices since the student council in School B did not serve as the linking channel between students and school administrators.

Furthermore, it was found that not all agreements or notes made from the school meetings, staff meetings, or school board meetings were shared with the whole school community. Only some approved documents were allowed to be announced publicly to students throughout the school. This made students feel uncomfortable with some urgent and unclear practices that were launched by the school without informing students beforehand. Some major concerns made by students regarding the transparency situation in School B were as follows.

“I personally think that the school policies are mysterious. We are told what the school would like us to know. I think the school must be clear with students about what the school is going to do. For instance, some classes were required to go to school during weekends for rehearsing the parade for the community festival without asking about students’ willingness. Those students were told only one day before the rehearsal days. That is not fair on the students. Any affairs related to students should be announced formally and students should have the opportunity to decide whether to participate or to not participate.” (IC: MS17)

“I think the school rarely updates things in school for students. The teacher might think that it is not necessary to let students know about the result of any school meetings. They seem to be secret, I mean, the result of any school meetings. Also, students have only limited access to school information particularly school budget and school policies. We do not even know sets of school activities we have to do throughout the semester. Actually, the teacher should tell us the semester plan at the beginning of the semester so we can know exactly which activities we are required to take part in. Furthermore, students are rarely given chances to evaluate school activities. I have done evaluation forms in some school activities not all school activities. I think the school should value students’ feedback or comments.” (IC: FS21)

In addition to students’ negative opinions towards the lack of transparency of the school, some junior teachers also gave some comments on school practices on transparency, as follows.

“I think the school is not aware of engaging students in all school affairs. Even transparency, students are not sufficiently provided with channels to access school information. Therefore, transparency is crucially needed in this school especially for the significant information relating to students themselves. In my personal view, a summary of the results of all school meetings should be

announced to all students in school. In addition, students should be given opportunities to review and criticise school policies or practices. Actually, students can play significant roles as good monitors for the school. Students can give the best feedback for the school.” (IC: FT3)

II. School environment

In relation to the school environment, it was apparent that School B valued human rights and that was reflected through how school organised its physical environment. However, there was a contradiction found in implementing school policies regarding its physical environment.

Based on the interview data from the school administrators, School B organised its physical environment based on the values of respect, equality, and non-discrimination. These values were reflected through the school buildings, facilities and equipment. Regarding school buildings, the interview and observation data indicated that students of all levels appreciated the school buildings in two different aspects including their accessibility and friendliness. In terms of accessibility, it was found that all school buildings were accessible to all school members and visitors. As stated by the Deputy Director of Student Affairs, the school paid attention to minimise the disadvantages suffered by students using the school building such as making the buildings entrance broad enough for many students to enter at the same time, providing some extra lighting to make the buildings brighter, making the room numbers clear and big enough for students and visitors to notice, keeping the buildings clean all the time. Apart from the accessibility of school buildings, students remarked that the school buildings in School B were sufficient, friendly, and supportive for student learning. As seen, many rooms were provided for students of all interests to practise their talents and skills including a music room, art gallery room, meditation room, laboratory, Botany room, Zoology room, a local wisdom room, and many others. Furthermore, the school buildings looked friendly through the welcoming messages placed in front of the buildings. It was found that the same patterns of welcoming messages were used for all the buildings in school. In addition to the welcoming messages in front of the school buildings, welcoming messages were found in front of the school office and students’ classrooms. Students remarked that they feel more welcome and more comfortable entering the school offices partly because of these kind and nice messages found in front of the buildings and the rooms.

In terms of school facilities and equipment, the students’ interview data revealed that both adequate and inadequate facilities and equipment were found in School B. It was

mentioned by the students that the school provided sufficient and effective instructional facilities and equipment for students in the regular programmes such as visual aids, textbooks, laboratories, furniture, and other teaching and learning material needed. In the case of special programmes, students were provided with special classrooms filled with air-conditioning, computers, and other modern visual aids. In terms of access to other school equipment and resources, students of special programmes were given equal opportunities to use school equipment and resources such as a gymnasium, library, canteen and playgrounds. However, it was found as one of the students' major concerns that some other facilities and equipment in school were not adequate and that had a considerable impact on students in different aspects including their health, behaviour, and degree of engagement. Particularly, it was strongly stated that the toilets and cold water drinking dispensers were not enough for students and that directly affected students' lives in school. Based on the observation data, there were five male and five female toilets and only three cold water dispensing points were located in the whole school. These inadequate toilets and cold water dispensers were unable to serve the large numbers of children with complex needs. In addition to the toilets and cold water dispensers, sports equipment was also found as another inadequate facility in School B. It was evident from the informal interviews with students that the availability and distribution of sports equipment was problematic. In other words, the available sports equipment was restricted only for certain groups of students to use. These groups of students included students who were familiar with the physical education teachers and students who were sport players for school. These two groups of students were given the authority to take care of school sports equipment. This created a sense of inequality for some students in school. It was reported by the students that the school was not aware of this issue and those students were afraid to inform the teachers or school administrators.

III. Morning assembly or flag ceremony

In addition to learning human rights inside the classrooms, it was mentioned by students in School B that the flag ceremony or morning assembly was another main source for learning human rights both in positive and negative ways. At this point, the flag ceremony was regarded as the place where students were kept informed and updated on human rights issues or news. Throughout the six-month data collection period, it was found that a certain group of junior teachers were in charge of presenting or delivering a variety of human rights issues or news to

students during the flag ceremony. Based on the interview data obtained from these junior teachers, it was expressly stated that presenting human rights to students required preparation and deep understanding. Furthermore, human rights topics were considered controversial and many teachers preferred keeping such topics unmentioned to students. The following junior teacher's interview data revealed the unwillingness of other teachers to present topics or news related to human rights to students during the flag ceremony;

"It is quite hard to explain why other teachers have refused to talk to students about topics related to human rights during the flag ceremony. As far as I have known, topics related to human rights were difficult to explain and the process to make them understandable for students needs preparation and thorough understanding. Furthermore, many senior teachers think that these kinds of topics are not suitable to talk about with students at present since they are afraid of the military government. I think that is complete nonsense. Those senior teachers definitely misunderstand human rights. They just think that human rights are against the military government." (FG: SS42)

"We volunteered to work as the duty teachers during the flag ceremony since it is another good chance for us to familiarise students with human rights. Learning human rights or democracy inside the classroom is not enough for students in my opinion. Actually, teaching human rights or democracy is the duty of all teachers in school. But I cannot convince every teacher to be aware of HRE in school. Different teachers believe differently. Many teachers think that human rights topics are very sensitive in the current situation of the country." (FG: SS48)

Regarding human rights topics or news presented, the topics or news chosen were closely related to students' lives or the students' community particularly the human rights issues found in the students' community such as problems from teenage gangsters, local elections, migrant workers, environmental problems and human rights abuses in community. To present such human rights topics, students were told the story of the news at the beginning and the teachers ended by pointing out the lesson learned from the topics or news presented.

IV. Extra-curricular activities

Regarding extra-curricular activities, it was clear that few extra-curricular activities related to human rights were organised in School B. These few extra-curricular activities were supported

by a particular group of teachers. However, the students remarked that these activities helped them learn further aspects of human rights in addition to learning human rights in the classroom. The two main extra-curricular activities organised were election activities and student clubs.

A. Election activities

In relation to election activities, a wide range of elections was organised including elections of head students of each class and of the heads of the student clubs, an election for the Head of student activities, and for the student council. This set of elections was highlighted by the students as another major activity providing opportunities for them to learn about democracy, bringing it alive through school elections and the election process, and making students feel valued.

In terms of providing opportunities for students to learn about democracy, it was evident from the students' interviews that students mostly learned about democracy through participating in election activities organised in school. It was pointed out that election activities helped students to be aware of the democratic system and its importance. The following interview data obtained from students explicitly showed the importance of election activities in School B regarding learning democracy.

"It was my first time experiencing election activities. This kind of election was not organised in my primary school. I have been told about democracy and I have heard about democracy. However, I have never had the chance to take part in any activities closely related to democracy like this student council election." (IC: FS24)

"A set of elections organised in the school has emphasised to me the importance of democracy. This is influential on young people like me to be the democratic citizens in the future." (IC: MS21)

Apart from learning democracy, it was apparent from the students' interviews that students felt the real elections and the election process in school were considerably different from elections and the election process as found in textbooks. It was additionally reported by

the students that they felt as excited as if they were in a real national election and that significantly influenced students' willingness to vote. This also marked the importance of first-hand learning about democracy and human rights in school as found in the following interview.

"I do appreciate having an authentic voting experience. This authentic voting experience gets students involved and ready to be active citizens. This can develop a sense of civic responsibility for students in my opinion." (IC: FS23)

The last benefit of election activities raised by the students was their ability to make students feel valued. It was mentioned frequently that students felt valued when their voices and rights were counted through the voting process organised. It was stated that the level of students' engagement in school activities or affairs would increase when students had more ownership of their school community. This was reflected in the following extracts from the students' interview data.

"I really like election activities organised in school especially the student council election. I feel good when my rights or my voice was recognised. I feel that I belong to this school." (CI: MS24)

"I think election activities play an important role in school regarding the engagement of students. I feel valued when my voice is counted and my voice will contribute to school." (IC: MS28)

B. Students clubs

Regarding student clubs, it was found based on the observation and interview data that there were few student clubs related to human rights. Most of the clubs were mainly organised to support students to practise academic excellence. Furthermore, students were not allowed to form their own clubs without the school's permission. It was found based on the interview data obtained from the Deputy Director of Academic affairs, as follows, that the school had the policy of placing the emphasis on improving students' academic learning achievement so other student activities thought to be irrelevant to students' academic learning were accordingly withdrawn.

“Not only human rights activities, other school activities are mostly cancelled due to the policy of the school administrators. The school academic achievement is the ultimate goal mentioned by the School Director. The score of The Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) must be higher than the previous year. All teachers in the school are required to put their efforts into teaching students to be able to do the test effectively. Learning in the classroom is considered the most important for students at present. Other school activities are consequently cancelled.” (FG: SS38)

In response to this policy given by the school administrators, it was found, based on the interview data that both teachers and students commented on the disagreeable aspects of such a policy. As for the students, most students interviewed expressed strong disagreement towards the decrease of student activities in school, as in the following;

“I have just learned that many student activities have been cancelled due to the recent policy of the school administrators. I totally disagree with this policy. I myself would like to be good at academic subjects. However, I also would like to be good at social skills. I think the school should balance both academic and social skills. Students should be taught the academic subjects and students also should be trained in life skills as well.” (IC: MS17)

“That is not good policy in my opinion. I myself really enjoy participating in student clubs. I like the sports club and music club. Last semester, I and my team joined the futsal (five-a-side football mainly played indoor) league organised by the futsal club. I have just been told that no more futsal¹ league will be organised this semester. I think the school should support a variety of student clubs not just only student clubs related to academic subjects.” (IC: FS27)

In the case of the teachers, it was reflected from the teachers’ interviews that they did not agree with the policy regarding decreasing student activities. It was additionally mentioned that such a policy was mainly based on an agreement among the school administrators and heads of departments. In other words, the policy was not approved by all teachers in school. This resulted in a misunderstanding of how the teachers should organise clubs for students as found in the following interview data.

¹ Futsal is a form of indoor football and is played between two teams of five players.

"I have just been told by my Head of Department that students' academic excellence should be highly supported and promoted this semester. Therefore, other student clubs or student activities should be eliminated or decreased. I do not agree with such a policy since students do not come to school only for learning academic subjects. Students should learn many other skills such as sports, music, social and life skills, or occupational skills. Different students learn differently. The school should provide a variety of learning resources for students with multiple kinds of intelligence." (IC: FT7)

"That is too bad for students. Do you know? I have just removed my rubric club since I was told to set up the mathematics club for students who are good at learning mathematics. In my personal views, students can learn maths adequately in the classroom. Students should learn some other things apart from academic subjects outside the classroom. Student clubs should be placed where students can enjoy activities that match their interests. The school should offer a variety of activities for students with different interests." (IC: MT4)

Regarding student clubs, it was found that most of the clubs were academic clubs which helped students learn more about the subjects. Only two human rights-related student clubs were allowed to organise for students because other academic clubs could no longer accept more members. These two student clubs were the human rights club and the youth club. It was apparent that these two clubs were regarded by students to be another learning source for human rights in School B. Importantly, these two student clubs benefited both members of the clubs and other students in school.

The human rights club was founded by one junior teacher who teaches Civic Duties to students in Mattayom Suksa 2 (Grade 8) and Social Studies to students in Mattayom Suksa 3 (Grade 9). It was stated by the teacher that this club was organised in order to ignite students' discussions regarding human rights issues both inside and outside school. Furthermore, this student club also provided a space for students who were interested in human rights or topics related to human rights to gather and do activities together. Throughout the semester, students in this club have carried out several activities regarding human rights including promoting and advertising the student council election, organising an essay writing competition on the topic 'How to make the world better place to live?', watching and discussing movies related to human rights, organising activities on Human Rights Day on December 10th, and organising a visit to a local administration organisation to learn about cases of human rights violations in the community.

Another student club related to human rights was the Youth club. This club was founded by the Head of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Culture and two junior teachers of this department. It was stated by the club advisor that this club was organised for students to entertain and relax themselves through joining a variety of activities, such as playing games, listening to music, watching movies, and volunteering. The following are club members' interviews regarding their feelings towards the club.

"I think it is a great opportunity to have fun, to meet friends, and to make new friends in a safe environment." (IC: FS16)

"This club provided a valuable social experience, allowing students opportunities to socialise with other friends." (IC: MS22)

Even though there were only two human rights-related student clubs in school, it was mentioned by members and advisors of the club that the clubs were significant in supporting and promoting human rights in school. It was additionally stated by the advisors of the clubs that the clubs more or less have ignited the interest and awareness of human rights in school. It was also reported by the Head of Department of Students' affairs that human rights-related student clubs have created a new dimension of learning human rights outside the classroom for students in School B. The following are extracted from some interview data related to the two human rights-related student clubs.

"I can say that it is a good start for our school to have student clubs that promote human rights. I know that some senior teachers do not agree with our missions. However, I and my students in the club do not take it seriously. We just do our best and I think we have met with a certain success. I mean we have supported the student council election in school by organising the election advertising campaign and the number of voters is higher than the previous year. I and my students organised an essay writing competition on the topic 'How to make the world better place to live?' I have read all 43 essays. I like reading those essays because the students mentioned about democracy, peace and human rights as the major factors for building a better world." (FG: SS42)

"I am a member of the youth club. I think we have done some activities related to human rights particularly volunteering activities. I think that I have raised my self-esteem and I also have gained pride because I have the opportunity to put something back into the school. I also have seen that non-member students are more interested in joining our volunteer activities. I think it is a good start to sacrifice oneself for others and that should be expanded to the wider community." (FG: ST7)

"I have been told that students are more interested in the two clubs and I think it may result from their activities. I have seen non-members of clubs joining in the club activities especially essay writing, doing volunteering work, and marching around the school advertising the student council election. I can feel the democratic environment in the school. Students are more active in the past in joining in the voting in school because of the election advertising campaign of the human rights club. I think the two human rights-related clubs are different from other student clubs in the school. I think students would like to learn some other things in addition to their academic subject or academic clubs. The activities of the two clubs were related to students' lives and that might interest them. I am quite sure that the two clubs will be more accepted in the school and I think the clubs can make a huge contribution to school particularly in terms of supporting democracy and human rights." (FG: SS38)

V. The student council

Apparently, the student council was the biggest student organisation in School B. Students remarked that this student organisation played a lesser role in school since the student council was not given full authority to work on behalf of all students. In relation to human rights, it was found from its documents that the student council was organised to support democracy and human rights for students in school. However, a contradiction was found between its documents and its practice. The following are aspects of human rights as found in the practice of the student council in School B and its constraints. These aspects included its principles, its administration, and its activities.

Regarding its principles, it was formally written in the handbook of the student council that the school council plays an integral and important role in the school community based on four key main principles, including freedom, friendship, respect, and democracy. However, based on the observation data, it was clear that neither the school nor the student council promoted these four principles to the school members. In other words, the four main principles were not publicly mentioned or advertised among students in either spoken or written form. It

was similar to the following interview data obtained from students which show that they did not even know these four main principles;

"I have never heard about these four main principles underlying the administration of the student council before. I do not see any documents or school board promoting these four principles." (IC: MS29)

In this case, it was explained by the Head of the student council that it was told by the student council advisors not to emphasise and advertise these four principles widely since that might create difficulties for the affairs of the student council. This was similar to the following interview data given by the main advisor of the student council who clearly did not see the point of advertising the four principles of the student council more widely.

"I think the members of the student council should be aware of these four principles but I do not see the importance of informing the four principles to other school members especially other students. I think most teachers in the school know about these four principles. The student council should pay more attention to school affairs and ignore unimportant things like promoting or advertising such principles." (IC: FT11)

In relation to its administration, it was clearly stated in the student council handbook that the student council provides a representative structure through which students can debate issues of concern and undertake initiatives of benefit to the school and the wider community. Furthermore, it was also remarked on in the book that the student council supports students to have a voice and a contribution to make to their school. However, it was apparent from both the observation and interview data that the student council did not follow the administration process found in its handbook. In terms of planning, designing its policies and organising its activities, it was evident that the advisors of the student council played the vital role. All members of the student council just followed the instruction of the two advisors of the student council as demonstrated in the following interview data.

“To be honest, I think I have not done my best as the President of the student council. I have had very few chances to organise the school council. I mean we as the student council team have not been given chances to participate in creating and organising school activities. Teachers do not even listen to us. They think... They do... They evaluate the school activities by themselves. They sometimes have us help doing some particular activities such as hair and uniform inspection. As far as I can remember, we have attended only three meetings for the student council. Most of the school activities have been created and approved by the advisors. The advisors rarely listen to our voices.” (IC: MS16)

“I want to work harder as a member of the student council team but I have not had the opportunity. I have tried hard to present to the two advisors what I would like to do as a member of the student council. However, all is completely rejected.” (IC: MS13)

As a result of the control from its advisors, the student council was not given full authority to govern its own organisation. As seen, the student council was directed by its advisors. Consequently, the student council could not follow its objectives or missions as stated in its handbook particularly those concerned with enhancing communication between students, teachers, school administrators, and parents. Moreover, it was found, based on its members’ interview data, that the student council failed to represent the views of the students to the school on matters of their concern since the student council did not offer many channels for students to express their comments or suggestions. That resulted in the low level of student participation in school activities or any other school affairs. The following interview data, given by the Head of Department of Students affairs, criticised the roles of the student council advisors;

“The deputy director and I are the big bosses who are responsible for student affairs including student behaviour. But we have minor roles. I understand that I have just moved to this school so it is reasonable that they do not trust me. However, they should listen to the Vice-Director who is one of the school administrators. As far as I have seen, they do not trust other people except themselves. They ignore the support and encouragement from other teachers in the school. It is not a good role model for the students. Apparently, the student council members have behaved like their advisors. They think they have more authority than other students. I am very worried about this situation.” (FG: SS37)

Another significant consequence resulting from the advisors' control was related to the student council office. It was found from the interview data that the student council office had been transformed into a laboratory since the student council office was not being used. This directly affected the administration of the student council as they lost having a place to organise meetings or prepare materials for any school activities and a place where other students can visit. The following interview data, given by the Deputy Director of Student affairs, shows how the student council office had come to be taken away and reallocated.

"The student council in this school just follow the commands of the two advisors. They have done very few school activities. In my opinion, they have not successfully carried out their roles as the student council team. As you may know, their office has been given to the Department of Science and it has been reformed into a laboratory. That was the command of the school director since he had observed that they had not utilised the room as requested." (FG: SS44)

In terms of the student council's actual activities, it was evident that these were mostly related to school affairs and benefited the school by helping teachers for the school supervisions and evaluations and acting as the representatives of the school to participate in community activities. Regarding activities related to human rights, the student council election was found as the main activity reflecting the values of human rights and democracy. This election activity helped students learn the voting process in a democratic system and students felt valued when their rights were counted in the election.

VI. Relationship with local organisations

It was found throughout the six-month data collection period that School B worked with some local government organisations and non-government organisations to educate students in aspects of human rights and raise students' awareness about human rights issues. Local government organisations were invited as experts to speak on a variety of human rights topics and issues, including rights and freedom in a democratic system, migrant workers in the community, road safety and the rights of road users, the dog meat trade, and the rights of local people in the community forest.

Regarding rights and freedom in a democratic system, officers from the Office of Provincial Elections were invited to educate the students on rights and freedom in a democratic system. The officers also demonstrated how to use the voting machines and emphasised to students the importance of the voting process in a democratic system. Officers from the Immigration Office also came to School B to raise students' awareness of the rights of migrant workers in the community and gave some examples of the kinds of hardship suffered by migrant workers. Regarding road safety and road users' rights, students learned through a video presentation from the Department of Land Transportation. In addition, students were assigned simulations to do about rights violations while using public transportation. Another interesting rights issue taught by animal rights activists was about the dog meat trade. In this case, animal rights activists made a comparison between the tradition of eating dog meat and animal rights. At the end of the presentation, the activists encouraged the students to eradicate the dog meat trade.

5.4. Factors influencing HRE in School B

Based on the research data obtained from School B, it was found that human rights aspects were incorporated into activities both inside and outside the classroom. These human rights aspects were presented through teaching and learning in the classroom, the school environment, school governance, and school practices. However, different levels of integrating human rights into School B were found. Regarding the integration of human rights in School B, a number of factors were considered as the main factors influencing its delivery of HRE including the school itself, its administrators, teachers, students, and curriculum and government policies, as presented in the following section.

5.4.1 Organisation culture

Among the set of different influencing factors, it was evident that the school culture played an essential role in integrating human rights in School B. By way of explanation, school culture hugely influences school performance and motivation levels in integrating human rights in its education. Over time, this school culture developed a strong impact on HRE in School B. This school culture included a lack of collaboration among school staff and a certain degree of complacent satisfaction in its success.

1. Lack of collaboration among school staff

Regarding the lack of collaboration among school staff, it was apparent that School B did not focus on building a collaborative culture in the school. Throughout the six-month data collection period, almost all school activities were organised by one particular group of senior teachers. Thus, other teachers who were not relevant did not actively support the school policy. One of the reasons underlying this problem was related to a lack of belief in the other teachers' ability. This meant this group of senior teachers did not believe in other teachers' ability, particularly that of the junior teachers. The following interview data shows how one senior teacher felt towards working with other junior teachers;

"I have been working in this school for more than 30 years. I like working with people who I feel comfortable to work with. My team is effective enough to work for the school. I think some junior teachers have to work hard to prove themselves to be best fitted for the school. At this stage, they are not good enough to take a part in significant school affairs." (IC: FT14)

In brief, based on the observation and interview data, teamwork and collaboration were not commonly found in School B. This contributed to its level of success in any school performance including its HRE. In other words, this also considerably had a detrimental impact on organising human rights activities in School B. As seen, all human rights activities in School B were organised by the same groups of teachers including a group of senior teachers and a group of junior teachers. It was found that these two groups of teachers worked separately and no collaboration was found between them. Regarding the group of senior teachers, the human rights activities done were organising the student council election and organising the flag ceremony or morning assembly, and dealing with students' behaviour. In the case of the group of junior teachers, they were allowed to organise the following activities, organising clubs related to human rights, working collaboratively with the community regarding human rights, and inviting experts in to give talks about human rights issues. One junior teacher gave his opinion on team working in School B as follows.

"I do not feel like there is a team in this school. Teacher relations are often in conflict in the school. The senior staff don't believe in our abilities to succeed. This affects our attitudes toward working for the benefit of the school, and driving our

motivation in working for students. Particularly supporting human rights in school, working as a team is crucially needed. The school should emphasise team-building and professional development among the school staff. As I have seen, those senior teachers never recruit new supporters and partners to work with them.” (FG: SS48)

It was found from the observation and interview data that senior teachers played a very significant role in school administration and management. Among all the teachers in the school, almost 70% were senior teachers and this large number of senior teachers was always in the majority when voting or approving any plan or policy. This was also the case when approving issues or matters related to human rights in School B including teaching human rights topics and organising human rights activities.

Regarding teaching human rights topics, it was found from the interview data that the senior teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures did not agree to teaching human rights explicitly in the classroom since they were afraid that teaching human rights might be against the form of the current government, and developing an understanding of human rights might impel the students to feel or do things against the government. As a result, human rights were not fully incorporated in the Civic Duties subject mostly due to the disagreement of the senior teachers. It was found that human rights topics were incorporated only in Civic Duties subjects taught by junior teachers.

In the case of organising human rights activities outside the classroom, it was evident that most human rights activities were harshly criticised by senior teachers. Many issues of concern were raised by those senior teachers including questioning the benefits of the activities, the number of participants, and particularly the budgets. This resulted in a decreasing number of human rights activities in School B.

II. Certain degree of complacent satisfaction in its success

As noted, another aspect of the school culture that significantly influenced HRE delivery was a certain degree of complacent satisfaction in its success. This resulted in a lack of willingness to share ideas and learn new things. It was found that school staff were afraid to offer suggestions or new ideas for fear of being attacked or criticised. Based on the observation of the school meetings, teachers rarely shared ideas or solutions to school problems, including

those related to human rights. In the case of human rights, when the topics regarding human rights were raised during the meetings, most teachers ignored them by showing no interest on the issue presented. Moreover, it was clearly seen that the school administrators did not even pay any attention to the human rights issues raised as noted by one teacher's interview data, as follows.

"I want to discuss with the teachers in the school about the hair rules but I have never been given any chance to talk about this. My advisees and their parents have complained to me about the hair rules in our school. They said that the school regulations that prohibit all hairstyles except the crew cut for boys and the ear-lobe-length bob for girls is in violation of children's human rights. I do not know whether the school administrators realise about this issue or not. I think the administrator should listen to the feedback from both students and parents. However, I was never allowed to talk about this issue in the meetings." (IC: MT12)

In one sense, it was notable from attending many school meetings that the school was very confident that the school had done its best in all areas of school performance. The school therefore did not seek out new ideas or accept any new suggestions or comments raised. This also had a result on the levels of incorporating or supporting human rights in School B. Regarding teaching human rights and organising human rights activities in school, these were rarely discussed during the school meetings due to two main reasons based on the interview data from teachers and some administrators. One reason was related to the large numbers of topics discussed in the meetings. It was stated by the teacher who prepared the meeting documents that other important topics were prioritised and human rights topics were normally removed due to time constraints. The other reason was related to a sense of satisfaction with HRE in School B. It was noted by the school administrators that the school performance on supporting human rights in School B was satisfactory. Therefore, it was not necessary to improve HRE since they were content with the current level of provision they had already reached.

5.4.2 Education Act and school curriculum

It was clear that HRE in School B was immensely influenced by the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551(A.D. 2008). This national education act played a significant role in

supporting HRE in School B in certain ways including teaching human rights in the classroom and organising human rights activities. Regarding teaching human rights in the classroom, it was stated by the Head of Academic affairs that the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) did not fully support teaching human rights in schools across the country since the teaching content relating to rights or human rights stipulated by this national education act was inadequate. In other words, this version of the National Curriculum only provided broad topics relating to rights or human rights including the political and administrative system of the present society, the democratic form of government under constitutional monarchy, the characteristics and importance of good citizenship, cultural difference and diversity, values under constitutional monarchy, rights, duties and freedoms in peaceful co-existence in Thai society and the world community. It was additionally remarked on by many teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures that they found it difficult to teach or integrate rights or human rights in their classes since human rights content was only broadly and unclearly stated in the National Curriculum. Furthermore, it was frequently commented on by those teachers regarding organising human rights activities that the National Curriculum should prepare some guidelines how to incorporate human rights outside the classroom. This was demonstrated through one teacher's interview data regarding the broadness of the National Curriculum as the following.

"I think the broad National Curriculum does not help us as teachers. The National curriculum should be more specific about what human rights content should be taught at different levels of students. In addition, human rights should be considered as a separate learning area in the National Curriculum. That will be easy for us as teachers to teach human rights." (FG: SS45)

The lack of organising human rights activities was related to the insufficient human rights content found in the National Curriculum. Human rights activities were not fully supported or organised since human rights were not emphasised in the National Curriculum as stated by the Deputy Director of Academic Affairs in the following.

"I can say that human rights is the not a big learning area as stated in the National Curriculum. As a matter of fact that teachers strictly follow the National Curriculum, human rights is not given as high a value as other core learning areas"

or subjects. As a result, most student activities are organised to help students learn academic subjects.” (FG: SS38)

5.4.3 Governmental policy and campaigns

In addition to the National Curriculum, another significant factor directly influencing HRE in School B was governmental policy and campaigns. It was clear from the interview data with the Deputy Director and the Head of Academic Affairs that the educational policy of the military government (National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO)) had had a huge impact on HRE in many ways. Apparently, this policy allowed the school to incorporate more human rights content into the classroom since the policy emphasised the creation of reconciliation and a sense of patriotism among schoolchildren across the country. As a result, the school supported this governmental policy by building a new subject called Civic Duties in response to the military government’s suggestion. However, it was noted by the Deputy Director of Academic Affairs that this caused considerable changes in the school curriculum and problems for teachers in school. In the case of the school curriculum, this new subject had to be fitted into the school curriculum; therefore, it was necessary to restructure the school curriculum and timetable. As for teachers, this new subject has created more burden and responsibility for teachers because teachers have to teach one more subject in addition to the current two or three subjects. The following interview data show the impact of the introduction of the Civic Duties Subject on the school curriculum and teachers.

“We have experienced the complexities of adjusting the current school curriculum in order to find a place for Civic Duties Subjects. The school curriculum is normally adjusted at the end of the school year. But in this case, we did it in the middle of the school year in order to support the military government’ urgent policy” (FG: SS38)

“...It is quite difficult to make any changes during the school year but it is a must... I mean... It is the big challenge for the school to incorporate Civic Duties Subjects into the current school curriculum. I have found that this creates more work for teachers. As I have known, individual teachers have their workload. Apart from teaching responsibility, they have to do some other work such as working as classroom advisors, preparing documents for school inspection.” (FG: SS45)

"...I think school should lower the amount of the burden on teachers. But in this case, teachers are required to teach one more subject... a double workload for teachers especially teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religion, and Cultures... Anyway, it is the policy...an urgent policy given by the military government...The school has to implement it strictly." (IC: MT12)

In this case, it was found that the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures was given the authority to organise the Civic Duties subject for all students in School B. Regarding the learning themes for the Civic Duties subject, teachers were given the freedom to select topics to teach in their class. However, it was found from the interview data that it had been decided that some controversial topics like human rights and democracy should not directly be taught to students as a result of a meeting of the teachers in the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures. This created a sense of ambiguity about incorporating or teaching human rights in the classroom for teachers, as shown in the following interview data.

"I am a teacher of Social Studies and Civic Duties subjects of Mattayom Suksa 3. As an agreement of the department meeting, human rights and democracy are not given full support to be taught in the class. I, therefore, decide not to teach my students the topics related to human rights and democracy. I am afraid that if I teach such topics, I will be blamed by the senior teachers of the department." (IC: FT15)

"To be honest, the agreement of the department on teaching human rights and democracy has directly affected my decision to incorporate these two topics in my Civic Duties classrooms of Mattayom Suksa 6. Students of Mattayom Suksa 6 are going to finish school very soon. I think understanding about human rights and democracy is important for them to live their lives after graduation. However, it was mentioned by many senior teachers not to teach human rights and democracy. So I have to follow such an agreement as made." (IC: MT9)

In the case of the senior teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures, it was apparent from the interview data that teaching democracy and human rights within the context of a military regime was risky in their opinion. Some of those senior teachers even noted that teaching human rights might be challenging the power of the military government. Some were afraid that the knowledge about human rights might push students to

act against the military government. Some interesting interview data from the senior teachers regarding human rights teaching and the military government are as follows.

“Ummmm... hard to say... I do not think we should directly teach human rights or other topics related to human rights or democracy in the lessons of Civic Duties Subject... I can simply say that the form of a military government is opposite the concept of human rights. The military government is not democratically elected. They actually have no right to rule the country. I do not think they would be happy if they knew that we were teaching democracy and human rights to students... I have seen some groups of people were jailed because they gathered and discussed about the misuse of power of the military government.” (GC: FT25)

“We have discussed among senior teachers in the department. We... ummmm... we agree that we should not teach human rights directly to students not just in the Civic Duties Subject but in other subjects in the school. I personally think that the issues about human rights are... ummmm... not... ummm... how can I say... ummmm... the issues about human rights are not appropriate in the context of a military government. If we were in a normal situation I mean in a democratic government, human rights learning should be highly supported in school.” (GC: MT28)

“In my opinion, I am afraid that if we teach students human rights, that might lead students to fight for their rights. There is a high demand to change the military government to be the government from the national election. I just think that to teach human rights is like teaching them to think against or even act against the military government. And if this happens in reality, it might create a massive impact on the school and especially on the students themselves.” (GC: FT31)

In addition to the concern regarding the military government’s possible reaction to human rights teaching in the school, the interview data shows that the new Civic Duties Subject was closely similar to the existing Social Studies Subject. It was mentioned in addition that civic duties was already one of the learning topics in the subject of Social Studies. As a result, the Social Studies teachers interviewed stated that there was no necessity to teach civic duties since it was already taught in Social Studies. It was mentioned by the Deputy Director of Academic affairs that Social Studies and Civic Duties were taught by the same teacher. As a

result of the similarity and repetition of content, some teachers did not teach civic duties in Civic Duties class but they taught the content of Social Studies instead.

Apart from the opinions of the senior teachers interviewed, it was evident that different groups of students expressed different opinions towards the Civic Duties Subject as created by the military government. In particular, the students from the Civic Duties classes taught by junior teachers who directly incorporated aspects of democracy and human rights into their lessons considered this subject as another great way to learn about democracy and human rights. The interview data from those students showed that the introduction of Civic Duties provided more time for teachers to teach human rights and more opportunities for students to explore human rights and human rights issues in society. However, this was not relevant to the opinions given by students whose Civic Duties classes were taught by the senior teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures. In their case, they mentioned that their Civic Duties classes were taught the same way as Social Studies were. Some students even noted that Civic Duties classes were boring because teachers taught something irrelevant to civic duties.

However, it was noted by both groups of students that learning human rights in school and about the human rights situation outside the school was drastically different especially the human rights issues regarding the military regime. Many students mentioned that they were told to be aware of their rights and to protect their rights from all forms of violations but they experienced several forms of rights violation in society. Some students even remarked that they did not understand the objectives of the Civic Duties Subject as created by the military government. Students raised the issue that schoolchildren were required to learn civic duties which included the topics of democracy, justice, human rights, and peace but the military government itself had destroyed democracy, justice, human rights, and peace. The following interview data shows how students felt towards learning human rights and the educational policy of the military government.

“I learned some topics about human rights and democracy in school and I discussed in particular about issues related to human rights in my Civic Duties class. And I know that this civic duties subject is a compulsory subject set by the military government for schools across the country to teach. But I sometimes think that the military government is not good for human rights and democracy. I mean... ummmmmmmmm... I mean the military government has stolen democracy from the people in the country. They are bad examples of democracy.”

They should not tell students to learn civic duties which are related to democracy and human rights.” (FG: ST15)

“Sometimes I am very confused when I was told about the rights to vote and the form of the military government. It is written in the Social Studies book that voting is the meaningful way to maintain democracy but that is against the military regime. I still remember we were not allowed to go outside the house after 10 pm. at the beginning of the military regime. We were also told not to gather as more than five people because such a thing was against military law. I even do not understand the latest subject given by the military government. The military government want to create peace, reconciliation, justice, and a sense of patriotism but they do not follow the rules. They have cut the rules up and set up their own rules.” (FG: ST21)

5.4.4 Teachers’ personal beliefs and experiences

Another significant factor affecting HRE in School B was related to teachers’ personal beliefs and experiences. Such personal beliefs and experiences affected the level of effort and support given to HRE in several ways. As apparent from their interview data, it was believed by most teachers that teaching human rights or supporting human rights was the duty and responsibility of teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures. As a results, all things related to human rights in School B were then assigned to the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures. In addition, it was apparent that the human rights content was considered difficult to teach to students based on the teachers’ interview data. Many teachers mentioned that human rights were too abstract to explain to students well and such a belief lowered their efforts to incorporate human rights in their classrooms. Another of the teachers’ personal beliefs that directly affected their support for human rights in School B was the necessity of human rights in their opinion. It was mentioned by some teachers that students can learn human rights issues through several kinds of media and such media could teach human rights better than teachers themselves. Some teachers even stated that unlike in Cambodia or Myanmar, it was not crucial or necessary to teach human rights widely in Thai schools.

Regarding teaching human rights, it was also found that some senior teachers do not teach human rights to students because they are afraid that students might misuse the knowledge about rights in school. It was noted by some senior teachers that if students knew too much about their rights, students might fight for their rights such as criticising the school rules and regulations, requesting justice in the school, or reporting the inadequacies of the

school. Furthermore, the same group of senior teachers remarked that they also were afraid of the feedback from parents if students misused human rights concepts in the family; for example, students refusing to obey the rules of the family or students requesting more rights from the parents. An interesting extract from the interview data of one senior teacher regarding his concern about parents' reactions regarding teaching human rights in school is as follows.

"I think human rights topics are very sensitive. We cannot be sure what students will do after becoming aware of their rights. They might... ummmmm... they might do something to protect their rights even in the family. I mean students might ask for more rights in the family. Parents might complain to the school if that really happened." (FG: SS46)

"As far as I know, some parents are very conservative. I mean those parents hold the strong belief that good children must be obedient. I am afraid that teaching explicit human rights is sensitive and risky. If students know much about their rights, or rights protection, they might... ummmmm... they might do something against or they might not follow the family rules or the community rules." (FG: SS40)

Apart from teachers' personal beliefs, teachers' experiences also influenced their effort to teach or incorporate human rights in their classrooms. It was highly noticeable that they did not emphasise human rights in their subjects or classroom because they did not have instructional skills or an understanding of the content area. Some teachers showed their intention to teach human rights but they were afraid that the content taught might not be correct and that might provide some misunderstanding about human rights for students. It was mentioned frequently by many teachers that they had never learned human rights at university and never attended any seminars or workshops related to human rights.

5.4.5 Administrators' constraints

The interview data revealed that the administrators themselves had a considerable impact on HRE in School B in certain ways. This also affected the success or failure of HRE in School B. In terms of the School Director, it was found that he was going to retire from his position very soon since he was then fifty-nine years old. This might have affected his ambition and

enthusiasm to drive the school to successfully include HRE. It was stated by some junior teachers that the school director was pleased with what he had achieved in the current stage the school had reached and he had no aspiration to do more things. In addition to retirement, it was clear from the teachers' interview data that his family, including his wife and his daughter, also worked in School B. This might have influenced his decisions in approving or disapproving any projects or policies in the school, including activities related to human rights, since his wife was a senior teacher of the Department of Social Studies, Religions and Cultures who had expressed disagreement over teaching human rights explicitly in School B.

Apart from the School Director himself, the personal constraints of the deputy directors also influenced HRE in School B. It was found that two of the three deputy directors of School B were very new to the school. The Deputy Director of Student affairs had just moved to School B two years before while the Deputy Director of General Administration had only worked in School B for one year. When discussing any school plans or policies, they had minor roles in the process of considering policy including policies or plans related to human rights. For example, the Deputy Director of Student affairs did not have full authority to work with the rights of students in terms of students' behaviour since such duties and responsibilities were directly ruled by the two advisors of the student council.

5.5 Summary

With respect to the findings presented in this chapter, three aspects of HRE in School B were illustrated including learning human rights lessons in the classes of Civic Duties subjects, human rights practices outside the classrooms, and the set of factors having influence on the promotion of human rights in the school. In relation to learning human rights lessons in the classroom, two classes of Civic Duties subjects were observed; one at lower secondary level and the other at upper secondary level. In the Civic Duties class at lower secondary level, human rights were learned through doing projects. It was also found that greater awareness of human rights including child-centred learning, an appreciation of diversity and of the feelings of people involved, an increase in the visibility of values and acceptance was created as a result of doing projects. As for the Civic Duties class observed at upper secondary level, students learned human rights through discussing the following topics, migrant workers, the sugar factory, stateless Rohingya, and transgender people. In addition to human rights themes learned, greater awareness of human rights was generated through learning activities in the

classrooms including the sense of students' opinions being valued and of respect for diversity. In terms of learning human rights outside the classroom, some human rights themes were valued in the following aspects including school governance, the school environment, the flag ceremony, extra-curricular activities, the student council, and the relationship with local organisations. However, there was a huge contradiction found between the support for human rights as stated in the school documents and the actual practices of the school. In this case, several factors appeared to have an influence on integrating human rights in School B including organisation culture, governmental policies and campaigns, the Education Act and school curriculum, teachers' personal beliefs and experiences, and administrators' personal constraints.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study and compares them with the existing literature. It is organised in three sections. Section 6.2 presents the key claims gained from the study. These have been developed through cross-comparison of the data from both schools. These are explored in the light of the existing literature, and attention is drawn to new and original contributions to knowledge in this field. The chapter ends with section 6.3 which provides a summary of the present chapter.

6.2 Key claims of findings

This study aimed to explore the current situation of HRE in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand. One school was purposively chosen as a school with a good reputation for and high profile in HRE while the other school only appears to follow the government guidance for HRE, and as yet, does not have a high profile for HRE. This study also was expected to identify the possible implications for HRE in secondary education contexts arising from it. In other words, this research was considered as a key educational opportunity to explore HRE in Thai secondary education contexts. It mainly focused on issues related to HRE as they appeared embedded in all aspects of school life in both schools. It was therefore necessary to take the role of a participant observer in the two schools in order to explore and reveal the actual practices of human rights in both schools.

It was apparent from the interviews with students, administrators, teaching and non-teaching staff and through the observations made within the two schools that there were similarities in the way the schools implemented HRE in response to the government policy and the National education curriculum. It was found that these similarities related to the fact that in both settings the school administrators and the leading group of teachers were dominant in planning, developing, and supporting HRE. However, within each school there were differences in approaches, policies, and practices regarding HRE and such approaches, policies,

and practices had different impacts within each of the two schools. Cross-comparison of data has been a valuable process as it has enabled light to be shed on situations where human rights have not been upheld and where HRE has been compromised, as well as on situations of exemplary practices. Evidence of how the research questions have been answered has been presented in the data chapters, which is summarised here.

To answer the Research Question 1 (What do teachers do to promote ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?), it was evident in this study that human rights were enacted throughout the school community both inside and outside of the classroom by the teachers. Teachers of School A implemented human rights extensively ensuring that the school practices and performances were in line with its own policy documents, curriculum, and government guidance. In School B, human rights were partly incorporated into some school practices and performances but these were not coherent with its commitments as they appeared on school policy documents, the curriculum and government guidance. Regarding teaching human rights in the classroom, teachers in observed classrooms incorporated human rights in their lessons in both School A and School B. This applied to students of all levels in School A, whereas in School B, human rights were incorporated only into some Civic Duties Subject classes. In addition to teaching human rights in the classrooms, teachers of School A valued human rights across the other parts of the school by providing students with opportunities outside the classroom to take part in human rights-related activities. However, human rights-related activities outside the classrooms were not extensively supported in School B because of the limited support of its senior teachers, which is related to the scope of the Research Question 2.

Regarding the Research Question 2 (What values and beliefs do teachers hold in relation to ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?), the findings of this study mark that knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of the teachers are important to human rights education in both schools. It was evident in School A that that the high level of human rights knowledge of teachers in School A enabled them to teach human rights in the Subject of Civic Duties for teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures, whilst they incorporated human rights in other subjects, and organised human rights-related activities. This contradicted with the situation found in School B. The findings from the interview data confirmed that it was challenging for many teachers in School B to teach human rights because they lacked human rights knowledge or information. It was found from the findings of School B that this lack of human rights knowledge had a negative impact on the efforts of senior

teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures to incorporate human rights into the Civic Duties subject.

Apart from human rights knowledge, teachers' beliefs and attitudes had a significant influence on the ways teachers supported and promoted human rights across the school community in both schools. In School A, it was apparent from the administrators and teachers' interview data that human rights for them were necessary and important for students to learn in school. As such, the teachers in School A extensively supported human rights education in the school. In the case of School B, junior teachers and senior teachers held different beliefs and attitudes about HRE in school. In the case of the junior teachers, teaching human rights was necessary in school while many senior teachers believed that teaching human rights was not necessary in school because students can learn about human rights outside school. As such, HRE was mostly supported by junior teachers in School B due to their strong beliefs and attitudes regarding the importance of HRE in schools.

In case of the Research Question 3 (How do students experience 'human rights education' in secondary schools in Thailand?), it was apparent that students learned human rights both inside and outside the classrooms in both schools. However, there were both similarities and differences. In terms of similarities, students of observed classrooms in both schools learned human rights through contextual learning. In other words, students shared and discussed issues about human rights related to students' lives. In terms of the differences, this contextual learning about human rights was extensively conducted across School A. However, only students in the classrooms of Civic Duties subject were taught human rights contents through contextual learning in School B.

In addition, students could also learn human rights through participation in a variety of extra-curricular activities organised by student clubs and student councils outside the classroom. Similarly to learning human rights in the classrooms, students across School A gained sufficient direct experience about human rights through participating in extra-curricular activities related to human rights organised by student councils and student clubs with the support of communities and other related organisations. In School B, students also learned human rights through participating in extra-curricular activities but these were not as varied and widespread as in School A, with limited support from communities and other related organisations.

Drawing on the findings from both schools, eight salient key claims emerged, which were then incorporated within a model of a ‘human rights oriented school’ (see Figure 6.1).

- 1) HRE needs to be embedded in every aspect of a school both inside and outside classroom.
- 2) Contextualising human rights in the classroom makes the learning experience for students meaningful.
- 3) The knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of teachers have an impact on pedagogical practices.
- 4) Close collaboration and support between teachers is crucial to HRE.
- 5) Student council plays a vital role in bridging communication between students, teachers and school administrators and provide a resource for human rights.
- 6) Extra-curricular activities can have a significant impact on students’ behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights.
- 7) Community engagement and partnerships with other organisations enhance the understanding of the wider implications of HRE for students.
- 8) The context of operating within a military regime creates a complex and contradictory environment for teachers and students in schools which endeavour to promote human rights.

This can be illustrated as a diagram in Figure 6.1 below.

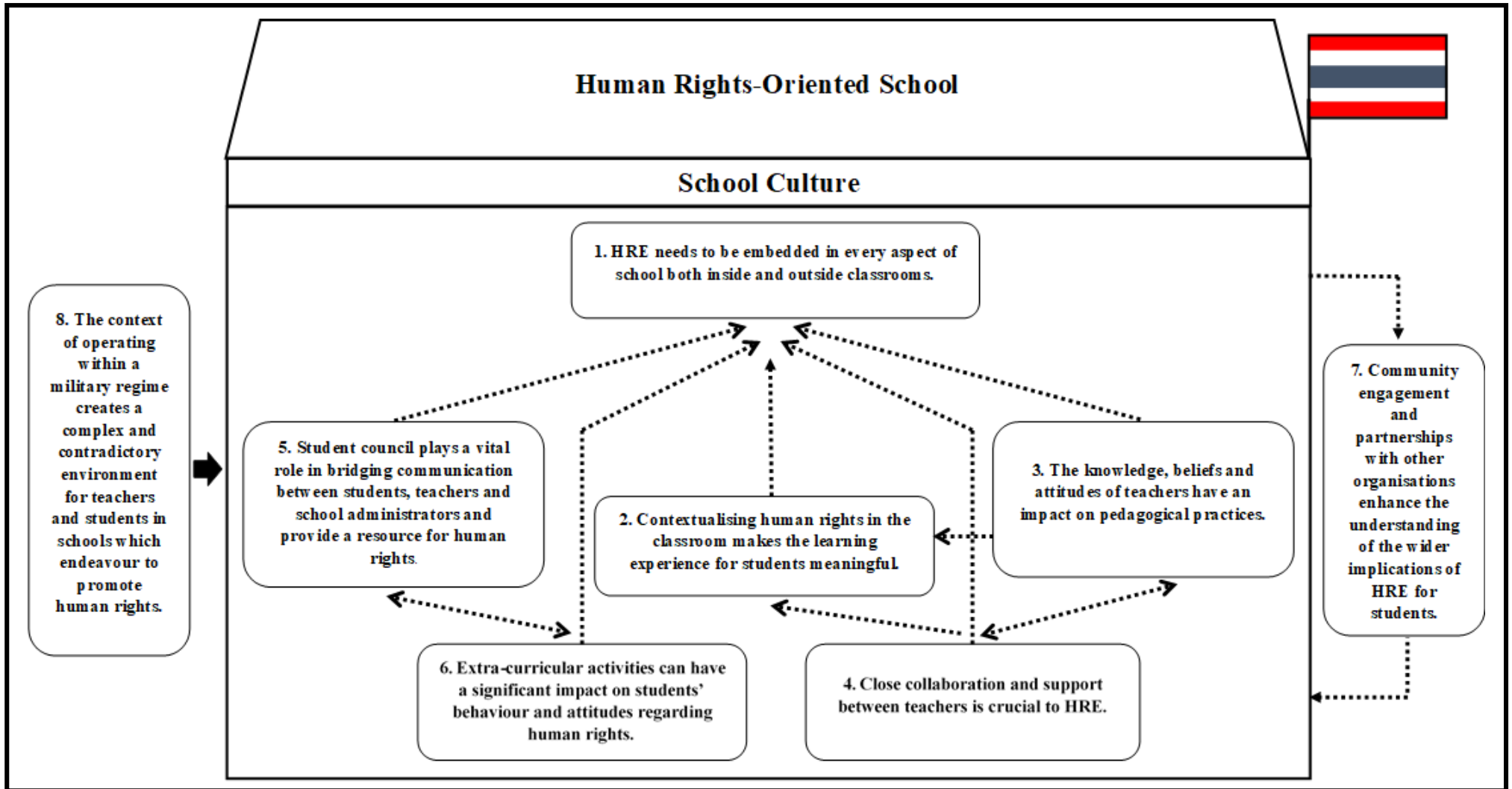


Figure 6.1: Key Claims

Figure 6.1 presents a school model for a hypothetical ‘human rights oriented school’, which is neither School A or School B, in which the six school practices within the school culture are implemented to build the school to be human rights-oriented. At the same time, this model illustrates the two influencing factors outside the school which produced a significant impact on HRE in this school model. At the top of the practices within the school culture, it is apparent, based on the study findings, that HRE needs to be embedded in every aspect of the school both inside and outside the classroom. Regarding human rights inside the classroom, the findings suggest that when human rights are contextualised in the classroom students can have a meaningful learning experience. To a certain degree, the knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of teachers and close collaboration and support between teachers about HRE influence this contextual learning and other human rights activities in a school. It is apparent that the knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of teachers exert an influence on the level of collaboration and support between teachers, and in turn, collaboration and support between teachers have an effect on the knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of teachers about HRE.

In the case of HRE outside the classroom, the student council engages students across the school to take part in school administration, creates communication links between students, teachers, and school administrators, and provides human rights resources for students. Students can also learn human rights through participation in a variety of extra-curricular activities organised by student clubs and student councils. Seen the other way around, extra-curricular activities can also influence students’ participation and engagement in student council activities and projects. In relation to community engagement and partnerships with other organisations, the school and community interchangeably play significant roles as human rights learning resources for each other. In summary, the whole school works collaboratively, striving for better HRE in partnership with the community and taking into account the different level of organisation outside the school, and in the context of coming under the policies and campaigns of the military regime. Each claim will be elaborated in the following sections.

6.2.1 HRE needs to be embedded in every aspect of a school both inside and outside of classrooms.

It was evident in both schools that human rights was written and mentioned in several school documents especially the school curriculums. Both schools valued human rights as part of their school cultures. There were, however, certain differences. For example, the two schools

implemented human rights differently. School A implemented human rights extensively ensuring that the school practices and performances were in line with its own policy documents, curriculum, and government guidance. In School B, human rights were partly incorporated into some school practices and performances but these were not coherent with its commitments as they appeared on school policy documents, the curriculum and government guidance. In other words, although both schools were committed to implementing HRE, School A was more consistent in doing so, and the implementation was more extensive across all aspects of the school, whereas in School B, there were some contradictions between the written policy documents and the implementation in practice.

In terms of each school's consistency or inconsistency with school policy documents in particular, a part of this is related to each school's interpretation and view of the three generations of human rights as presented by Vasak (1979). The three generations of human rights are stated in the school documents of both schools. However, the two schools have done this differently in order to provide the three generations of human rights in schools. It was apparent that both School A and School B can provide some elements of the three generations of human rights but in different levels. The performance of School A conforms to elements of all three generations of human rights while the performance of School B is congruent with only two generations of human rights. Regarding the civil and political rights which are closely related to the military regime, students of School A are given opportunities to exercise their civic and political rights through types of freedoms, participation, and equality in school while this happens only limitedly in School B with only the support of a certain group of junior teachers. However, both schools have supported elements of the second and third generation which concern the basic infrastructures and facilities at schools for students. In similarity with the first generation of human rights, School A extensively provided students with a wide range of rights such as ensuring good conditions of the school environment and its facilities, the cleanliness and accessibility of school buildings, sufficient health care units, the freedom to choose student clubs, toilets for third gender students, and awareness-raising activities for diversities in school. In contrast, only some elements of the second and third generations of human rights were found in School B such as a clean and safe school environment and sufficient health care units, and some awareness-raising activities for diversities in school.

Further than that, it was evident that School A has developed its school culture in order to raise the status of human rights prominently both inside and outside of the classrooms. This was congruent with the schools in the studies of Carter and Osler (2000) and Covell (2010)

which both found that school culture and operations need to be changed in order to successfully implement human rights in schools, and that such school cultures are exhibited through school policies and practices. Bağlı (2013) also mentions that HRE should be delivered not only as a course but as a whole school culture which is closely consistent with the finding in School A that human rights were implemented throughout the school's life.

Regarding teaching human rights in the classroom, it was clear that human rights were chosen as the learning theme in the Civic Duties subject observed in both schools. This applied to students of all levels in School A, whereas in School B, human rights were incorporated only into some Civic Duties Subject classes. In relation to teaching methodologies in the Civic Duties classes observed, data from both schools showed that they both went far beyond didactic methodology (Tibbitts, 2017) which focuses on delivering content through memorising and rote learning and that both schools adopted more participatory/interactive and empowerment methodologies (Tibbitts, 2017). It appears that the learning activities organised in Civic Duties classes observed in both schools were designed in the light of participatory/interactive methodologies (Tibbitts, 2017) since such methodologies motivated students to learn and engaged them to participate in all phases of learning in classroom activities and develop critical understanding of human rights. For example, the students of the Civic Duties class of the lower secondary level in School A listed ten kinds of behaviour that make a human rights community and discussed about them. Building on that, the teacher of the subject then made connections between the lists produced by the students and the human rights documents of the United Nations.

As for the Civic Duties classes in School B, students of the lower secondary level learned human rights by doing human rights-related project work for their community. It was found that students developed their understanding about many local issues through doing the projects. In the case of the Civic Duties class of upper secondary level in School B, students discussed about a wide range of rights protections going from local to global levels. It was apparent from the classroom discussion that students shared their direct experiences or issues regarding rights protection and other students expressed their feelings towards the issues raised. In addition, it was evident from the students' interview data and their expression and discussion of ideas in the Civic Duties Classrooms in both schools that students felt more encouraged to take action on the human rights issues raised in the classes and they also expressed the strong urge to fight against any unethical issues in the community. This suggests that Civic Duties classes of both schools also employed empowerment methodologies, according to Tibbitts

(2017), since these bring about attitudinal changes regarding human rights and increase learners' capacity to influence their environment.

Apart from learning human rights inside the classroom, the findings in this study indicate that School A valued human rights across the other parts of the school too. This may have been a significant reason why all students interviewed in School A mentioned that human rights were highly valued in their school and they had meaningful experiences regarding human rights in school. Furthermore, it was apparent in School A that students were provided with opportunities outside the classroom to take part in human rights-related activities. This resulted in a supportive environment for raising awareness of basic human rights for students and also urging students to take action on human rights issues occurring at that particular time such as donating items for people in need, joining the parades for advertising election campaigns, or giving help to the victims of violence such as donating money or clothes for mothers and children beaten by drug-addicted partners. This is consistent with the notion of the transformative methodologies of human rights (Tibbitts, 2017) since the human rights activities provided for students in School A prepared students to be able to directly take part in human rights-related activities in schools and foster personal change regarding human rights.

In School A students were involved in taking action in a variety of projects or campaigns both organised by the school, the student council, and student clubs. More importantly, the students' interviews revealed a strong sense of agency and confidence in tackling human rights violations. Yet while human rights were not fully valued in all aspects in School B mainly due to the incomplete or superficial support from school administrators and the majority of teachers in school, it was reported by the students interviewed that they still had partly learned some human rights mainly from the morning assembly activity where they were informed and updated on human rights issues or news, and the student council election. This echoes what several studies have mentioned that differences between learning human rights in the classroom and students' experience towards human rights outside the classroom may cause contradiction which may lead to the failure of HRE (Osler & Starkey, 2005, 2010; Yuen, Leung, & Lo, 2013). The findings in School B appear to illustrate this because even though there is good practice in human rights teaching and learning inside the classrooms, there is also a lack of students' human rights learning outside the classroom. This contrast accounted for the weakness of HRE in School B.

In particular, considering HRE in both schools as a whole, School A is the only school illustrative of adopting the activism/transformation model (Tibbitts, 2017). It has become apparent that School A falls within the activism/transformation model even though it is not exactly consistent with it because the activism/transformation model is typically sponsored by civil society organisations for the benefits of marginalised populations and its aim is to increase learners' transformation and creation of social change. Tibbitts (2002) and Çayır and Bağlı (2011) also mention that it is difficult to adopt a transformative model in formal education contexts like schools. However, School A has shown that the activism/transformation model can be possibly adapted to a school context by providing HRE both inside and outside the classroom in order to help empower students to be human rights agents taking action on human rights violations. Inside the classroom of Civic Duties subjects, students were given chances to discuss human rights issues which included critical thinking skills and to relate such issues to their own contexts. Such discussion in the classroom can raise students' awareness on those particular human rights issues and create human rights consciousness. In addition, human rights activities outside the classrooms are used for enhancing students' participation in human rights activities and students' willingness for taking actions in human rights issues in their community including human rights violations. Students were involved in taking the roles of both organising and participating in a variety of human rights-related activities in school through human rights-related student clubs.

Based on the discussion previously provided, this fits with what Tibbitts (2017, p. 92) emphasises about students clubs and their roles in the activism/transformation model, that

human rights clubs in schools can serve this purpose (encouraging learners to take action to reduce human rights violation) by fostering an analysis of human rights issues, encouraging youth to take leadership in organising awareness raising and mobilization actions.

Even though this study was based on only two schools, the observational data and responses in the interview data demonstrate that students were highly active and enthusiastically willing to take action on human rights activities in School A and human rights related activities outside the school. Taking into account the development of a transformative model in the field of HRE, the exploration of HRE in School A can help shed some light on

some of the implication of HRE for developing school to be a place where students are shaped and equipped to be able to take action and participate in human right activism.

If the focus is only on the observed Civic Duties classrooms in School B its HRE is closest to the accountability and professional development model (Tibbitts, 2017). This model aims at developing learners' human rights consciousness and empowering learners to take roles in order to decrease human rights violations caused by the self and others. Although the accountability and professional development model was not fully adopted in School B, it was evident from the human rights learning in its Civic Duties classes that its students also felt encouraged to take action on the human rights issues raised in the classes and they expressed the strong urge to fight against any unethical issues in the community. Unlike School A, School B was far from developing students' human rights consciousness through human rights activities outside the classroom due to the lack of support from school administrators and teachers. Students' direct experiences of human rights activities were therefore limited, in particular students' roles in taking action on human rights violations.

The findings of this study reveal how students can learn human rights across a whole school. It does not appear that there is much literature that studies human rights in schools as a whole, in particular human rights learning outside the classroom. The majority of the studies or research conducted so far in schools concentrate on what is happening in the classroom such as the impacts of HRE programmes/subjects/trainings (Bajaj, 2004, 2010, 2011b; Bronson, 2012; Covell, 2010; Hayashi, 2011; Kapenekci, 2005; Leung, 2008; Leung et al., 2011; Magbitang-Chauhan et al., 2000; Messina & Jacott, 2013; Nordin, 2010) and the attitudes of teachers/students towards HRE programmes/courses (Çayır & Bağlı, 2011; Gradwell, Rodeheaver, & Dahlgren, 2015; Leung & Lo, 2012; Müller, 2009; Özbek, 2017; Zembylas et al., 2016; Zembylas, Charalambous, Charalambous, & Lest, 2016). These studies do little to inform us how students can or do insightfully learn human rights outside the classroom. It was apparent in School B that HRE was effective in the classroom as human rights were implemented in some of the Civic Duties classes. However, it was in strong contrast with what happened in the rest of the school, whereas in School A human rights was woven through the whole school. There is not a great deal of literature which resonates with School A's emphasis on whole-school practices. Out of the limited numbers of studies (Froese-Germain et al., 2003) that do focus on HRE outside the classroom, this present study shows that students learned much more human rights outside the classroom. Froese-Germain et al. (2003) also reveal the impact of human rights-related activities outside the classroom on students. This suggests that

people who are committed to HRE, and HRE practitioners in particular, might need to consider what is happening in the whole school. HRE is not just about learning in the classroom but it is about learning through the whole school including school governance, extra-curricular activities, the roles of the student council, the flag ceremony, school culture, the wider community, and other related organisations. It is important to reiterate at this point that HRE should be a process of learning that extends beyond the school classroom and permeates informal learning throughout the school.

To sum up, School A in this study provides evidence that the activism/transformation model can be feasibly implemented in formal education with the full support of school administrators and teachers as well as through intensive human rights practices across the whole school. In the case of Thailand, it might be highly challenging to employ the activism/transformation model for HRE since human rights are valued as only one learning topic in Social Studies Subjects with no emphasis and support on intensive human rights development in schools. The findings in this present study also illustrate a significant difference between the level of human rights promotion and support provided in the two school settings. Even though the level of human rights promotion and support was quite low in School B, it was noticeable that students at least had the opportunity to experience human rights in Civic Duties classes and some activities including student council elections and the flag ceremony in school. Whether human rights were supported and promoted to a greater or lesser extent, it still provided channels and opportunities for students to be equipped with knowledge and experience of human rights. This is congruent with the findings of Messina and Jacott (2013) and Tibbitts (2018) that schools are suitable places and target areas for teaching and learning human rights. Moreover, students need to be given opportunities to experience human rights within the whole school (Hayashi, 2011; Osler & Yahya, 2013). Firat (2013) also confirms that a school is a convenient place for teaching children about rights and responsibilities.

6.2.2 Contextualising human rights in the classroom makes the learning experience for students meaningful.

Activities in the classrooms observed in both schools were highly interactive and discussion-based which is consistent with suggestion of educators in the study of Bernath, Holland and Martin (2002) that interactive pedagogy was highly recommended in HRE. Based on the observational and interview data on the Civic Duties classrooms of both schools, it was in line

with what Baxi (1997) and Meintjes (1997) emphasised in regard to the importance of organising HRE with appropriate pedagogy in order to raise students' human rights awareness and empower them to take action on human rights issues. In the findings of this study, the teachers of the subjects tried to make the lessons relevant and meaningful to students through classroom discussion on issues related to students' lives. In other words, the issue-based learning or discussion activity was the main learning activity in the classroom observed in both schools. The findings in the two schools of this study echo what was found in the studies of Flowers et al. (2000), Howe and Covell (2009), Kepenekci (2005), and McQuoid-Mason (1995) that discussion activity was the main teaching method in HRE courses. Leung et al. (2011) and Yuen and Chong (2012) also emphasised the use of issue-based learning in an HRE course.

Furthermore, it was apparent that the learning topics in the classrooms observed in both schools were contextualised. Most of the topics or issues discussed in the classrooms were closely related to students' lives as illustrated in Table 6.1. Instead of teaching students the abstract content of human rights, the teachers rather contextualised the lessons to help students learn human rights through real-world challenges and situations. As a result, there was a high level of engagement and motivation in the classroom discussions. This made for a meaningful learning experience for the students in the Civic Duties classes observed. This resonates with the opinions of Turkish students in the study of Çayır and Bağlı (2011) that students enjoyed HRE courses when 1) there is an opportunity to talk and discuss 2) daily events were included in the discussion, 3) they could draw examples from their own lives. The majority of teachers in the study of Zembylas and her colleagues (2015) also supported the use of opportunities or incidences that related directly to children's personal lives and experience to teach human rights. The findings in the study of Leung et al. (2011) echo the emphasis on contextualisation in human rights teaching that "cases or issues relevant to students' daily experience and experiential learning should be adopted to stimulate debate and discussion, to arouse and sustain their interest" (p. 153). The implications of several studies also highlighted the importance of contextualization in human rights teaching (Bajaj, 2011b; Osler & Starkey, 2010; Zembylas et al., 2016).

Table 6.1: Summary of human rights learning topics in Civic Duties Subjects of School A and School B

School Level	Schools			
	Lower Secondary Level	School A Upper Secondary Level	School B Lower Secondary Level	School B Upper Secondary Level
Human rights topics learned	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Building human rights community ➤ Protection of rights <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rights protection in students' communities • the rights to natural resources of people in the country • the rareness of referendums in Thailand • Rights to Mae Khong River as a trans-boundary river 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Doing project work: an attempt to help improve communities to be better places to live in <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cleaning the temple and its area • Playing guitar and entertaining the patients at the hospital • Helping exercise activity for elders in community • Feeding homeless dogs • Raising funds for youth activities • Painting the child care centre fence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Migrants workers ➤ Sugar factory ➤ Stateless Rohingya ➤ Transgender people

Regarding HRE teaching methodology, it is essential to discuss education about, through and for human rights, as stated in Article 2(2) of the UN Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training (UNDHRET). UNDHRET is the latest concept of HRE launched by UN. Regarding the importance of UNDHRET, Struthers remarks (2015) that “despite its aforementioned shortcomings, the formulation of education about, through and for human rights in Article 2(2) of UNDHRET nevertheless provides an effective means of assessing state practice in the provision of HRE” (p. 23). The research data obtained from the HRE classroom observations and interviews indicate that the two schools have incorporated these aspects of education about, through and for human rights specified in UNDHRET. This will be elaborated in the following paragraphs.

In terms of education about human rights, it was apparent that the teachers in the classes observed at both schools did not explicitly and extensively link human rights to the rights mentioned in the principles of the UDHR and relevant treaties and instruments as stated in UNDHRET. However, those teachers did incorporate human rights knowledge through contextualising several human rights topics as mentioned earlier. Regarding linking human rights to the rights mentioned in the principles of the UDHR and relevant treaties and instruments, the data showed that links being made to other human rights instruments were mentioned only by one Civic Duties teacher in class in School A, but not explicitly. This particular finding was presented in Chapter 4 (Section 4.3.1, p. 100).

Concerning the rights-respecting classroom and respectful learning environments, education through human rights was found in both two schools. This was carried out extensively in School A whereas it was limited in School B. In relation to the observed classrooms, democracy, freedom, and mutual respect were guaranteed in the classes observed in both schools. The evidence can be found in Chapter 4 (Section 4.3.1, p. 105-107) and Chapter 5 (Section 5.3.1, p. 161 and 167). However, with regard to creating a respectful learning environment, School A illustrates explicitly the adoption of a whole-school approach to HRE since human rights was infused throughout its school community. This is in contrast to School B. It was clear from the findings that the teachers were not aware of students' rights so elements of rights violations were found in School B. This decreases the opportunities for students to receive education through human rights.

In relation to education for human rights, it was evident that School A facilitated education for human rights to a large extent while School B supported it just to some extent. It was apparent in School A that there were specific activities for generating strong interest in human rights, providing sufficient understanding towards human rights, and empowering students to enjoy their rights and help others whose rights were abused. These activities include a wide range of election activities and variety of human rights-related activities organised by student clubs and student councils, and all of these being means to foster active participation in school affairs for students. Such activities were used to empower students to organise their own human rights advocacy activities, involve students in such activities, and promote human rights awareness for students through participating in such activities. This showed that students of School A could translate human rights knowledge into human rights action even though it was just within the scope of the school. School B, however, featured aspects of education for human rights through only two main student clubs including the human rights club and youth

club. Active and participative learning activities were not explicitly provided. This might be related to the low level of support for HRE from student council advisors and other stakeholders in that school.

6.2.3 The knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of teachers have an impact on pedagogical practices.

The findings of this study point to the importance of the knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of the teachers teaching human rights in both schools. It was evident that the level of human rights knowledge of teachers in School A ensured that they were capable of teaching human rights in the Subject of Civic Duties for teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures. They also incorporated aspects of human rights in other subjects, and organised human rights-related activities. This may have been the result of the human rights training sessions provided for teachers in School A, which is consistent with the many studies emphasising the importance of teacher training about human rights (Abu-Nimer & Kadayifci, 2011; Bajaj, 2004; De Leo, 2005; Froese-Germain et al., 2013; Jerome et al., 2015; Kepenekci, 1998; Leung et al., 2011; Osler & Starkey, 1994; Stockman, 2010; Struthers, 2017) that teacher training is a key component of further HRE endeavours that seek to inculcate knowledge of and respect for human rights.

This contradicted with the situation found in School B. The findings from the interview data confirmed that it was challenging for many teachers in School B to teach human rights because they did not have an accurate grasp of it, and lacked human rights knowledge or information, which was consistent with teachers in many studies (Bajaj, 2004; BEMIS, 2013; Cassidy et al., 2014; Decara, 2013; Flowers et al., 2000; Howe & Covell, 2010; Kepenekci, 2005; Messina & Jacott, 2013; Osler & Yahya, 2013; Stockman, 2010; Stone, 2002; Struthers, 2016; Zembylas et al., 2015; Zembylas et al., 2016). It was found from the findings of School B that this lack of human rights knowledge had a negative impact on the efforts of senior teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures to incorporate human rights into the Civic Duties subject. For example, it was found in the interview data that such senior teachers did not completely teach or incorporate human rights in their lessons. One possible explanation might be that the lack of human rights knowledge had resulted in a low level of confidence to teach human rights. This mirrors the findings in the study of Cassidy et al. (2014) that there was a lack of knowledge, lack of confidence and non-implementation of

HRE in students' classrooms. In the case of teachers of other subjects, the lack of human rights knowledge also prevented teachers from incorporating human rights in their lessons. However, the findings in School B showed that the junior teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures had enough current knowledge about human rights to empower them to teach human rights. It was found in both school settings that there were some other factors influencing human rights teaching in addition to an adequate degree of knowledge of human rights. These were teachers' beliefs and attitudes.

Teachers' beliefs and attitudes had a significant influence on the ways teachers supported and promoted human rights in the classrooms in both schools. This is congruent with what Pandey (2007) notes that teachers' attitudes regarding social justice and human rights have an impact on students' experiences about human rights in school. In School A, it was clear from both administrators and teachers' interview data that human rights for them were necessary and important for students to learn in school. They were democratic and respectful, in ways which paralleled the ideal teachers in effective democracy and HRE found in the study of Gündoğdu and Yıldırım, (2010). Consequently, learning human rights in the classroom was highly regarded as another significant area where students were equipped with knowledge of human rights. This resulted from the belief of teachers that it was important to instil young students with sufficient understanding about human rights.

Furthermore, the teachers in School A believed that human rights were an essential part of students' quality of life in the future. These beliefs of the teachers in School A were strongly related to the high level of support for human rights, and particularly for teaching and incorporating human rights in the classrooms. In the case of School B, there was a clear difference between the junior teachers and senior teachers' beliefs and attitudes about HRE in school. Evidently, the junior teachers believed that teaching human rights was necessary in school especially with young children. As a result, they incorporated human rights content in their classrooms. According to the teachers' interview data, many senior teachers believed that teaching human rights was not necessary in school because students can authentically learn human rights outside school. Some senior teachers even believed that it was risky and dangerous to teach human rights to students. Some held conservative beliefs about seniority and power in school. Any ideas or initiatives created by junior teachers were then mostly rejected, including those regarding HRE in school. This was congruent with what Best (1991) argued in his study that "education in human rights will not develop unless teachers are first of all convinced of the need to teach human rights" (p. 120). A certain number of teachers in

Decara's study (2013, p. 3) also responded that "motivation derives largely from their personal interest or personal experience." It may have been relevant that the beliefs and attitudes of senior teachers prevented them from teaching or incorporating human rights in classrooms and lowered the amount of support and promotion of human rights in the school.

6.2.4 Close collaboration and support between teachers is crucial to HRE.

Another key to the success of HRE in School A and School B was close collaboration and support between teachers. This is in line with Lo et al. (2015) that "the role of teachers is crucial for the success of HRE" (p. 202). In this study, the role of teachers in working collaboratively is essential to HRE in both schools. However, this happened to varying degrees. It was evident from both the observational and interview data in School A that a good working partnership between teachers enhanced promoting and supporting human rights in school. In School A, two aspects of collaboration were found. These were collaboration in teaching human rights and organising human rights activities. As previously mentioned in Chapter 4, teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures were assigned to teach Civic Duties and human rights were chosen as the main theme of this subject. All the teachers were involved throughout the process starting from choosing the theme, selecting the subtopics, finding the materials, discussing problems found in the classrooms, and improving teaching quality. This resulted from the mutual interest of teachers in human rights and their collaboration in the department. In the wider school community, one significant example of close collaboration was organising human rights activities for students. All teachers in School A were given the chance to take part in organising human rights activities for students and teachers actively participated in such activities in different roles such as being on the organising team, as assistants and observers. The collaborative working environment in School A provided an important opportunity for teachers to share expertise, resources, and experience regarding human rights. This was in agreement with De Leo (2005) regarding the Asia-Pacific Survey of HRE in Schools that "it is important to develop consistent HRE programmes through good communication and coordination among different levels of school systems and through strong partnerships among all those responsible" (p. 43).

In the case of School B, even though the emphasis on working in unison was not that high compared with School A, the certain level of collaboration among a small group of junior teachers did make a noticeable impact on HRE in School B. It was evident in School B that

human rights were only taught by a group of junior teachers in the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures. Within this small group, these junior teachers worked collaboratively to seek out opportunities to teach human rights in their classrooms. For example, they tried hard to establish human rights as one learning theme for the subject of Civic Duties. Even though this idea was rejected by other senior teachers in the Department, they still taught human rights in their classrooms in both direct and indirect ways. In addition, this group of junior teachers looked for ways they could work together to improve HRE in School B by setting up human rights-related student clubs and performing as the duty teachers delivering and updating human rights issues or news to students during the morning assembly or flag ceremony.

In terms of support between teachers, both academic support and personal support were relevant to the success of HRE in School A. It was found that well-trained teachers organised human rights training for teachers of other learning areas and advisors of the classrooms. As a result, these teachers were equipped with a knowledge of human rights, teaching techniques, classroom management, and teaching and learning materials designs about human rights. It was confirmed by the teachers' interview data that such training enhanced their confidence in incorporating human rights into their lessons. This converges with the key findings of BEMIS (2013) that human rights training can extend teachers human rights knowledge and increase their confidence to teach human rights.

In addition to this academic support, personal support was also significant for supporting HRE in School A. It was found that when organising human rights activities for students, the organising team felt strongly supported by other teachers in school. This personal support was given in several forms such as food, drink, money, and encouragement. The strong personal support led to greater achievement in organising human rights activities in school. This would indicate that collaboration between teachers in School A significantly influenced its HRE. This supports the previous studies (Johnson, 2003; Meirink, Merjer, & Verloop, 2007; Meirink, Merjer, Imants, & Verloop, 2010) which emphasise the benefits of teacher collaboration, which are that teachers can exchange ideas or experience, develop and discuss new materials, get feedback from colleagues, and give each other moral support through working collaboratively. This was in contrast to the situation in School B. As mentioned in Chapter 5, only a group of junior teachers worked hard to teach and support human rights in the school. Most student activities regarding human rights were organised by the two student council advisors without the involvement of other teachers. This working in isolation of the

group of junior teachers to support human rights led to the low performance of HRE in School B. Goddard et al. (2007) also discussed in their study that “low levels of collaboration may indicate teachers’ unwillingness to take personal risks, especially those teachers who have worked in isolation for many years” (p. 892). Unlike School A, this is consistent with the situation of the teachers in School B regarding HRE since only a small group of junior teachers worked collaboratively to improve HRE in School B, while other teachers neglected it and expressed fear of and disinterest in promoting and supporting HRE in school.

In short, the findings of both schools apparently signified the importance of close collaboration and support in schools on HRE. It might claim that close collaboration and support needs to happen if schools want to drive improvements in HRE. Goddard et al. (2007) and Killion (2015) suggest that schools with greater levels of teacher collaboration did indeed have significantly higher levels of student achievement. This can illustrate the situation of teacher collaboration in both schools. In School A, the success of HRE was influenced by the high level of collaboration between teachers whereas the low collaboration among teachers in school B resulted in limited human rights learning for its students.

6.2.5 Student council plays a vital role in bridging communication between students, teachers and school administrators and provide a resource for human rights.

Throughout the findings of both schools, one significant factor influencing school performance on human rights was the student council. It was clear from the findings that School A embraced the role of the student council in school and the student council played an active and participatory role in school management and administration. Regarding human rights, the student council hugely strengthened and empowered the rights of students by functioning as a bridge connecting between students, teachers and school administrators. Further than that, the student council in School A was also regarded as another significant human rights resource for students in the school. This extended as far as meaning that some teachers were critical that student council members were spending too much time on their responsibilities and were thus neglecting their academic studies.

Student participation in school life is considered as an essential element for rights-respecting schools as found in two significant instruments (Amnesty International, 2012; UNICEF UK, 2008). It was evident in School B that there was a student council which was the

main student organisation in school but it was not fully given authority to work on behalf of the student body. Most student council affairs appeared to have been manipulated or controlled by its advisors. Arguably, the student council in School B was like its advisors' marionette. Most of the student council activities were initiated, processed and evaluated by its advisors. The student council took the role as the follower of its two advisors. The student council's participation in school life was therefore restricted. This was in line with the findings in several studies (Leung, Yuen, Cheng, & Chow, 2014; Leung, Yuen, Cheng, & Guo, 2016; Wyse, 2001) that students' opportunities to express their views were limited even though there was a school council in place. In contrast, the student council in School A was intended to give its students a voice and provided channels for students across the school to inform staff about their needs, to express their feelings, and to give feedback and comments to school. In other words, the student council ensured that the broader student body had a voice regarding issues or topics relating to the entire school community. Functioning as a bridge connecting between students, teachers and school administrators, information gained from students was then delivered to teachers and school administrators to solve problems or find solutions as shown in Figure 6.2.

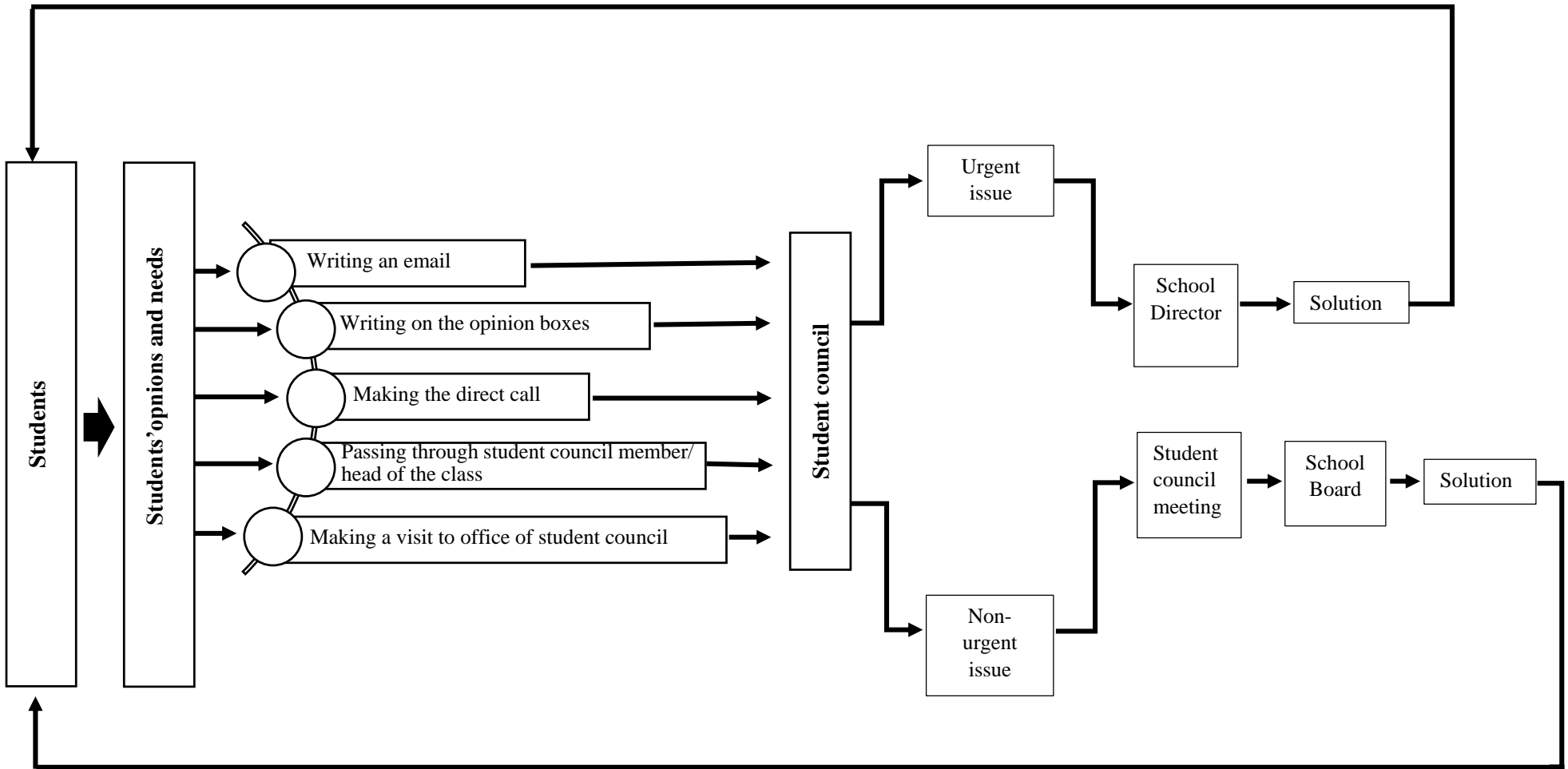


Figure 6.2: Process of School A's students' communication and engagement

The students' participation and having a voice in School A discussed above were in congruence with several studies, as follows. It was similar to Carter and Osler's findings (2000) that "through democratic practice and student involvement in school decision making process, students are able to develop the skills to access their rights and claim their identities" (p. 354). Furthermore, Covell (2010) and other previous studies (Covell et al., 2008, 2009; Dunhill, 2016) find that student engagement in a rights-respecting elementary school was high, although Covell (2010) had doubts about the effects of rights-respecting schools in secondary level. The findings of School A in this study, however, illustrate that student engagement can increase in a rights-respecting secondary school in addition to those of elementary level. More recently, Shier (2016) discussed one element of the right to respect in school in his study about child rights in Nicaraguan schools, which was that "students will be asked for their opinions, and encouraged to express them, and when they do so they will be listened to and taken account of" (p. 165-166). This is also congruent with how students' opinions in School A were valued through the processes of its student council.

Another significant role of a student council apparent from the interview data from School A was that its student council was considered to be a significant human rights resource for its students. This might have been the result of its administration being based on the four basic rights of the child stated in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989) including the rights to survival, development, protection, and participation. In terms of being a resource for human rights, students in School A learned human rights through doing or participating in a variety of activities organised by the student council. In relation to human rights knowledge, students were equipped with human rights knowledge through training sessions organised about peace, democracy, violence, and social justice. It was also reported that human rights were emphasised through news about human rights in the world and human rights issues in the community delivered by the student council during the flag ceremony. However, although it was mentioned by the students who were interviewed in School B that they had also learned about democracy and rights through participating in the election of their student council. Regarding the potential role of the student council as a human rights resource, there do not appear to be significant studies noting this role of a student council in HRE.

This study has explored the ways that a student council, apart from being a bridge connecting between students, school administrators, and teachers and providing channels for students to voice their concerns, can be a human rights resource for students in school. Based

on the full role of School A's student council and the limited role of School B's student council in promoting and supporting HRE, it can be inferred at this point that to a great extent human rights-related activities carried out by student councils produce human rights knowledge for students. This study confirms that the student council is a crucial mechanism in creating a rights-respecting school as found in the study of Lo et al. (2015) because the "student council provides opportunities for administrative experience through planning, organising, initiating, and controlling many aspects of school life" (Lunenburg, 2010, p. 3). As a result, this study suggests that schools should not simply ignore their student councils because they can perform as a mechanism for eliciting views of students and providing human rights sources for students.

6.2.6 Extra-curricular activities can have a significant impact on students' behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights.

In relation to human rights, it was found that, in addition to learning human rights in the classroom, extra-curricular activities played a significant role in generating strong interest and providing sufficient understanding towards human rights. This is in line with Amnesty International's suggestions (2012) regarding incorporating activities that promote human rights in schools. It was apparent that the number of extra-curricular human rights activities in School A was higher than in School B. This was in line with the extensive support of HRE in School A and the limited support of HRE in School B.

In School A, the extra-curricular activities relating to human rights included the human rights club, public-mindedness club, volunteer club, peace club, and anti-violence club. It was found based on observational data that students were participating very actively in activities related to human rights organised by these human rights-related student clubs. These activities related to human rights were regarded as another essential influencing factor in promoting desirable behaviour and decreasing unfavourable misbehaviour regarding human rights. For example, there was a decrease in student problems including cases of violence between students and bullying. High numbers of students joined in election activities in school. Students also became more interested in elections outside the school by taking part in the election observed and encouraging parents to vote. Students were more aware of helping others by expressing sympathy or donating stuff both for needy students in school and others outside the school. Students were willing to take action when human rights violations were found. It was apparent at this point that students of School A learned human rights meaningfully through

discussing human rights issues related to their lives and community inside the classroom. Furthermore, students also experienced human rights outside the classroom in which they were provided opportunities to participate in several activities related to human rights as shown in Chapter 4. The support for extra-curricular human rights activities in School A harmonised with the support for extra-curricular activities in human rights education revealed in many studies (Amnesty International, 2012; De Leo, 2005; Keser et al., 2011; Panda, 2001; Tsui, 1999).

In School B, even though there were only two human rights-related student clubs, the school members interviewed regarded that such clubs had ignited students' interest in human rights-related issues both inside and outside the school. It was also mentioned that non-members of the club were more interested in the activities organised by the two clubs. One significant example of the contribution of the two human-related clubs in School B was the higher numbers of students participating in human rights-related activities including marching to advertise the student council election, student council election itself, an essay competition about human rights, and volunteer activities.

The extra-curricular activities found in both schools show good congruence with the six themes of extra-curricular activities in citizenship education in primary schools conducted by Keser et al. (2011). These six 'blossoms' are the themes considered as the benefits of extra-curricular citizenship activities in schools, including active citizenship perception, social accountability, intercultural awareness, awareness of democracy and human rights, thinking and research skills, and interaction and intrapersonal skills. It was apparent that students of both schools had gained all six benefits in different levels due to the numbers and frequencies of activities in each school. Among these six themes, it was found that most of the extra-curricular human rights activities in School A enhanced all six themes for students but three particular themes apparently emerged which were active citizenship perception, intercultural awareness and awareness of democracy and human rights. In School B, students learned mostly about active citizenship perception and awareness of democracy and human rights from the extra-curricular human rights activities. However, that was not sufficient for students across the school because such extra-curricular human rights activities were limited and not various.

Due to the fact that students spent their time both learning inside and outside the classroom, extra-curricular activities were found as another significant human rights learning source outside the classroom. It can be inferred from the findings of both schools that extra-

curricular activities considerably influenced students' behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights. Indeed, it is worth noting that the more extra-curricular activities related to human rights were organised in school, the better students' behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights were. This coheres with De Leo (2005) that "co-curricular approaches reinforce awareness among learners and promote positive attitudes and a school environment sensitive to human rights concerns" (p. 46).

6.2.7 Community engagement and partnerships with other organisations enhance the understanding of the wider implications of HRE for students.

Another significant and outstanding factor influencing human rights learning in schools in this study was community engagement and partnerships regarding human rights. This was particularly apparent in the situation of School A. As School A was regarded as a part of community and the community was valued as a part of the school, school and community interchangeably played significant roles as human rights learning resources for each other as depicted in Figure 6.3. This made students of School A learn the wider context of human rights. It was seen from the interview data that the community made a positive contribution towards human rights learning in School A since students learned many human rights topics through exhibitions organised by the communities on themes such as the human rights community, democracy and community, the basic rights of community members, and how to deal with rights violation in the community. Students and teachers also took part in human rights-related activities in the community such as decision making processes in important policies or community projects, organising and observing the Head of community election, marching to advertise the election, and marching to promote human rights awareness for community members.

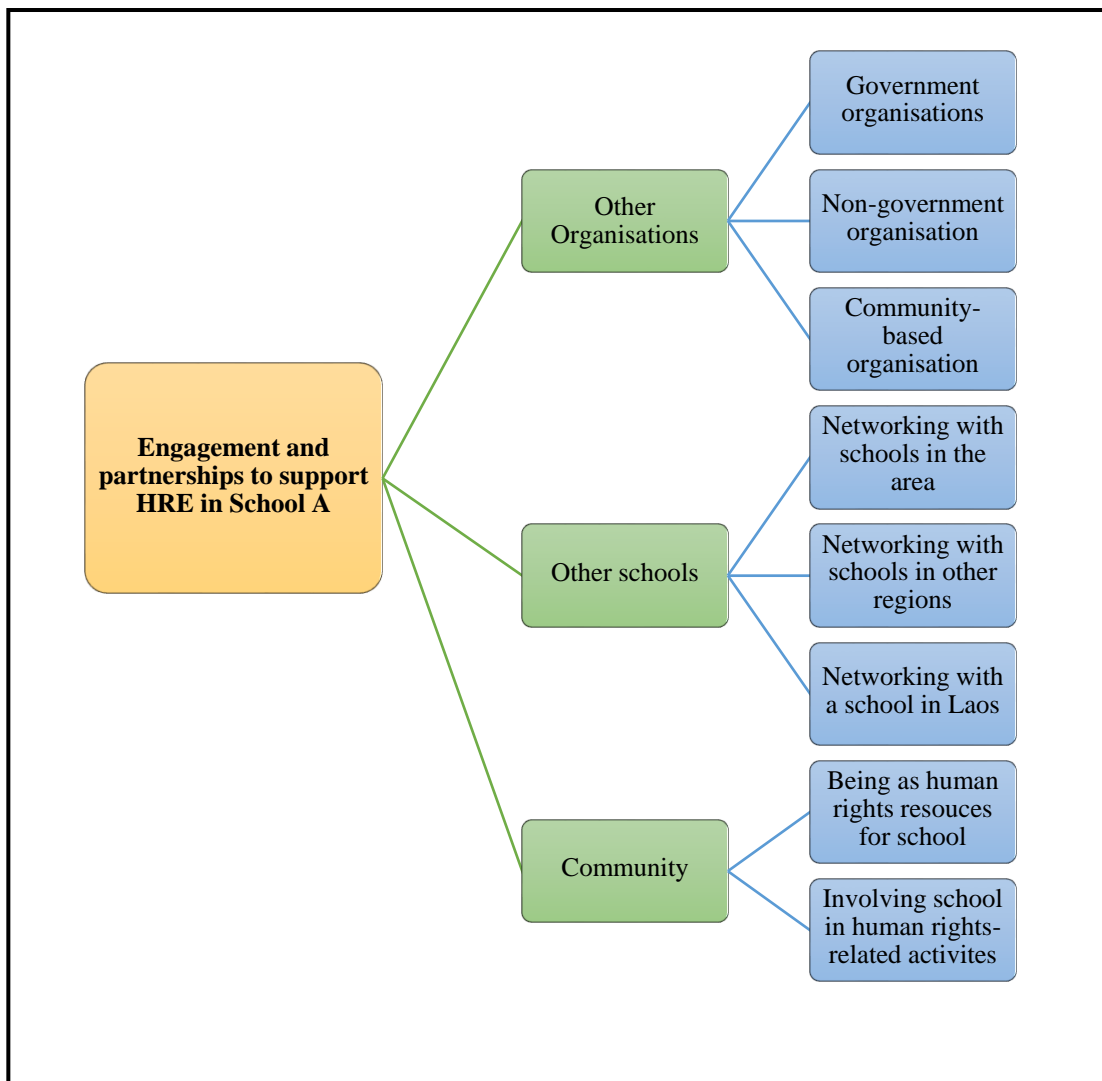


Figure 6.3: Different levels of engagement and partnerships between School A and other organisations regarding HRE

This concurs with students in the studies of Boyle-Baise and Zeven (2009) that to become civically minded, students need opportunities not only in school but outside school to engage with their communities. It was also mentioned by Jerome et al. (2015), Gündoğdu and Yıldırım (2010), and Tibbitts (2004) that a close partnership between schools and their community fosters open communication and continuing strong personal and democratic relationships. Likewise, the community was also involved in school affairs regarding human rights in different roles. Community members were invited to school as guest speakers, participants or observers in all human rights activities in School A. Furthermore, the Heads of communities and some community members were engaged by being invited in as the judges in

many student competitions related to human rights and community including the drawing competition on the topic 'My human rights community' and the public speech competition on the topic 'How to make peace in the community'. In the case of School B, less collaboration was found between school and community in relation to HRE. This resulted in the lack of a thorough and wide understanding of human rights of students in School B because they had only a limited opportunity to learn and explore human rights in the wider context apart from inside the school. This present study therefore fills the gap in the literature suggested by Leung et al. (2011) that the use of community and professional resources in human rights teaching needs to be explored. This present study has provided evidence that the community was another significant source of human rights knowledge and activities for students in both schools in addition to learning human rights in school. In the wider context, Bron and Thijs (2011) note in their study regarding citizenship, diversity and HRE in the Netherlands that "public engagement of local community is not only crucial for citizenship but also for the success of educational reform" (p. 132). This study illustrates that community engagement in School A helped to improve its HRE and became a prominent part in developing HRE as well.

The situation of community engagement in School B was similar to what happened with other schools and organisations engagement in School B. Canadian teachers in Froese-Germain et al.'s survey (2013) about HRE in Canada expressed "the needs for parents and other community members to place more value on HRE, and to take responsibility for raising awareness about human rights issues" (p. 19). It was found that School B had little collaboration with other schools and organisations regarding HRE. This was in contrast to the situation in School A since School A benefited from working collaboratively with different schools and organisations to support and promote human rights in school. In terms of its collaboration with other schools, it was found in School A that there was a close relationship between School A and other schools at different levels including locally, nationally and internationally. This close relationship networking with schools in the local area forced School A to develop itself and maintain its good performance regarding democracy and human rights because the school was regarded as the hub for democracy and human rights learning among the networking schools. Partnerships with other schools in other regions of Thailand provided an opportunity for representatives of School A to exchange their knowledge and experiences regarding democracy and human rights in schools. Beyond that, School A had expanded its relationship with one secondary school in Laos PDR. This initial partnership with one school

in a neighbouring country at least provided School A's students with a wider learning experiences of human rights.

Apart from partnerships with schools at different levels, a variety of organisations including government organisations, nongovernment organisations, and community-based organisations were also involved in HRE in School A. Two different forms of assistance were given by such organisations included organising trainings and workshops related to human rights and being brought in as experts to speak on a variety of topics related to human rights. This provides examples of the broad implications of human rights and of deepening the understanding of human rights situations outside the school, raising students' awareness in addition. This is particularly in line with what Yeshanew (2004) mentioned, that "partnership among different concerned actors is very important in that it creates a pool of potential and experience for effective HRE" (p. 36). De Leo (2005) also emphasised that partnerships with local and international organisations are also very useful, especially for jointly conducting HRE training courses and informal, community-based educational activities.

6.2.8 The context of operating within a military regime creates a complex and contradictory environment for teachers and students in schools which endeavour to promote human rights.

Based on the findings regarding school administrators', teachers', and students' opinions towards the military government's policy and campaign about human rights, it was evident that that policy and campaign had created both positive and negative effects in relation to human rights teaching in both schools. It was found that School A and School B took action differently based on their schools' performance regarding human rights. As Sainz (2018) mentions, "there is insufficient empirical data showing the challenges of implementing HRE in contexts that are still affected by conflict" (p. 85). This study may help to fill this gap by providing further evidence of how HRE under a military regime is undertaken as shown in the following paragraphs.

In the case of School A, after careful analysis of the data it emerged that the Civic Duties Subject was considered as a benefit for School A because this subject could be used as another way to teach human rights and democracy to the school's students. As promoting democracy and human rights was part of the policy for the whole school alongside the school's intention and readiness to teach human rights, the Civic Duties Subject was raised as the subject

where human rights were most highly supported and promoted. In terms of the school's intention and readiness to teach human rights, it was apparent from the data that the teachers of the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures were actively teaching human rights content in the Civic Duties Subject. Teachers were allocated to teach Civic Duties at each level and they were given freedom to design their own courses based on the human rights themes. In relations to students' opinion, it was apparent that this subject was regarded by the students interviewed to be a significant source of human rights learning for them.

However, this did not happen in School B. It was evident from the data from School B that the military government's policy on teaching Civic Duties had created, anxiety, worries and a dilemma in School B, particularly for teachers, due to the unclear policy without guidelines, as shown in Figure 6.4. This resonates with the claims of Leung and Lo (2012, p. 356) that

the government should develop a comprehensive HRE policy to be backed up with sufficient resources comparable to what has been done with [sic] national curriculum. Curriculum guidelines and teaching resources should be developed with the help of HRE experts.

Kepekci (2005) also concluded in his study about the effectiveness of an HRE course in Turkey that the efficiency of the HRE course would increase considerably if a teacher guide for the course was prepared to help teachers deliver the content, decide on educational activities, and determine the appropriate teaching and educational materials for its subject matter and educational activities. In the study of Zembylas et al. (2015) about teachers' understanding about HR and HRE in Cyprus, without the detailed policies and guidelines on human rights teaching, this prevented teachers from teaching human rights in their lessons.

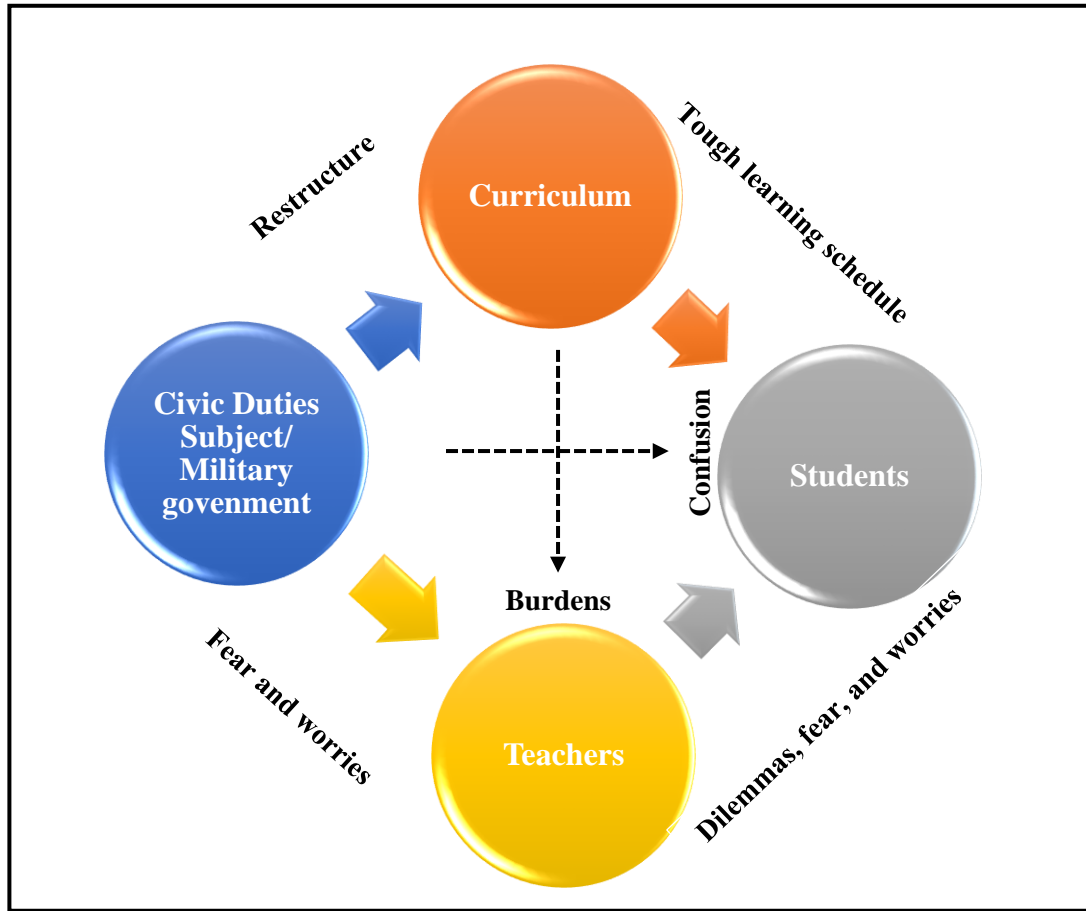


Figure 6.4: Impacts of Civic Duties Subjects on human rights teaching in School B

Like School A, the Department of Social Studies, Religions, and Cultures was assigned to teach Civic Duties but this created a difficult situation in School B as illustrated in Figure 6.4 because allocating teachers to the subject and designing teaching themes were controversial. It was also found that a restructure of the curriculum would be needed in order to place the new subject into the curriculum. In relation to the numbers of teachers and their duties, it was found that the teachers in the department already had to teach two different subjects; thus, this new subject was considered as a heavy burden for them. This was similar to the teachers participating in the study of Leung et al. (2011) in Hong Kong who found that it was difficult to recruit teachers to teach an HRE course because of the low status of the subject and teachers' responsibilities for other subjects. Teachers in the study of Froese-Germain et al. (2013) also mention that workload emerged as a significant challenge for teachers to teach human rights.

In addition, it was found that the group of senior teachers in the department did not agree to teach human rights and democracy while the group of junior teachers expressed their intention to incorporate human rights and democracy. It was clear from the interview data of those senior teachers that they were afraid of the military government's reaction to human rights teaching in the school because human rights were not supposed to be in line with the form of a military government. Furthermore, those senior teachers were worried about the students' potential reaction to the military government if they were equipped with a knowledge of democracy and human rights. This illustrates the concerns and fears about the students' misuse of human rights knowledge held by senior teachers. This mirrors what Leung et al. (2011) concluded, in their study about barriers to HRE, that "perhaps teacher concern about the misuse of human rights by students after exposure to HRE is the most significant barrier" (p. 159).

Regarding the issue of vulnerability, it appears that teachers tend to avoid teaching or mentioning it in the human rights classroom. In a similar manner, the key message in the study of Froese-Germain et al. (2013) was that "teaching controversial issues and topics related to HRE in public school can be challenging in the context of pluralistic society" (p. 21). Furthermore, the fears of senior teachers in School B over teaching human rights were consistent with some of the seven fears of HRE in Hong Kong teachers explored by Tai (1994) including fear of confusion, of losing authority, of being troublesome, of having too heavy a workload, fear of lack of understanding, of abuse by students, and fear of implementation. Regarding students in School B, interview data given by students who learned human rights in the Civic Duties classes run by the junior teachers indicated that they felt confused with the objectives of the military government regarding Civic Duties. It was also expressed by the students in School B that the Civic Duties Subject supported democracy, justice, human rights, and peace but some of them perceived that such things had been damaged by the military government itself. In congruence with Osler and Yahya (2013) regarding the study of teachers' understanding of HRE in Iraqi Kurdistan, "students are likely to feel disempowered, despite the human rights they learn about, societal conditions undermine these rights" (p. 142). This suggests that the mismatch between the current situation outside school and human rights learning in school discourages students' human rights learning and trust in human rights learning in school.

In short, the military regime had had both beneficial and negative impacts on human rights teaching in the two schools in this study based on the degree of support for human rights

in the schools. School A with its high level of support and promotion of human rights had utilised the policy of military government to create the subject focusing on human rights whereas the same conditions had created a problem for School B due to the lack of teachers and the low level of support of the relevant stakeholders in school. It was notable that the policy of the military government on Civic Duties also created confusion for students since how the military government could support learning reconciliation and a sense of patriotism among schoolchildren, yet how, at the same time, the military could restrict people's rights in the country were in contradiction.

One possible explanation may be related to the military government's intention to support human rights in schools. It was believed by many teachers in this study that the Civic Duties Subject was being used by the military government as one way to compensate for human rights and democracy having been badly damaged by them. However, it did not seem that it was the intention of the military government to support democracy and human rights. This was in line with one professional in the study of Osler and Yahya (2013) that "HRE has been introduced merely to conform to international standards, rather than with commitment and clearly articulated educational and social justice aim" (p. 135). Leung (2008) also mentioned in his study about HRE in Hong Kong that the government's sincerity in supporting human rights in schools was crucial to the improvement of HRE. This is also congruent with the concern found in the study of BEMIS (2013, p. 60) that "despite the willingness of many teachers and other educators to promote HRE, without both the political leadership and more explicit curricular guidance there is a danger that it may continue to be delivered on an ad hoc basis resulting in a paucity of HRE...". Particularly in an Asian context, Plantilla (2009, p. 159) notes that

Human rights education in the school system requires much more than policy statements. Government commitment must translate into appropriate curriculum, teaching-learning material, teacher-training, and extra-curricular support. Governments have to spearhead efforts to ensure that the education officials, school administrators, teachers and even parents properly understand human rights.

6.3 Summary

To conclude, the main difference between HRE in School A and School B was the level of practice and support for HRE. This study found evidence that human rights were implemented extensively in School A both inside and outside the classroom while human rights were only partly implemented in School B. However, there was evidence of good practice in human rights learning in some Civic Duties classes in School B, even if there was reluctance amongst many teachers in the school. The findings in this present study shed light on the issues related to HRE consisting of eight key claims as presented in the human rights-oriented school model illustrated in Figure 6.1 at the beginning of this chapter.

These eight key claims address how human rights are implemented across the schools in this present study. It is notable to mention here that these are the essential elements for building a school to be human rights-oriented based on the findings. These elements depend on each other. Implementing HRE in school as a whole is the main point for driving the school to be human rights-oriented, so school administrators, teachers and students are enablers for enhancing HRE in school. The hope is that this will begin to change people's opinions and attitudes, and raise awareness of the implementation of HRE in schools both inside and outside the classroom. However, this study notes that there are certain factors influencing HRE in schools including the knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of teachers, collaboration and support between teachers, student councils, extra-curricular activities, community engagement and partnerships, and military regime policy. Therefore, it is likely to remain hard to predict precisely the success of HRE in schools because several external factors cannot be predetermined. Particularly, as the level and kind of support and attention from the government will change and evolve, so precisely human rights in schools may well change over time.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to draw conclusions about the research in its entirety. The chapter begins with section 7.2 summarising the whole study particularly reviewing its approach and method and its key findings. Section 7.3 delineates the contributions for the field including its theoretical, practical and methodological contributions. Then the implications for various stakeholders regarding HRE are depicted based on the research findings in Section 7.4. Section 7.5 discusses the limitations of the study, and Section 7.6 also discusses the recommendations for future research. The closing remarks are presented at the end of this chapter in Section 7.7.

7.2 Summary of the study

7.2.1 Review of approach and methods

The previous literature shows that studies related to HRE have been conducted for a wide range of purposes. These include looking at student transformation, investigating teachers' experience of HRE, and evaluating the effectiveness of HRE programmes or schools. Thailand is one country attempting to integrate HRE in its school system. However, recently, due to its military government, Thailand has been criticised for its HRE (Human Rights Watch, 2015). It is interesting to study the current situation of HRE in a country where a democratically elected government does not exist. Furthermore, there are few studies about HRE in Thailand. Previous research conducted into HRE in general was diverse, ranging from surveys, interviews, observation, and mixed-method research. It can be noted at this stage that few research studies have been carried out by spending time in schools and exploring what naturally occurs in schools regarding HRE. This gap needs to be filled. As such, this study into HRE in secondary schools in Thailand was explored employing ethnographic research methods. To achieve this goal, the following primary research questions were posed for this study.

- 1) What do teachers do to promote 'human rights education' in secondary schools in Thailand?

- 2) What values and beliefs do teachers hold in relation to ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?
- 3) How do students experience ‘human rights education’ in secondary schools in Thailand?

To answer the research questions, two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand were purposefully selected as case studies. One has a national reputation for its work on promoting human rights and democracy. The other is a more conventional school in which human rights is taught in line with government guidance, but which does not have a public profile for this work. To obtain the thick description and rigorous research findings, three different ethnographic methods were used including participant observation obtained by field notes, interviews, and document analysis. This is consistent with Denzin (1970) and Brewer (2000) who describe the multiplicity of methods and their triangulation as the routine hallmark of ethnography. The intensive data collection took place during November 2015 to April 2016.

Prior to analysing the data, the transcripts were rechecked against the recordings for accuracy and were then translated into English by the researcher. Later, they were cross-checked by two Thai university lecturers. The data from field notes and relevant documents were purposefully selected and translated into English and similarly crosschecked by the same lecturers. In terms of data analysis, the 6-step framework of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was applied to the interview transcriptions, field notes from the participant observations, and the textual sources of written documents. The steps include familiarising with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report.

7.2.2 Key findings

Regarding HRE in School A, it was apparent that human rights were enacted throughout the school community both inside and outside of the classroom. Regarding learning human rights lessons in the observed Civic Duties classes of M.5 (Grade 11), students learned two different human rights themes over a semester including building the human rights community and protection of rights. In the lessons, students were given opportunities to discuss about human rights issues related to their own life or community. At the same time, greater awareness of

specific human rights was generated through using inclusive and participative pedagogies. This includes child-centeredness, equal opportunities, and non-discrimination. In terms of learning human rights outside the classroom, it was apparent that human rights themes were also embedded extensively in other aspects including school governance, school environment, extra-curricular activities, the flag ceremony, the student council, and relationships with local organisations. Furthermore, it was also found that there were certain influencing factors regarding supporting human rights in School A. These include organisation culture, governmental policy and campaigns, the Education Act and school curriculum, human rights training for teachers and students, community engagement and expectation, maintaining a good reputation and securing awards given, and local, national, and international partnerships.

In the case of HRE in School B, the data shows that students also learned human rights both inside and outside the classroom. However, there were differences in the level of support, sincerity, and intentions to support human rights in school. With respect to learning human rights lessons in the Civic Duties classes, human rights themes were included in certain Civic Duties classes. Classroom observation took place in two classes; one was a Civic Duties class of M. 2 (Grade 8) and the other was of a Civic Duties class of M. 5 (Grade 11). In Civic Duties class of lower secondary level, students learned human rights themes through doing projects selected by themselves. These included cleaning the temple and its area, playing guitar and entertaining patients at the hospital, helping run exercise activities for elders in the community, feeding homeless dogs, raising funds for youth activities, and painting the fence of a child care centre. In addition, greater human rights awareness was found as a result of participating in classroom activities. This includes child-centred learning, appreciation of the diversity and feelings of other people involved, and an increase in the visibility of values and acceptance.

In relation to the Civic Duties class of upper secondary level, the class was organised through employing discussion activities. In this regard, students learned human rights through discussing the following topics, migrant workers, the sugar factory, stateless Rohingya, and transgender people. In terms of the specific awareness of human rights generated through these learning activities in the classroom, this included respect for diversity and the sense that students' opinions were being valued. Regarding human rights outside the classroom, human rights values appeared in other aspects of school community but only at very limited levels. These aspects included school governance, the school environment, the flag ceremony, extra-curricular activities, the student council, and relationships with local organisations. Evidently, the low level of human rights support in School B was due to several factors. These were

organisation culture, governmental policies and campaigns, the effect of the Education Act and school curriculum, teachers' personal beliefs and experiences, and administrators' constraints.

Through cross-comparison between School A and School B, the findings shed light on issues related to HRE. Eight key claims were developed to bring the data together and to make the case as to what a 'human rights oriented school' might look like. These include;

- 1) HRE needs to be embedded in every aspect of a school both inside and outside classrooms.
- 2) Contextualising human rights in the classroom makes the learning experience for students meaningful.
- 3) The knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of teachers have an impact on pedagogical practices.
- 4) Close collaboration and support between teachers is crucial to HRE.
- 5) Student council plays a vital role in bridging communication between students, teachers and school administrators and provide a resource for human rights.
- 6) Extra-curricular activities can have a significant impact on students' behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights.
- 7) Community engagement and partnerships with other organisations enhance the understanding of the wider implications of HRE for students.
- 8) The context of operating within a military regime creates a complex and contradictory environment for teachers and students in schools which endeavour to promote human rights.

7.3 Contributions to the field

This study makes certain significant contributions to the field of HRE. The overall objective of the thesis was to explore HRE in Thailand. This has made it possible for the study to contribute to key debates about how HRE has been implemented in schools in Thailand and some of the differences in how teachers and students have experienced this. Spending time in the two schools for six months and obtaining data from three sources of data collection methods including observation, interviews, and document analysis produced rich data and generated a clear picture of how human rights were enacted in two contrasting schools. This section thus discusses the contribution made by this study, including its theoretical, practical and methodological contributions.

7.3.1 Theoretical contribution

The findings of this research are increasingly important in terms of the field of HRE. It is apparent that HRE has increased and that interest in, and global support for it has grown in the last few decades in all parts of the world. This study has extended the field of study to include the more local aspect of HRE in Thailand.

In terms of the existing models of HRE, it was apparent, based on the findings from School A, that the contribution of this study is to supplement Tibbitts' existing model of HRE (2017) about how secondary schools can adopt an activism/transformation model even though this model is typically sponsored by civil society organisations for the benefits of marginalised populations with the aim of increasing learners' transformation and the creation of social change. It is likely that School A can help shed some light on the implications of HRE for developing a school to be a place where students are shaped and equipped to be able to take action and participate in human rights activism. It is likely that in cases of secondary schools with a similar context, the adaptability of the activism/transformation model applied here might be a good option.

With regard to the wider contribution, this present study illustrates what a human rights-oriented school might look like. The model of a human rights-oriented school obtained from this study provides further confirmatory evidence of the effectiveness of a whole school approach to HRE (Amnesty International Ireland, 2011; Covell et al., 2010; Mejias, 2012, 2017; UNICEF UK, 2008). It is a model of how all key stakeholders can become involved in the improvement of HRE in schools. Although the findings of the study are not easily transferrable to other schools and other countries, this model might be useful when applied more widely. This model provides initial information for the further development of school policies planning on HRE, implementing such policies, and teaching techniques about HRE in secondary schools. Furthermore, these ideas might be transferable to other contexts especially those operating in military regimes, since this model is open-ended, so that other school levels including primary and higher education levels can adapt the model to their specific contexts. The model of a human rights-oriented school is important for several aspects. First, it helps raise awareness of key stakeholders' roles in improving HRE in secondary schools. Second, it illustrates what those key stakeholders can do to improve HRE in secondary schools. Third, the impact of military government is identified based on the observation and interview data. This is similar to several studies marking the importance of HRE in post-conflict societies

(Magendzo, 2005; Osler, 2005; Tibbitts, 2008). Last, it paves the way for developing HRE in a school at the very beginning level of initiatives. Overall, this model can be regarded as a lesson that can be learned by those schools where HRE is less embedded in the curriculum and extra-curricular activities, if they are willing to effectively and sustainably uplift HRE in their schools.

7.3.2 Practical contribution

This research consists of two case studies employing ethnographic approaches. It explored HRE in the secondary school context. Its findings were obtained from observing how human rights were embedded in schools, interviewing key stakeholders namely school administrators, teachers and students, and through studying the related documents. As such, the findings enhance understanding about values, beliefs, practice and experience regarding HRE in secondary schools. Also, the study uncovered factors influencing the improvement of HRE in secondary schools.

One of the significant practical contributions is related to the roles of key stakeholders in improving HRE in secondary schools. This includes school administrators, teachers, the student council, students, the community, and other related organisations. The findings in this study pinpoint that a high level of support from these key stakeholders is a significant element in creating human rights-oriented schools.

In cases of incorporating human rights values in schools, the findings showed that teachers in School A seemed to have similar beliefs and attitudes towards human rights values. This resulted in the high level of emphasis and support for human rights values in School A. These values were included in several aspects such as school governance, the school environment, school activities, and the student council. However, it was clear in School B that human rights values were not fully promoted. This was mainly due to different attitudes and beliefs towards human rights among teachers in the school. For example, most senior teachers did not pay attention to valuing human rights in school, while junior teachers perceived that human rights should be embedded widely in the school community. The difference in beliefs and attitudes towards human rights held by teachers in School B influences the level of support for human rights in school.

Regarding teaching human rights lessons, the findings of the present study add substantial support to the use of contextualisation in human rights teaching. Evidence from the findings in the Civic Duties Classes of both school suggests that contextualising human rights lessons helps students learn human rights in real-world challenges and situation. As a result, there was a high engagement and motivation in classroom discussion. Furthermore, it appeared in the classroom findings that discussion activities were effective when discussing issues relevant to students' past experience and daily lives.

In terms of human rights-related extra-curricular activities, the findings of this study show that the schools provided a variety of activities for students across the school. The current findings add substantially to the importance of human rights-related extra-curricular activities as another significant source for human rights learning outside the classroom and their impact on students' behaviour and attitudes regarding human rights.

However, based on the findings of the present study, supporting HRE faced unique challenges in school where human rights were not adequately emphasised. This study helped raise awareness of the key stakeholders on the impact of those challenges since they were regarded as the weaknesses of the school with the lower performance of HRE. While it was evident in the school with the greater focus on HRE that such challenges were faced and developed and found to be significant elements in building up the school to be human rights-oriented. Thus, these challenges should be taken into consideration when planning and implementing HRE policy in order to raise the quality of HRE in schools. These include organisation culture, human rights training for teachers and students, partnerships with community and other related organisations, and military government policy.

7.3.3 Methodological contribution

With regard to the methodological contribution, this primarily includes the use of case studies employing ethnographic research methods in HRE study. Based on previous studies about HRE, diverse research methods were employed. These ranged from surveys, interviews, observation, and mixed-methods research. Few research studies have been carried out by spending time in a school and exploring what naturally occurs in schools regarding HRE. It was evident that involved combining the three types of ethnographic data collection methods namely participant observation obtained by field notes, interviews, and document analysis.

These ethnographic data collection methods given above offer substantial advantages over any individual method. This is particularly advantageous for studying and comparing HRE in two school settings. As such, this can lead to a greater and clearer understanding of what teachers do to promote HRE, what values and beliefs teachers hold in relation to HRE and how students experience HRE. The findings of HRE in the two contrasting schools obtained from ethnographic research methods provided rich evidence and enabled a thick description of HRE in secondary schools in Thailand.

7.4 Practical implications

Based on the findings of this present study, several practical implications arise. These practical implications involve the key stakeholders in HRE found in the study. These include the government, school administrators, teachers, the student council, students, and the community and related organisations. Each will be presented in the following paragraphs.

7.4.1 Implications for government

Derived from document analysis and the interview data, HRE was given a low status in the national curriculum which was produced by the previous democratically elected government. To elaborate, HRE was just only one learning area under the subject of Social Studies. Furthermore, it was mentioned by teachers that it was difficult to teach or integrate rights or human rights in their classrooms since human rights content was broadly and unclearly stated in the national curriculum. This includes adopting laws and taking pertinent practical steps to improve HRE. This can be done by separating HRE as a standalone subject under the name of HRE, and not subsumed in any other subject. Together, clear guidelines for contents and methodology to teach human rights and how to organise human rights activities both inside and outside the classroom should be produced for teachers of HRE.

In the present study, apart from supporting HRE in the national curriculum, the urgent policy of military government regarding HRE was also influential on HRE in schools. The findings show that while the current government policy regarding HRE was effectively implemented in School A with full support of HRE, it seemed to be problematic for School B with its low support of HRE. In the case of Thailand, the readiness of other schools in implementing such policy might not be as high as that found in School A. This means that the

policy of the military government might not be implemented effectively across the country because the majority of schools are not ready and less supportive of HRE. Policy regarding HRE, in particular, should be taken into consideration prior to its being delivered to schools across the country. As such, the military government should study the readiness of school administrators and teachers across the country for implementing HRE in schools because these two groups of people are the key means to improving HRE in schools. In this case, a public hearing is crucially needed. And if a public hearing cannot be organised, clear guidance into how to implement such a policy should be provided for schools and teachers as stated in the previous paragraph.

7.4.2 Implications for school administrators

School administrators are also crucial to the improvement of HRE in schools. Being the group leading schools, they are capable of activating the whole school and connecting school members together to support and value human rights easily and effectively. It was found in the findings of School B that the school administrators' lack of ambition and enthusiasm influenced the level of support for HRE in the school. Therefore, HRE requires school administrators to engage with all school members to value human rights in schools. This study recommends that school administrators take the role of coordinator between government policy about HRE and the implementation of HRE in school. School administrators should support the full implementation of HRE policy in school. Moreover, they should be able to give the suggestions to teachers in an effective way and be able to provide specific recommendations related to HRE in schools. This study also lends support to the whole-school approach for HRE. It is advisory that school administrators support a whole school approach to HRE. A whole school approach to HRE should go beyond just teaching human rights or incorporating human rights as a separate lesson in the classroom. This means that the school should create a genuine human rights-friendly environment where every school member is valued.

7.4.3 Implications for teachers

According to HRE as delivered in the two schools in this study, it was found that the support of teachers is crucial to the implementation and the improvement of HRE. Particularly, a group

of junior teachers in School B actively worked to teach human rights and organise human rights activities for students in school. In this regard, five recommendations are presented.

Firstly, contextualising learning should be taken into consideration for teachers of HRE. From this study, teachers of HRE in both observed classes taught human rights by connecting human rights themes with students' lives and experience. It was apparent that students were actively involved in discussing human rights-related themes closely related to themselves and their community. Students also showed positive reactions to their learning experiences in such HRE classes. With this regard, this suggests that contextualising learning is effective in HRE. Discussion activities underpinning contextualising HRE learning is recommended since discussion activity can engage students in learning activities.

Secondly, teachers should make HRE classes meaningful. This can be done by employing an active learning methodology in which learners are encouraged to participate actively and are equipped with critical thinking skills. In terms of content, teachers should analyse students' needs and interests in order to let them choose their favourite human rights topics to learn about. By doing this, students might be able to enjoy their HRE course and this can provide an opportunity for students to talk and discuss the topics chosen by themselves. Furthermore, teachers should create a democratic environment which motivates rather than discourages learners of HRE. This should be applied in all classes of other subjects across the school. This may be difficult because it needs the full cooperation of all school members.

In addition, this study suggests that close cooperation among teachers is crucial in order to make schools to be human rights-oriented. As such, teachers have to help each other in improving HRE in school. In this sense, a good working partnership between teachers can enhance the promotion and support for human rights in school in several ways. For example, teachers can share expertise, experience, and resources regarding teaching human rights or organising human rights-related activities. In particular, teachers' cooperation in organising human rights activities outside the classrooms or extra-curricular activities is essential. Teachers should take roles as advisors or supporters of human rights related activities in schools, such as series of elections, student clubs, and social activities in school. Especially, teachers who are responsible for coaching or supporting human rights activities for students should be a good example for students, especially as advisors to the student council. Upon the council the advisors of the student council should avoid imposing their personal bias and prejudice on students and set an example in terms of respect for human rights.

The last recommendation for teachers concerns HRE or HRE training for teachers, since most teachers in School B lacked human rights knowledge and pedagogical techniques. One possible solution to this problem is teacher education about human rights (Osler & Starkey, 1996). Teachers should be equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills to promote global education (Osler & Vincent, 2002) so that teachers can be able to demonstrate to students the different levels of human rights issues ranging from local to global. In this regard, the guidelines for global education proposed by Davies et al. (2005) might be applicable to use in teaching human rights in addition to contextualising human rights learning. These include: a) using global content, b) linking past, present, and future, c) emphasising the affective, d) exploring issues, and e) encouraging action. This might be effective with the policy of the government to prepare good preparatory programmes for teachers. Efficient long-term teacher development regarding human rights can play a key role in HRE quality.

7.4.4 Implications for student council

Apart from school administrators and teachers, this study suggests that the student council is essential in supporting HRE outside the classroom for students in schools. The examples of student councils in both School A and School B illustrate this case. As such, there are two desirable characteristics of student councils suggested from this study. The first is that the student council should create communication links between school administrators, teachers, and students, which would make channels available for students across the school to inform staff about their needs, to express their feelings, and to give feedback and comments to school. The student council should thus be able to ensure that the broader student body has a voice regarding issues or topics relating to the entire school community. The second is that the student council should provide human rights resources for students in the school. These include organising human rights-related activities and training and updating/delivering human rights news/contents, and advertising human rights-related campaigns to students across the schools.

7.4.5 Implications for students

Regarding the implications for students, this study suggests that students in human rights-oriented schools should be active students. With this regard, students should be active in learning human rights lessons, joining human rights-related activities outside the classroom,

and participating in human rights-related activities in the community. To learn human rights lessons, students are required to fully participate in classroom activities. This can create the meaningful human rights lessons then. Regarding human rights-related activities outside the classroom, it is advisory for students to actively learn human rights from human rights-related activities in schools. Apart from learning through human rights-related activities, students should actively practise organising human rights activities in school by playing different roles such as being on organising teams, or as supporters or attendees. In the case of human rights-related activities in the community, students should also actively learn and participate in human rights activities in the community since human rights learning in the community is authentic and closely related to students' lives involving issues such as democratic practices in the community, the basic rights of community members, and how to deal with rights violations in the community.

7.4.6 Implications for community and related organisations

As another factor influencing HRE in schools in this present study, the community and other related organisations made a positive contribution towards human rights learning in the schools. As a result, this study suggests that community and other related organisations should realise that they are regarded as a human rights-learning resource for students in schools. In the case of communities nearby the schools and communities in the students' areas, they should organise more human rights-related activities since such activities can provide human rights knowledge and examples of authentic human rights learning. As for the variety of organisations including government organisations, non-governmental organisations, and community-based organisations, they should get involved more in HRE in schools because the findings in this study show that they help organise trainings and workshops related to human rights and can provide the experts to speak on a variety of topics related to human rights.

7.5 Limitations

This section presents the limitations of this study. There are several limitations derived from different aspects of the study. These include limitations related to the participants, the research methodology, and the overall generalizability of the research.

In the case of the participants, it was found in this study that conducting the study during a period of rule by military regime influenced participants' willingness to disclose information. In other words, some participants felt reluctant to reveal information or discuss issues related to the military regime. Another limitation related to the participants is the participants' workload. Due to having intense schedules, some participants therefore were not available to take part in interviews or informal chats with the researcher. As for access to data, it was found in School B that the access to human-rights-related documents was not easy because outsiders were not allowed access to such documents. This was due to the fear of possibly confidential information being copied.

In addition, another limitation is related to the research methodology. As the process of this research was conducted by the researcher only, the data collection depended on the researcher himself. Knowing what to collect and analyse also greatly depended on the researcher's interpretation. Furthermore, the number of focus group interviews is relatively small compared to the numbers of school members. They might therefore not be representative of the whole populations in the two schools.

The last limitation also revolves around generalizability. Given the fact that this study was conducted in only two secondary schools, its findings do not allow any great degree of generalizability. Therefore, to what extent the findings from this study apply to a wider population seems hard to judge. However, the findings of this study can be transferred. This means that results of the research study can be applicable to other similar contexts. For example, the ideas of a human rights-oriented school might be transferable to other contexts including primary and higher education levels. These ideas can be adapted to their specific contexts. Schools operating within military regimes, in particular, can also adapt the model to their contexts.

7.6 Recommendations for future research

Derived from the findings of the study, some potential recommendations for future research can be made. Consequently, further research may lead to a deeper and clearer understanding of HRE in schools. Throughout this thesis, several recommendations for future research emerged, as the following.

- 1) There is a need to involve team research in this kind of study. Doing research as a team may help tackle complex and important problems. For example, team members can help conduct interviews with different groups of participants at the same time. When one particular event happens and many participants' opinions need to be explored, it is often challenging for one researcher to handle. Furthermore, due to the diverse departments in schools, the larger social network of a research team may be better than an individual researcher in collecting data.
- 2) Involving self-generated data from participants can be effective. This means the research data should not only be recorded by the researcher but could include self-report from participants, who can provide data from their own perceptions.
- 3) A longitudinal study should be conducted following this study, so that the researcher can see more patterns of behaviours, beliefs, or attitudes of the participants more efficiently. Furthermore, by collecting data over longer periods of time, it would be possible for a researcher to learn more about relationships of cause and effect in schools regarding HRE. This would allow a study of the long-term impact of HRE on the lives of students
- 4) The ideas in the study could be extended and conducted in other levels of education in Thailand. Within basic education, the study should also be carried out in primary school levels in addition to secondary school levels. Also, this should be conducted at the higher education level.
- 5) A comparative study should be employed in schools in different contexts in Thailand. These could include, for example, schools in cosmopolitan areas and rural areas, schools in areas of unrest such as the three southernmost provinces of Thailand, schools in the areas where human rights violations are high. Comparative research might broaden knowledge of how different schools have dealt with HRE. This can lead to finding out the best practices of HRE in secondary school contexts.

7.7 Closing remarks

This study sought to explore HRE in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand. It illustrated the overall picture of how HRE was embedded in the two schools. This was reflected through school documents, the school environment, teaching and learning activities, school

activities and student activities, the student council, community, and partnerships with organisations outside the schools. The findings from the two schools illustrated learning human rights lessons in the classes of Civic Duties subjects, human rights practices outside the classrooms, and a set of factors influencing HRE in the schools. Through cross-comparison between the two schools, the findings do shed light on issues related to HRE through eight key claims. These eight key claims address how human rights are implemented across the schools in the present study. It is notable to mention here that, based on the findings, these are essential elements for building schools to be human rights-oriented. These eight key claims can also serve as a catalyst to enhance the position and situation of HRE in secondary schools in Thailand. These can also be used as initial information for the further development of strategic planning, teaching techniques, and learning programmes to promote HRE in secondary education in Thailand, as well as enhancing public awareness and interest in HRE. More importantly, this study provides practical implications for the key stakeholders involved in HRE. To embed and enact HRE in secondary schools, this research enables all key stakeholders to work collaboratively to improve HRE as a whole. All key stakeholders should hold the beliefs that supporting HRE in school is necessary and that it is crucial to provide a full implementation of HRE. To wait for a high status and compulsory commitment to be given to HRE in the Thai national curriculum might take a considerable amount of time. But if all key stakeholders start working hard to support HRE in Thai schools with sincerity from this moment on, it is definitely certain that HRE will then be improved substantially.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethical approval document

Centre for Educational Studies
T 01482 465031
E e.m.mckinlay@hull.ac.uk

ETHICAL PROCEDURES FOR RESEARCH AND TEACHING
IN THE
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

FORMAL NOTIFICATION OF ETHICAL APPROVAL

Reference Number:	PGR 14/15- 225
Name:	Pitaya Thipwajana
Programme of Study:	PhD Education
Research Area/Title:	Exploring Human Rights Education in Secondary Schools in the Northeast of Thailand
Image Permission Form	not applicable
Name of Supervisor:	Dr Max Hope
Date Approved by Supervisor:	01/07/15
Date Approved by Ethics Committee:	12/08/15

 UNIVERSITY OF **Hull**

Faculty of Education Ethics Committee14-15/1



Appendix 2: Set of consent forms

Consent Form for Institutions/ Organisations

The FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE CONSENT FORM – For Institutions/Organisations

I, of

Hereby give permission for to be involved in a research study being undertaken by: Mr. Pitaya Thipwajana, PhD research student, Faculty of Education, the University of Hull and I understand that the purpose of the research is to explore the current situation of 'human rights education' in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand and that involvement for the institution means the following:-

I understand that

1. the aims, methods, and anticipated benefits, and possible risks/hazards of the research study, have been explained to me.
2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent for the institution/organisation to participate in the above research study.
5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained through this institution/organisation will not be used if I so request.
3. I understand that aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.

I agree that

4. The institution/organisation MAY / MAY NOT be named in research publications or other publicity without prior agreement.
5. I / We DO / DO NOT require an opportunity to check the factual accuracy of the research findings related to the institution/organisation.

Signature: Date:

The contact details of the researcher are: Pitaya Thipwajana, PhD Research Student
Faculty of Education, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX
Tel; +44 7466 424751, +66 8711 38727 Email: P.Thipwajana@2014.hull.ac.uk

The contact details of the secretary to the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee are **Clare McKinlay**, Research Office, Faculty of Education, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX. Email: c.m.mckinlay@hull.ac.uk tel. 01482-465031

In some cases, consent will need to be witnessed e.g. where the subject is blind/intellectually disabled. A witness must be independent of the project and may only sign a certification to the level of his/her involvement. A suggested format for witness certification is included with the sample consent forms. The form should also record the witnesses' signature, printed name and occupation. For particularly sensitive or exceptional research, further information can be obtained from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee Secretary, e.g. absence of parental consent, use of pseudonyms, etc)

Consent Form for Parents/ Guardians
THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE
CONSENT ON BEHALF OF A MINOR OR DEPENDENT PERSON

I, of:

Hereby give consent for my son / daughter / dependent to be a participant in the study to be undertaken by: Mr. Pitaya Thipwajana, PhD research student, Faculty of Education, the University of Hull, I understand that the purpose of the research is to explore the current situation of 'human rights education' in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand.

I understand that

1. the aims, methods, and anticipated benefits, and possible hazards/risks of the research study, have been explained to me.
2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent to my child's/dependant's participation in such research study.
3. I understand that aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.
4. Individual results **will not** be released to any person including medical practitioners.
5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time, during the study in which event my child's/dependant's participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained will not be used.

Signature: Date:

The contact details of the researcher are: Pitaya Thipwajana, PhD Research Student
 Faculty of Education, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX
 Tel; +44 7466 424751, +66 8711 38727 Email: P.Thipwajana@2014.hull.ac.uk

The contact details of the secretary to the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee are **Clare McKinlay**, Research Office, Faculty of Education, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX. Email: c.m.mckinlay@hull.ac.uk tel. 01482-465031.

In some cases, consent will need to be witnessed eg. where the subject is blind/intellectually disabled. A witness must be independent of the project and may only sign a certification to the level of his/her involvement. A suggested format for witness certification is included with the sample consent forms. The form should also record the witnesses' signature, printed name and occupation. For particularly sensitive or exceptional research, further information can be obtained from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee Secretary, eg, absence of parental consent, use of pseudonyms, etc)

NOTE: The parent or parents, or person(s) having guardianship of the child must sign the consent form.

Consent Form for Participants (interviews)
THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE
CONSENT FORM: (INTERVIEWS)

I, of

Hereby agree to be a participant in this study to be undertaken by: Mr. Pitaya Thipwajana, PhD research student, Faculty of Education, the University of Hull and I understand that the purpose of the research is to explore the current situation of 'human rights education' in two contrasting secondary schools in Thailand.

I understand that

1. the aims, methods, and anticipated benefits, and possible risks/hazards of the research study, have been explained to me.
2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent to my participation in such research study.
3. I understand that aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.
4. Individual results will not be released to any person except at my request and on my authorisation.
5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature: Date:

The contact details of the researcher are: Pitaya Thipwajana, PhD Research Student
 Faculty of Education, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX
 Tel; +44 7466 424751, +66 8711 38727 Email: P.Thipwajana@2014.hull.ac.uk

The contact details of the secretary to the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee are **Clare McKinlay**, Research Office, Faculty of Education, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX. Email: c.m.mckinlay@hull.ac.uk tel. 01482-465031

In some cases, consent will need to be witnessed eg. where the subject is blind/intellectually disabled. A witness must be independent of the project and may only sign a certification to the level of his/her involvement. A suggested format for witness certification is included with the sample consent forms. The form should also record the witnesses' signature, printed name and occupation. For particularly sensitive or exceptional research, further information can be obtained from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee Secretary, eg, absence of parental consent, use of pseudonyms, etc)

NOTE: In the event of a minor's consent, or person under legal liability, please complete the Ethics Committee's "Form of Consent on Behalf of a Minor or Dependent Person".

Appendix 3: Focus group interview questions

Focus group interview questions

Questions for interviewing students

1. Can you tell me about your civic duties class? What happens there?
2. What do you like and dislike in your civic duties class? Why?
3. What activities/learning activities do you normally do in your civic duties class?
4. What do you understand by the term ‘human rights’?
5. Do you think that you do anything about ‘human rights’ in your civic duties classroom?
6. What have you learned about human rights in your civic duties class? (only ask this question if they answer ‘yes’ to question 5)
7. What do you think about human rights contents in your civic duties class? (only ask this question if they answer ‘yes’ to question 5)
8. Do you think that ‘human rights’ is relevant anywhere in the rest of the school, apart from in the civics duties class?
9. Are you aware of the school council in this school?
10. If yes, what do you think that they do, and is this related to human rights?
11. Are you aware of military government policy regarding human rights education?
12. Do you agree with such policy? Why?/Why not?
13. Is there anything else that you think might be important for me to know about your experiences in this school?

Questions for interviewing members of student council

1. Can you tell me about student council in this school? What happens there?
2. Can you tell me about your role and responsibility as a member of student council?
3. What do you understand by the term ‘human rights’?
4. Is the student council aware of ‘human rights’ in the school?
5. If yes, what do you think that student council has done and they are related to human rights?
6. Does the school support the activities related to human rights? How?
7. What kind of support do you need from the school for organising or doing things related to human rights?
8. In addition to activities related to human rights done by student council, is there anything else that you think school should do more to support human rights in the school?
9. Do you think that where students can experience ‘human rights’ anywhere else in the rest of the school, apart from student council?
10. Are you aware of military government policy regarding human rights education?
11. Do you agree with such policy? Why?/Why not?
12. Is there anything else that you think might be important for me to know about your experiences in this school which is related to human rights?

Questions for interviewing school staff working related to human rights education

1. Can you tell me about your roles and other duties in the school?
2. Do your works or duties related to human rights?
3. If 'yes', what have you done related to human rights? (only ask this question if they answer 'yes' to question 2)
4. Do you judge whether what have you done related to human rights is effective?
5. If 'yes', what in particular has been effective? (only ask this question if they answer 'yes' to question 4)
6. If 'no', has anything been particularly ineffective? And why do you think this is? (only ask this question if they answer 'no' to question 4)
7. Does the school support the activities related to human rights? How?
8. What kind of support do you need from the school for organising or doing things related to human rights?
9. Are you aware of the recent government policies around human rights education?
10. What do you think about them? Do you agree or disagree? Why?
11. What are the school's responsibilities within such policies?
12. Do you judge whether such policies around human rights education are effective?
13. If 'yes', what in particular has been effective? (only ask this question if they answer 'yes' to question 12)
14. If 'no', has anything been particularly ineffective? And why do you think this is? (only ask this question if they answer 'no' to question 12)
15. Are you aware of military government policy regarding human rights education?
16. Do you agree with such policy? Why?/Why not?
17. Is there anything else that you think might be important for me to know about human rights in this school?

Appendix 4: Classroom observation form

Classroom observation form

Teacher: _____

Course _____ Level _____ Class _____

Observer: _____

Date _____ Time _____

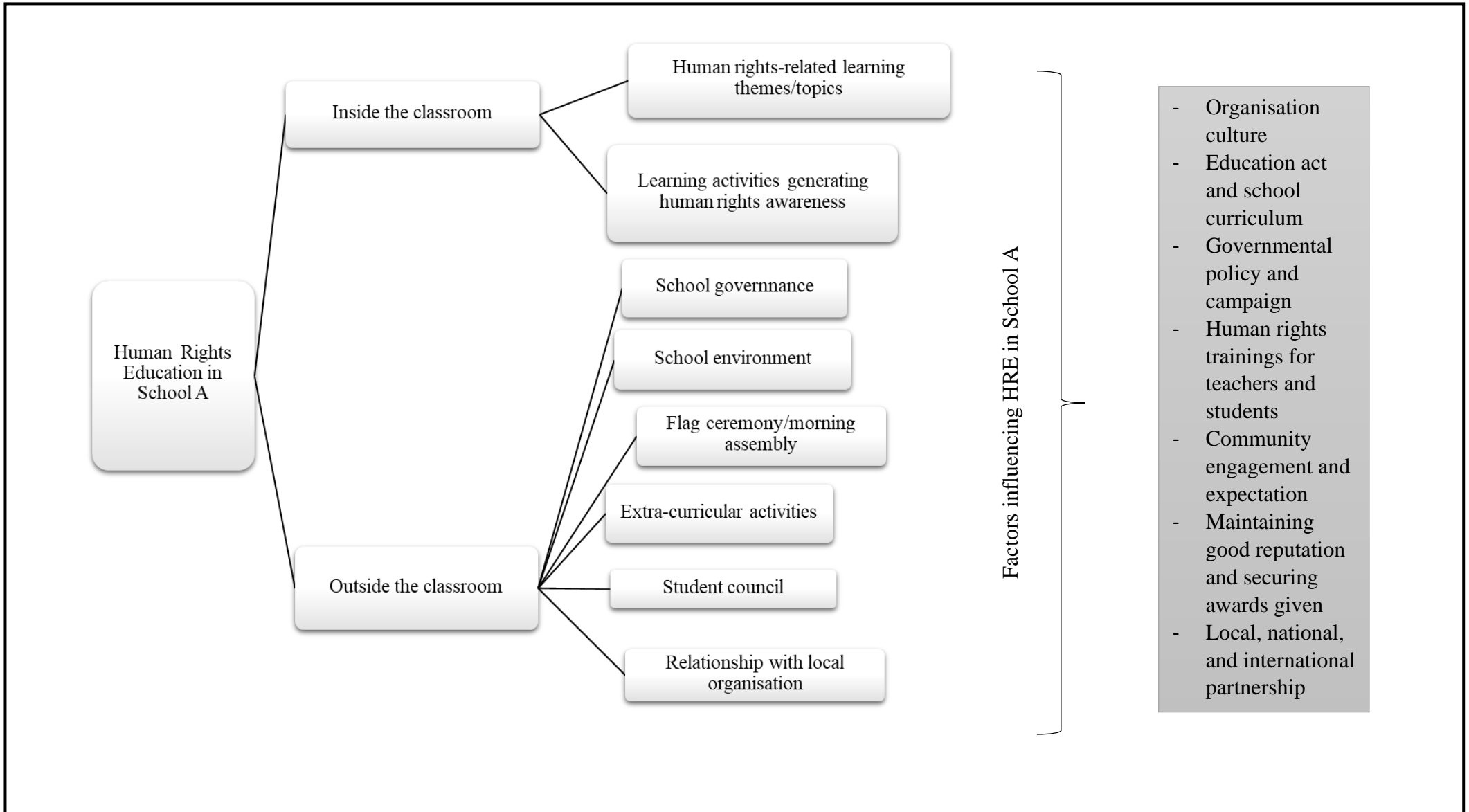
Use criteria that apply to format of class observed.

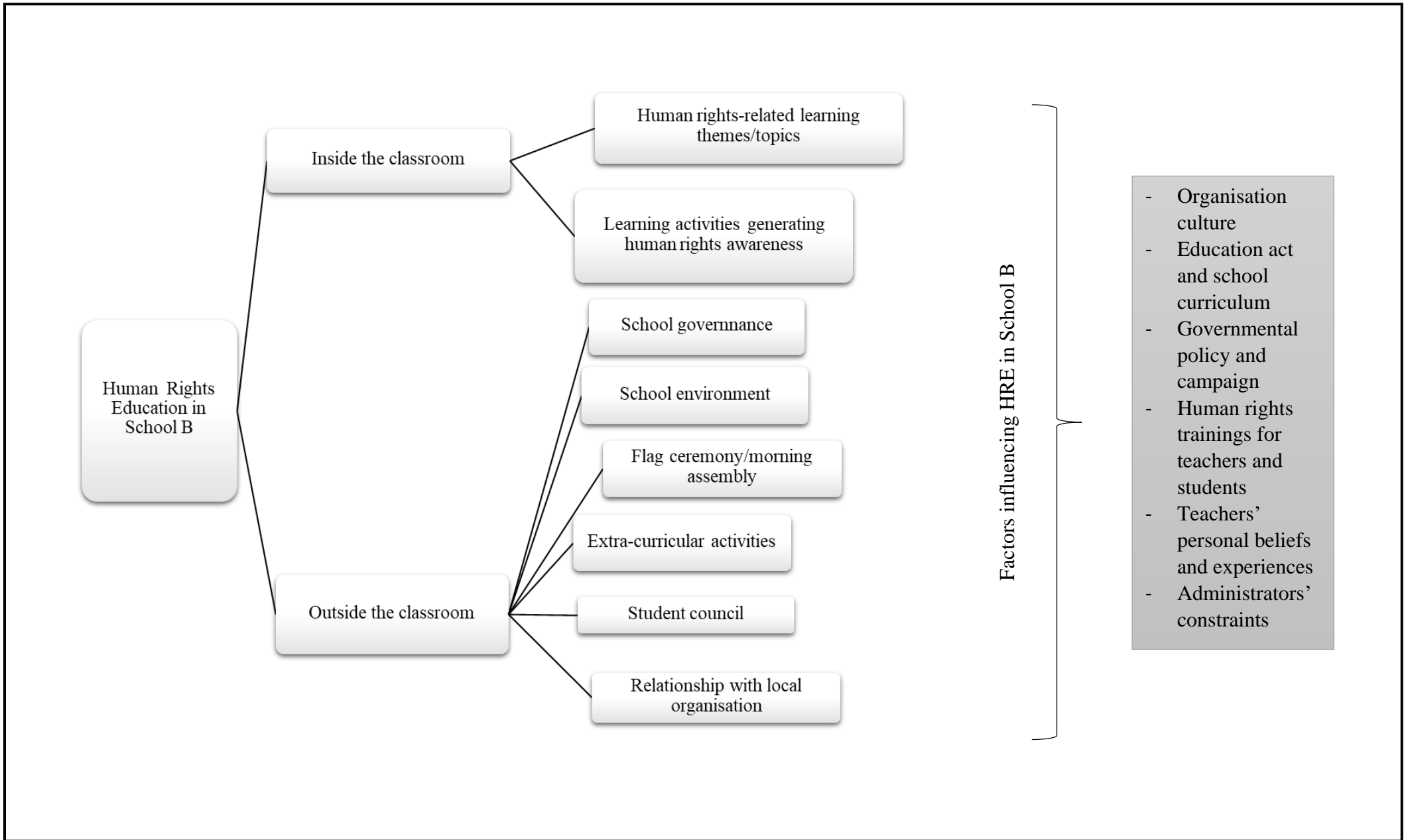
Observation criteria	Description
<p>1. SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT (Learning topics/ themes)</p>	
<p>2. ORGANISATION (organises subject matter; evidences preparation; is thorough; states clear objectives; emphasises and summarizes main points, meets class at scheduled time)</p>	
<p>3. RAPPORT (holds interest of students; is respectful, fair, and impartial; provides feedback, encourages participation; interacts with students, shows enthusiasm)</p>	
<p>4. TEACHING METHODS (uses relevant teaching methods, aids, materials, techniques, and technology; includes variety, balance, imagination, group involvement; uses examples that are simple, clear, precise, and appropriate; stays focused on and meets stated objectives)</p>	

<p>5. PRESENTATION (classroom environment conducive to learning; uses a clear voice, strong projection, proper enunciation)</p>	
<p>6. MANAGEMENT (uses time wisely; attends to course interaction; demonstrates leadership ability; maintains discipline and control; maintains effective management; classroom rules)</p>	
<p>7. SENSITIVITY (exhibits sensitivity to students' personal culture, gender differences and abilities, responds appropriately in a non-threatening, pro-active learning environment)</p>	
<p>8. ASSISTANCE TO STUDENTS (assists students with academic or personal problems)</p>	
<p>9. PHYSICAL ASPECTS OF CLASSROOM (state location and physical attributes of classroom, number of students in attendance, layout of room, distractions if any; list any observations of how physical aspects affected content delivery)</p>	

Adapted from: <https://www.isu.edu/media/libraries/college-of.../ClassroomObservationForm.doc>

Appendix 5: A summary/overview of the themes and example of coding process





Initial codes for assessing the presence and extent of a warm and caring relationship among staff in school (School A) and their allocation in different categories before merging (Adapted from Shaw (2017))

Initial codes	Category number
Sport activities for teachers	1/3
Whether any ideas or opinions raised during the school meetings were taken into account.	7
Groups of teachers share a Facebook page	1
Many projects were created based on teachers' comments.	5
Existence of a Teachers' Association in school	1/3
Grants for teachers	2
Educational school trips for teachers	2/3
All teachers are members of school council.	7
School administrators spend time after school informally chatting with teachers who work after school time.	2
Personal meetings of teachers after school time	1/3
Sufficient budgets for organising school activities	2
Teachers are allowed to directly call the school administrators any time even at night or weekend.	1/7
School administrators visit teachers at home.	1/2/4
Many professional learning communities in school	1/2/3
Birthday gifts and cards for teachers	1/2
Formal and informal recognition through public announcements for teachers with high achievement in school	5
Descriptions of teachers' outstanding work are included in the school journals.	2/5
Teachers organise school activities based on their skills and preferences.	2/7
Teachers have and know the contact numbers of all school members.	1
Many school staff parties	1/2/3
Teachers' uniforms are supported by the school	2
Teachers are allocated as Heads of Department in school on a rotating basis.	7
Teachers with expertise in one area are given the role of coaches for other colleagues.	7
Junior teachers are appointed to be the Heads of Department.	7

Initial codes	Category number
Sport activity between teachers and other organisations in the area	1/3
Kind words during the school meetings	1
Budgets for teachers' professional development	2
Awards for teachers	2/6
Exhibition of teaching innovations introduced by teachers	2/6
Food packs for teachers when staying overnight preparing for school activities or school inspections	2
Certificates for teachers who support school activities	6
School billboard with the names of teachers who have done outstanding pieces of work	6
School administrators attend all school meetings among school staff.	4/7
Open letters to school administrators	4/7
Refreshment for teachers during the school meetings	2
School administrators approach teachers personally during the flag ceremony.	1/2

Category code

1. Closeness among school staff
2. Encouragement from school
3. Social activities for school staff
4. School administrators actively listen to teachers
5. Consideration of teachers' feedback
6. Praise
7. Democratic leadership

Examples of themes and subthemes between School A and School B

School	Themes	Subthemes	Codes
School A	Organisation culture	➤ Warm and caring relationship among staff in school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Closeness among school staff - Encouragement from school - Social activities for school staff - School administrators actively listen to teachers. - Consideration of teachers' feedback - Praise - Democratic leadership
		➤ Achievement orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - School goals were applied throughout school. - Teachers were committed to school mission. - Positive attitude toward practice and learning - Performance orientation
		➤ Trust in own effectiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sense of belonging and achievement in school - Acceptance of difference among teachers - Decentralisation in school - Trusting environment
School B	Organisation culture	➤ Lack of collaboration among school staff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individual work - Different attitudes - Distance among school staff - Lack of connection - Low teachers' satisfaction in school - Low team working environment
		➤ Certain degree of complacent satisfaction in its success	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Satisfaction on school performance - Time for sharing and discussing - Comfort zone - Fear of sharing - Fear of change